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INSIGHT HISTORY

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW

STAGE 4

8

BRUCE DENNETT
STEPHEN DIXON

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CONTRIBUTIONS BY ANGELA WONG

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USING *OXFORD INSIGHT HISTORY*

Oxford Insight History has been developed and written by a team of experienced NSW teachers and educators to meet the requirements of the NSW syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History. Insight History comprehensively covers all syllabus content in order to help students successfully meet all of the required outcomes. The features, structure and design of the student book, obook and teacher kit will help you:

» optimise student understanding

» personalise teaching and learning

» deliver better results.

OPTIMISE STUDENT UNDERSTANDING

Each chapter of *Oxford Insight History* is sequenced according to the NSW History syllabus and structured around a number of key inquiry questions. Content dot points clearly map the learning sequence for students.

The learning sequence for each chapter is structured around inquiry questions and content dot points taken directly from the syllabus.

Source 8.1 A suit of armour once worn by a medieval European knight

Each topic covered in the student book is supported by a range of primary and secondary source materials designed to engage and challenge a range of students. A combination of primary and secondary sources – from artefacts, historical illustrations, photographs, timelines, and maps to songs, videos and digital interactives – provide rich learning opportunities and encouraging students develop deep understandings and transferable skills.

Source study activities expose students to a range of primary and secondary sources designed to bring the past to life. All sources are accompanied by activities that challenge students to engage with the past and develop a range of historical skills.

Review, **Interpret**, **Apply** and **Extend** tasks appear throughout each chapter providing a range of activities suited to different abilities and learning styles.

Chapter content is organised into two- or four-page units to support teaching and learning

Checkpoint activities at the end of each section are clearly identified.

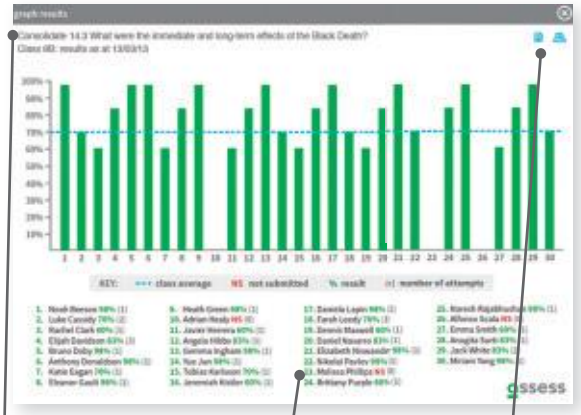
Strange but true boxes present a range of weird and wonderful historical facts designed to entertain and provoke discussion.

PERSONALISE TEACHING AND LEARNING

The new syllabus demands contemporary online learning for all students in NSW. *Oxford Insight History* delivers new opportunities for teachers and students to personalise teaching and learning through obook and assess:

» obook provides an electronic version of the student book with note-taking, highlighting, bookmarking. It includes videos, interactive learning modules and weblinks, and can be accessed both online and offline.

» assess provides 24/7 online assessment designed to support individual student progression and understanding.



Select from hundreds of auto-marking assessment tasks at various difficulty levels – foundation, standard and advanced

Monitor student participation and track performance by graphing and comparing individual and group results

Communicate with students through email and notes shared via the obook

Create your own tests tailored directly to the needs of your students or assign ready-made tests complete with marking guidelines and suggested solutions

Teachers can set students homework, tests, and tasks mapped directly to NSW syllabus outcomes

DELIVER BETTER RESULTS

Oxford Insight History helps you to deliver better results for you and your students by ensuring that student progress on all syllabus outcomes and content can be carefully monitored throughout every depth study. Features contained at the end of every section of every chapter allow you to easily identify gaps in student understanding and target further development in these areas. Student progress can be measured directly against syllabus outcomes – either formally or informally – with regular diagnostic tests and more open-ended tasks that focus on engagement and skill development.

Checkpoint questions appear at the end of every chapter section. They are linked directly to a content dot-point in the NSW History syllabus and are designed to help you identify areas of weakness in student understanding. They can be used flexibly – completed verbally in class (to support formative assessment) or set as written tests (to support summative assessment).

Rich Tasks appear at the end of every chapter section. They are more open-ended, inquiry-based tasks that often involve an element of fun. They are designed to engage students and focus them on developing specific historical skills.

8.2 CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Describe the daily lives of men, women and children in medieval Europe

1 Choose one topic from the list below. Describe the everyday experiences of men, women and children in relation to this topic. Include as many details of daily life as possible.
- Life in a castle – the daily life of a noble family
- Life in a village – the daily life of a peasant family
- Life in a medieval town – the daily life of a master craftsmen's family.

(30 marks)

» Outline the main features of crime and punishment in medieval Europe, and describe the way they changed or remained the same

2 Use a table with two columns to list examples of crimes in medieval Europe, and the punishments that could be inflicted if a person was found guilty of them. (5 marks)

3 In your table, identify punishments that continued to be used to the end of the medieval era and beyond. (5 marks)

4 Use Source 8.48 to explain the principle of a 'trial by ordeal'. Give examples of other trials by ordeal. (5 marks)

5 Discuss how the way in which a person's guilt or innocence was determined changed in the 12th century. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50

RICH TASKS

Debating crime and punishment

Have a class discussion or debate about one of these questions:

1 What code of law and punishments could be used to govern a community if there were two constraints: no purpose-built prisons, and no punishments that could inflict physical pain or lead to death?

2 Is public embarrassment or humiliation, such as the use of stocks or pillory, an effective means of punishment? Are there any situations in which public embarrassment or humiliation would be a suitable punishment today?

Source 8.48 A painting from 1471 showing a woman undergoing a trial by ordeal to prove the innocence of her dead husband

Nobleman, knight, peasant, monk?

Which social group from medieval Europe interests you most? Choose one social group from the list below. Then use information and sources from the text and your own research to present 'My month in medieval Europe'. Your presentation can be in the form of a series of diary entries, a storyboard, or a short story, or it can be in another format approved by your teacher. As well as everyday life experiences, your presentation should cover memorable events, such as a peasant's visit to a town or a craftsman's visit to a castle. Perhaps you will witness or suffer a public punishment, or a trial by ordeal?
- Nobleman or nobleman's wife, son or daughter
- Knight or squire
- Peasant or peasant's wife, son or daughter
- Monk or nun living in a monastery or abbey

1 Introduce your imaginary self, including your age, gender and social group. Say what time of year it is (important for a peasant!).

2 Conduct research on particular aspects of medieval life not covered in this chapter, such as medieval clothing and fashions, leisure and entertainment, or hygiene and medicines.

3 Include relevant sources and keep a record of sources you have used. Make sure to evaluate sources for relevance and reliability.

Source 8.49 A medieval artist's impression of the life of a peasant, representing the 12 months of the year (from top left to bottom right)

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:
» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
» Research
» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

8.2 WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE? 89

OXFORD INSIGHT HISTORY 8 AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW STAGE 4

Each **Checkpoint** is supported by a set of three separate student worksheets available in hard copy (in the photocopiable booklet sold with this Teacher Kit) or electronically (as part of the Teacher obook). These worksheets are graded to support, consolidate or extend students of different abilities and personalise learning in your class. Like Checkpoint questions, student worksheets are linked directly to content dot-points and skills from the syllabus with the goal of providing tailored support to ensure better results.

NSW SYLLABUS FOR THE AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM: CONTENT FOR STAGE 4 HISTORY

STAGE 4: THE ANCIENT WORLD TO THE MODERN WORLD

YEAR 7
THE ANCIENT WORLD
[50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]

YEAR 8
THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD
[50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]

FOCUS OF STAGE 4

The Stage 4 curriculum provides a study of the nature of history and historical sources, both archaeological and written. Students investigate ancient history from the time of the earliest human communities to the end of the ancient period (approximately 60 000 BC – c. AD 650). It was a period defined by the development of cultural practices and organised societies, including Australia, Egypt, Greece, Rome, India and China.Students study a range of depth studies from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern period (c. AD 650 – c. 1750). During this period, major civilisations around the world came into contact with each other. Social, economic, religious and political beliefs were often challenged and significantly changed, underpinning the shaping of the modern world.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

Key inquiry questions for the following three (3) The Ancient World depth studies:

- How do we know about the ancient past?
- Why and where did the earliest societies develop?
- What emerged as the defining characteristics of ancient societies?
- What have been the legacies of ancient societies?

Key inquiry questions for the following three (3) The Ancient to the Modern World Depth Studiesare:

- How did societies change from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern age?
- What key beliefs and values emerged and how did they influence societies?
- What were the causes and effects of contact between societies in this period?
- Which significant people, groups and ideas from this period have influenced the world today?

OVERVIEWS

YEAR 7

The overview is approximately 10% of teaching time of The Ancient World. The overview may be taught separately or may be integrated with the depth studies.

Students briefly outline:

- the theory that people moved out of Africa around 60 000 years ago and migrated to other parts of the world including Australia
- the evidence for the emergence and establishment of ancient societies, including art, iconography, writing, tools and pottery
- key features of ancient societies (farming, trade, social classes, religion, rule of law)

YEAR 8

The overview is approximately 10% of teaching time of The Ancient to the Modern World. The overview may be taught separately or may be integrated with the depth studies.

Students briefly outline:

- the transformation of the Roman world and the spread of Christianity and Islam
- key features of the medieval world (feudalism, trade routes, voyages of discovery, religion, contact and conflict)
- the emergence of ideas about the world and the place of people in it by the end of the period (such as the Renaissance, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment).

DEPTH STUDIES

YEAR 7 There are three (3) Ancient World depth studies.	YEAR 8 There are three (3) Ancient to the Modern World depth studies.
DEPTH STUDY 1 Investigating the Ancient Past (including ancient Australia) Core study – mandatory for all students	**DEPTH STUDY 4** **The Western and Islamic World.** ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 4a › The Vikings OR Topic 4b › Medieval Europe OR Topic 4c › The Ottoman Empire OR Topic 4d › Renaissance Italy
DEPTH STUDY 2 **The Mediterranean World.** ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 2a › Egypt OR Topic 2b › Greece OR Topic 2c › Rome	**DEPTH STUDY 5** **The Asia-Pacific World**. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 5a › Angkor/Khmer Empire OR Topic 5b › Japan under the Shoguns OR Topic 5c › The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific
DEPTH STUDY 3 **The Asian World**. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 3a › India OR Topic 3b › China	**DEPTH STUDY 6** **Expanding Contacts**. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 6a › Mongol expansion OR Topic 6b › The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa OR Topic 6c › The Spanish Conquest of the Americas OR Topic 6d › Aboriginal and Indigenous Peoples, Colonisation and Contact History

HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

Continuity and change: some aspects of a society, event or development change over time and others remain the same, e.g. the rise and fall of ancient civilisations; changes in religious beliefs or ideas; continuity of aspects of everyday life across centuries.
Cause and effect: events, decisions and developments in the past that produce later actions, results or effects, e.g. the causes of the 'fall' of the Roman empire and its effects; the reasons for and results of the Crusades.
Perspectives: people from the past may have had different views shaped by their different experiences, e.g. the conquest of the Americas would be viewed differently by an Inca noble and a Spanish conqueror; the arrival of the First Fleet would be viewed differently by a British naval captain and an Aboriginal elder.
Empathetic understanding: the ability to understand another's point of view, way of life and decisions made in a different period of time or society, e.g. an understanding of why medieval villagers believed the Black Death was sent by God as punishment; why ancient Egyptians believed their kings were divine.
Significance: the importance of an event, development, group or individual and their impact on their times or later periods, e.g. the importance/impact of the Viking invasions on the British Isles; the significance of the Black Death for medieval societies
Contestability: how historians may dispute a particular interpretation of an historical source, historical event or issue, e.g. did the Roman empire 'fall', were the Mongols 'bloodthirsty conquerors', did the British 'settle' or 'invade' Australia?

HISTORICAL SKILLS

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts	• read and understand historical texts • sequence historical events and periods (ACHHS205, ACHHS148) • use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS206, ACHHS149)
Analysis and use of sources	• identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS209, ACHHS152) • locate, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence (ACHHS210, ACHHS153) • draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources (ACHHS211, ACHHS154)
Perspectives and interpretations	• identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
Empathetic understanding	• interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
Research	• ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry (ACHHS207, ACHHS150) • identify and locate a range of relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS208, ACHHS151) • use a range of communication forms and technologies
Explanation and communication	• develop historical texts, particularly explanations and historical arguments that use evidence from a range of sources (ACHHS213, ACHHS156) • select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written and digital) to communicate effectively about the past (ACHHS214, ACHHS157)

PART 4

The gold Hunterston Brooch dates from the early 8th century in northern Scotland. A scratched inscription on its back is written in Old Norse runes, evidence of Viking influence on the local culture.

THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLDS: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 4: THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLDS

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

THE VIKINGS 7 CHAPTER

MEDIEVAL EUROPE 8 CHAPTER

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE 9 CHAPTER

RENAISSANCE ITALY 10 CHAPTER

THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD

The period from *c.* AD 650 to *c.* 1750 marked the end of the ancient world and the beginning of the modern world. It was a time of great change. New societies and civilisations started and new religions emerged and spread. Traditional ways of thinking about the world were challenged as new ideas developed in the areas of art, politics, literature, religion, science and technology.

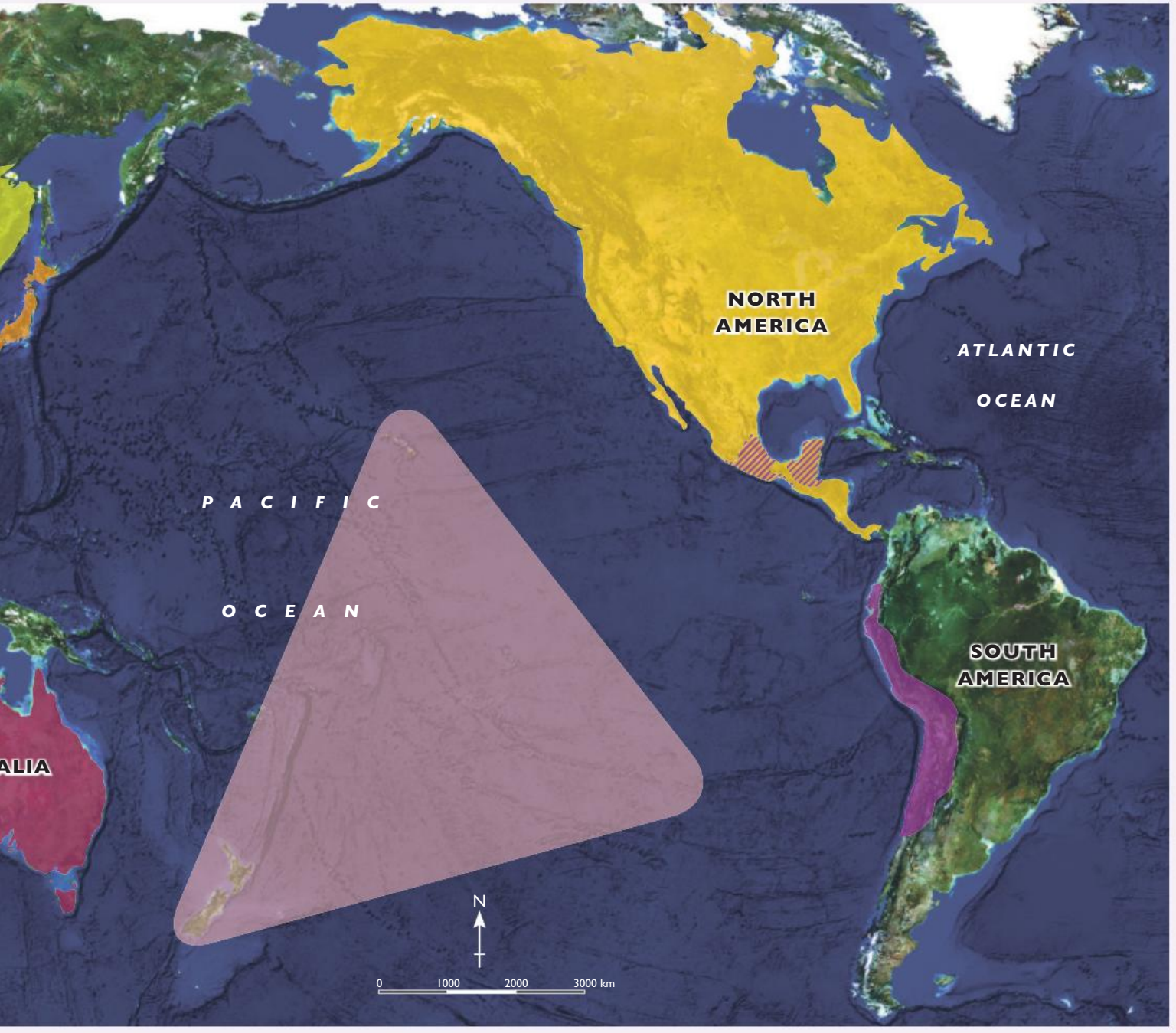
In ancient times, much of Europe and Asia was under the control of powerful empires. During this period, many of these ancient empires collapsed because of the pressures and costs of wars, corrupt governments or migration. The fall of these powerful empires

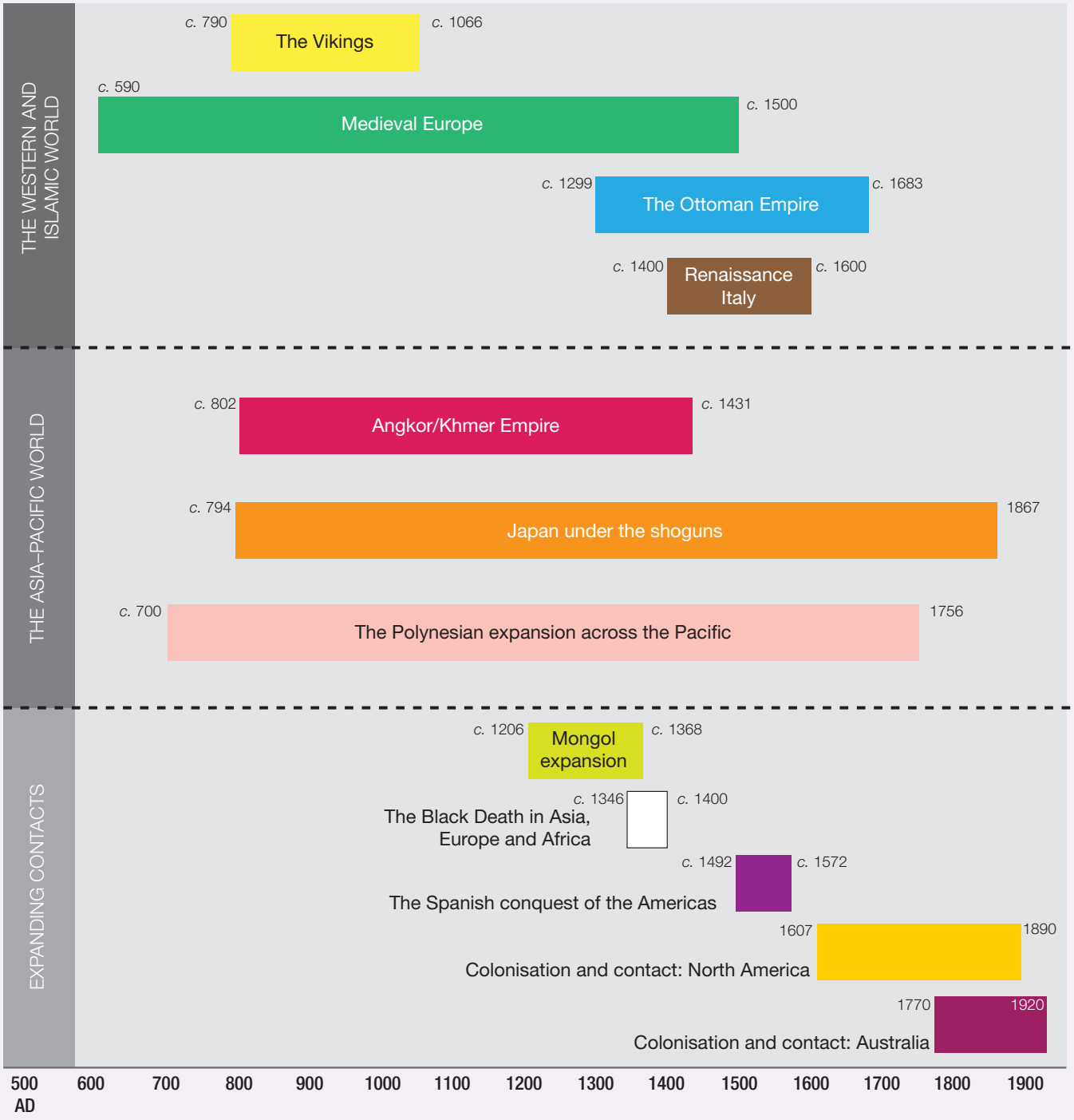
Source 0.1 This satellite image of Earth shows the location and size of key civilisations and societies that can be studied in 'The ancient to the modern world'.

left room for different groups of people to move into their territories. These tribal groups migrated in search of riches or new lands to settle in.

Some new societies and civilisations were founded peacefully by tribal groups, while others were founded after bloody battles with other groups who competed with them for new territories.

In 'The ancient to the modern world', you will be studying a number of these civilisations and societies in detail. Source O.1 shows the location and size of the civilisations and societies, events and developments you can learn about this year. The timeline in this overview, Source O.2, shows the dates for these key civilisations and developments, and provides an outline for each of them.





Source 0.2 A timeline showing the dates of the rise and fall of key civilisations and societies, events and developments in 'The ancient to the modern world'.

The Vikings

The Vikings were a people from Scandinavia who expanded their wealth by raiding neighbouring societies. They were skilled sailors and fearsome warriors. They settled or conquered territories stretching from modern-day Britain to the Ukraine.

Medieval Europe

The medieval period in Europe lasted about 1000 years. An important feature of medieval Europe was a system for organising society known as feudalism. Along with the spread of Christianity, feudalism maintained stability across Europe for many centuries.

The Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire was founded by a Turkish tribal group, whose leaders fought a series of military campaigns to build a great empire. Its territories stretched across Europe, Asia and Africa.

Renaissance Italy

The stability in Italy from 1400 to 1600 provided the right environment for a rebirth of the ideas and values from classical Rome and Greece. Renaissance is a French word meaning 'rebirth'. The arts and sciences flourished in Renaissance Italy.

The Angkor/Khmer Empire

The Khmer Empire was settled in a region called Angkor in what is now Cambodia. The society was built around rice cultivation. It followed the Indian religions of Hinduism and Buddhism, and the Khmer people built many elaborate temples to honour their gods.

Japan under the shoguns

In medieval Japan, the most powerful military leaders became known as shoguns. These shoguns ruled Japan for over 700 years. Although people worshipped their emperor as a god, the shogun held all the power.

The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific

The Polynesians originated in modern-day south-east Asia and navigated in canoes to settle thousands of islands scattered across the Pacific Ocean. They created many different societies on different islands.

Mongol expansion

The Mongols were originally nomadic herders who followed seasonal food sources. They were skilled horsemen living in tribal groups who, around 1206, united to form a great army that conquered vast territories across much of Asia and eastern Europe.

The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa

The Black Death was a devastating plague that killed tens of millions of people across Asia, Europe and Africa. The loss of life had significant consequences for peoples in these societies, including the weakening of the feudal system in Europe.

The Spanish conquest of the Americas

As the medieval period was drawing to an end in Europe, the Spanish, spurred on by the prospect of gold and other riches, began a mission to conquer and plunder the civilisations of the Aztec and Inca in the Americas, with devastating effects.

Colonisation and contact in North America and Australia

European explorers to the New World were followed by waves of settlers. The Aboriginal and Indigenous peoples on the continents of North America and Australia suffered from introduced diseases, conflicts and dispossession from their traditional lands.

APPLY 0.1

1 What do you already know about the civilisations and societies, events and developments that you can study in 'The ancient to the modern world'? Use a graphic organiser to summarise your current knowledge about each of these topics. Then share your ideas in a class discussion.

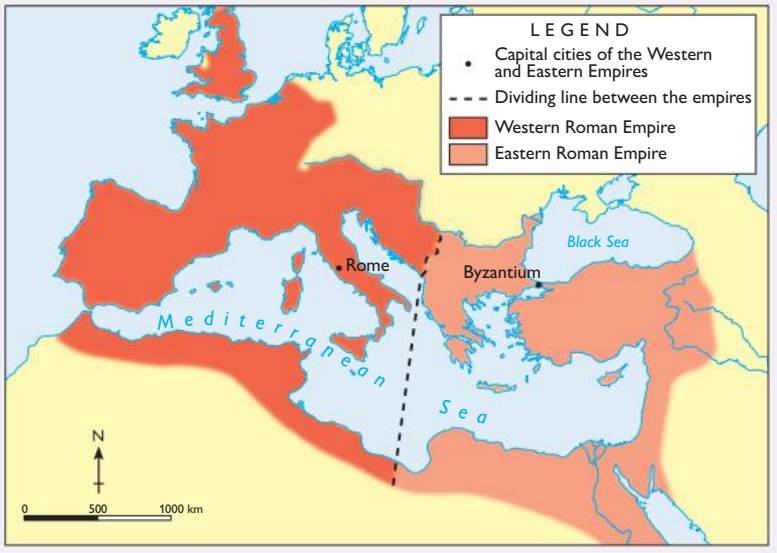
2 Why do you think it might be important to learn about these civilisations or developments? Provide at least one reason for each topic.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE ROMAN WORLD

Empires collapse for a number of reasons, including wars, natural disasters, invasions, disease, food shortages, government corruption and poor leadership. The collapse of the Roman Empire was a combination of these reasons.

The extent of the Roman Empire

The period of the ancient Roman civilisation stretched from 753 BC to AD 476, reaching its peak around AD 117. At that time, the territories controlled by the Roman Empire stretched from Britain to northern Africa, and from modern-day Portugal to modern-day Iraq. After seizing power in 284, the emperor Diocletian split the Roman Empire into two parts because he felt the empire was too large to be ruled from one central point. Rome continued to be the capital of the Western Roman Empire, and Byzantium (modern-day Istanbul) became the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire (see Source O.3). But even this drastic action did not provide the stability that Diocletian hoped for. In the 4th century AD, rival emperors competed for power, while tribal peoples – including the Vandals, Goths and Huns – attacked the empire's frontiers.



Source O.3 The division of the Roman Empire

Source O.4 An artist's impression of the sacking of Rome by invading barbarians in 476

The end of Rome's control in the West

After the death of Emperor Constantine in 337, the empire was in turmoil. Civil wars broke out as different men competed to become emperor. Thousands of Roman soldiers died. To replace them, the army recruited people from outside the empire – people whom the Romans referred to as 'barbarians' (which simply means 'foreigner'). Meanwhile, other groups of barbarians were attacking Roman settlements. In 476, the Ostrogoths attacked the city of Rome, which led to the end of the Western Roman Empire. The Eastern Roman Empire, which became known as the **Byzantine Empire**, would continue until 1453.

After the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, the barbarian tribes moved and settled across the territories that Rome had once controlled. Source O.5 shows the movements of different groups across Europe in the 4th and 5th centuries.

Source 0.5 This satellite image shows the approximate movements of tribal groups across Europe during the 4th and 5th centuries AD.

APPLY 0.2

1 Examine Source 0.5 and write a statement that outlines the movement of peoples across Europe in the 4th and 5th centuries AD.

EXTEND 0.1

1 Conduct research to find out about one of the tribal groups in Source 0.5. Where did they originate and where did they travel to and settle? What were key aspects of their culture and way of life?

The spread of Christianity and Islam

For ordinary people living in Europe, the collapse of the Western Roman Empire meant they no longer had the protection of Rome's army against barbarian attacks. Christianity offered hope during this difficult time. Christian missionaries travelled great distances to convert others, including the Germanic tribes. The Roman Catholic Church came to dominate European society. Its teachings strongly influenced how people should live their lives.

Islam was founded by the Prophet Muhammad. His teachings spread quickly. When he died in 632, the Arabian Peninsula was already an Islamic region. The spiritual leaders who succeeded Muhammad continued to spread his teachings across a growing Islamic Empire. The Islamic Empire eventually included most of Asia Minor, northern Africa and Spain. Islamic missionaries and traders spread the Islamic faith eastwards, to India and then to Indonesia. Source O.6 shows the regions across Europe, Asia Minor and Africa that were Christian or Muslim lands.

Source O.6 Christian and Muslim lands in the early 11th century

APPLY O.3

1 Read the section 'The importance of the Church in medieval Europe' in Chapter 8. Why did the Church have such a dominant influence of people's everyday lives, and why was the Pope (the head of the Church) so powerful?

2 Use your own knowledge of Christian and Muslim beliefs, as well as further research you conduct, to outline the key beliefs and values of these religions.

KEY FEATURES OF THE MEDIEVAL WORLD

Feudalism

Feudalism was a social system based on the **hierarchical** relationships between social groups. In a hierarchy, groups are strictly structured from top to bottom, and usually from richest to poorest. In medieval Europe, feudalism developed after the period of violence and uncertainty following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire. Ordinary people could no longer rely on the Empire and its soldiers to protect them against barbarian attacks. Instead, they looked to the wealthy and powerful lords in their own area to provide protection on their lands, in return for service. They farmed the lord's land, looked after his livestock and provided him with payments of food, money and other services. Peasants had to obey their lord, who might be a nobleman or senior churchman. They were were tied to his land, and so were not allowed to move away from his manor land where they lived.

A lord's manor lands were granted to him by a king or a more senior noble in return for his loyalty, taxes and military support. In medieval Europe, kings claimed all the land in their kingdom. However, they did not have the means to have a standing army to defend their kingdom from raiders or invaders. Instead, kings granted land to noblemen or senior churchmen, such as bishops. They became his **vassals**. In other words, they owed him their loyalty and had other obligations, chiefly a set number of days of military service. A nobleman would grant some of the land under his control to his own vassals, such as **knights**, who would owe him military support when called upon. With a grant of land, a knight could support his family and afford the horses, armour and weapons needed to fulfil his obligations as a fighting man for his lord.

Source 0.7 An illustration depicting peasants working on their lord's land to fulfil their feudal obligations

Source 0.8 An illustration from a 14th-century manuscript showing two knights jousting

APPLY 0.4

1 Use a diagram to explain the system of feudalism, including the obligations between the different social groups – between kings and nobles, between nobles and peasants, and between nobles and knights.

2 Read the section 'Knights and medieval warfare' in Chapter 8. What made the mounted knight such a powerful force in medieval battles? What changes in weapons technology and tactics led to the decline of a knight's worth and effectiveness by the 15th century?

Contacts and conflicts between societies

People in the medieval world were in contact with each other for a variety of reasons. Peaceful contacts came through trade, within Western Europe and between the societies in the East and West. Wars and other conflicts were just as common as peaceful contact. The causes of conflicts varied. Some were the result of a desire to expand territories and gain resources by conquering other peoples. Sometimes, groups would enter conflict if one attempted to convert the other to their religion. Conflicts were often the result of a combination of causes.

Whatever the cause or the result, wars and other conflicts changed all societies that were involved. Wars brought death, disease and destruction. They could also have more positive effects, such as contributing to an exchange of ideas between cultures. A significant example was the exchange of cultures when Christian crusaders returned to Europe from the **Holy Land**. They brought with them new goods, foods and ideas that changed European society in many positive ways.

Source 0.9 An artist's impression of a battle from the First Crusade

APPLY 0.5

1 In a group, read about the major conflicts in this period of study:

- The Battle of Hastings, Chapter 8
- The Crusades, Chapter 8
- The Fall of Constantinople, Chapter 9
- The Conquest of Tenochtitlan, Chapter 16

For each conflict, create a presentation that includes sources to identify the dates and the location of these conflicts and the societies involved. Who was on the winning side and why? What was the impact for the winners and losers?

Trade routes over land and sea

In addition to conflicts, trade was one of the main reasons why medieval societies came into contact with one another. Trade was not only a way of exchanging different goods; it also resulted in the spreading and sharing of ideas, beliefs and aspects of culture.

After the fall of the Roman Empire in Western Europe, trade declined. Barbarian raids meant travel and trade were difficult and risky. In contrast, the Byzantine Empire in Eastern

Europe and a number of Islamic empires across Arabia were flourishing. Muslim sea traders pushed into the Indian Ocean, developing trade routes to the Indies (Indonesia and Malaysia) and China.

Around AD 1000, trade grew dramatically within Europe as barbarian raids across Western Europe became less frequent. The population began to increase and new towns were established. Roads were built between towns and ports, and money started to be used in trade.

The Silk Road became a vital trade route between East and West. This was a 6500-kilometre-long network of trade routes connecting Asia and Europe. During the 14th century, Mongol rulers protected the route and ensured safe passage for merchants, which greatly helped trade.

By the 13th century, trading ports in modern-day Italy – such as Venice, Genoa and Florence – became busy commercial centres. The **Renaissance** (which means 'rebirth') was a time when classical learning from ancient Greece and Rome flourished in the 15th and 16th centuries. This 'rebirth' was centred on these prosperous Italian cities.

Trade could be a way of spreading disease. During the 14th century, a devastating and deadly plague known as the **Black Death** spread across Europe, Asia and Africa. It is believed that the Black Death was introduced into Europe from Asia, by traders moving along the Silk Road and sea routes from east to west.

Source 0.10 A 14th-century artist's impression showing the father and uncle of Italian explorer Marco Polo travelling across Asia on the Silk Road

Source 0.11 A medieval illustration showing the counting of money

APPLY 0.6

1 Study Source 15.22 in Chapter 15, which shows trade routes in the 14th century. Answer the questions in Review 15.6.
2 Conduct research on the Silk Road to create a presentation that shows the routes taken by traders, and the types of goods traded both ways between East and West.
3 Find the cities of Venice, Genoa and Florence on a map of Europe. Use your observations to explain why these cities became centres of trade and cultural exchange.
4 Suggest why money came to replace barter as a means of trade.

Source 0.12 A 16th-century engraving shows Christopher Columbus' landing on Hispaniola, an island in the Caribbean that most historians agree is the site of the first European colony in the New World

Voyages of discovery

In the 15th and 16th centuries, European rulers were eager to increase their trade and expand their territories. This meant finding new markets and faster ways to reach those markets. By this time, trade along the Silk Road was starting to be slow and expensive, mainly because the power of the Mongol Empire had weakened and it could no longer protect travellers along the route.

The Spanish, Portuguese, English, Dutch and French began to invest money in ocean-going ships to discover unknown parts of the world. They also wanted to find new trade routes across the oceans to India and China. These voyages of discovery changed societies around the world. Explorers such as Christopher Columbus 'discovered' the Americas, opening up new markets and lands to conquer and colonise. Cities and towns in Europe grew in size and wealth as precious metals, furs, silk, tea, timber and spices poured in from around the world. New foods and goods such as potatoes, tomatoes and tobacco were introduced to Europe from the Americas.

Europe's great trading empires were built when monarchs and merchants prospered. Powerful men and women amassed fortunes from the gold and silver shipped back to Europe from the New World, from wealth gained through trade, and through the use of fertile lands that were once the homelands of Indigenous peoples in the Americas, Africa and Asia.

APPLY 0.7

1. Read the section 'Spanish exploration and conquest' in Chapter 16 then complete the activity in Apply 16.4.
2. Conduct research to find out more about the 'age of exploration' that began in the 15th century. Choose an individual who played a significant role, such as Christopher Columbus, Francis Drake, Vasco da Gama or Ferdinand Magellan. Create a presentation to explain why you think this individual was a significant figure in changing world history.
3. Europeans were not the only sailors exploring distant parts of the world. Conduct research to find out about the journeys of the Arab traveller Ibn Battuta (1307–1377) and the Chinese explorer Zheng He (1371–1435).

THE EMERGENCE OF NEW IDEAS

From around the late 13th century, new ideas started to change people's beliefs about the world and their place in it. They challenged existing beliefs – the teachings of the Church that were the dominant influence on society in medieval Europe.

The Renaissance

The period known as the Renaissance lasted from the 14th century to the 16th century. It was centred around a group of **city–states** that are now part of modern-day Italy. These cities, including Florence and Venice, had become great centres of trade and commerce. Their merchants and noble families were wealthy enough to become patrons, who commissioned artworks and buildings, and provided the livelihoods of artists and scholars.

The Renaissance began when artists and scholars became interested in studying 'classical' art and literature. That is, they rediscovered the great writings, art and architecture of ancient Greece and Rome. They were also influenced by knowledge and ideas about science and medicine gained from the Islamic civilisations. These ideas were introduced through European merchants who had contact with Islamic and Asian societies through trade. As a consequence of these new influences, people began to work out ways of thinking for themselves, rather than just accepting the Church's teaching.

During the Renaissance, scientific knowledge increased rapidly. Many of the people, ideas and inventions of the Renaissance went on to significantly influence the world we live in now.

New ideas about the potential of human ability

In medieval times, the teachings and rituals of the Church touched almost every aspect of life for people in European societies. A way of thinking, known as **humanism**, developed during the Renaissance and challenged the Church's dominant influence.

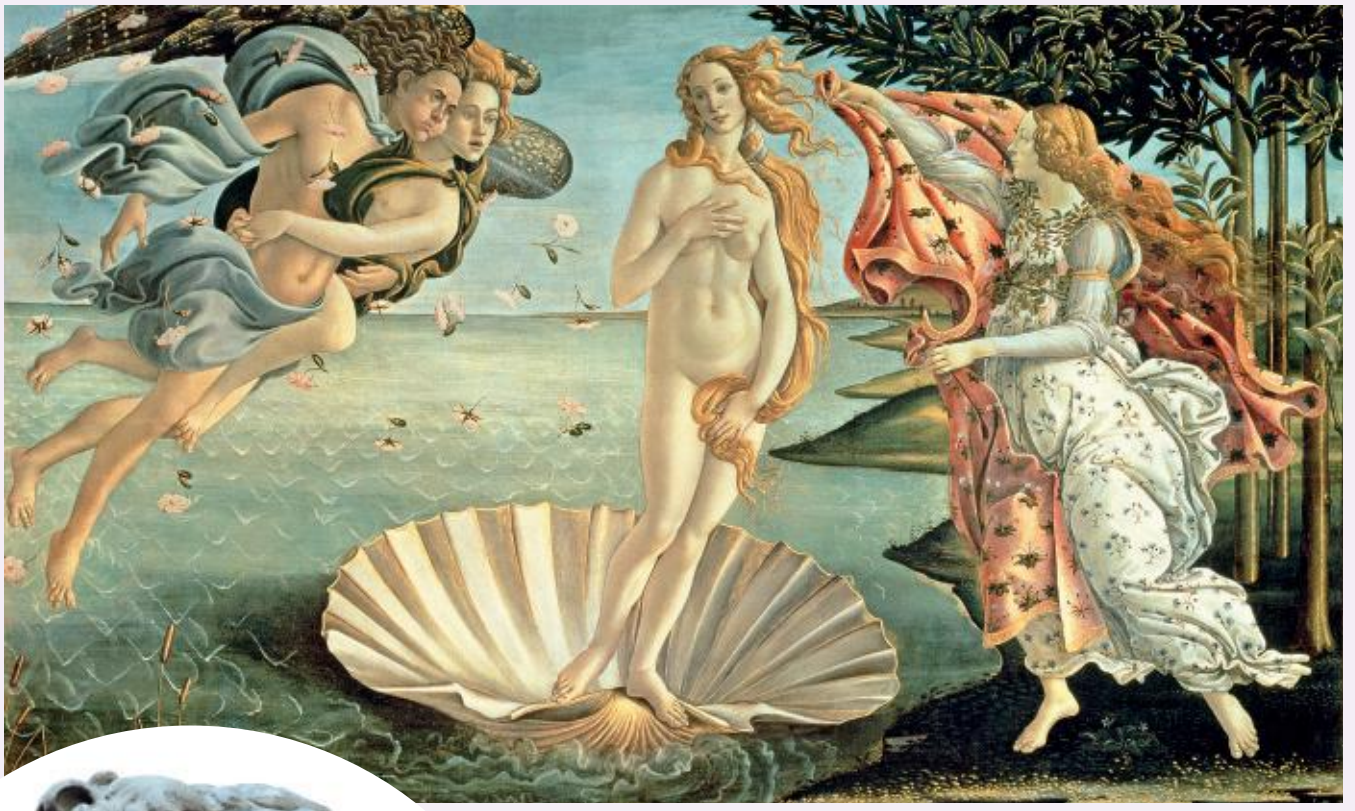
Humanism placed emphasis on human actions, achievements and responsibilities, particularly the ability of people to make decisions based on reason and logic. This contrasted with the way people had previously viewed their lives, as a preparation for reaching heaven. The Church had taught people that if they did not following Church teaching and rule, they would not go to heaven. Humanism challenged this.

All aspects of the Renaissance were influenced by humanist ideas, which inspired artists, scholars, politicians, merchants and explorers to use their abilities in the service of their society.

Source 0.13 Detail from a 1490 illustration of the city of Florence

New ideas in the arts

Early medieval art was two-dimensional and focused on recreating religious scenes. Renaissance artists developed techniques such as perspective, so that people and objects looked realistic in terms of size and proportion. A technique to balance light and shadow also achieved realistic effects. They appreciated the beauty of the human form, and Renaissance sculptures were created in poses that were similar to classical Greek and Roman sculptures.



Source 0.14 Botticelli's *Birth of Venus*

Source 0.15 Detail from Michelangelo's sculpture *David*

The Scientific Revolution

Renaissance scholars made great advances in many areas of science and medicine. They applied logic and reason to explain the natural world, using their own observations rather than relying on Churchmen's interpretations. Their studies led to new ideas and theories about the nature of the universe, such as the work by Nicolas Copernicus and Galileo Galilei which asserted that the Earth revolved around the Sun. Another field of knowledge that was revolutionised during the Renaissance was human anatomy. Human bodies were dissected and studied for the first time by the physician and academic Andreas Vesalius, and also studied by the ideal 'Renaissance man' – the artist, painter and inventor Leonardo da Vinci.

The period of scientific advancement, which came with the development of the 'scientific method' and advances in technology, is also known as the **Scientific Revolution**. It began during the Renaissance in the 16th century and continued after the Renaissance into the 17th century.

During the Scientific Revolution, new theories emerged in areas such as astronomy, physics, biology and medicine. The spread of knowledge and ideas in this period was greatly helped by Gutenberg's invention of the printing press in the mid-15th century.

The principles of the scientific method, based on reasoning, also influenced thinkers in the period known as the Enlightenment.

The Enlightenment

The Enlightenment refers to the period, starting around 1650, when ideas emerged that were based on reason rather than religion. Scholars in this period used reason to gain an understanding of the universe and natural world. The works of Enlightenment thinkers also focused on religion, society, government and human advancement.

Source 0.16 Leonardo da Vinci's sketches and notes from his anatomy studies

Important thinkers of the Enlightenment included the French writer Voltaire, and the English philosopher John Locke. They and other Enlightenment thinkers challenged the rule and privileges of kings, nobles and the Church. They also believed in the potential of individuals to improve themselves and their society. These thinkers influenced the French and American revolutions and the development of the ideas behind the democratic system of government in the modern world.

APPLY 0.8

1 Read the section 'Ideas and events influencing the Renaissance' in Chapter 10. Answer the questions in Review 10.3.
2 Conduct research to select and investigate a significant individual of the Renaissance. Describe their most important achievements and their influence or legacy in the modern world.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The term 'scientist' was used for the first time in 1833, at a meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. Before this, people who studied the natural world were known as 'natural philosophers'.

THE WESTERN AND ISLAMIC WORLD

Although Western Europe and the Islamic world developed separately, between *c.* AD 590 and 1683, there were links between the two and their histories often overlapped. In this course, you have the opportunity to explore these links through your study of the Vikings, medieval Europe, the Ottoman Empire or Renaissance Italy. You will learn about the key features of these societies, as well as the significant individuals, events and achievements that would have an impact on the way that the modern world developed. Along the way you will learn about:

- Leif Ericson, the first European explorer to land on North America
- Charlemagne I, ruler of a medieval kingdom that rose to dominate Western Europe, ensuring that Christianity would be its religion
- Suleiman the Magnificent, who ruled the Ottoman Empire at the height of its power
- Leonardo da Vinci, the ideal of a 'Renaissance man', skilled as a painter, sculptor, scientist, engineer and inventor.

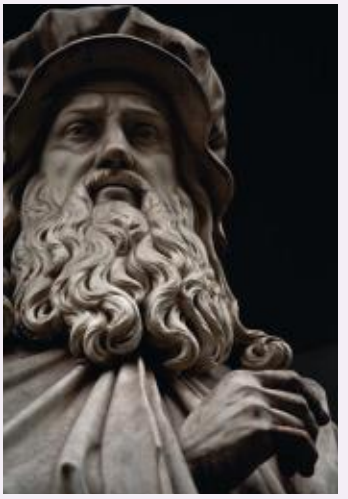
STRANGE BUT TRUE

Although the French croissant (crescent) we know today was first made in the mid-19th century, many believe it was first developed in Vienna in 1683, to celebrate the defence of Vienna against the Ottoman Empire. The crescent moon is an Islamic symbol, so eating it would have been very insulting. Because of this legend, some Islamic religious leaders have banned the croissant.

LINKS BETWEEN THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLD

From the end of the 8th century, the Vikings travelled to trade and raid far from their homelands in north-western Europe (modern-day Scandinavia), reaching as far east as Constantinople. At its height in the 17th century, the Islamic Ottoman Empire expanded west and ruled over Greece and parts of Eastern Europe. Peoples from the Western and Islamic worlds lived in and fought over the shores of the Mediterranean. At times they lived side-by-side in peace, and there was an exchange of culture and ideas, as well as an exchange of goods in trade. At other times, they fought.

The most famous military clashes between the Western and Islamic worlds were the times of the Crusades, a series of conflicts that broke out between AD 1096 and 1291. One of the legacies of the Crusades was the introduction of Islamic ideas about science and the arts to Europe, brought back by returning Crusaders. Some historians argue that this triggered the Renaissance – the revival of arts and learning in the West that marked the end of the medieval period.



Source 0.17 Significant individuals from the Western and Islamic World: Viking explorer Leif Ericson, Emperor Charlemagne, Ottoman Sultan Suleiman I and 'Renaissance man' Leonardo da Vinci

BELIEF SYSTEMS AND RELIGIONS

The belief systems and religious teachings in each of the societies studied in the Western and Islamic world influenced almost every aspect of life. This section provides an introduction to these key beliefs and values, and explores their similarities and differences.

Viking gods

The traditional belief system of the Vikings was very different from Christian beliefs. Instead of worshipping one god, the Vikings worshipped many different gods and goddesses. There were gods that watched over the successful harvest of crops and others that looked after love, health, family and fertility. Others were relied on for success in battle and wars, the most important being Odin, the king of the Viking gods and the god of war.

The traditional stories Vikings told about gods, giants and monsters are known as Viking (or Norse) mythology. Norse mythology influenced many aspects of Viking society. For example, when a warrior died valiantly in battle, he was believed to go to Valhalla – a grand hall in the Viking equivalent of heaven – where dead heroes feasted at long tables.

Unlike Christians across medieval Europe, the Vikings did not really have a positive or negative view of the afterlife. Many believed that the dead travelled to a place called *Hel* or *Niflheim*. Important and wealthy Vikings were often cremated (burned) and then buried in longships with items to accompany them into the afterlife, such as horses, clothing, weapons.

Source 0.18 An artist's impression of the chief Viking god, Odin (left), feasting with the spirits of Viking war heroes in Valhalla

Towards the end of the Viking era in the 11th century, most people in the Viking homelands gave up their traditional beliefs and converted to Christianity.

Christian beliefs in medieval Europe

In medieval Europe, people's understanding of the world was dominated by their Christian beliefs. Christianity was based on the teachings of Jesus Christ as recorded in the Old and New Testaments of the Bible. During the medieval period in Western Europe, Catholicism was the only official religion. The Church, led by the Pope in Rome, played a dominant role in the lives of all people – from the richest to the poorest.

It was not uncommon for people to pray up to five times a day, and everyone attended mass on Sunday to praise God. The Church taught that living according to the word of God and abiding by Church rituals would ensure that a person's soul would go to heaven. The alternative would be an eternity in hell.

Churches, cathedrals, monasteries and nunneries were built everywhere, and they played an important role in the community. They provided education, health care and spiritual guidance and support. Since most people could not read, their understanding of the world was shaped by the teachings of the priests of the Church.

Source 0.19 A 14th-century painting shows a bishop preaching to a congregation

Religion in the Ottoman Empire

Almost 300 years after the end of the Viking age, another group of independent tribal communities – this time Turkish – established an empire. In the Ottoman Empire, as it became known, the religion of Islam had significant influence on the lives of its followers. Muslims believe in one god, Allah, and his prophet Muhammad who brought Allah's message to the people. Muhammad's teachings were collected after his death and published in a book called the Qur'an.

According to the Qur'an, Muslims across the Ottoman Empire were forbidden to drink alcohol, had to fast (go without food) from dawn to dusk during the holy month of Ramadan, were expected to give a portion of their wealth to the poor, perform ritual prayers five times a day, and were forbidden to gamble or eat certain foods (such as pork). On holy days, Muslims were expected to gather at a mosque to worship Allah.

The Ottoman sultans ruled a large empire, with territories in Europe, the Middle East and north Africa. Their subject peoples included Jews, Christian and Muslims. The Ottomans were tolerant of non-Muslim religions within the empire, and generally did not force non-Muslims to convert to Islam.

Source 0.20 An 18th-century painting *Turks at prayer in a mosque*

Challenging the Church in Renaissance Italy

Very close to the Ottoman Empire were the Italian city–states where the Renaissance was centred. Although there were significant differences in the way each of these city–states was ruled, one characteristic common to all of them was a belief in a Christian god. Before the Renaissance, the Catholic Church controlled every aspect of life, and the Pope – its spiritual leader – was based in Rome.

From around 1400, however, people in many different city–states began to question the authority of the Church. Although they were still very religious, people such as Martin Luther became more critical of the Church and some of its practices. Many became more interested in questioning people's place in the world, leading to a number of other movements such as humanism, the Scientific Revolution, the Enlightenment and the **Reformation**. Each of these movements changed and reduced the power and influence of the Church.

Source 0.21 A portrait of Martin Luther

GOVERNMENTS, LAWS AND SOCIAL STRUCTURES

Governments, laws and social structures helped to create order in society. They defined the roles and responsibilities of citizens, and set out systems for reward and punishment. Over time, laws and teachings evolved and became more complex. In some societies, these laws were passed on by word of mouth, while in others they were written down. Often the line between religious beliefs and laws and government was not clearly defined. Governments and laws were not only influenced by religious beliefs and customs, but also influenced them.

Viking society and laws

In the early history of the Vikings, their society was made up of a number of independent tribal communities led by a chieftain or king. Within each tribal community there were three social classes – *jarls* (noblemen), *karls* (farmers, merchants and craftsmen) and *thralls* (slaves, prisoners and criminals). In order to rule effectively, the chieftain or king depended on support from the *jarls*.

APPLY 0.9

1 Use the information and sources in the text and your own research to outline similarities and differences in the beliefs and religious practices of Viking, medieval European and Ottoman societies. You may like relevant sections in the depth study chapters: 'The dominance of the Church in medieval Europe' in Chapter 8 and 'Viking beliefs' in Chapter 7.

EXTEND 0.2

1 Conduct research to find out about the Reformation movement of the 16th century, which divided Christians in Europe into two groups – Protestants and Catholics. Outline the beliefs and the role played by Martin Luther in the Reformation.

Viking society was ruled over by local assemblies (similar to parliaments) known as *things*. Each *thing* met once a year to make new laws or change old laws, resolve disputes, and schedule marriages and divorces. Until the 12th century, Viking laws were not written down; instead they were recited by a law speaker at each *thing* so that all could hear. Unlike societies in medieval Europe, all Vikings had to obey the law – even the king.

Source 0.22 An artist's impression of a *thing* held every year at the Lögberg (Law Rock) in Iceland.

Feudalism in medieval Europe

As discussed earlier, society in medieval Europe was organised according to a system known as feudalism. The king sat at the top of a strict hierarchy or ranking system. All the land in the kingdom belonged to him, and it was believed that he ruled with the authority of God.

In order to run his kingdom effectively, a king granted land to the nobles directly below him. These nobles provided him with military support and loyalty. The nobles relied on knights to protect them, and gave them land in return. These knights then provided land to the peasants below them to live on in return for taxes in the form of money or crops.

The Catholic Church also had its own land and charged taxes (known as tithes) from peasant farmers who worked the land. The Church controlled about a third of the land across Europe and had its own courts and law.

Source 0.23 Under the feudal system, a noble swears allegiance to his king, offering his loyalty and military support in return for a grant of land.

The rule of the Ottoman sultan

Ottoman society was complex. At its greatest extent, the Ottoman Empire covered dozens of provinces across Asia, Europe and northern Africa. At the absolute top of the Ottoman political system stood the sultan. The sultan could appoint or dismiss any official at his pleasure. Every decree or law came from him. In addition, the sultan was both supreme military commander and the religious leader, responsible only to God. Under the sultan was a complex and strictly defined group of officials and councils that carried out the administration and day-to-day running of the empire. At the head of the sultan's imperial council was his chief minister, known as the grand vizier.

Within the enormous territory of the Ottoman Empire lived many different groups of people, each with their own customs, beliefs and history – such as Christians and Jews. As discussed earlier, the empire was Islamic but generally practised religious tolerance. To hold the empire together, the Ottomans developed unique social and political systems. The millet system, for example, allowed non-Muslim communities within the empire to govern themselves, collect their own taxes, own property and have their own courts to deal with small matters. Women had fewer rights than men but they exerted strong influence over their families. At various times, the women of the sultan's harems had considerable political influence. Slavery was also an important feature of Ottoman society – one in five people in its capital, Istanbul, was a slave.

Source 0.24 A 17th-century painting shows an imperial council at the Topkapi palace in Istanbul. The sultan would observe proceedings unseen, from behind a screen, and indicate his wishes privately to the grand vizier.

Society and government in Renaissance Italy

During the Renaissance period, the Italian Peninsula was divided into city–states, each with its own ruler and government. These city-states had formed over time as a result of marriages, political alliances and conflicts. As a result, each developed its own system of government. For example, some were ruled by kings, others were ruled as republics, and the territory known as the Papal States was ruled by the Pope (the leader of the Roman Catholic Church). These city–states often changed borders and there were many changing political alliances between the Church, ruling families and merchants (who formed powerful organisations known as **guilds**).

APPLY 0.10

1 Use the information and sources in the text and your own research to outline similarities and differences in the government, laws and social structure of two of the societies studied in The Western and Islamic worlds depth study. You may like to refer to relevant units in the depth study chapters: 'Viking society' in Chapter 7, 'The feudal system in medieval Europe' in Chapter 8, 'The rule of the Sultan' in Chapter 9, 'City-states and society in Renaissance Italy' and 'Renaissance Florence' in Chapter 10.

7

Source 7.1 This Viking helmet, made around AD 950, is evidence of the skilled craftsmanship of Vikings.

THE VIKINGS

Towards the end of the 8th century, Norsemen ('men from the north') began carrying out a series of violent raids across northern Europe, terrifying many people in the region. During these lightning raids, they attacked monasteries and towns, killing countless numbers of people or taking them prisoner.

Over time, Norsemen came to be more commonly known as 'Vikings', a word that comes from the old Norwegian word *Vik*, meaning 'inlet of the sea'. The Vikings were skilled sailors and shipbuilders, and their feats of exploration across the sea are still admired today.

By around the AD 1000, the Vikings were settling in many of the places they had raided, and most had stopped worshipping traditional Norse gods and adopted Christianity.

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF VIKING SOCIETY AND WAY OF LIFE?

7.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» locate the Viking homelands

» identify geographical features that helped shape Viking society and history

» use sources to outline key social, cultural, economic and political features of Viking society

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Viking society

» discuss the role of Norse gods in Viking society

CHECKPOINT 7.1

WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION?

7.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify the extent of Viking exploration and trade

» identify the regions conquered or settled by the Vikings

» explain how and why Viking expansion occurred, including developments in weaponry and shipbuilding technologies

» discuss the theory that Vikings discovered America

» outline what sources reveal about different perspectives on the Vikings

CHECKPOINT 7.2

WHICH SOCIETIES DID THE VIKINGS CONQUER AND HOW WERE THE PEOPLE THERE AFFECTED?

7.3 SECTION

In this section you will:

» explain and assess the impact of the Vikings on subject peoples in England and northern Europe, including the Danelaw

» discuss the significance of the Viking and Norman invasions of England in 1066

» investigate and assess the role of significant individuals involved in Viking expansion, and use sources to identify different perspectives about them

» discuss how the Vikings have influenced the world today

CHECKPOINT 7.3

THE VIKINGS – A TIMELINE

Source 7.2 Viking helmets such as this were commonly worn on raids

TIMELINE

780 790 800 840 860 870

793
Vikings raid the monastery on the island of Lindisfarne in Britain.

799
Viking raids begin in France.

844
Viking raiders reach Spain but are defeated at the town of Cordoba.

865
The Viking 'Great Army' lands in England.

787
First Viking attack on England

795
Viking raids begin in Ireland and Scotland.

c. 840
Dublin, Ireland, is founded by the Vikings

860
Vikings from Norway reach Iceland. Swedish Vikings reach Constantinople (Istanbul) in modern Turkey

870
Vikings from Sweden begin to visit Russia.

Source 7.3 An artist's impression of a Viking longboat carrying warriors to a raid

Source 7.4 A statue of Leif Ericson in the capital of Iceland, Reykjavik

Source 7.5 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry. This famous medieval embroidery shows events that led to the victory of the Normans over the English at the Battle of Hastings in 1066.

911
The king of France makes a treaty with invading Vikings led by Rollo. The Vikings are granted a tract of land which later becomes known as Normandy

c. 1000
Leif Ericson, son of Erik the Red, sails from Greenland and explores the coast of North America, landing in several places.

1066
The great age of Viking power draws to an end with the defeat of Harald Hardrada's invasion attempt on England. The victor, England's King Harold II, is later defeated at the Battle of Hastings.

880 910 980 1000 1010 1060 1070

878
Vikings are defeated in England by King Alfred the Great. A treaty between Alfred and the Viking leader gives control of an area of eastern England known as the Danelaw to the Vikings in which to settle.

982
Erik the Red discovers Greenland

1016
King Canute (or Cnut), a Danish Viking, becomes king of England (and later of Denmark and Norway).

REVIEW 7.1

1 List the countries that were visited or settled by the Vikings.
2 What was the Danelaw?
3 Which Viking leader was defeated by England's King Harold II?
4 For how many years did the Viking Age last?

7.1

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF VIKING SOCIETY AND WAY OF LIFE?

In this section, you will be learning about the structure of Viking society and their many accomplishments. The 'men from the north' were more than just fierce fighters looking for loot. Their society had a rich culture, and many people in Viking communities were mostly involved in peaceful activities, such as farming and creating works of fine craftsmanship.

APPLY 7.1

1 Find a physical map of Scandinavia in an atlas. Estimate the proportion of land in Norway, Denmark and Sweden that is mountainous, forested or used to grow crops. Compare your estimate with a partner's.
2 Conduct research to find the facts about Scandinavia's climate, including temperature ranges in different seasons.

Source 7.7 A typical landscape in many parts of Scandinavia

THE VIKING HOMELANDS

The Viking homelands were located in northern Europe, in the modern-day Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Sweden and Norway (see Source 7.6). The geographical location and natural features of Scandinavia helped shape Viking society and way of life. Their great distance from southern and central Europe meant that they were not heavily influenced by other European societies up to around AD 790 – the beginning of what is called the Viking Age. For example, the Vikings were not Christian. Their religious beliefs were polytheistic, meaning they believed in many gods.

The Scandinavian landscape features long coastlines, many islands and narrow inland waterways called fjords (pronounced *fyords*). Dense forests and high mountains were natural barriers to much of inland Scandinavia. This meant that it was easier for the Vikings to travel between their settlements by boat, and they became expert sailors and shipbuilders. It also meant that only narrow strips of land on the coast or beside the fjords were suitable for farming.

Source 7.6 The location of the Viking homelands

When the Vikings explored beyond their homelands, geography influenced their movements. Vikings in present-day Norway explored to the west, those in present-day Sweden went east, and those in present-day Denmark explored the coastlines of the North Sea, including modern-day Britain.

REVIEW 7.2

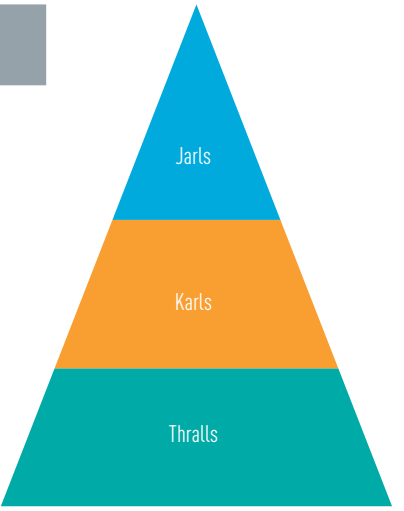
1 Where were the Viking homelands located?
2 List some of the natural features of the Viking homelands.
3 Explain why the Vikings were a seafaring people.

VIKING SOCIETY

The Viking homelands were made up of a number of independent kingdoms. Within these Viking communities, each group knew its role and responsibilities. Individuals were influenced by a set of laws, an economic system, and a set of beliefs and values.

Viking social structure

Viking society was divided into three main classes. At the top were the *jarls* (pronounced *yarls*) who were the rulers, and the wealthiest members of the community. Their wealth and authority came through inheriting land or being successful in battle. The title *konungr* (king) was given to the *jarl* who was chief of his community. The power of Viking kings varied: some ruled over small regions, while others ruled over people rather than specific areas of land. Each king depended on the support of the *jarls* in his community.



Source 7.8 The structure of Viking society

At the middle level of society were the *karls*, who made up the majority in Viking communities. There was a broad range of wealth within this group. *Karls* could be farmers, merchants, hunters, fishermen, shipbuilders, weavers or blacksmiths – to name just a few occupations. Some Vikings belonged to a class of professional warriors; however, most of the Vikings who went on raids were *karls*. They took part in raids for the adventure, as well to bring back wealth.

Thralls were slaves. They had few rights and were not permitted to own land. Some *thralls* were foreigners who had been captured in raids and then traded as slaves. Others had become *thralls* because they had been unable to pay their debts. The Vikings generally believed *thralls* should be treated well. However, if a *thrall* broke the law, instead of being fined like other members of the community, they could be beaten, maimed or killed. A master who killed a *thrall* would not be punished.

SOURCE STUDY

The roles of a Viking *karl*

Source 7.9 An artist's impression of the dual roles of a Viking *karl*

Source 7.10

> Winter he would spend at home ... where he entertained some 80 men at his own expense ... In the spring he had ... a great deal of seed to sow ... Then when that job was done he would go off plundering in the Hebrides [islands off the coast of Scotland] and in Ireland ... then back home just after mid summer, where he stayed until the cornfields had been reaped [harvested] and the grain was safely in. After that he would go off raiding again, and never came back till the first month of winter was ended.

A translated extract from the *Orkneyinga saga*, an Icelandic saga written in the 1100s. It provides a perspective on a Viking named Svein Asleifarson, who lived on one of the Orkney Islands (off the coast of Scotland)

INTERPRET 7.1

1. What are the two roles of a Viking *karl*, as presented in Source 7.9 and Source 7.10?
2. For each of these roles, describe the typical clothing and the 'tools of the trade'.
3. Suggest the different reasons why a farmer would leave his fields and family to take part in a raid?
4. Use the information in Source 7.10 to create a 'yearly planner', showing the months when the *karl* farmed and those when he went on raids. Remember to reverse the seasons for the northern hemisphere.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Today Iceland's parliament is still called the *Althing*. Every year Icelanders gather at a rocky outcrop called the Lögberg (Law Rock), the site where the law speaker first stood to proclaim the laws in AD 930.

Viking law

The Vikings had a system of strict laws that guided behaviour in their communities. Each community had an assembly, known as a *thing*, which was like a combination parliament and court. All adults, except *thralls* and people who were living in exile from their communities, attended *things* once a year, to settle disputes and make new laws. Viking laws were not written down until the 12th century because most Vikings could not read or write. Instead, laws were preserved in the memory of a law speaker. It was his job to remember all laws and recite them loudly at each *thing*. Viking codes of behaviour and values are also evident in their **sagas** (long stories or accounts of history told in verse).

The Vikings respected their laws. This is because the honour and reputation of each individual was important, and because some punishments were very harsh. There were several ways of settling disputes, apart from attending the annual *thing* assembly:

- *Feuds*. If a man was killed, his family felt it was their duty to avenge his death. This could lead to further revenge killings, and a feud could go on for many years.
- *Duels*. Sometimes quarrels were settled by duels. The duellists struck each other in turn. A dueller was defeated as soon as his blood touched the ground. To win a duel was regarded as proof that you were right, because the gods always helped the right man to win.
- *Fines*. Some quarrels were ended by the guilty party paying a fine. The money had to be paid in public, in front of witnesses. All Viking goods were valued at a certain amount. The value of an item was its *wergild*. Anyone caught stealing had to pay back the value of what they had taken.
- *Outlaw*. For a serious crime, a person might be made an outlaw ('outside the law'). Outlaws had to live in the wilderness and no-one was allowed to help them in any way. If they were hunted down and killed there was no penalty for the person who killed them.

EXTEND 7.1

1. List the different ways being sent away from your community would affect you. How would it have affected an 8th-century Viking? Why was being made an outlaw such a harsh punishment?

The law of the Vikings

SOURCE STUDY

Source 7.11

You who would be a Viking, these things you must know,
The old grow weak in battle, the sword shakes in their hand.
When the ice wind blows, the bones of old men are cold, and will not move.
When the seas grow wild, the bones of old men are weak.
Old men should tell tales to the young, the Viking life is not for old men.
The great sea is strong, the great wind is cold, the battle is too fierce.
Old men will stay on the shores and tell tales to young boys.
No man of fifty summers or more may be a Viking.
No boy of less than eighteen winters may be a Viking.
In battle, a Viking sees his foes.
He does not turn his back in fear and cry like a child when death is before him.
The worth of a man is in his arm, and in his sword.
On a Viking ship all men are brothers, brothers in battle, sword for sword.
And when the wind dies and the sea is still, then all must pull the boat to land,
Brothers at the oars.
And when there is food, or gold, or silk, or good wine, or strong beer, it is the same for each. No man will take more than any other.
And if one breaks this rule and is found out, he will be sent away.
When the sky is black and the seas like mountains, and Death rides down from the clouds in blackness, with his voice of thunder on a sheet of lightning,
No man will speak of fear.
And although the sun burns and the lips crack, and the seas are glass, and the winds are still, and there be no food or water,
No man will speak of fear.
And in battle, no man will speak of fear.
No prisoners will be taken in battle – not even women or children.
It is better to die free than to live in chains.
You who would be a Viking, this you must know:
The law of the Viking must not be broken.

Extract from a Viking saga

Source 7.12 A dragon head on the prow (front end) of a replica Viking longship in Norway

INTERPRET 7.2

According to the saga:

1. What are the age limits for a Viking warrior?
2. What is meant by the sentence 'The worth of a man is in his arm, and in his sword'?
3. What is the most important characteristic of life on board a Viking ship?
4. List the difficulties that could be faced by Viking warriors.
5. Why do you think that Viking law dictated that no prisoners were to be taken in battle? What other guideline in Source 7.11 might be the reason?

Economy and trade

The economy of the early Viking Age was based mainly on agriculture. However, as Viking societies grew larger, the lack of good farming land meant that local agriculture could not meet the needs of the population. Viking merchants travelled across the seas and down rivers, carrying timber, leather goods, smoked fish, ambergris (from whale intestines), fur, artefacts carved from walrus tusks and whale bones, jewellery and slaves. These were exchanged for goods such as wheat, iron, silverware, wine, spices, silks, salt, weapons and glassware. At first, Vikings bartered (exchanged goods for other goods of similar value). Later, goods were bought and sold with coins. Coins found by archaeologists in Sweden have provided evidence that Vikings traded as far away as parts of modern-day Russia and Central Asia. We investigate the extent of Viking trade in Section 7.2.

Viking culture

The Vikings were accomplished craftspeople, poets and musicians. As well as making everyday items and weapons, Viking craftspeople produced luxury items such as fine gold and silver jewellery. The silver armlet shown in Source 7.14 is an example of the distinctive Viking style, with spirals ending in wolf's heads. Jewellery was highly decorative, frequently using symbols from Viking mythology and religion. The Vikings were also expert shipbuilders and woodcarvers. The detail of their carving is evident in the ship's prow (front), shown in Source 7.13.

SOURCE STUDY

Viking culture

Source 7.13 The prow (front end) of a Viking ship

Source 7.14 An 11th-century silver armlet, featuring a spiral design common in Viking work

Source 7.15 A wooden game board thought to have been used by the Vikings to play a strategic game similar to chess, known as *hnefatafl*

INTERPRET 7.3

1 What evidence do Sources 7.13 to 7.15 provide about Viking society?
2 In terms of its design and craftsmanship, how does the armlet shown in Source 7.14 compare with modern jewellery?

REVIEW 7.3

1 Outline the Viking social structure. Which social class made up the majority in a Viking community?
2 How were Viking laws remembered and communicated? Explain the reasons for this.

VIKING BELIEFS

Vikings worshipped many different gods, although these beliefs died out once many converted to Christianity towards the end of the 9th century. The traditional stories about gods, giants and monsters are known as Norse or Viking mythology. Many of these stories tell of the creation of the world (see Source 7.16). Some of the stories about the gods of Viking mythology are presented in Source 7.17.

Source 7.16

> In the beginning there was a world of ice and a world of fire. These collided and produced a giant named Ymir and a cow named Audhumla. The cow licked the ice and eventually revealed a man – Buri – who had been embedded in the ice. Buri married a giantess and their three grandsons – Odin, Vili and Ve – slew Ymir and from his body made the world. His blood became the lakes and seas, his flesh became the surface of the earth, his bones became the mountains, and rocks and pebbles were made from the teeth and jaws and any bones that were broken. They flung his brains into the air and they became the clouds.

Extract from a Viking creation myth

The Vikings believed that different gods were responsible for different areas of daily life. There were gods for harvests, love, family, fertility and war. It is thought that the Vikings made animal or human sacrifices to the gods to get something they needed, such as a good harvest or success in a battle. The chief of the gods is Odin. Thor, the god of thunder, guards men and gods against evil. Thunder is the sound of his chariot rumbling across the sky pulled by his two goats. Lightning is the path his hammer takes when he tosses it.

Source 7.18 Thor

Source 7.17 Tales from Viking mythology

> Chief of the gods is the one-eyed Odin, the god of death, war and wisdom. He traded his other eye for wisdom. With his two brothers, Odin created the nine worlds of the cosmos (universe). Midgard is the world of men, one of four worlds in the middle level of the cosmos. The other three are the worlds of dwarves, giants and dark elves. At the bottom level are the worlds of the dead, Hel and Niflheim.

The home of the Norse gods is Asgard, filled with halls and palaces. The most splendid is Valhalla, the hall of the bravest of slain warriors. The slain warriors are brought to Asgard by the Valkyries, beautiful warrior women who ride flying horses. A colourful display of the Aurora Borealis (the northern lights sometimes seen in the northern hemisphere) is a sign they are riding the skies. At Valhalla, the warriors train for Ragnarok, the final battle that will end the cosmos. By day, they hack and chop at each other with swords and axes. At night, their bodies mend and they drink and feast with Odin.

REVIEW 7.4

1 What did the Vikings believe happened to warriors after they died?
2 Identify three natural occurrences that are explained in Viking mythology. What is the explanation in each case?

APPLY 7.2

1 Conduct research to create a presentation about five of the Norse gods. Describe the role and appearance of each god, and his or her relationships to other gods.

EXTEND 7.2

1 Compare the Viking creation myth in Source 7.16 with other creation myths, from the Bible or from the dreamtime stories of Indigenous Australians. How are the stories similar? How do they differ?

EXTEND 7.3

1 Conduct research to find out about Ragnarok, the final battle in Viking mythology between gods, giants, demons, the dead, elves and dwarves. Tell key events in the story of Ragnarok using a storyboard or flow chart, or draw a sketch of a battle scene and write a detailed caption.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In Viking York, people threw their rubbish, including food remains and human waste, into their back yards. Layers of deposited rubbish have provided archaeologists with evidence of Viking daily life.

EVERYDAY LIFE IN THE VIKING WORLD

Most Vikings lived in small villages made up of a few family groups who worked as farmers and craftspeople. Viking villages were often located near water – on a coastline or beside a river – making it easier to load and unload ships. Among the cluster of **longhouses** were barns to house animals and smoke fish, the workshops of village craftsmen, and an open area where markets were held.

Some Vikings lived in towns and cities, in their homelands or in foreign territories they had conquered and established themselves in. In these towns and cities, such as in Viking York in England (known as Jorvik), houses were built close together, and the streets were long and narrow. Homes doubled as workshops and people lived in cramped and dirty conditions.

SOURCE STUDY

Viking town and village

Source 7.19 The reconstructed Viking village at Fotevikens Museum, in Höllviken, Sweden. The museum is classified as an archaeological open-air museum, which means its buildings are true-to-scale reconstructions, built to be historically accurate and using original patterns.

Source 7.20 A reconstruction of a street scene in a Viking town, from the Jorvik Viking Centre, in York, England

INTERPRET 7.4

1. Describe the scenes shown in Sources 7.19 and 7.20, including materials used to make the buildings.
2. What might be a great danger when houses are grouped so closely together, as shown in Source 7.20?
3. Choose one of these images as the cover of an imaginary magazine called *Viking town and village*. Write some inventive and eye-catching headlines that would encourage people to want to live in the selected place.

Longhouses

Longhouses were rectangular buildings with rounded ends. Most people lived in longhouses that were around 5 metres wide and 12 metres long. The king or the most important *jarls* in a Viking community, however, lived in larger and more elaborately decorated longhouses that were around 30 to 60 metres long. Remnants of the longest known longhouse were found near Lofoten, in Norway. This longhouse had a length of 83 metres (see Source 7.23). Noisy feasts would be held in the longhouse of a *jarl* after successful raids, with men getting drunk for days on ale or mead (a drink of fermented honey). Entertainment might include dancing, poetry recitals and music played on fiddle-like instruments or animal horns.

Source 7.21 A reconstruction of the 83 metre longhouse found near Lofoten, Norway. It shows how earth was piled along walls, and sometimes over the roof, to insulate longhouses.

Longhouses were made of whatever materials were locally available, such as wood and stone. Walls could be made of wattle (sticks woven together and covered with mud), and roofs made of straw, reeds or turf (a thick mat of soil and grass). Longhouses had dirt floors. They sometimes (but rarely) had small windows, with animal bladders stretched across them to let in the light but keep out the cold. Usually the only opening in the longhouse, other than the doors, was a small hole in the roof to let out smoke from the fireplace below. Although the fireplace provided warmth, light and a means to cook, it also made the longhouse very smoky. Longhouses would have been dark, smelly, dirty places. Because there were few openings, smoke and the smells of sweat, sour milk and cooking mingled together and would hang in the air.

More modest longhouses usually had only one room for a family to live in. Wealthier Vikings improved their homes with a separate kitchen and storeroom, and partitioned sleeping places. The head of the family slept in a box bed and everyone else slept on raised platforms around the sides of the room.

Little furniture was used, often no more than a roughly made table and some benches covered in animal skins or with cloth bags filled with duck or goose feathers. (In fact, the word *doona* comes from the Norse word *dunn*, meaning 'feather down'.) Toilets were holes in the ground outside, as shown in Source 7.24. They may have been dug near wells that provided drinking water.

Source 7.22 A reproduction of a more modest Viking longhouse in a coastal village, at the Fotevikens Museum, in Sweden

APPLY 7.3

1 Which social classes would the people who used the longhouses of Sources 7.21 and 7.22 belong to? Make a table to list the possible similarities and differences between the two longhouses. Include comments on construction and uses.

APPLY 7.4

1 Draw a sketch of the interior of a typical Viking home, using content from the text and also drawing on your own research. Include detailed labels, and use an organisation chart to keep a record of key sources you used as references (see Source HT.14 in 'The Historian's toolkit' for a discussion of organisation charts).

SOURCE STUDY

Living in a longhouse

INTERPRET 7.5

1 Describe the interior of the longhouse shown in Source 7.23, and then use your observations to explain why longhouses would have been dark and smelly.

2 Considering both Sources 7.23 and 7.24, what health problems may have resulted from Viking living conditions?

Source 7.23 The interior of a reconstructed longhouse, at L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland, where an 11th-century Viking settlement was discovered in the 1960s

Source 7.24 A reproduction of a Viking toilet, exhibited at the Jorvik Viking Centre, in York, England

APPLY 7.5

1 How does the Viking diet differ from yours? Use a Venn diagram to compare the similarities and differences in the types of foods eaten today and in the Viking world.

Food and diet

Fish and meat formed the basis of most Viking meals. Vikings ate mutton, goat meat, horse meat, beef and pork. They preferred to have their meat boiled. Other main foods were bread, porridge, eggs, milk, butter and cheese. Knives and spoons were used, but there were no forks. Bread and porridge were made from harvested grains, such as wheat, barley and rye. Vegetables such as onions, leeks, peas and cabbage were used in stews. The Vikings also collected fruits and berries from nearby forests, and hunted animals such as wild boar, seabirds, hare and elk. During the summer months, fish and meat would be smoked, dried and salted, then stored to last through the long winter.

A piece of fossilised Viking excrement (human waste), discovered by archaeologists at Jorvik, in England, has provided evidence about the diet and health of Vikings. It revealed that one particular Viking was not a great vegetable eater, instead living mainly on meat and grains such as bran. His fossilised poo also contains the traces of several hundred parasite eggs, which means that his stomach and intestines were full of worms.

Source 7.25 The simple and typical diet of Vikings

Source 7.26 Fossilised excrement on display at the Jorvik Viking Centre, in York, England

Vikings at work

Farming was the primary occupation of most Vikings. Whole families would take part in the various seasonal jobs involved in running a farm. Some Vikings were builders, blacksmiths or craftspeople. Their furniture-making and house-construction were essential to the community. Ordinary metalworkers produced farming tools, while the most skilled craftsmen would specialise in making the finest weapons, such as swords. Boat builders created everything from fishing boats to the longships that carried Viking raiders to distant lands.

Source 7.27 An re-enactment of a Viking blacksmith at work, at the Fotevikens Museum, Sweden

Viking women and children

Viking women who were left behind when their men went raiding or trading had to manage on their own. This might mean taking on farm chores, tending to and butchering animals, and overseeing slaves. As a result, Viking women were very independent. This was unusual compared with many other societies in Europe at this time. Viking women could choose husbands for themselves, decide to divorce their husbands, or buy land. A woman's main role, whether her husband was at home or not, was to look after children and manage the home. Common tasks for all but the wealthiest women (who might have the help of slaves) included spinning and weaving, collecting firewood and preparing food stores for the winter.

Viking children did not have a formal education. Sons worked on the farm or in the workshop, and learned Viking history, religion and law from spoken stories and songs. Daughters worked in the home. By the age of 15 or 16, boys and girls were considered adults, and girls were often married. It was common for a girl's father to choose her husband.

Source 7.28 A reconstruction of a Viking craftsman using animal bone and deer antlers to make things to sell at the market; from the Jorvik Viking Centre in York, England

Source 7.29 A reconstruction of the inside of a Viking home, showing a woman spinning wool while seated at a weaving loom

REVIEW 7.5

1. Why were Viking villages often located near coasts and rivers?
2. Describe a typical Viking longhouse.
3. What foods made up the majority of a Viking diet?
4. Why were Viking women more independent than women in other societies of the time?

APPLY 7.6

1. Use information and sources from the text and from your own research to create a work titled 'My Viking day'. It could be in the form of diary entries, or of a short story or storyboard. Start by introducing yourself: are you a Viking leader; a farmer and part-time raider; a mother, or a child? Include relevant sources to provide 'snapshots' of your life.

7.1

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF VIKING SOCIETY AND WAY OF LIFE?

» Locate the Viking homelands

1 What are the names of the modern-day countries where the Viking homelands were located? What is this region of the world called? (5 marks)

» Identify geographical features that helped shape Viking society and history

2 List the geographical features of the Viking homelands. (5 marks)

3 Explain how the location and geographical features of the homelands influenced Viking society. (5 marks)

» Use sources to outline key social, cultural, economic and political features of Viking society

4 Complete the table below to identify sources that relate to key features of Viking society. Describe the evidence that each source provides. (10 marks)

Key feature of Viking society	Sources	Evidence provided
Role and status of *jarls* and *karls*		
Viking *things*, laws and codes of behaviour		
Viking trade		
Viking culture		

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Viking society

5 Describe the typical lifestyle of Viking families living in villages in their homeland, including:

- **a** housing and home life
- **b** daily occupations
- **c** food and diet
- **d** entertainment and games (10 marks)

» Discuss the role of Norse gods in Viking society

6 What religious beliefs did the Vikings hold at the start of the Viking Age? Why and when did these beliefs start to change? (5 marks)

7 What were gods responsible for, according to Viking beliefs? What rituals were associated with these beliefs? (5 marks)

8 Retell one story from Norse mythology. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Viking burials

Early in the Viking Age some Viking rulers were given ship-burials and were accompanied to the after-life by their favourite dogs and horses, treasure and weapons. Sometimes, Viking rulers were even buried with human sacrifices, as described in Source 7.30. After converting to Christianity, the Vikings adopted different burial practices, similar to those followed by Christians to this day.

1 Investigate pre-Christian Viking burial methods and rituals. Prepare a report that describes the rituals and how they relate to Viking beliefs about the gods and the afterlife. Include sources from the text and from your own research, and explain the evidence they provide.

2 Research the discovery of a Viking burial ship, such as that of the one found at Oseberg (see Source 7.31). Create a presentation that describes the artefacts and human remains found in the burial ship. What methods have been used to date and analyse the findings?

Source 7.31 The reconstructed Viking burial-ship from Oseberg. The original ship was built in AD 820 and discovered in Norway in 1903.

Source 7.30

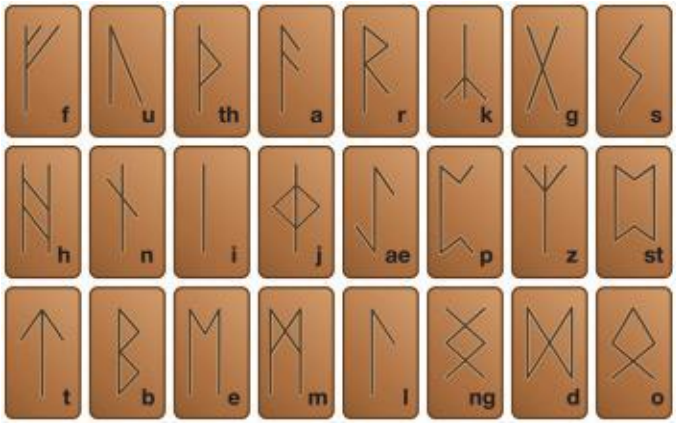
> The dead chieftain was put in a temporary grave that was covered for ten days until new clothes were prepared for him. They asked which of his thrall [slave] women wanted to join him in the afterlife and one of the girls volunteered ... When the time had arrived for cremation, his longship was pulled ashore ... an old woman named the 'angel of death' put cushions on the bed ... She would be responsible for the ritual and would be the one to kill the thrall girl.

An extract from an account of a human sacrifice at a Viking funeral, by the Arab traveller Ibn Fadlan

Source 7.32 The Runestone of Rök

Writing the runes

In Viking society there was a strong tradition of storytelling, rather than widespread writing. However, the Vikings did leave examples of short messages, in the form of inscriptions in wood, bone or stone. To do this, they used the 'runic' alphabet. Source 7.32 shows a stone called a runestone inscribed using this alphabet. As the letters *f*, *u*, *th*, *a*, *r* and *k* begin the runic alphabet, the Vikings called it *Futhark*. Source 7.33 shows the Danish version of *Futhark*. Create your own inscription using the letters. Then swap inscriptions with a partner and try to read each other's messages.



Source 7.33 *Futhark* letters with their modern equivalents

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

7.2 SECTION

WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION?

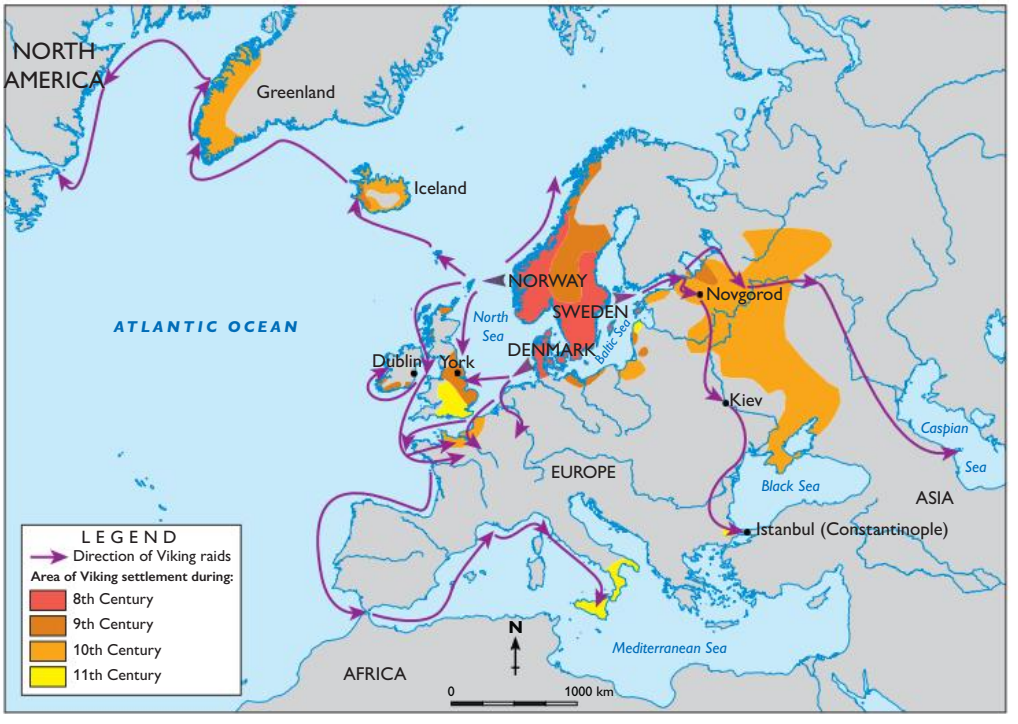
In this section, we examine how much of the world was affected by Viking expansion. Viking explorers, raiders and traders travelled great distances over land and sea. They conquered people in other lands and settled in places outside their homelands. We also explore the weapons and methods used by Viking raiders, and examine why their attacks were so successful.

THE EXTENT OF VIKING TRADE AND EXPANSION

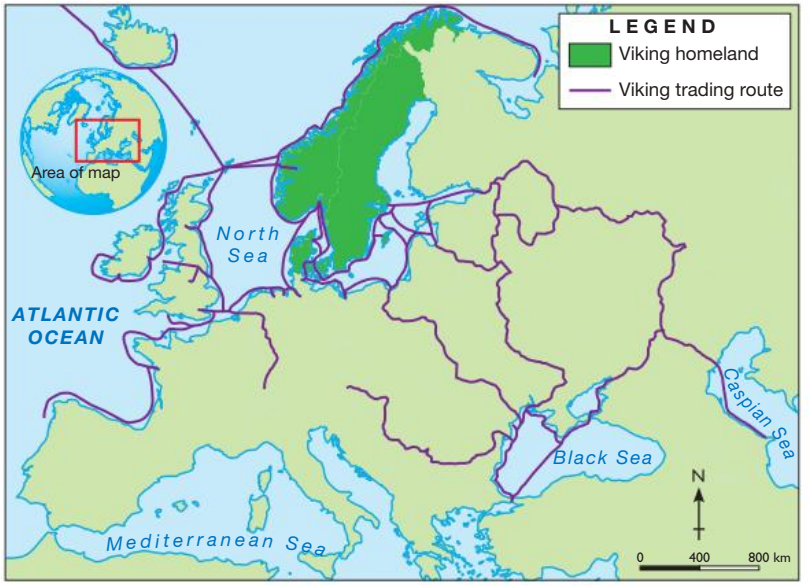
Source 7.35 shows the major Viking trade routes. To the east, Viking merchants travelled as far as Constantinople (present-day Istanbul) where they could meet up with traders from lands even further east along the Silk Road. Up until the late 8th century, the Vikings were known as traders with peoples outside of Scandinavia. But this changed significantly as they began attacking villages, towns and monasteries, plundering their wealth and capturing prisoners. For the next 200 years, the Vikings became more feared, as they pushed outwards from their homelands. Source 7.34 shows the directions the Vikings travelled in raids around Britain, Ireland, southern and eastern Europe, and the areas they settled and colonised, from the 8th to the 11th century. It also shows the direction of Viking exploration and settlement around the North Atlantic Ocean.

SOURCE STUDY

The extent of Viking trade and expansion



Source 7.34 The direction of Viking raids to the east and west of the Viking homelands, and areas settled by Vikings from the 8th to the 11th century



Source 7.35 Major Viking trade routes

INTERPRET 7.6

1 Use Sources 7.34 and 7.35 and an atlas to list five modern-day countries:
   - **a** that are in areas where the Vikings traded
   - **b** where the Vikings established settlements.
2 Write a statement to describe the extent of Viking trade.
3 Write a paragraph to describe the expansion of Viking settlement from the 8th to the 11th century. Do you think there is a link between the Viking trade routes and the direction of Viking raids and settlement?

Why did the Vikings become raiders?

Historians still argue today about what motivated the Vikings to change from honest traders to violent raiders. Several reasons have been put forward to explain this shift, including the following.

Necessity: Resorting to raids may have become necessary for the survival of some Viking communities that were located on poor farmland in a cold climate. As populations grew, the pressure on the farmland would have increased.

Knowledge of other lands gained through trade: Reports by well-travelled merchants would have helped the Vikings piece together an accurate picture of surrounding regions. They would have heard about the riches that were held in towns and monasteries outside their homelands, which may have motivated Viking attacks. Some historians also suggest the Vikings attacked areas that they knew had weak and divided rule.

Developments in weaponry and shipbuilding: By the 8th century, Viking shipbuilding and navigational skills were highly advanced. The Vikings had the expertise needed to make and sail efficient warships – the **longships** used for their fast and brutal raids. The Vikings had also become highly skilled metalworkers, able to sharpen the steel edges of their swords until they were razor sharp. Wealthier Vikings could afford metal armour, including chain mail and helmets with nose bridges.

Desire for wealth and glory: Historians also argue that the change in Viking behaviour could have been linked to a desire for quick and easy wealth. *Jarls* and kings could use stolen riches to reward their men and increase their influence and power. Some historians believe the Vikings were also driven by a desire for glory and adventure.

Source 7.36 Reproductions of authentic Viking armour, including helmets and chain mail on show at a battle re-enactment in Iceland

Source 7.37 Viking weapons

REVIEW 7.6

1 Which significant trade route did Viking merchants link to when they reached Constantinople?
2 What do you think was the main cause of Viking raids and expansion? Rank the possible causes in order of importance and explain your reasoning.

VIKING RAIDS AND SETTLEMENTS

Source 7.38
The remains of the monastery in Lindisfarne, Northumberland, England. A famous Viking raid took place here on 6 January 793.

According to the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, AD 787 was the year of the first Viking attack on England. Three ships manned by Vikings (from what is now Denmark) came ashore in the south of the country. An official rode to meet the strangers, assuming they were merchants and intending to escort them to town to pay the required taxes. Instead, the Vikings killed him.

In AD 793 the monastery on the holy island of Lindisfarne, off the English coast, was attacked. Viking raiders now began to regularly attack the coasts of Britain and Ireland, concentrating on the monasteries where gold and silver riches were to be found. Raiding parties also reached southern France, Spain and Italy. They did not always have everything their way. In 844, a ruler in Cordoba, in Spain, captured hundreds of Viking prisoners and hanged them. Over time, Viking raiders extended their plundering missions into the lands we know as Wales and Scotland. They pushed deeper into Europe and Central Asia, travelling along rivers.

Source 7.39

And they came to the church of Lindisfarne and laid everything to waste. They plundered, they trampled upon holy places with filthy feet, they dug up the altars and seized all the treasures of the holy church. They killed some of the monks, and took others away with them in chains; they drove many out, naked and loaded with insults, and some they drowned in the sea.

Symeon of Durham, writing in the 12th century

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The penalty for not paying taxes to the Viking rulers in Ireland during the 8th century was to have your nostrils slit with a knife. This is where the saying 'paying through your nose' – meaning to pay a very high price – comes from.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Ragnar Lodbrok's adventures came to an end after he was shipwrecked on the English coast. He was captured by the Northumbrian king Ælla and put to death by being thrown into a pit of poisonous snakes.

Raiders become settlers

The first Viking raids were hit-and-run affairs, with no long-term plan behind them. Then, in England, Scotland, Ireland and other parts of Western Europe, the Vikings gradually moved from rapid attacks in 'raiding seasons' to establishing settlements that would become permanent. Rather than sailing straight back to their homelands with their loot, they started building houses to live in during the winter. They would then resume attacks in the surrounding area in the spring. Viking leaders began to establish themselves as rulers in areas they had previously attacked. In Ireland, Vikings established the city of Dublin. Swedish Vikings ruled the cities of Kiev and Novgorod, and eventually formed a kingdom in modern-day Russia.

The beginning of Viking settlement in England and Normandy

In the decade following AD 830, the Vikings started to arrive on England's coast in small armies, 30 ship-loads strong. Under leaders such as Ragnar Lodbrok (Hairy-Breeks) and his sons Bjorn Ironside and Ivar the Boneless, the Vikings began to settle in the northern and eastern parts of England, demanding **Danegeld** from the English (money paid in return for a promise from the Vikings not to attack their lands). In 865, Britain was invaded by a huge Viking army from Denmark. The Great Army arrived in a fleet of 350 ships. This time, the motive was conquest, not plunder. Within a year, the Vikings controlled the city of Jorvik (now known as York), which became a Viking capital. Vikings were to control large areas of England in the next centuries. The impact of this is explored in Section 7.3.

In a region of the Frankish kingdom which is today part of France, a Viking leader known as Rollo had repeatedly attacked settlements along the Seine River. In 911, he came to an agreement with the Frankish king, Charles the Simple. Charles gave Rollo an area of land called Normandy. In exchange, Rollo agreed to stop his attacks, become a Christian and acknowledge Charles as his superior. About 150 years later, Duke William of Normandy, a descendent of Rollo, would invade Britain and become the king of England.

Viking raids

SOURCE STUDY

Source 7.40

In the year 841 the Danish pirates invaded the territory of Rouen and killed the monks and the people. They devastated the monasteries and only left after they had been bought off with much silver.

In the year 842 a fleet of Northmen entered Amiens at dawn. They plundered, captured and killed people of both sexes and only left a building standing if the owner ransomed it.

In the year 843 the Northmen attacked Nantes with a fleet of sixty-seven ships. Having killed the bishop and many of the other people, they pillaged the city. Finally they built houses for the winter (on an island) and settled down as if they meant to stay forever.

From the diary of Saint Bertin, a Frenchman

Source 7.41

The number of ships grows: the endless flood of Vikings never ceases to grow. Everywhere Christ's people are the victims of massacres, burnings and plunderings. The Vikings conquer all in their path and nothing resists them.

A translation from the writing of the Frankish monk Ermentarius of Noirmoutier, AD 860

Source 7.42 The Lindisfarne Gospels, an 8th-century manuscript bound in silver and jewels. The original binding was lost during the Viking raid on the Lindisfarne monastery in 793, but the manuscript survived the attack. A replacement binding was made in 1852.

Source 7.43 A stockpile of Viking loot found in a field in Yorkshire, England, in 2007. The stash, which had been buried for over 1000 years, included 617 coins.

INTERPRET 7.7

1 Describe the artefacts shown in Sources 7.42 and 7.43.
2 What evidence do Sources 7.40 to 7.43 provide about what motivated the Vikings' raids in the years 841 and 842?
3 What change in Viking raiding patterns occurred in France in the year 843? Why was this significant?
4 What does Source 7.41 reveal about people's responses to the Viking attacks?
5 Suggest why a Viking raider might have left the treasure shown in Source 7.43 buried underground. Why might he not have returned to retrieve the treasure?

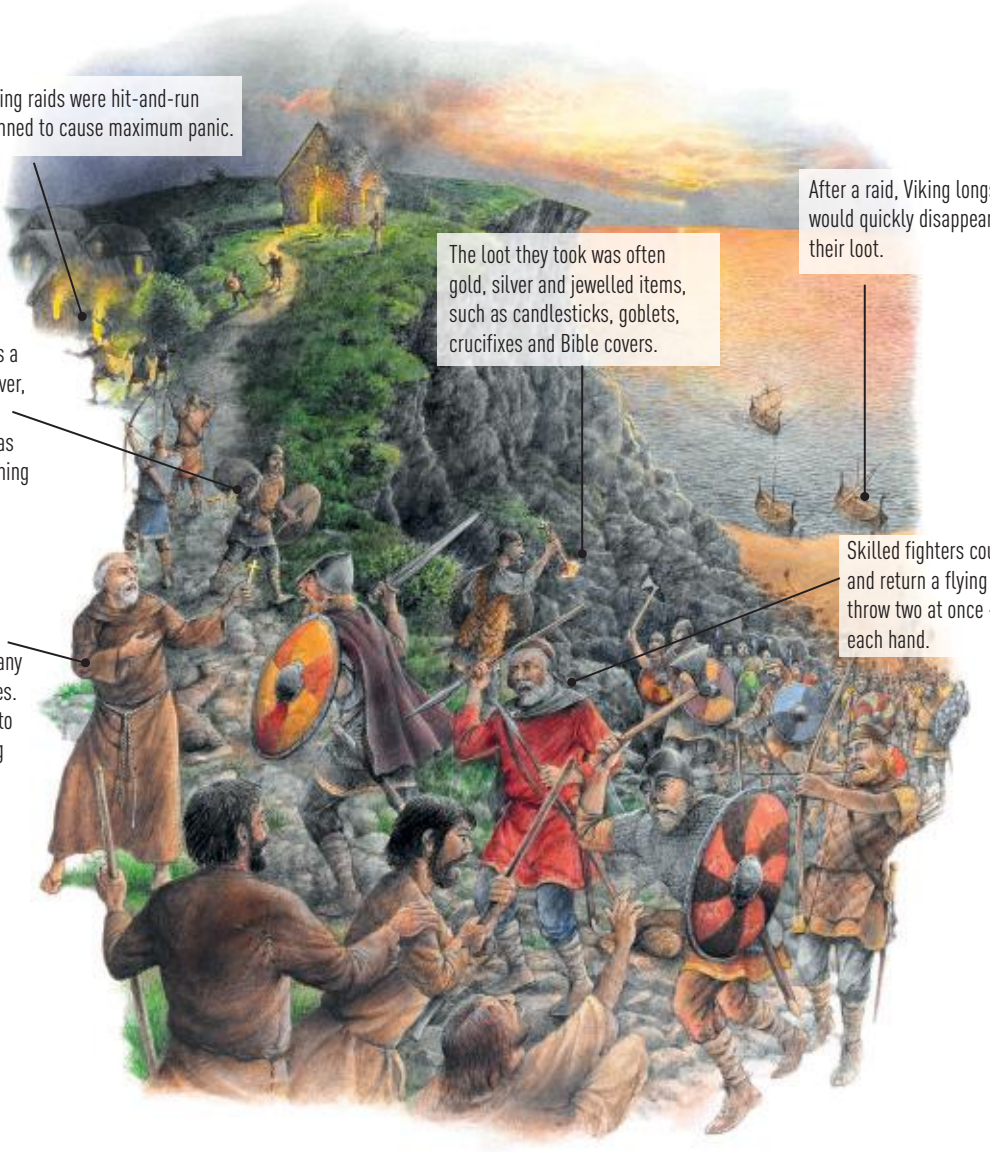
REVIEW 7.7

1 How do historians know that people in England were unafraid of Vikings before AD 787?
2 What was the purpose of the first Viking raids? How was this different to the purpose of later raids in the 9th century?
3 Explain why the Viking Rollo was given a large area of land in France.

VIKING RAIDERS

The Vikings fought on foot, wearing chain mail under leather jerkins (jackets). Each warrior had a sword, which was highly prized and passed on from father to son. Vikings often gave their swords names, such as 'leg-biter'. Swords were used more for hacking and slashing, rather than for stabbing at enemies. The battle-axe was another favourite weapon, which could do fearful damage with its large curved blade and long handle. The Vikings also used spears, bows and arrows, and round shields made of wooden boards, bound together by iron bars.

The most terrifying of all Viking warriors were the *berserkers* – fierce fighters who were clad in the skins of bears or wolves (the word *berserker* means 'bear coat'). Believing they were protected by Odin, *berserkers* went into battle without fear of death or injury. Monks' accounts noted they seemed not to notice the pain of wounds. Before a fight, they worked themselves into a mad rage and usually fought to the death.



Source 7.44 An artist's impression of a Viking raid on an English monastery

APPLY 7.7

1 Write or tell the story of the Viking raid illustrated in Source 7.44 from the point of view of a Viking boy on his first raid. Then write or tell the story from the point of view of a young shepherd who lives in the village near the monastery being raided.

Viking *berserkers*

SOURCE STUDY

Source 7.45

> When Hardbeen [a *berserker*] heard this, a demonical frenzy suddenly took him; he furiously bit and devoured the edges of his shield; he kept gulping down fiery coals ... he rushed through the perils of crackling fires; and at last, when he had raved through every sort of madness, he turned his sword with raging hand against the hearts of six of his champions [fellow Vikings].

An extract from a 1905 translation of *The Nine Books of the Danish History*, by the 12th-century Danish historian Saxo Grammaticus

Source 7.47 A 6th-century stone carving from Sweden, showing one man with a helmet adorned with the heads of birds. The other is depicted with the head of a wolf or bear. Bear skins were typically worn by the *berserkers*

Source 7.48 A 12th-century chess piece showing a Viking *berserker* biting his shields

Source 7.46

> Men saw that a great bear [a *berserker*] went before King Hrolf's men ... keeping always near the king. He slew [killed] more men with his forepaws [bare hands] than any five of the king's champions. Blades and weapons glanced off him and he brought down both men and horses in King Hjorvard's forces, and everything which came in his path, he crushed to death with his teeth ...

An extract from *Erik the Red and Other Icelandic Sagas*, Gwyn Jones (ed.), Oxford University Press, 1961, p. 313

INTERPRET 7.8

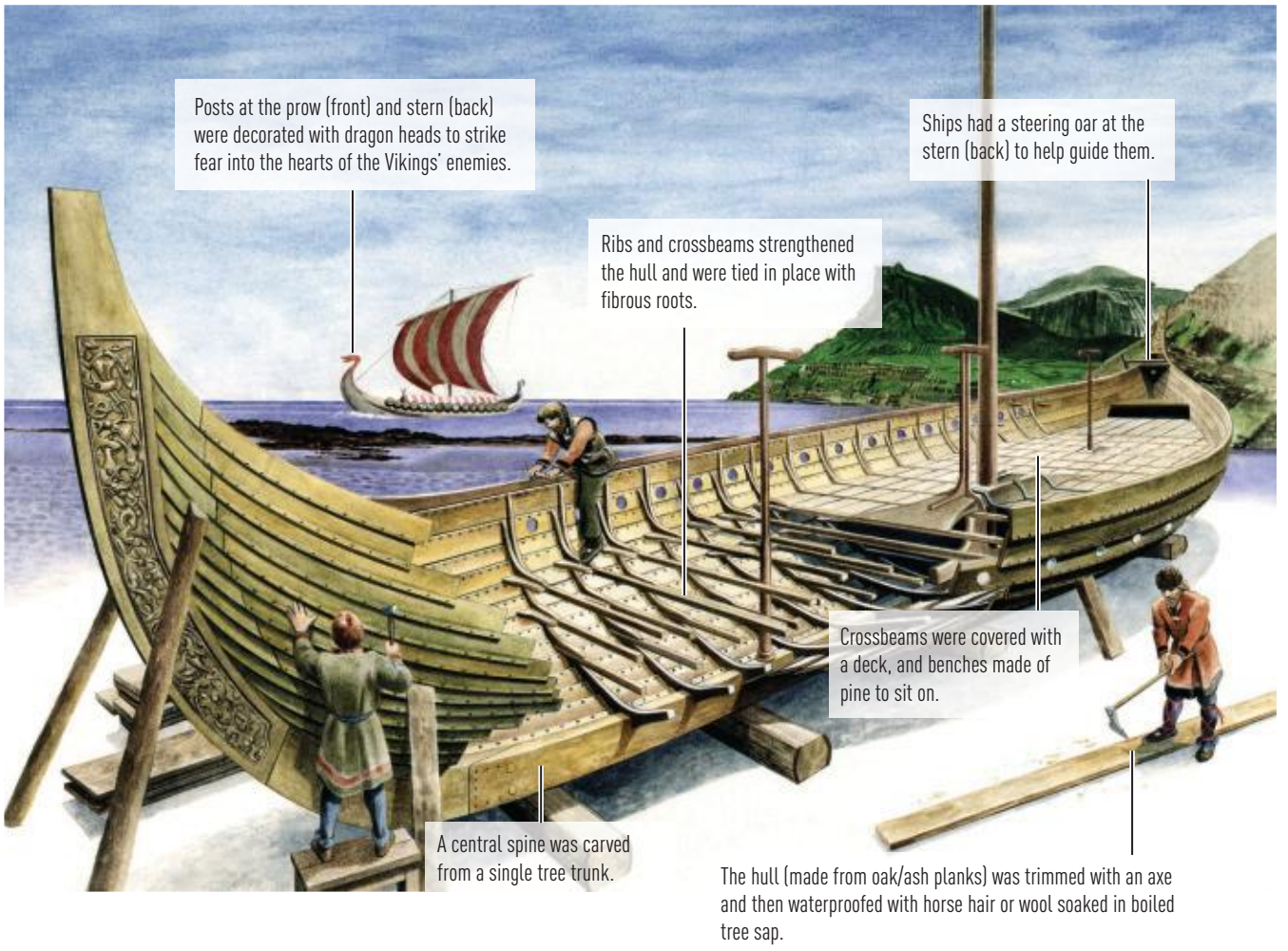
1. In your own words, describe the behaviour of the *berserkers*, as recounted in Sources 7.45 and 7.46.
2. Describe the artefacts shown in Sources 7.47 and 7.48. Explain whether or not they support the evidence provided in Sources 7.45 and 7.46.
3. Based on these sources, what do you think was the effect of the *berserkers* on the inhabitants of the monasteries and settlements they attacked?

Viking longships – built for raiding

The design and expert craftsmanship of longships gave Viking raiders great advantages when they travelled long distances and executed lightning raids. Longships were long and thin. They were twice as long as trade ships (up to 37 metres in length) and with a thinner and lighter hull. They could carry 100 warriors, 68 of whom were oarsmen. Being so light, longships were able to be carried or dragged overland for miles if necessary. This allowed Viking raiders to take their ships up any river and sail very close to shore, from where they could wade in quickly for a surprise attack.

The longships' huge square sails were made from pieces of woollen or linen fabric stitched together. The fabric was usually dyed blood red and coated in animal fat to make it more water resistant. In strong winds, the sail allowed for a fast sea or ocean crossing. Longships were also equipped with oars. If there was no wind, the sail could be lowered and the men could row instead. Rowing was also necessary to navigate rivers.

The blood red sail, together with the dragon heads at the prow (front) and stern (back) of a longship, helped to heighten the terror for raid victims. Vikings also believed that the dragonheads would frighten away evil spirits or monsters during sea crossings.



Source 7.49 An artist's impression of Viking shipbuilders constructing a longship

REVIEW 7.8

1. Describe the weapons and fighting style of Viking warriors.
2. What is the origin of the term *berserker*?
3. What advantages would a Viking leader have if his fighters included *berserkers*?
4. Explain how the design of longships helped the Vikings successfully execute their lightning raids.

VIKING EXPLORERS

The Vikings travelled great distances over land and sea. No-one can be sure of the exact routes they took, but the places they visited are known from objects and building remnants that have been found.

Source 7.50 Viking explorations in the Atlantic and dates of first settlements in this region

Viking settlements in Iceland and Greenland

Iceland was discovered by Viking travellers in 890. It was a land of volcanoes, glaciers, mountains and forests. However, there were good pastures for livestock, and the lakes and rivers were full of fish. By 930, about 50 000 Vikings were living in Iceland.

Erik Thorvaldsson, known as Eric the Red, also lived in Iceland after being exiled from Norway. But after repeatedly feuding with his neighbours in Iceland he was exiled again. So he sailed even further west in search of a new land. After finding land near a glacier called Blaserk, Erik spent two years exploring. In the summer of the third year he returned to Iceland. He called the land he had discovered 'Greenland', a name he hoped would tempt new settlers. In 986, he sailed back to Greenland with a fleet of 25 ships, only 14 of which survived the trip. Greenland must have been a great disappointment to the new colonists – it was even icier than Iceland. However, two settlements developed there (see Source 7.51), and eventually, around 3000 people made the country their home, exporting furs, hides, ropes, oils, woollens and sea ivory. But over the next centuries, Greenland was gradually abandoned because life there became more difficult. The climate became colder from the mid–13th century. Fewer ships visited the island and so the settlers became more isolated.

Source 7.51 Remnants of the eastern settlement on Greenland, founded by Erik the Red

STRANGE BUT TRUE

By analysing human bones found in Greenland, scientists learned that seal meat made up 80 per cent of the settlers' diet by the 14th century. The cooling climate had thinned out the pastures and meadows required to feed livestock, leading to a decline in the herds of cattle and sheep.

APPLY 7.8

1 Two different accounts of Leif's discovery of North America, the *Saga of Erik the Red* and the *Greenlanders Saga*, were written 200 to 300 years after the event. Conduct research on these sagas. Draw flow charts to outline the events according to the two different versions. Which saga do most historians believe to be the most reliable and why?

The Vikings in North America

In 986, the Viking Bjarni Herjulfsson was sailing for Greenland when his ship was blown off course in a storm. When the skies cleared he saw an unfamiliar landscape of tree-covered hills. He sailed along the coast for two days, without landing, before he turned back to the more familiar barren shores of Greenland.

Leif Eriksson, the son of Erik the Red, set out to follow up the tales that Herjulfsson had brought back. He became the first European explorer on the North American continent (if Greenland is not included). After landing at Baffin Island and at Labrador, Leif sailed further south to a more hospitable region. The *Greenlanders saga* (Source 7.55) records Leif's first landing in North America and how he and his companions spent the winter there. In the spring they found wild vines, and called the place Vinland.

Source 7.52

> ... they went ashore and looked about them. The weather was fine. There was dew on the grass, and the first thing they did was to get some of it on their hands and put it to their lips. It seemed the sweetest thing they had ever tasted! Then they went back to their ship and sailed into the sound [narrow waterway] that lay between the island and the headland jutting out to the north. ...
>
> There was no lack of salmon in the river, bigger salmon than they had ever seen. The country seemed so favourable to them that no winter fodder would be needed for the livestock. There was no frost all winter and the grass hardly withered at all.

An extract from the *Greenlanders saga*

Source 7.53 The heritage-listed site of L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland, Canada (with its reconstructed dwellings)

Historians cannot say for certain exactly where Leif Ericson's expedition landed in North America, but most agree it was probably somewhere on the east coast of Canada – possibly in Newfoundland. In 1963, archaeologists discovered the remains of a Viking settlement in a place now called L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland. Radiocarbon dating of charcoal found at the site indicates it was inhabited around AD 1000.

After Leif returned to Greenland, his brother and other family members made trips to the settlement he had established. Leif never returned though, and died in 1020. The new Viking settlement remained for a few years, but faced increasingly hostile attacks from the native people of the area. Eventually these attacks forced the Vikings to abandon the settlement and return to Greenland.

REVIEW 7.9

1 What was one of the consequences of the Vikings punishing crime by exile?
2 Explain why Erik the Red called the land he discovered 'Greenland'.
3 Why was Greenland eventually abandoned by the Viking settlers?
4 What is Leif Eriksson famous for?
5 What was the significance of the archaeologists' discovery at L'Anse aux Meadows?

WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION?

» Identify the extent of Viking exploration and trade

1 On a blank copy of a world map, mark the routes Viking merchants used for travel and the routes thought to be taken by Viking explorers in the Atlantic Ocean (use two different colours). Include a legend and write a caption for the map. (10 marks)

» Identify the regions conquered or settled by the Vikings

2 On the map drawn for Question 1, mark the routes used by Viking raiders and shade the areas settled by Vikings by the 11th century. (10 marks)

» Explain how and why Viking expansion occurred, including developments in weaponry and shipbuilding technologies

3 Outline the possible reasons why Vikings began to raid surrounding lands in the 8th century. What do you think was the main reason for Viking expansion? (10 marks)

» Discuss the theory that Vikings discovered America

4 What evidence exists for the discovery of America by Vikings. What difficulties do historians face in forming conclusions about exactly where Vikings landed and lived on the North American coast? (10 marks)

» Outline what sources reveal about different perspectives on the Vikings

5 Use your knowledge of the Vikings to discuss the topic 'Vikings – savage or civilised?' Refer to written and visual sources throughout the text, including those below. What do the sources reveal about Viking culture? In your answer, consider how the perspective of the person who wrote or created a particular source affects its interpretation. (10 marks)

Source 7.54

> A nation dwelling far from our country, barbarous, unchallenged, has ... like a wave of the sea, poured over our frontiers and like a wild boar has gobbled up our people as if they were grass or straw. Babies were torn away from the breast ... their mothers were slaughtered as well as oxen, horses and fowl. There lay an ox and a man by its side; a child and a horse found in a common grave ... Everywhere dead bodies.
>
> Photius, bishop of Constantinople in the 9th century

Source 7.55

> The lady of the house spread an embroidered cloth of white linen on the table and placed loaves of white wheaten bread on it. Then, she set out many dishes of fine ham and roasted fowls as well as silver jugs containing wine. They ate, drank and talked until the day was done.
>
> From *Egils saga*, a story of the Vikings

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Viking inquiries

1 Develop three inquiry questions about one aspect of the Viking Age that especially interests you – for example, weaponry, methods of attack, longships, or a specific raid, archaeological site or artefact. Before you write down your questions, read the information in the text and do your own research. Think about what you already know, as well as what you want or need to know. Focus your thinking by using words such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* as your question starters.

7.2

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

7.3 WHICH SOCIETIES DID THE VIKINGS CONQUER AND HOW WERE THE PEOPLE THERE AFFECTED?

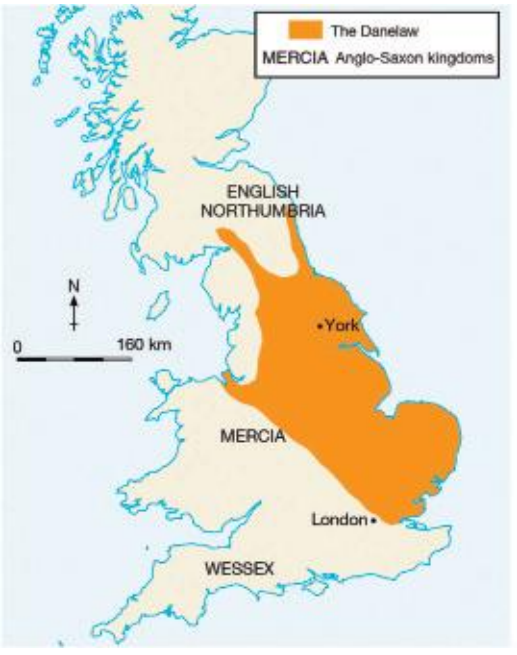
SECTION

In this section, you will learn how the Vikings affected the peoples they conquered. Although Vikings raided and then left many communities, in some places they settled. In England and northern Europe, local rulers gave the Vikings grants of land and money. As the Viking settlers began to mix with the local people, the language, customs and beliefs of both societies began to change.

EXTEND 7.4

1 Conduct research to find out the names and territories of England's kingdoms in the 9th century.

IMPACT OF THE VIKINGS IN ENGLAND



Source 7.56 The area of the Danelaw in AD 878 and some Anglo-Saxon kingdoms

When the Viking's Great Army arrived in 865, England was a number of separate kingdoms. King Alfred (the Great), who ruled the kingdom of Wessex, resisted attacks from Danish Vikings. By 878, he had forced the Viking leader Guthrum to accept a truce. The Vikings agreed to convert to Christianity, and Alfred gave them an area in England. This area of land became known as the **Danelaw** – meaning 'the area where the law of the Danes is enforced'. Vikings settled here as farmers and traders. Over the next 100 years or so, Vikings and Anglo-Saxons intermarried and mingled as they were brought together through trade and commerce. Viking settlers also began to change, especially as a result of their adoption of Christian beliefs.

The last Viking ruler of the Danelaw was Erik Bloodaxe. He was driven from the Viking capital of Jorvik in 954, and areas in northern England formerly controlled by the Vikings returned to English rule. But rebellions and attacks from Scandinavia continued over the next 100 years. A Danish king – Sweyn Forkbeard – briefly ruled England in 1013–1014 before an English king retook the throne. Then, in 1016, Canute – son of Sweyn Forkbeard – became king of England until 1035. After his death, his sons Harold Harefoot and then Harthacanute also ruled England. But after Harthacanute's death in 1042, the Viking dynasty ended. The Anglo-Saxon Edward became king of England. He was known as Edward the Confessor because of his fondness for religion and prayer.

APPLY 7.9

1 Conduct research to prepare a presentation on Alfred's life, including his family background, role in fighting the Danes, reform of laws and promotion of learning.

REVIEW 7.10

1 What was the result of the agreement between King Alfred of Wessex and the Viking leader Guthrum in AD 878?
2 For how many years did the Viking dynasty in England last?

THE RACE FOR THE CROWN OF ENGLAND

In 1066, King Harald Hardrada of Norway led the Vikings in a final attempt to invade England. This ended with the defeat of Hardrada, at the Battle of Stamford Bridge, a site close to York (see Source 7.56). But only a few weeks later, after the Battle of Hastings, England would be ruled by William of Normandy, himself a descendant of the Viking Rollo.

Source 7.57 A stained-glass window showing an image of Harald Hardrada (*c.*1015–1066)

Who should be king?

At the start of the year 1066, Edward the Confessor was the king of England, but he was not the most powerful man in England. That position was held by Earl Harold Godwinson of Wessex. Godwinson's sister Edith was married to King Edward and Godwinson himself was Edward's most senior advisor. Edward and Edith had no children, so when Edward died, on 5 January 1066, an assembly of nobles (called the Witan) met to decide who would succeed him. There were four possible candidates, whose claims are discussed below.

The four men vying for England's throne in 1066

Harald Hardrada

The Viking Harald had become King of Norway in 1047 and soon became known as Hardrada (meaning 'hard ruler'). Harald claimed the throne because he said that his family had been promised it by King Harthacanute. Harald was a violent man. He had had great experience in battle and was a renowned soldier of his time.

Source 7.58 Duke William of Normandy (1028–1087)

William, Duke of Normandy

Duke William of Normandy was a distant relative of Edward the Confessor. William claimed that in 1052 Edward had promised the throne of England to him after his death. William also made a claim about Harold Godwinson. He said that, in 1064, Harold Godwinson's ship had been blown by a storm onto the Normandy coast, where Harold had been taken prisoner. William had used his influence to demand Harold's release. Before returning home Harold had accepted a knighthood from William (which showed that Harold recognised William as his superior) and Harold had sworn to support William's claim to the English throne. This story was denied by Harold Godwinson.

Source 7.59 Edgar Atheling (1052–1125)

Edgar Atheling

Edgar Atheling was born in Hungary, in 1052, of English parents who had been forced to leave England. He was Edward the Confessor's great nephew and a descendant of Alfred the Great. Edgar had returned to England in 1057 and was 14 years old when Edward the Confessor died.

Harold Godwinson

Harold Godwinson had proven himself in battle when he had led Edward's army against the Welsh in 1063. He claimed that Edward, just before his death, had promised the throne to him. However, there were no independent witnesses to this claim. Earlier, in 1036, Harold himself had joined his father in a rebellion against Edward. Some question whether Edward would have been likely to have promised the throne to the Godwin family, or whether Harold had promised loyalty to William in 1064 when he had been captured in Normandy.

Source 7.60 Harold Godwinson (*c.*1020–1066)

APPLY 7.10

1 Take the part of one of the claimants for the English throne in 1066. Prepare an 'election speech' and leaflet explaining why you should be chosen king.

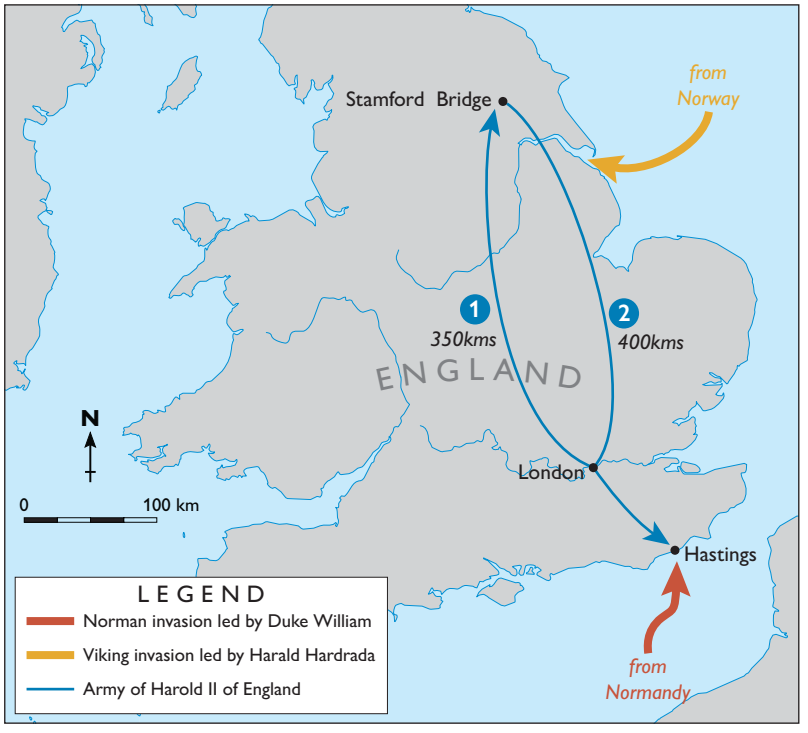
Two battles for the throne

EXTEND 7.5

1 With Hardrada was Tostig, King Harold's brother. Find out why Tostig landed and fought with Harald Hardrada.

The Witan chose Harold as the new king after Edward's death. He was crowned King Harold II. Messages soon came from Normandy expressing William's anger. Harold assembled an army to meet this challenge. Apart from his personal bodyguard of full-time soldiers, most of Harold's army was made up of village men who were obliged to fight for their lord when called upon. These men were mainly farmers whose only weapons were farm tools. From June to September 1066, Harold's army waited on the cliffs of southern England – but William did not come. He and his army were still in Normandy, waiting for the wind to blow them north to England and from Normandy so they could sail their ships across the English Channel. With no sign of William, Harold was forced to disband his army on 8 September, releasing men to return to their villages to take in their harvests.

Just as the danger seemed to have passed, news came that shocked Harold. On 20 September, Harald Hardrada had landed in Yorkshire in the north of England. His Viking army was about to capture the important city of York.



Source 7.61 The site of the two invasions that King Harold II faced in 1066

The Battle of Stamford Bridge

King Harold II had to decide whether to wait on the south coast for the greater Norman threat, or move north to deal with Hardrada. He decided to march north, gathering an army as he went. The army of 7000 men marched 350 kilometres in four days. Reaching York on 25 September, Harold found that the Vikings had left the city to rest in fields on either side of a river at a place called Stamford Bridge. Harold's men attacked their surprised enemies and slaughtered them. Although it had taken 300 ships to bring Hardrada's invasion force to England, only 24 were needed to carry the remaining Vikings home. Hardrada was not among them.

Harold and his army celebrated a great victory. However, in the middle of their celebrations news came that William had landed on the south coast on 28 September. The Norman invasion had arrived, and Harold had not been there to meet it.

The Battle of Hastings

STRANGE BUT TRUE

William of Normandy had a musician called Taillifer, who rode into battle singing songs in Latin, and repeatedly throwing his sword into the air. He died in the first charge.

Harold began the journey south, leaving behind soldiers who were wounded or exhausted, including some who had been his best fighting men. He scraped together another army of about 7000 men. They stood on the ridge of a hill near the port of Hastings, blocking the road to London. At 9 a.m., on 14 October 1066, the battle started when William ordered his archers to fire on the English line. The arrows did little damage because the Saxons were protected by their wall of shields. William then sent his cavalry forward in a series of charges, but they too were unsuccessful against the English. The battle stretched into the afternoon. During its course, William had three horses killed under him and at one point a rumour spread among the Norman soldiers that William had been killed. To prevent his followers losing heart, William raised his helmet to show them his face.

In a final push, William ordered his archers to fire their arrows into the sky so that they would drop like an iron rain on to the English soldiers. At the same time, his foot-soldiers and cavalry were sent forward. The Saxons' shield wall broke and Harold's brothers Gyrth and Leofwine were killed, protecting their king. Then Harold himself was killed. Some reports suggested he was hit in the eye by one of the falling arrows; others suggested he was ridden down and killed by the thrust of a sword. The Normans pursued the fleeing Saxons until darkness fell. William had won.

The Battle of Hastings was a turning point in English history. If Harold had held on and prevented William from reaching London and other parts of the country, William's campaign might have been unsuccessful. But as it was, Norman lords replaced Anglo-Saxon lords and became established as England's ruling class.

APPLY 7.11

1 Use the information in the text to create a timeline of the Viking and Norman invasions of England in 1066.

The Battle of Hastings

SOURCE STUDY

Sources 7.62 and 7.63 show scenes from the Bayeux Tapestry, an embroidered pictorial account of the Battle of Hastings and events leading up to it. It was made in England between 1070 and 1080, by order of Odo, who was the Bishop of Bayeux and also William's half-brother. A key message of the work is that anyone who breaks a solemn oath would be judged by God and die.

Source 7.62 Harold swears an oath on holy relics that he will accept William as King of England; a scene from the Bayeux Tapestry

Source 7.63 The death of Harold, as shown in the Bayeux Tapestry. He is shown twice, first plucking an arrow from his eye, and then being hacked down by a Norman knight.

INTERPRET 7.9

1 Describe what is happening in the scenes shown in Sources 7.62 and 7.63.
2 Whose perspective of the battle does the Bayeux Tapestry represent? Suggest why the scene shown in Source 7.63 would be significant for them.
3 Why do you think Bishop Odo ordered the story of the battle to be told in pictures rather than words?

REVIEW 7.11

1 Who wanted to rule England after King Edward's death?
2 What impact did Harald Hardrada's landing in September 1066 have on Harold's defence of his crown?
3 How did King Harold die, according to the Bayeux Tapestry?

THE LEGACY OF THE VIKINGS

After Harald Hardrada was killed at the Battle of Stamford Bridge, his defeated army sailed away. For historians, this marks the end of the Viking Age, although Viking attacks persisted into the 12th century. Although Vikings no longer spread terror from the northern seas, their influence on European culture would continue in a variety of ways.

Source 7.64 A battle scene from the movie *The Lord of the Rings*

Viking myths and legends

Many writers have been inspired by Norse mythology. They include J. R. R. Tolkien, whose novel *The Lord of the Rings* includes dwarves, elves, trolls, dragons and monsters, all of which are found in Viking myths. Epic battles that take place in Tolkien's novel are similar to battles in Norse sagas. Even the turf-covered homes of Tolkien's Middle Earth are inspired by the turf-insulated longhouses of Vikings.

Viking influences on the English language

Many words we use today are Norse in origin, such as *anger*, *scream*, *egg* and *give*. The names of the days of the week have their roots in Norse and in Old English. For example, *Thursday* comes from 'Thor's day' and Wednesday from 'Wodin's day'. Place names in Normandy, Russia, Ireland and England can tell us where Vikings settled. In areas of England once part of the Danelaw, many place names end in *-by* or *-thorpe*, which are Old Norse words for 'village' or 'farmstead'. For example, Grimsby and Scunthorpe originally meant 'Grim's village' and 'Skuma's village (or farmstead)'. Other words that come from Old Norse are related to the law and legal proceedings, such as the words *law*, *by-law* (local law) and *hustings*.

Viking artefacts and heritage sites

Archaeological sites of Viking settlements, found in Europe and North America, along with artefacts such as metalwork, coins, jewellery and runestones, are also important legacies of the Vikings. They provide evidence of Viking exploration – the Vikings were the first settlers in Iceland and Greenland, for instance, and the first Europeans to reach North America.

EXTEND 7.6

1 Christmas is a Christian festival, but many of its rituals and customs are from other cultures, and Viking customs have had considerable influence. Conduct research to find similarities in Christian traditions and pagan Viking traditions.

APPLY 7.12

1 Conduct research on the Viking origins of the names of some of the days of the week. Create a three-column table that shows the English name, the Norse name it is derived from and the meaning of the Norse name.

REVIEW 7.12

1 Create a graphic organiser to summarise the legacies of the Vikings in the modern world.

WHICH SOCIETIES DID THE VIKINGS CONQUER AND HOW WERE THE PEOPLE THERE AFFECTED?

» Explain and assess the impact of the Vikings on subject peoples in England and northern Europe, including the Danelaw

1 Outline when and how the Vikings came to control an area of England known as the Danelaw. For how long did the Danelaw last? (5 marks)

2 What was the impact of Viking control on Anglo-Saxon communities who lived in the area of the Danelaw? (5 marks)

» Discuss the significance of the Viking and Norman invasions of England in 1066

3 **a** Use a table format such as the one below to outline the major events, results and significance of the two invasions of England in 1066

b Then write a paragraph to discuss the significance of the invasions both for England and for the invaders. (15 marks)

Events and result of the Viking invasion	Significance of the Viking invasion	Events and result of the Norman invasion	Significance of the Norman invasion

» Investigate and assess the role of significant individuals involved in Viking expansion, and use sources to identify different perspectives about them

4 Identify a significant Viking leader or explorer and:

a assess their role during the Viking Age

b identify sources that provide different perspectives about their achievements and the events in their lives. Explain the different perspectives.

c suggest which sources about their lives historians find most reliable, and outline the interpretation of events in their lives that is most commonly believed. (15 marks)

» Discuss how the Vikings have influenced the world today

5 Identify and describe at least three areas in which Vikings have left their mark. For each area, explain how the Viking legacy has influenced the modern world. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Investigating the Bayeux Tapestry

Conduct research to find images of scenes from the Bayeux Tapestry. Select one scene, and use your own words to write a caption that describes what is happening (including images around the borders of the scene). Add your observations about the events, and comment on the evidence provided about the clothing and weapons of the two armies.

Source 7.65 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry

7.3

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

» Analysis and use of sources

» Research

» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

8

Source 8.1 A suit of armour once worn by a medieval European knight

MEDIEVAL EUROPE

Europe's medieval period (also known as the Middle Ages) lasted for about 1000 years. It began after the fall of the Roman Empire in Western Europe around AD 476 and lasted until around 1500. The medieval period was a time of great change in Europe. One of the most significant and lasting changes that took place was the spread of Christianity, which was first introduced to Europe by the Romans. Another important change was the introduction of **feudalism**, a system that helped to maintain order and stability in European society at a time of great change and uncertainty.

Towns and cities sprang up across Europe and grew rapidly in the late Middle Ages. Commerce and trade flourished, along with a desire for new goods from distant lands. By the end of the medieval period, new ideas about politics, religion, art and the law began to emerge that would lead to the birth of modern Europe.

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

8.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify the size of medieval Europe and learn about some key sites

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of societies across medieval Europe

» identify the roles and relationships of key social groups in medieval Europe

» outline the main features of warfare and military defence, or towns, cities and commerce in medieval Europe, and describe the way they changed or stayed the same

» identify ways in which the Catholic Church influenced life in medieval Europe

» investigate and assess the role of significant individuals in medieval Europe

CHECKPOINT 8.1

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

8.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» describe the daily lives of men, women and children in medieval Europe

» outline the main features of crime and punishment in medieval Europe, and describe the ways in which they changed or stayed the same

CHECKPOINT 8.2

WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

8.3 SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify and describe some significant developments and achievements in medieval Europe, including architecture, art, illuminated manuscripts, literature and music

» explain how relations between Islamic countries in the Middle East and Christian countries in the West changed during the medieval period

» investigate the importance of the Crusades and outline different perspectives on the Crusades, using a range of sources

» investigate and assess the role of significant individuals in the medieval world

» discuss how medieval Europe has influenced the world today

CHECKPOINT 8.3

MEDIEVAL EUROPE – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE

476
The Roman Empire in Western Europe collapses; start of the medieval period

800
Charlemagne, king of the Franks, is crowned emperor of Western Europe.

1042
Edward the Confessor becomes king of England.

1050
The Seljuk Turks, an Islamic people, take control of Jerusalem.

1066
Edward the Confessor, king of England, dies. Harold Godwinson succeeds him to become the last Anglo-Saxon king. William of Normandy invades England, defeating Harold at the Battle of Hastings to become King William I of England.

1086
The *Domesday Book* – a complete list of all property and livestock holdings in England and Wales – is compiled.

450 800 1040 1050 1060 1080 10

Source 8.2 An artist's impression of Charlemagne

Source 8.4 A 14th-century illustration of the Crusaders' assault on Jerusalem in 1099

Source 8.5 An artist's impression of King John of England reluctantly signing the Magna Carta

1099
The Crusaders capture the holy city of Jerusalem.

1215
The Magna Carta, the first-ever document outlining the rights of the people, is signed by King John of England; trial by jury starts to replace trial by ordeal

1337
Start of the Hundred Years War between England and France

1450
In Germany, Johannes Gutenberg invents the first printing press with movable type.

90 | 1100 | 1180 | 1210 | 1310 | 1330 | 1340 | 1450

1096
The First Crusade begins, the first of a series of wars between Christians and Muslims to be fought over the next 175 years.

1187
Muslim forces recapture Jerusalem, providing a motive for the Third Crusade

1315
The Great Famine of Europe, caused by bad weather and widespread crop failure, begins; it lasts for two years and kills millions of people.

1347
A deadly plague spreads across Europe, reducing its population by a third. The pandemic becomes known as the Black Death.

Source 8.3 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry showing the army of William, Duke of Normandy, crossing the English Channel to attack England.

REVIEW 8.1

1. In what year did the Battle of Hastings take place, and who fought in it?
2. What was the name of the first book that tried to list all the wealth of England and Wales?
3. What were the Crusades, and in which year did they begin?
4. When did trial by jury begin in England?

8.1

SECTION

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

In this section, we will investigate factors that influenced societies in Europe during the medieval period. The most important of these were the spread of Christianity and the introduction of a system known as **feudalism**. Both helped to preserve social order and provide stability at a time when European communities no longer had the Roman army to protect people against **barbarian** raids.

THE EXTENT OF MEDIEVAL EUROPE

The collapse of the Roman Empire in Western Europe in AD 476 led to the end of a relatively peaceful period. With Rome's armies no longer in control, barbarian tribes invaded and settled in previously Roman-held regions. Over time, leaders from these tribes established their own kingdoms and empires. Sources 8.7 and 8.8 show the tribes, kingdoms and empires that controlled Europe around AD 600 and around AD 1500. Over this time, rulers changed countless times as different barbarian leaders competed for territory and power.

The Kingdom of the Franks

The most successful of the new kingdoms in Europe during the early medieval period was established by the **Franks**, who were a group of Germanic tribes from central Europe. In the 6th century, a Frankish king named Clovis (*c.* 481–511) united all the Frankish tribes and ruled over them. Under Clovis, the Franks conquered most of the Roman province of **Gaul** – now part of modern-day France. In 496, Clovis became a Christian. In the early 8th century, Arab raids from Spain threatened the Franks' European territories. However, the Arabs were defeated by a Frankish army led by Charles Martel, the son of the Frankish king at this time.

Charlemagne – king of the Franks

In 765, Charles Martel's grandson became king of the Franks at the age of 23. Charles I – now better known as Charlemagne, meaning 'Charles the Great' – fought many wars and became the most important king in medieval Europe. His victories expanded the Franks' territories, until his kingdom became an empire that dominated Western Europe. Charlemagne brought Christianity to the lands that he conquered. In 800, Pope Leo III, the leader of the Catholic Church in Rome, crowned Charlemagne 'Emperor of the Romans'. This made him the first emperor of Western Europe, and the most powerful king in the Christian world. Later emperors of the Western Empire would be known as 'Holy Roman Emperors'.

Source 8.6 This 9th-century painting shows Charlemagne being crowned Emperor by Pope Leo III.

APPLY 8.1

1 Conduct research to find out more about Charlemagne's life. Prepare a short presentation about his achievements. Include at least two sources that show different perspectives of him. Explain why he was a significant individual in the medieval world.

Medieval Europe around AD 600 and 1500

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.7 Europe, *c.* 600

Source 8.8 Europe, *c.* 1500

INTERPRET 8.1

1 Use Sources 8.7 and 8.8 and an atlas to complete the following tasks.

- **a** Identify the tribes, kingdoms or empires that controlled territories in modern-day France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Greece, Hungary and Russia around AD 600. Complete the first two columns of the table below.
- **b** Complete the third column of the table by identifying the countries or empires that controlled the same territories around AD 1500.
- **c** Add three more rows to the table and add information about three other European countries of your choice.

Countries today	Tribes, kingdoms or empires, *c.* 600	Kingdoms or empires, *c.* 1500

EXTEND 8.1

1 Conduct research to find out about the extent of Charlemagne's empire at the time of his death in 814.

APPLY 8.2

1 Read the section titled 'Evaluating Sources' in 'The Historian's toolkit'. Use the questions there to identify the origin and purpose of Source 8.9. What other types of sources would historians search for in an investigation into the life and achievements of Charlemagne?

Charlemagne's son Louis the Pious and grandson Charles the Bald ruled an empire increasingly at war with itself. By 887, the empire had been reduced to a number of small kingdoms, which were the foundations of what we know today as France, Germany and Italy. Much of what we know about Charlemagne was written by Einhard, a member of Charlemagne's close inner circle. His accounts were written at the request of Charlemagne's son Louis.

Source 8.9

> [Charlemagne] ... was temperate [controlled] in eating, and particularly so in drinking ... While at the table, he listened to reading or music. He ... could express whatever he had to say with the utmost clearness. He was not satisfied with command of his native language ... [he] was such a master of Latin that he could speak it as well as his native tongue [language]. He ... cherished [valued] with the greatest fervour [passion] and devotion the principles of the Christian religion, which had been instilled into him from infancy [childhood].

Translated extract from *Life of Charles the Great,* by Einhard

The Normans

From the late 8th century onwards, Vikings began raiding communities across Western Europe and beyond. From their homelands in Scandinavia (modern-day Norway, Denmark and Sweden), Vikings first raided coastal settlements and monasteries in England, Ireland, Scotland and France. Over time, however, they settled in areas they had previously attacked. In 911, Vikings defeated the forces of Charles the Simple, a Frankish king who was a descendant of Charlemagne. The Vikings forced the Franks to grant them a large section of land in northern France. This region became known as Normandy ('land of the Northman'). The Viking leader Rollo became the first Duke of Normandy and people of Viking descent who lived there became known as **Normans**. In return, the Vikings promised to stop their raids on Gaul and to become Christians.

About 150 years later, one of Rollo's descendant, William of Normandy, would become King of England. William was one of several people who felt it was his right to rule England after the English king Edward the Confessor died in January 1066. Edward the Confessor was William's cousin. Another contender for the throne was a **Saxon** Earl named Harold Godwinson, who declared himself king shortly after Edward's death. This angered William, who sailed to England with a Norman army to invade and take the throne for himself. William's army fought Harold's army at the Battle of Hastings and was victorious. During the battle, Harold was killed.

Source 8.10 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry, showing William, Duke of Normandy (left) leading his troops at the Battle of Hastings

Winning the Battle of Hastings was only the first step in William's conquest of England. Most of southern England soon submitted to his rule, and he was crowned king on Christmas Day in 1066. But in 1069 a major rebellion broke out in the north. Leaders in medieval society dominated their people by force. William's brutal response to the rebellion in the north, known as the 'harrying of the north' is an example of this (see Source 8.11). It was so brutal that records made 16 years later in the **Domesday Book** showed large areas of the north were still empty.

EXTEND 8.2

1 Read the sections 'Who should be king?' and 'Two battles for the throne' in Chapter 7, and complete the activity in Apply 7.11.

King William's 'harrying of the north'

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.11

> He cut down [killed] many in his vengeance [for revenge]. He destroyed the homes of others ... In his anger he commanded that all crops and herds, property, and food of every kind should be collected together and burnt, so that the whole region north of the Humber [a river in northern England] might be stripped of everything to support life. As a result ... a famine fell upon the humble and defenceless population that more than 100 000 Christian folk, men and women, young and old, died in hunger.

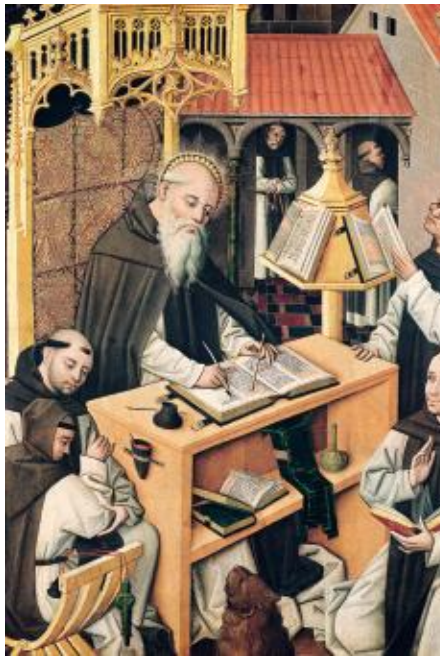
Extract from Ordericus Vitalis, *Ecclesiastical History*, 1123

INTERPRET 8.2

1 According to Source 8.11, why was there a famine in northern England in 1070?
2 The population of England at the time was about one and a half million. What percentage of that population died in the famine?
3 Why do you think William acted in this way? Can his actions be justified?

The *Domesday Book*

William established his rule across the whole of England. In 1085, he was threatened with invasion from Denmark and Norway. To defend his kingdom, he had to pay for an army. To raise money for this he needed to know what he was owed in taxes and rent from his barons, as well as how many knights owed military service. He sent out his officials to make a record of the wealth of the nation. According to the ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle***, 'so very narrowly did he have it investigated that there was no single ... yard of land, nor indeed ... one ox or cow or pig which was left out and not put down in his record.' The peasants did not like what was being done, rightly suspecting it was William's way of working out how he could increase their taxes. The records were bound together to form the *Domesday Book* (pronounced 'Doomsday'), in 1086. Monks prepared and copied the records in Latin.



Source 8.12 A 16th-century artist's impression of monks creating a manuscript

EXTEND 8.3

1 The *Domesday Book* has also been known as the Kings Roll or the Book of the Treasury. Conduct research to find out why it may have been given a nickname related to the word 'Doomsday'.
2 What types of information were gathered by the king's officials for the *Domesday Book*? Discuss how this might be used by historians today.

REVIEW 8.2

1 Identify the names of these significant individuals:
   - **a** the Frankish king who established a significant dynasty
   - **b** the first emperor of the Western Empire
   - **c** the English king who was killed at the Battle of Hastings
   - **d** the descendant of Viking rulers who became the king of England in 1066.
2 What was 'the harrying of the north' and what were its consequences?
3 What was the purpose of the *Domesday Book*?

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

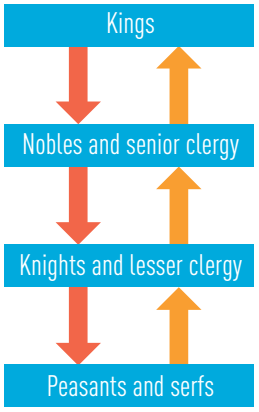
Feudalism was introduced across Western Europe between the 8th and 11th centuries. It was a social system based on rights and obligations between different groups, as outlined in Source 8.14. In Western Europe, the feudal system shaped societies until the early 16th century.

Feudalism originated in Europe as a response to the aggression of barbarian tribes. When Europe was part of the Western Roman Empire, ordinary people were usually protected against barbarian invaders by the Roman emperor's soldiers. When the empire fell, they no longer felt safe, and moved onto lands owned by wealthy and powerful lords. This meant that they could live under the protection of the lord's soldiers and take shelter in his castle during attacks. As payment, they worked the lord's land for him, tended his animals and provided other services.

Source 8.13 A 12th-century artist's impression of a knight swearing allegiance as a vassal to his lord

Feudalism in England

William established the feudal system in England after 1066. As king, all the land now belonged to him. He rewarded many of the Norman nobles who had come to England to fight for him with grants of land in England. After the conquest, William kept one-fifth of the land under his personal control, and granted about half to his nobles and a quarter to the church. The remainder stayed in the hands of Saxon landholders. A noble or churchman who was granted land became one of William's **tenants-in-chief** and was known as his **vassal** (from the Latin word for 'servant'). In other words, the man who was granted land owed William loyalty and service.



Source 8.14 In a feudal system, all members of society have both rights and obligations.

APPLY 8.3

1. Draw a pie chart to represent the portions of land that William personally controlled or granted to others. What percentage remained with the conquered Saxons?
2. Copy Source 8.14 and add labels that explain the feudal system in your own words, and the estimated number of people in each social group in William's time: 300 nobles and church officials; 4000 to 5000 knights and lesser clergy, and about 1.5 million peasants or serfs.

The king (or occasionally the queen) sat at the top of the social hierarchy. The king enjoyed great wealth and privilege, and hosted large and impressive banquets. He also faced difficult challenges in administering the country, fending off challengers to the throne and fighting wars.

The king granted land to nobles and senior church officials (his **tenants-in-chief**) in return for taxes, loyalty and military support. He also expected food, lodgings and entertainment from them when he and his court travelled around the kingdom.

Below the king were the nobles who were loyal to him, and senior church officials. As the king's tenants-in-chief, they kept some lands for themselves and also granted land to knights and more junior church officials (sub-tenants) in return for taxes, loyalty and military support.

Noble families often lived in large houses built on the land granted to them by the king. The land granted to a noble was his **fief**, which could include several **manor lands**. A manor land was a village and its surrounding farmland. Nobles ruled over the peasants and serfs who lived on his manor lands. To them he was 'the lord of the manor' and their labour provided his wealth and livelihood. Peasants and serfs were allowed to live on a lord's manor, under his protection, in return for working the land and providing food and other services.

The sub-tenants kept some lands for themselves (known as the **demesne**, pronounced de-main). They could then let some land to peasants, and give them protection in return for their labour and supply of food.

Knights made up only a small percentage of the population, but played an important role. Kings did not have permanent armies. Instead, in times of war his nobles were required to supply a fighting force of knights. The knights were obliged to protect the noble family to whom they had sworn allegiance and fight for the king.

Peasants and **serfs** worked on their lord's manor land. In return for their loyalty and payment of taxes, usually in the form of crops, they received his legal and physical protection. Peasants made up around 90 per cent of the population in medieval Europe. They did most of the physical work, most of which was related to farming. Their labour produced the food and other goods needed by the wealthy people, such as furniture and armour. They also provided much of the income of the rich through the rents and taxes they paid. Peasants lived hard and usually short lives.

Source 8.15 Social groups in medieval European society, and their mutual obligations under the feudal system

SOURCE STUDY

Social roles under feudalism

Source 8.16

> Like every other group, peasants were diverse, ranging in economic level from half-savage pauper to the proprietor [owner] of fields and featherbeds who could hoard money to send his son to university. The general term for peasant was villein ... which had acquired a pejorative [negative] tone, though harmlessly derived from the Latin villa [a house on a country estate]. Neither exactly slave nor entirely free, the villein belonged to the estate of his lord, under obligation to pay rent or work services for use of the land, and in turn to enjoy the right of protection and justice. A serf was someone ... who belonged by birth to a particular lord ... and, so that his children should follow him, was forbidden ... from marrying outside the domain.

Extract from Barbara Tuchman, *A Distant Mirror: The Calamitous 14th Century*, Papermac, 1989, p. 172

Source 8.17 A medieval artist's impression of peasants harvesting grapes and tending grapevines on a feudal manor. In the foreground, the lord of the manor is inspecting the peasants' work.

INTERPRET 8.3

1. Describe the scene in the medieval painting in Source 8.17, and identify the social groups that are depicted. Explain your reasoning.
2. How does Source 8.16 help to understand the feudal system in medieval Europe?
3. What does Source 8.16 suggest was the difference between a peasant and a serf?
4. Why were serfs not allowed to marry outside the lord's domain?
5. Suggest possible reasons why the word *villein*, meaning peasant, evolved into the word *villain*, meaning someone who is evil or criminal.

REVIEW 8.3

1. Why did peasants agree to work on a lord's manor and pay him taxes?
2. Define the following terms: vassal, fief, manor lands, demesne.
3. Explain why knights were an important group in medieval society.

THE MEDIEVAL CASTLE

Source 8.18 Chepstow Castle in Gwent, Wales. Construction at Chepstow started in 1067, making it the oldest surviving stone castle in Britain.

Feudal lords ruled their territory from their castles – fortified homes that were safe from attack. Castles became a feature of the medieval landscape. The Normans are regarded as great castle builders, and remains of their stone castles are the most visible and lasting sign of their rule in England, France and Italy.

In times of peace, only a small group of soldiers was needed to guard a castle. Towns grew up outside a castle's walls. They were home to the craftsmen, labourers and merchants whose livelihoods depended on the noble family who lived in the castle. Markets would be held within its walls, where merchants, farmers and craftsmen would sell their wares. This made the castle a social centre for the surrounding area. In times of war, castles became centres of military activity, as nobles called on their supporters, who were obliged to supply foot soldiers, armour, weapons and horses. Knights were obliged to fight and to recruit others to fight under their instruction.

Motte-and-bailey castles: These earliest castles were wooden fortresses on top of a mound of earth called a motte. The open area below was called the bailey, where barns, workshops and stables were located. The motte-and-bailey was surrounded by a ditch that was sometimes filled with water. For extra security, an earth bank and a wooden fence with a secure gate were added. Because wood rots quickly and burns easily, motte-and-bailey castles did not last longer than a few years. To stay in power and keep their wealth, nobles needed to build castles in stone.

Early stone castles: In early stone castles, stone walls (called curtain walls) and a stone keep (a strong, central building) replaced the timber palisade and fortress of the motte-and-bailey. The keep provided living quarters for the nobleman and his family. It was the most secure part of the castle. Norman keeps were four-sided. Their design evolved as castle designers replaced the traditional square towers (turrets) with round ones. Round towers were stronger, and stopped attackers from using the strategy of undermining castle walls at the corners.

Concentric castles: Concentric castles had two curtain walls, providing an extra barrier against attack. The curtain wall closest to the centre was higher, which allowed guards to see over the outer wall. The entrance and gatehouse were the only entrances. These were usually heavily fortified. All of this protection meant that in some castles the inhabitants could live in more comfortable buildings within the security of the walls, rather than in a keep.

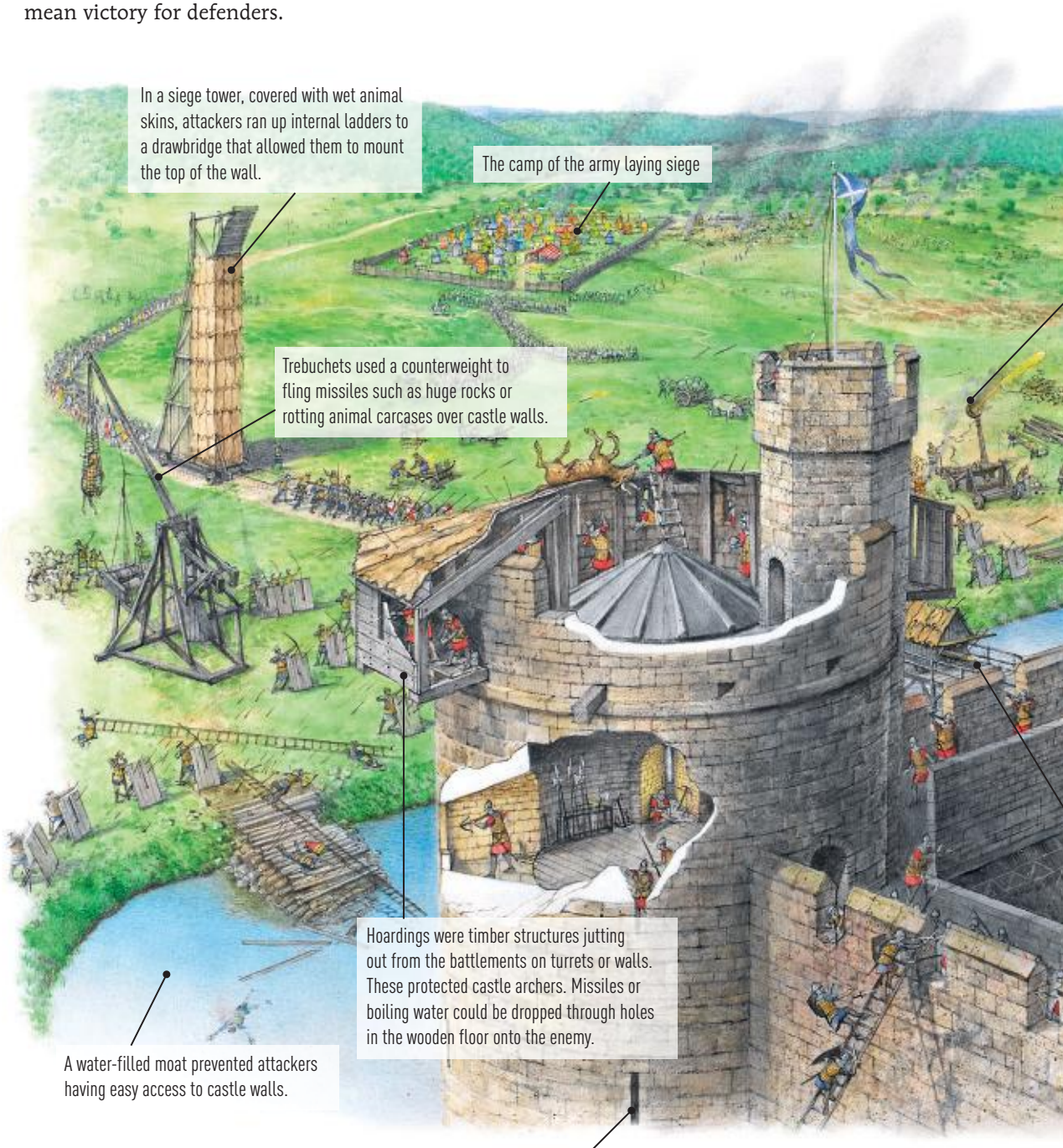
Source 8.19 Developments in castle design

APPLY 8.4

1 A castle was ideally built on a river or near a waterway; it would be high up with a view of the countryside, and it would be close to woods and villages. Discuss why each of these requirements would be important.

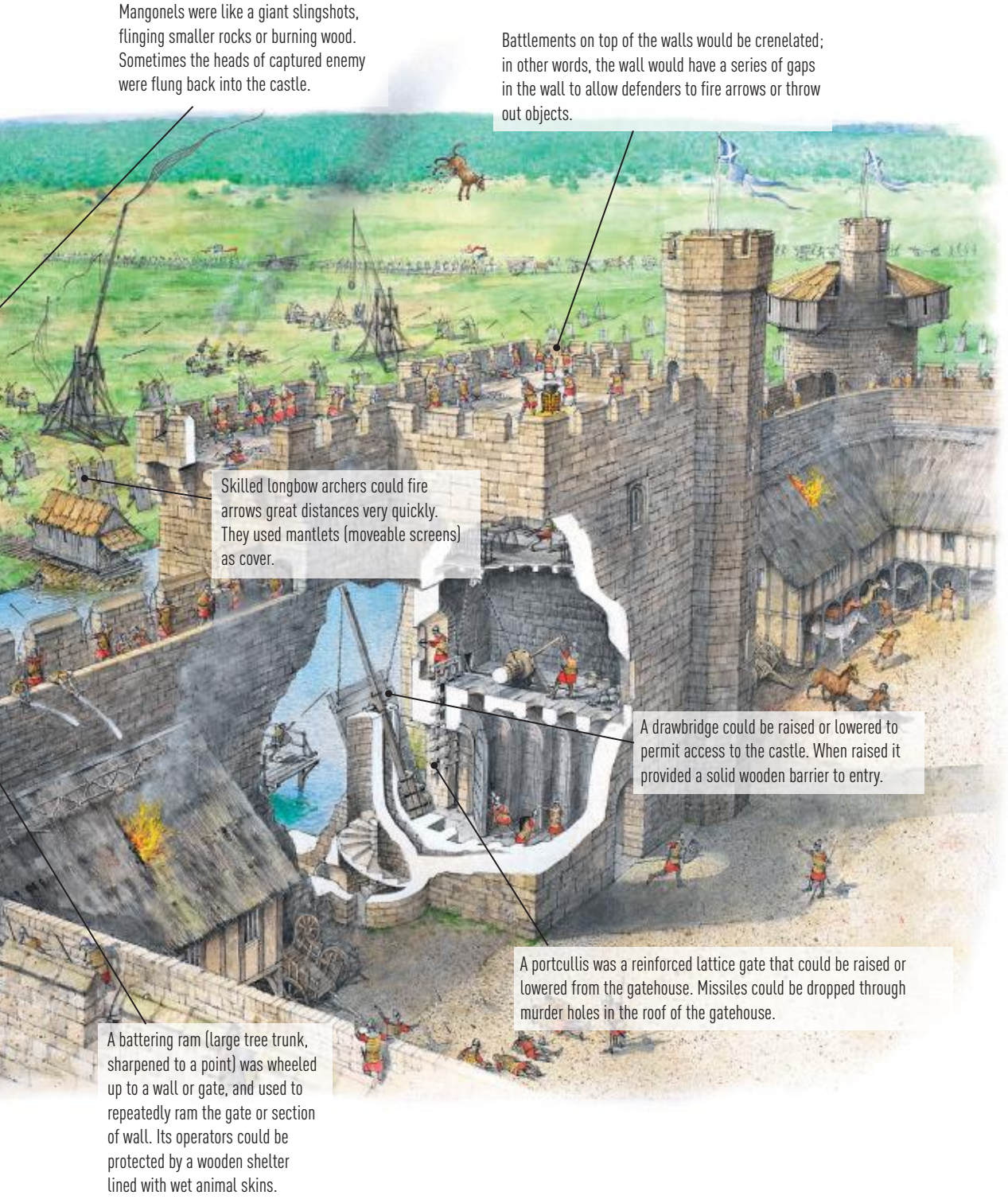
Castle sieges

Because castles were built to be defended, attacking them was not easy or quick work. An attacking army often laid siege to a castle. This meant it made direct attacks on the castle, at the same time surrounding it in the hope of cutting off the food supply to starve the inhabitants out. When a hostile army was approaching a castle and a siege seemed likely, servants and villagers who had went there for protection would often be expelled from the castle to make food supplies last longer for the defenders. Depending on the mood of the approaching attackers, these people might be allowed to leave safely or might be slaughtered! Sieges could go on for months, or even years, and there was no guarantee an attacker would win. The arrival of a relieving force, or an outbreak of disease in the attacker's camp, could mean victory for defenders.



REVIEW 8.4

1 Use a table with two columns to summarise:
   - **a** changes in castle design over the medieval period
   - **b** reasons for the changes.
2 What aspects of castle design and construction remained unchanged over the medieval period?
3 List weapons and tactics used by attackers and defenders in a castle siege.



Source 8.20 An artist's impression of an attacking army laying siege to a castle, and being fought off by the castle's defenders

KNIGHTS AND MEDIEVAL WARFARE

The feudal system helped to ensure that a country was well managed and farmed. This system also allowed a medieval ruler to raise an army at short notice in case of rebellion or war. Kings could not afford to maintain and feed a large force of knights as a permanent part of their household. The feudal system meant that a king had the promise of military service from his tenants-in-chief without having to pay for it. Each tenant-in-chief had to provide the king with a number of knights for forty days each year.

The mounted knight

Although earlier civilisations used soldiers on horseback, the first mounted knights in France appeared around AD 800. The Normans used the power of mounted knights, their **cavalry** (from *caballus*, the late Latin word for 'horse'), to win the Battle of Hastings. A knight's main occupation was to be a fighting man, but over time codes of behaviour and living, which came to be known as **chivalry** (from *cheval*, the French word for 'horse'), also became associated with knights.

Early on, a knight's armour was made of **chain mail**, consisting of small metal rings linked together. In the 1300s, armour made from metal plates became more common. These were the familiar 'suits of armour'. Only the very rich could afford a full suit of armour, such as that shown in Source 8.21. Others wore chain mail reinforced with plate armour at the points where the knight was most likely to be struck in battle.

Source 8.21 Armour worn by medieval knights from the 1300s

EXTEND 8.4

1 A knight's code of chivalry included a duty to protect the weak and respect the honour of women. Conduct research on the medieval code of chivalry. Do you agree with these notions of the correct way to behave? Have a class discussion to devise a modern code of chivalry.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Sabatons (plate armour on the feet) could extend further than the length of a knight's foot. Their length could vary from 30 to 80 centimetres, depending on the importance of the knight.

APPLY 8.5

1 Some historians have claimed that if a fully armoured knight was unhorsed he would lay helpless on the ground, too heavy to rise. Others disagree and point out that skilful armourers could make plate that was strong but reasonably light, making it possible for a knight to stand up and continue the fight. Discuss which side of the argument you would support.

The mounted knight in battle

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.22

> ... the essential elements for the attacker were surprise and mobility [the ability to move quickly] ... These requirements were best met in the mounted knight; protective mail armour and shield, a horse bred to bear the weight of a man so equipped, a high saddle and stirrups, which enabled the rider to put his horse's momentum [force or speed] behind his spearpoint, and the lengthy training which gave him the skill to control these elements and to act in concert with his fellows made the knight the dominant force in battle.

Extract from *Oxford Illustrated History of Medieval Europe*, edited by George Holmes, OUP, 1988, p. 122

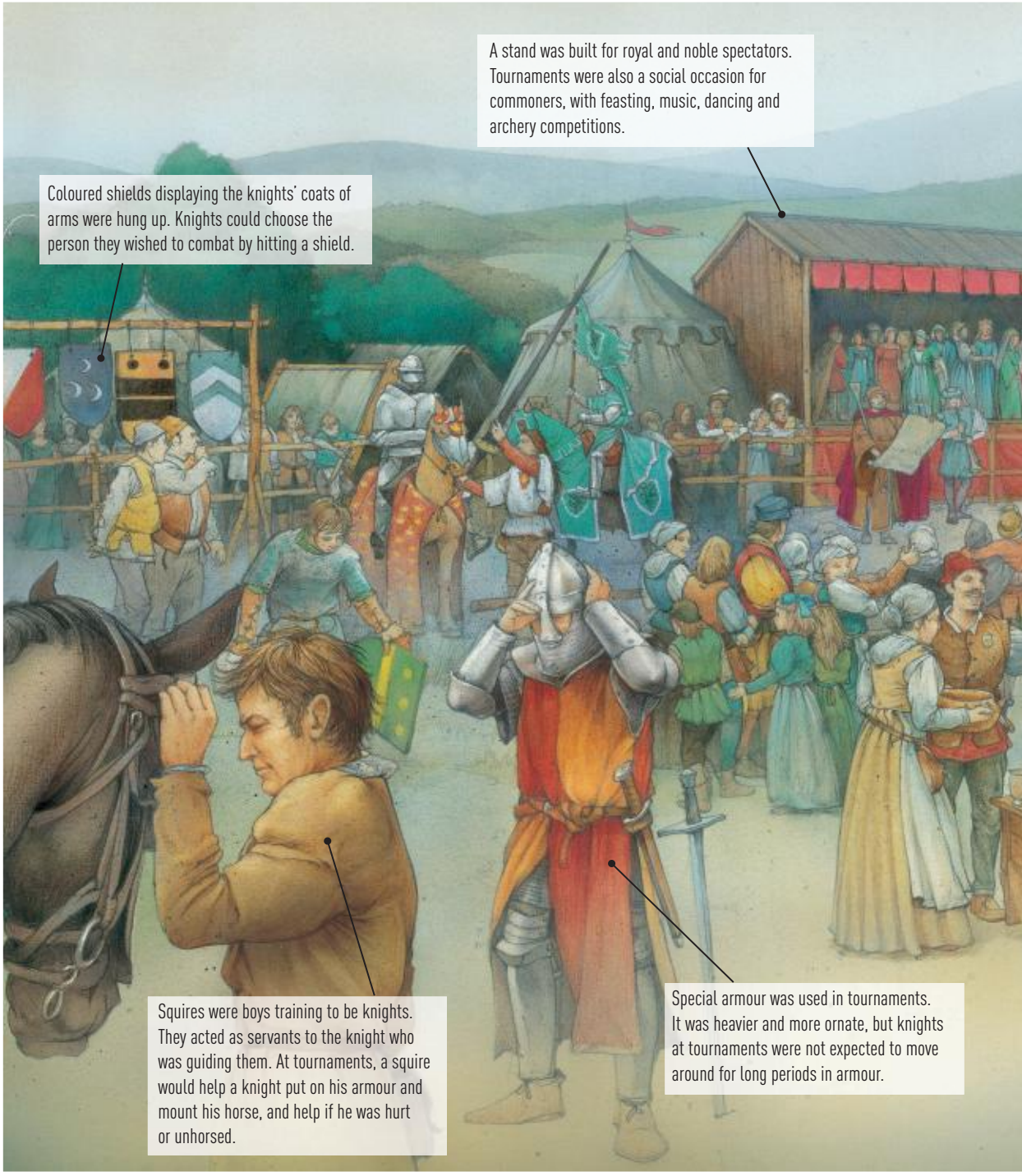
Source 8.23 An illustration from a French manuscript, *c.*12th to 13th century, shows a battle between knights

INTERPRET 8.4

1. Read Source 8.22. Explain why knights were 'the dominant force in battle', and include a labelled sketch in your response.
2. What might have happened to a charging knight not equipped with a saddle and stirrups?
3. According to Source 8.22, what two elements were necessary in a successful medieval attack? What advantage did knights have in terms of these elements? How do modern military forces achieve these elements?
4. Which aspects of the description of a knight given in Source 8.22 can you identify in Source 8.23?

Tournaments

Tournaments were held so that knights could practise and display their fighting skills. The earliest tournaments in the 11th century took the form of wild 'battles' between two teams of up to 100 knights. Fighting took place in the open countryside, using very real – and very deadly – weapons. Sixty knights were killed in one French tournament. In another, a knight killed his own son who was fighting on the opposing team. The church tried to ban these violent tournaments, insisting that those killed in them would go straight to hell. Instead, the tournament developed into a well-organised public spectacle, as shown in Source 8.24. The centrepiece of a tournament was a more organised battle and the **joust**. In a joust, individual knights armed with lances rode towards each other and tried to strike their opponent or knock him off his horse. Sometimes knights would dismount and carry on the contest in a swordfight.



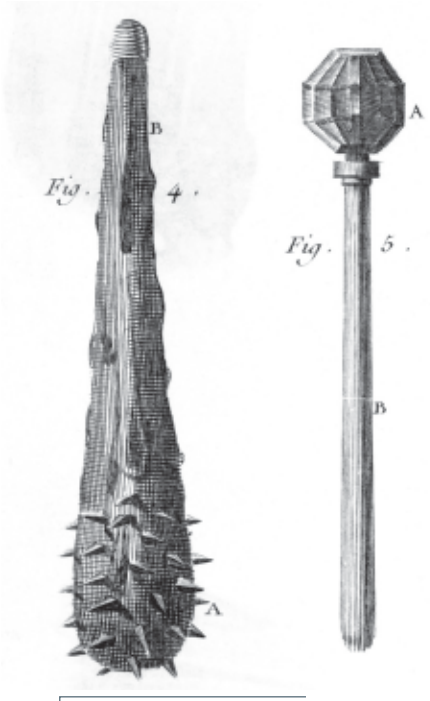
Source 8.24 A modern artist's impression of a medieval tournament

EXTEND 8.5

1 Conduct research to find out about the coat of arms displayed on knights' shields and on tunics worn over their armour. Why were they first used, and why did rules about them (known as heraldry) need to be developed?

APPLY 8.6

1 What modern events does this illustration remind you of? Use a Venn diagram to outline the similarities and differences between the medieval scene and the scene of a modern event. Consider, for example, the groups in society that sit in 'VIP boxes' in modern and medieval times.



Source 8.25 An illustration of medieval weapons: a morningstar (spiked club) on the left and a mace (iron club) on the right,

The changing nature of medieval warfare

The change from chain mail to full-body armour made shields less necessary. Consequently, swords and ways of using them also began to change. Knights could use larger and heavier swords, carried using both hands, to bash rather than cut or stab. Other weapons, shown in Source 8.25, could also be used more easily. The age of the mounted knight came to an end in the 15th century. The advantage he had held in battle was lost to the foot soldier, who used newly developed weapons such as the longbow, the pike and firearms that required gunpowder.

The longbow and crossbow

Archers became an important force in medieval battles because their arrows or bolts could go through armour. There were two main types of bow: the longbow and the crossbow. The longbow was a curved wooden bow, with a string (the bowstring) drawn by the two fingers of one hand, which released an arrow. The crossbow was a bow fixed across a wooden stock with a groove for the bolt. The crossbow required less skill or strength to use than the longbow because it had a mechanism for drawing and releasing the bolt.

A skilled archer armed with a longbow could shoot an arrow every few seconds. These arrows would travel over a long distance. A great advantage for English armies in this period was the quality of their longbow men. At the battles of Poitiers and Agincourt, fought in the 14th and 15th centuries, the speed and accuracy of the longbow men resulted in a massacre of French knights.

Gunpowder

Gunpowder reached Europe from China during the 13th or 14th century, where it was first developed about 500 years earlier. The use of gunpowder was a factor that helped end Europe's feudal system by changing how wars were fought. The early cannons and handguns could kill charging knights at a distance. Their use increased the distance between fighting armies. It also meant that all soldiers in battle now required armour. This made an army more expensive to equip, so only kings, rather than nobles, could afford them.

Source 8.26 The pike was a long heavy spear. It could be used to form a porcupine-like defence against charging knights.

As a result of these changed methods of warfare, knights became less important. By the middle of the 16th century, the knight in armour was still fighting in tournaments but was not used in battle anymore. War was becoming a job for full-time soldiers who led new types of troops, and the knights were left on their estates.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Before a battle, English archers would raise their two fingers towards the French in a rude salute, to show they were ready for work. It is a gesture still used by some people today.

REVIEW 8.5

1 Create a graphic organiser to show:
   - **a** developments in the armour and weapons used by knights, and their consequences
   - **b** developments in the weapons used against knights, and their consequences.

THE GROWTH OF TOWNS, CITIES AND COMMERCE

During the early medieval period, there were very few big cities. Rome was the largest city, while Paris and London were much smaller. Societies and economies were based on agriculture. The feudal system had worked because peasants farmed the estates of nobles in return for their protection against barbarian attacks. But, from about AD 900, barbarian attacks were not as frequent. With less need for protection, people gradually began moving to towns, where they could earn a living as a craftsperson, labourer or merchant.

Many towns grew up around existing castles or manors. Market towns developed in places where people from surrounding villages came to exchange their produce. Towns also grew up at sea ports or at river crossing points that were important for trade and transport.

Source 8.27 A medieval guild sign in Salzburg, Austria

Source 8.28 A sign in Rothenburg, Germany, designed to look like a medieval guild sign.

Guilds and moneylenders

A variety of trades and crafts emerged in towns. People working in specialist occupations – such as bakers, butchers, brewers, weavers and merchants – organised themselves into groups called **guilds.** The guilds controlled the quality and quantity of items produced in the town, set the prices, and trained apprentices in the skills of their trade. Each tradesman or craftsman paid a fee to be in a guild, and in times of hardship or sickness would be taken care of by the guild. Townswomen could have more independence than women living in villages. As well as looking after the household, they helped their husbands in their trade or craft. Sometimes, widows of master-craftsmen took over their husbands' trade after his death.

Over time, many towns grew into cities. By AD 1200, there were about 600 cities in Europe – three times as many as there had been 50 years earlier. Many cities also had cathedrals, which attracted Christian **pilgrims** as well as merchants.

As commerce and trade continued to increase in towns and cities across Europe, moneylending, banks and financial record-keeping also increased. Loans allowed people to buy and trade more goods, which boosted the economies of towns. Some merchant families became so wealthy they even lent money to kings and royal families. Many also invested in the construction of large public buildings, palaces and works of art for their towns and cities.

The independence of towns

As towns became larger, townspeople became wealthier, and they began to want more independence from the nobles who 'owned' the land on which the town sat. Many nobles continued to expect payment for the use of this land. Some towns were released from old feudal arrangements in return for large payments to noble families, with town charters setting these agreements down in writing.

REVIEW 8.6

1 Explain why towns started growing across medieval Europe.
2 Why would a peasant prefer to resettle and live in a town?
3 What is a similar organisation to a guild in modern times?

APPLY 8.7

1 In medieval times few people could read, so signs were hung outside shops showing what goods or services were provided. Design a sign for one of the following: blacksmith, baker, butcher, glover, cooper (barrel maker) or fishmonger. Then design a medieval version of a sign for a modern-day shop, such as the medieval-style sign shown in Source 8.28.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CHURCH IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

Source 8.29 An illustration from a manuscript, *c.*1500, which shows the common beliefs held in medieval Europe about the fate of people who had not earned a place in heaven.

Apart from a small Muslim population in the very south of Spain and Jewish communities within cities, almost everyone in medieval Europe thought of themselves as Christian. Most of medieval Europe lived under the influence of the Roman Catholic Church, which was the only Christian church then in existence.

In medieval times, people did not make a decision about whether or not to believe in a religion or attend a place of worship, as people do today. There was a firm belief in life after death, spent either in heaven or hell. The desire to gain entry to heaven and the terrible fear of hell motivated people to obey Church rules and customs. Everyone was expected to attend church services regularly – if you didn't you could be fined!

The Church and its leader, the Pope, had great power and influence. The Pope not only ruled on religious matters but also advised kings and princes. In 800, Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of the Western Empire by the Pope, which strengthened ties between the Church and his great kingdom. William of Normandy asked for the Pope's approval before his invasion of England in 1066.

By the middle of the 11th century, the Church was a well-organised hierarchy. Each country had a number of archbishops and bishops, powerful men who were advisers of kings. Bishops had the authority to **excommunicate** any Christian who did not follow Church law. Being excommunicated meant you could not participate in church services or receive the sacraments (sacred rituals). Excommunication meant that you would spend eternity in hell.

For most people, the main contact with the Church was through the parish priest in their village. The priest played an active role in the lives of villagers, by visiting the sick, comforting people in hard times, and carrying out important ceremonies such as baptisms, marriages and funerals. In return, villagers were expected to give one tenth of all their produce to the Church. This compulsary donation was known as a **tithe**. In most parishes, it was also the Church that established the schools.

REVIEW 8.7

1 What is a tithe?
2 What was the purpose of paintings such as the one shown in Source 8.29?
3 Give an example of the Pope's authority among kings and princes.

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Identify the size of medieval Europe and learn about some key sites

1 List the main tribes, kingdoms or empires that ruled Europe around 600. (10 marks)

2 On a blank map of Europe, add shading and labels to indicate the borders of European kingdoms and empires around 1500. Add some important cities of the time. (10 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of societies across medieval Europe

3 Outline when and how the Franks and the Normans established their kingdoms. What beliefs, values and culture did they bring to the lands they ruled? (5 marks)

4 What were the economies of medieval societies based on in the early medieval period, and who provided the labour within those economies? (2 marks)

» Identify the roles and relationships of key social groups in medieval European

5 What is the name of the system that shaped societies in medieval Europe? Explain why it was successful for centuries. (8 marks)

6 Use a labelled diagram to show the feudal rights and obligations that different groups in society owed to each other in medieval times. (10 marks)

» Outline the main features of warfare and military defence, or towns, cities and commerce in medieval Europe (including defence systems and commerce) and describe the way they changed or stayed the same

7 Sketch the types of castles that developed in medieval Europe. Include detailed labels to explain their features, and how they changed or remained the same. (15 marks)

8 How did the armour and fighting methods used by knights change or remain the same during the medieval period? What were the reasons for changes? (5 marks)

9 Outline the ways in which towns and cities developed in medieval Europe. (5 marks)

10 Identify developments in weaponry during the medieval era. Explain the consequences of new tactics and weapons for the role of knights. (5 marks)

» Identify ways in which the Catholic Church influenced life in medieval Europe

11 What medieval belief led to the Church's dominating influence? How did the Church reinforce this belief? (5 marks)

12 How did the Church play a part in the day-to-day lives of ordinary people? (5 marks)

» Investigate and assess the role of significant individuals in medieval Europe

13 Identify a significant individual of the medieval world and; outline their achievements; explain the impact they had on their own society; explain the broader significance of their achievements, and their legacy in the modern world. (15 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

Investigating a significant event

1 Choose one of these three significant events:

- the Great Famine that affected northern Europe from 1315 to 1317
- the Hundred Years War, fought between England and France between 1337 and 1453
- the Black Death, the plague that reached Europe in 1347.

Use sources to describe the nature of your choosen event, and how it affected both ordinary people and society as a whole.

8.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

» Research

» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

8.2 WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

SECTION

In this section, you will learn more about daily life in medieval Europe. People's lives at this time depended on which social group they were born into. This determined whether their family owned land or worked on it. Living conditions also varied, depending people's level of wealth, whether they in the country or in a town, and whether they were male or female.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

There were no bathrooms in medieval times. The toilets, or garderobes, had long chutes that deposited the waste outside. Strips of torn fabric were used as toilet paper. People believed the smell from a toilet protected their clothes from moths and other insects. The name *garderobe* comes from the French *garder* ('to keep') and *robe* ('dress').

DAILY LIFE FOR NOBLE FAMILIES

Life in Norman castles centred around the keep – the main fortified building (see Source 8.31). A typical day for a nobleman's family began at sunrise. By then, servants were already up, lighting the fires in the kitchen and Great Hall, and preparing meals. The beds of the wealthy had blankets, sheets, feather pillows and fur covers. Tapestries covered up draughty cracks in stone walls.

The members of a noble family would wash in tubs and get dressed each morning, often with the help of servants. After breakfast, nobleman and his wife would usually visit their private chapel. While they did this, servants would continue with the tasks necessary to keep the household running, such as cleaning and sweeping rooms, making beds, and preparing food. The nobleman's tasks for a day might include receiving rents, presiding over a manor court or visiting another castle he owned. Many pastimes were a privilege of the wealthy. Hunting was a popular activity and a common way to entertain a guest. At night, there might be a feast for an important visitor.

In wealthy families, women might spend their time embroidering, spinning or weaving. The wife of a nobleman would oversee the work of the needlewomen employed at the castle, and of the kitchen staff and young pages. Her personal servants were her ladies-in-waiting.

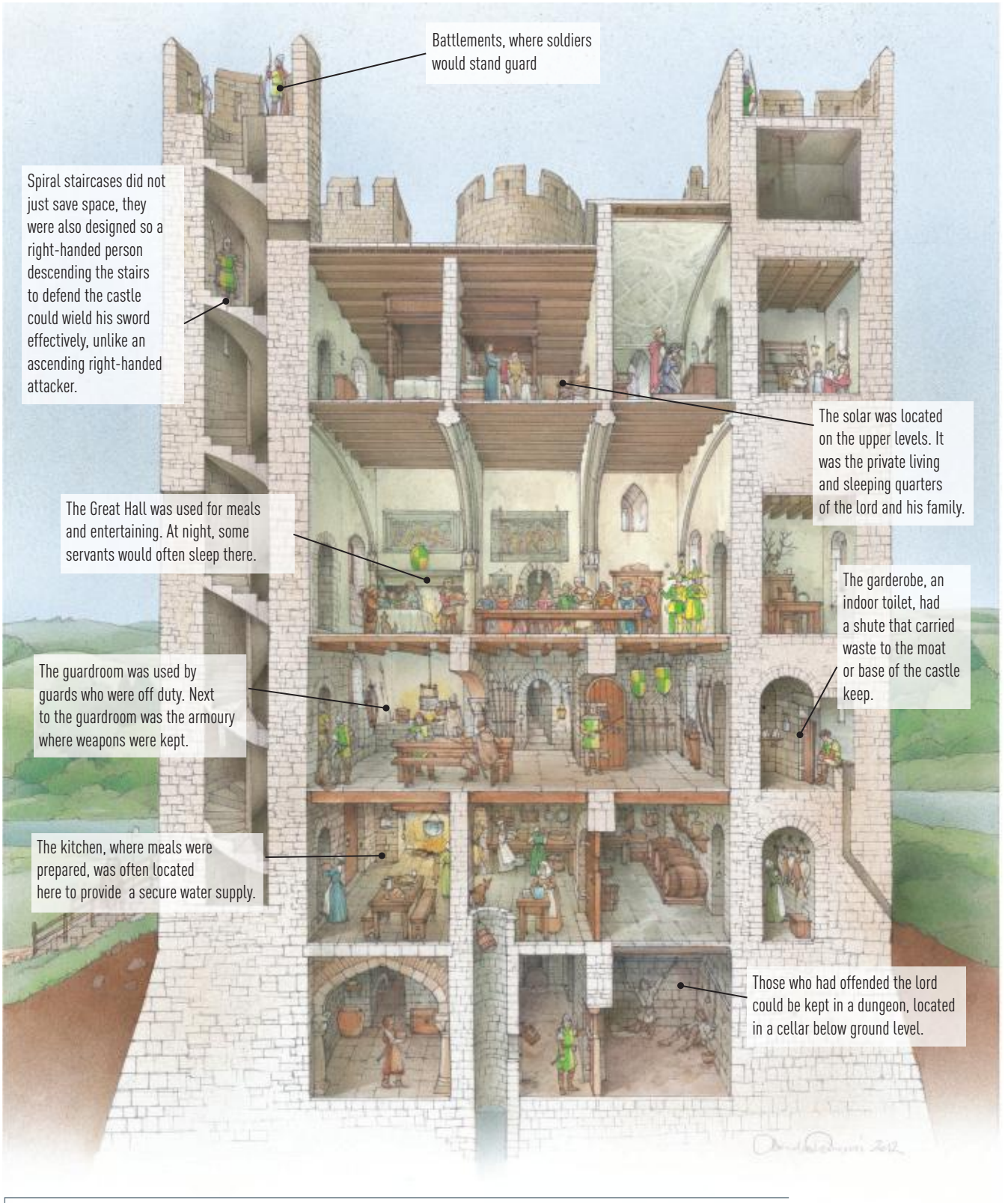
SOURCE STUDY

A nobleman's life

Source 8.30 This 14th century illustration shows a hunting party of nobles.

INTERPRET 8.5

1. Describe the activities depicted in Source 8.30.
2. Why were pastimes such as the one shown in Source 8.30 'the privilege of the wealthy'?
3. What does Source 8.30 reveal about fashions worn by wealthy people in medieval Europe? Compare them with the clothes of the falconer on the right.



Source 8.31 The castle keep

REVIEW 8.8

1 What were the purposes of a castle keep?
2 Identify the features or areas of a castle keep that relate to these purposes.
3 What roles could wealthy women have in medieval Europe?

Source 8.32 A modern artist's impression of a typical feudal manor

LIFE ON A FEUDAL MANOR

In medieval Europe, about 90 per cent of the population lived and worked in small villages on a lord's manor land. A nobleman might be the lord of several manors, scattered over the countryside. In a typical village, the most notable building was the manor house where the lord would stay when he was in the area. Next was the church, usually the only stone building, and often the only buildings that can still be seen today.

Between 50 and 200 people lived in a medieval village. Most were peasants who had small cottages with gardens where they grew vegetables and kept chickens and other livestock. Villagers who owned cattle and sheep could graze them on the common land.

Surrounding the peasants' huts were three farming fields. Though medieval people did not understand the science of agriculture, they knew from experience that if a field is overused it loses its 'goodness', or nutrients, and poor crops result. To avoid this, a system of crop rotation had evolved whereby each field would be left fallow (that is, not sown with crops) every third year. Cattle and sheep would be turned loose in the fallow field to graze and manure it.

Water sometimes came from a well but more often from a nearby river. A mill for grinding grains and corn would be located on the river. The flowing water was used to turn the water wheel that powered the mill.

APPLY 8.7

1 Based on the information in the text, label a sketch or copy of Source 8.32 to show as many features of a feudal manor as possible, including people working at their occupations.

Source 8.33 Occupations and roles of people living on a feudal manor

Steward	Appointed by the lord of the manor to keep the accounts, preside at the manor courts when the lord is away, and organise farm work on the manor
Bailiff	Appointed by the lord to manage the farm work in the village
Reeve	One of the peasants, elected each year to make sure people are at work on time, carry out their duties, and give their proper share of produce to the lord. His job was difficult and unpopular.
Gamekeeper	Patrolled the forests near the manor to ensure peasants did not hunt there
Miller	Ground the grain and corn for the manor in the lord's mill. He kept a portion as payment for his work.
Parish priest	Appointed by the lord to run parish church services. Villagers had to pay a tax, or tithe, to him, as well as taxes to the lord.
Hayward	Was responsible for looking after the crops and preventing animals from damaging them
Cowherd	Looked after the cows during the day as they grazed. He was fined if he allowed them to stray into the croplands.
Swineherd	Looked after the villagers' pigs. Every day he collected them from the cottages, took them to the woods, then brought them home before nightfall.
Thatcher	Made roofs from bunches of reeds collected from swamps and riverbanks
Peasants and serfs	Ploughed the fields using teams of oxen; by hand, sowed seeds and harvested crops. They farmed their own strips of land and tended their own livestock after working on the lord's land. Serfs also built roads, took care of stables, worked as blacksmiths, laundered clothes, and practised crafts such as spinning and weaving. Peasant women cooked; spun and wove the family's clothes; grew vegetables, and kept chickens. They were also worked in the fields at busy times.

EVERYDAY LIFE FOR PEASANT FAMILIES

A typical peasant's cottage had walls made of wattle-and-daub (woven sticks and mud), and a thatched roof made of reeds. It had one or two dark, smoky and cold rooms, which the peasants would share with their chickens and pigs. A central fireplace was used for cooking and heating. The smoke would make its way out of a hole in the roof. The earth floor would have been covered in straw, and the windows were tiny to keep out the cold. Furniture usually consisted of a couple of three-legged stools, a trestle table which could be folded away after meals, a chest for storage and straw-filled mattresses for sleeping on. Animal skins were used for bedding, with perhaps a coarse woollen blanket. Peasants slept in their day clothes, and although their underclothes were washed, their outer clothes were seldom changed.

People did not eat much food except at harvest time. There would also not be enough animal food to keep larger animals through winter, so most were killed and preserved with salt at the end of September. By the end of winter, any meat a peasant had left would be old, rancid and maggoty. Death from starvation was not uncommon in medieval times.

A peasant woman's life

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.34 A 13th-century illustration of a peasant woman milking a cow, in England

Source 8.35 A 14th-century illustration showing a woman throwing corn to hens and chickens

Source 8.36 A 14th-century illustration of a woman spinning wool

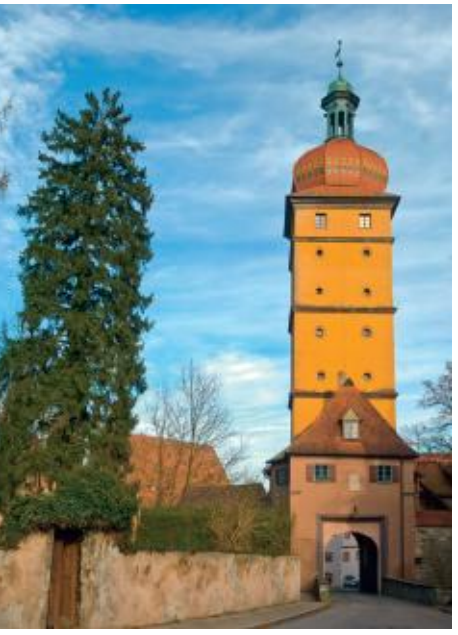
INTERPRET 8.6

1 What evidence do Sources 8.34 to 8.36 provide about the role of women in medieval Europe?
2 Using these sources to guide you, write the daily diary entries that might have been written by a peasant woman over the course of a week – if she had been able to write.

REVIEW 8.9

1 Why was it important to leave some fields fallow?
2 What was the role of the miller and how was he paid for his work?
3 List some of the daily tasks for peasant men and women.

LIFE IN MEDIEVAL TOWNS



Source 8.37 A medieval town gate in the Dinkelsbühl, in Germany

Towns in the medieval period were surrounded by walls to provide some security in case of attack. Walls were also a way of controlling entry to the town, with town gates usually opened at sunrise and closed at sunset. Tolls could be charged to visiting merchants. Stone walls were expensive to build so towns were quite small and space within the walls was limited. Streets were narrow and houses were built tightly packed, with upper storeys that jutted out above the floor below to maximise space. The upper stories of houses on opposite sides of a street sometimes almost touched each other, making the ground floors dark and airless.

Animals wandered the streets of the town, which were filled with the smells of animal manure, household rubbish and human waste. Chamber pots were usually emptied directly onto the streets. This all made for unhealthy living conditions, and disease and death rates were higher than in the countryside.

Fire was also a constant danger in a medieval town, since buildings were made of wood until the 14th century. Wood fires were used for cooking and heating, and candles gave light. Coal was used as a cheaper fuel, particularly in trades such as brewing, cloth dying and tanning (turning animal hides into leather). Polluted air from all the smoke was a fact of life for medieval townspeople. Despite the living conditions, newcomers continued to arrive from the countryside in search of a better life, free from the old feudal restrictions.

Source 8.38 A woodcut from the 15th century shows a view of Siena in Italy

Source 8.39 A crowd in one of Siena's narrow streets, during a festival

STRANGE BUT TRUE

When emptying urine out of an upper window, householders shouted the warning *Gardez-l'eau* (French for 'Look out for the water'). In English, this soon changed to 'Gardey loo', which gives us one of today's slang words for a toilet – the loo!

APPLY 8.8

1. Conduct research to create a photo montage of modern-day images of Siena, a city that has preserved many of its medieval characteristics.
2. Identify key landmarks of Siena which are shown in Source 8.38 and still exist.
3. List the features of Siena that have changed or remained the same since medieval times, based on your observations from photos and knowledge of life in medieval towns.

REVIEW 8.10

1. Imagine the sights and sounds you might experience in a medieval town. Use a 'Plus, Minus, Interesting' chart to capture your thoughts and observations.

MEDIEVAL CHILDHOOD AND EDUCATION

In medieval Europe, children's chances of receiving an education depended on their gender and social status.

Source 8.40 An illustration of a school lesson; decorated with gold or silver, from an early-15th-century French manuscript

Education of peasants

Children of peasants helped with farm work and did not usually go to school. Young children had less physically demanding jobs than adults, such as chasing birds away from crops or picking up stones. With the lord's approval, a peasant boy might receive some schooling in Christian teaching, basic arithmetic and Latin from the local priest. From the 13th century, village schools were also established and peasant children could attend when they were not needed for work. Children began their working lives earlier than children today do. Between the ages of 12 and 14, a boy would start to work the lord's land, just as his father would have. Children might also be sent away to become servants at a lord's house. As well as learning household skills, they would no longer be an expense for their parents.

Education of the wealthy

The children of nobles were more likely to be educated than peasant children, either at home or after being sent to live in another nobleman's home. The most able students could later attend university. The University of Bologna in Italy, Oxford and Cambridge universities in England and La Sorbonne in Paris are among the oldest universities, all of which were founded between the 11th and 13th centuries.

The son of a noble who hoped to become a knight would leave his parents at the age of seven to live with another noble family. For the next seven years, he would act as a **page** (a young male servant) to a lord. He would also learn to sing, dance, play a musical instrument, and wrestle and fight. At the age of fourteen, the page would become a squire, and learn to use weapons and fight on horseback.

Girls in noble families were not usually educated. Instead they were taught how to manage a household, and learned how to spin wool, weave, sew, sing and play a musical instrument.

Education in towns

As trade and commerce became more important in medieval towns, so did the demand for a more educated population. Sons from wealthier families attended schools established by merchants or town guilds. They were known as 'grammar schools'. At this time, Latin was the language of business and trade, and Latin grammar was a large part of the boys' education. In towns, boys could also become apprentices, at the age of 10, to learn a trade from a master craftsman.

REVIEW 8.11

1 Create a table to outline the types of education available to children from different groups in medieval society.

APPLY 8.9

1 Conduct research to find out more about medieval school life, such as the length of the school day, subjects taught and teaching methods. Use a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between medieval and modern-day schooling.

MEDIEVAL FOOD

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In medieval times, water was often unsafe to drink. Instead, most people drank beer or wine. A drink known as 'small beer' (a weak, low-alcohol beer) was brewed for children and women, and for labourers as a thirst-quencher so they did not get drunk on the job.

There were no supermarkets, refrigerators or household ovens in medieval times. People killed their own animals and preserved meat by salting, smoking or pickling it. To make bread, they went to the miller to have their grain ground into flour, then paid to bake their bread in ovens owned by the lord. People used spoons, knives or their fingers to eat. Instead of plates, most people ate meat and vegetables off thick slices of bread called **trenchers**. The trenchers sopped up all the juices from the food, and then people could eat the trencher or give it to the poor as a meal.

Nobles and other wealthy people ate a wide variety of foods, and held banquets to celebrate events such as religious feast days, marriages, coronations, tournaments and the arrival of important guests. At banquets, food was not separated as it is today so that savoury dishes were followed by sweet desserts. Instead, different sweet and savoury dishes were laid out all together in a 'luxurious chaos'.

Most peasants ate a simpler and less varied diet than the rich. Their main meal was eaten during the day, while working in the fields. Peasants ate very little meat, as they were often too poor to own and raise animals. Hunting for game (wild animals) in the lord's forests was forbidden.

What the rich ate and drank	What the poor ate and drank
Meat from domestic animals (cows, pigs and sheep) and game animals (deer, wild boars, pheasants)	Grainy bread, stews, milk and cheese
Fish, stews, soups, pies and tarts, jellies and custards	Vegetables and fruit when available
Bread, cheese and eggs	Porridge made from oats or barley
Fresh fruit and vegetables	Nuts and berries from the forests
Ale, wine or mead (brewed from honey and water)	Fish, if they lived near a river or the sea
	Meat, often preserved
	Water, ale

Source 8.41 Eating habits of the rich and poor in medieval Europe

Source 8.42 Detail of a German woodcut printed in 1518, showing the interior of a kitchen

Medieval banquets

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.43 A 15th-century illustration of a banquet

Source 8.44

> There are cinnamon, juniper berries, and sugar in your beef, sandalwood [used as a red food colouring] in your bread ... The pheasant on your plate has been dead for some days, but no matter – it swims in a sauce of seventeen spices ... you eat with your fingers, and your plate will be eaten by the hungry at the gate. You drink spiced wine and mulled ale by the quart, sharing the goblet with your neighbour.
>
> Extract from Robbie L. Cranch, 'Herbs for a Medieval Feast', *The Herb Companion*, December/January 1991, pp. 14–23

INTERPRET 8.7

1. Source 8.44 describes a 12th-century banquet. What does this meal tell us about its host?
2. What is the 'plate' that 'will be eaten by the hungry at the gate'?
3. Describe the scene in Source 8.43. Based on the information in the text and your observations, list the similarities and differences between medieval and modern banquets.

REVIEW 8.12

1. What spices were used for in the preparation of food?
2. What are trenchers?
3. Explain why wealthy people had plenty of meat in their diets, while peasants had little.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Spices were used to flavour food, but also to disguise the taste of old and rotting meat. Sometimes dogs were used to test the safety of eating such meat.

MEDIEVAL CRIME AND PUNISHMENT

Laws and punishments in medieval Europe were extremely harsh. Kings and the nobility created and enforced the laws, and believed that peasants and common people would only behave properly if they feared what would happen to them if they broke the law. There were no police or prisons, so punishments involved fines, public humiliation or physical pain.

Crime and punishment in villages

In a village, the lord would be in charge of the manor court. Fines were a common punishment, but there were others. A woman found to be guilty of gossiping, nagging her husband (in which case she was known as a scold) or using foul language would be forced to wear a scold's bridle. A peasant who educated his son without the lord's permission could be fined, or put in the stocks (see Source 8.47). The pillory was a punishment in which the guilty person was locked in stocks and had rotten fruit and vegetables thrown at them by other villagers.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In the 13th century, stocks were built in every town and village. The use of stocks and of the pillory continued into the 19th century, along with the scold's bridle, which was used in some workhouses.

Punishments for serious crimes

Serious crimes, such as major theft or murder, would be tried at higher courts. Punishments could include branding (burning a mark on the skin); cutting off hands, ears or tongues; being held in a lord's dungeon; or execution. Ordinary people were executed by hanging. Their bodies would be left to rot in public as a warning to others to obey the law. People of higher rank were executed by beheading.

Other serious crimes such as heresy (having beliefs or opinions that differed from those of the Church) or witchcraft were dealt with by Church courts. The king's court heard charges of **treason** (betraying the king). Confessions were often obtained under torture, with the use of thumbscrews and other devices. If found guilty of a serious crime, a person could be burned to death or skinned alive. Traitors (people guilty of treason) could be executed by being hanged, drawn and quartered. This involved first hanging a person, cutting him down while still alive, and then pulling out his intestines while he watched. Finally, his body was then cut into four pieces.

Trial by ordeal

In the early medieval era, an accused person might be forced to undergo a trial by ordeal to determine their guilt or innocence. There were various tests including:

- carrying a red-hot iron bar for several paces, or plunging an arm into a pot of boiling water to retrieve a stone. In both cases, the hand or arm was bandaged for three days and then inspected. If the burn had healed, the person was innocent.
- being bound and thrown into a stream or lake. If the person sank they were innocent; if they floated they were guilty.
- trial by combat, in which the accused would fight the accuser, or have someone fight for them. The victor was deemed to be the person who was telling the truth, or their representative.

All these tests relied on the idea that God would protect the innocent and not let them suffer.

APPLY 8.10

1 The ducking stool was another common punishment for women. Conduct research about what this involved, and the crimes that could lead to this punishment.
2 Discuss why beheadings were reserved for punishment of people in the upper ranks of society.

Medieval punishments

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.45 A 15th-century illustration of a beheading

Source 8.46 A medieval engraving of a woman wearing a scold's bridle being paraded through the streets by her husband. While wearing the mask it was impossible to speak. Some scold's bridles had bells on top to draw even more attention to the woman, increasing her humiliation.

Source 8.47 A 14th-century illustration showing a monk and a nun in stocks

INTERPRET 8.8

1 Examine Sources 8.45 and 8.46. What possible crimes could lead to these punishments?
2 What do the punishments shown in Sources 8.46 and 8.47 have in common?

Changes to the medieval justice system

By the 12th century, trial by jury began to replace trial by ordeal. Twelve men would be chosen to hear accusations, and witnesses would be called for each side. Victory often went to the person who could call the most witnesses to support their case. Judges also started recording court decisions around this time. Over the centuries, this system was refined and became the basis of common law, in which judges' decisions and penalties are based on similar examples from the past. Common law is still practised in several countries, including Australia.

In the early 13th century, King John ruled England. He was unpopular with the nobles because he had raised taxes and led a series of unsuccessful wars. In 1215, the nobles forced King John to sign a charter (agreement) known as Magna Carta (Latin for 'great charter'). This marked a significant development in England because it required the king to be subject to the will of others, not just to God. This meant that the king could no longer rule exactly as he saw fit. This was one of the first steps towards the development of legal and political rights for the 'people'. Magna Carta also abolished trial by ordeal.

REVIEW 8.13

1 What was the purpose of punishment in medieval society?
2 List the medieval crimes considered and not considered to be crimes today.
3 Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the introduction of trial by jury.

APPLY 8.11

1 Conduct research to find out when the last person in Europe was either 'hanged, drawn and quartered' or beheaded as a punishment. What was the crime that led to this punishment?
2 Discuss whether any of the methods used for trials by ordeal could fairly determine guilt or innocence.

8.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Describe the daily lives of men, women and children in medieval Europe

1 Choose one topic from the list below. Describe the everyday experiences of men, women and children in relation to this topic. Include as many details of daily life as possible.

- Life in a castle – the daily life of a noble family
- Life in a village – the daily life of a peasant family
- Life in a medieval town – the daily life of a master craftsmen's family.

(30 marks)

» Outline the main features of crime and punishment in medieval Europe, and describe the way they changed or remained the same

2 Use a table with two columns to list examples of crimes in medieval Europe, and the punishments that could be inflicted if a person was found guilty of them. (5 marks)

Source 8.48 A painting from 1471 showing a woman undergoing a trial by ordeal to prove the innocence of her dead husband

3 In your table, identify punishments that continued to be used to the end of the medieval era and beyond. (5 marks)

4 Use Source 8.48 to explain the principle of a 'trial by ordeal'. Give examples of other trials by ordeal. (5 marks)

5 Discuss how the way in which a person's guilt or innocence was determined changed in the 12th century. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Debating crime and punishment

Have a class discussion or debate about one of these questions:

1 What code of law and punishments could be used to govern a community if there were two constraints: no purpose-built prisons, and no punishments that could inflict physical pain or lead to death?

2 Is public embarrassment or humiliation, such as the use of stocks or pillory, an effective means of punishment? Are there any situations in which public embarrassment or humiliation would be a suitable punishment today?

Nobleman, knight, peasant, monk?

Which social group from medieval Europe interests you most? Choose one social group from the list below. Then use information and sources from the text and your own research to present 'My month in medieval Europe'. Your presentation can be in the form of a series of diary entries, a storyboard, or a short story, or it can be in another format approved by your teacher. As well as everyday life experiences, your presentation should cover memorable events, such as a peasant's visit to a town or a craftsman's visit to a castle. Perhaps you will witness or suffer a public punishment, or a trial by ordeal?

- Nobleman or nobleman's wife, son or daughter
- Knight or squire
- Peasant or peasant's wife, son or daughter
- Monk or nun living in a monastery or abbey

1 Introduce your imaginary self, including your age, gender and social group. Say what time of year it is (important for a peasant!).
2 Conduct research on particular aspects of medieval life not covered in this chapter, such as medieval clothing and fashions, leisure and entertainment, or hygiene and medicines.
3 Include relevant sources and keep a record of sources you have used. Make sure to evaluate sources for relevance and reliability.

Source 8.49 A medieval artist's impression of the life of a peasant, representing the 12 months of the year (from top left to bottom right)

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
» Research
» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

8.3 WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

SECTION

In this section we investigate medieval achievements in the arts and architecture, and also focus on the changing relations between Islam and the West.

Source 8.50 A stained glass window in the Notre Dame Cathedral, in Paris, depicting an ancestor of Jesus. In medieval times, the images in the windows were used to convey biblical stories and religious messages, at a time when many people could not read.

MEDIEVAL ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE

A rich legacy of art has survived from medieval times, including:

- stained glass windows and paintings in churches and cathedrals
- sculptures in wood and stone
- jewellery and religious artefacts made by silver- and goldsmiths
- embroideries and tapestries, such as the Bayeux Tapestry
- **illuminated manuscripts** (colourful and highly decorated hand-written books).

Illuminated manuscripts

Before the invention of the printing press in 1450, all books and documents were written by hand. These texts are known as **manuscripts**. Monks usually had the job of writing and copying manuscripts because they could read and write, which not many people could do at this time. They wrote on parchments made from sheepskin or calfskin. Hand-copying was time-consuming – a book could take years to produce – so manuscripts were expensive. Most manuscripts were religious – copies of the Bible and prayer books. Others contained laws, details of feudal landholdings, and histories of royal and noble families.

Medieval manuscripts that include ornate works of art are known as illuminated manuscripts. They feature painted illustrations decorated with gold and silver, often depicting scenes from the text. Paints were made from plants, ground-up semi-precious stones, charcoal and spices to produce bright colours. Sometimes even earwax and urine were used.

Architecture

Most European towns and cities founded in the medieval period still have buildings that date back almost 1000 years. These include churches, monasteries, manor houses, town halls and castles. Some of the most magnificent medieval buildings that can be seen today are cathedrals. In a time when ordinary people were living in homes of mud walls and thatched roofs, these stone cathedrals rising to the heavens must have inspired wonder and reminded people of the power of God. Today, cathedrals may be empty at times. However, in medieval times they were busy places where services were held around the clock, and people came often to ask for God's blessing.

Gothic architecture was commonly used in the design of cathedrals (see Source 8.53). This style of architecture originated in France during the 12th century and was popular across Europe until the 16th century. Features of Gothic architecture include the use of pointed arches and large windows, ornate decorative patterns and tall spires.

APPLY 8.12

1 Conduct research on different types of medieval art, and collect some images to create a photo montage. Prepare a table that gives details of each image such as the country where it was created, the date it was created, and the reason why it was created.

Literature

In medieval Europe, Latin was the language used in schools, church services and for commerce. From the 12th century, literature was often written in the language of everyday speech. In England, this was French for the ruling classes and English for commoners. A wide range of literature from medieval Europe has survived, including romantic poetry written by nobles and knights, heroic tales about famous battles, and religious works.

Music

Music played an important role in medieval life. It marked the end of harvests, provided entertainment for people at all levels of society, and was an important part of religious life.

Traces of tunes that peasants sang and danced to can be heard in modern folk and traditional music today. Most sources of evidence for medieval music survive come from hymns and religious songs that were part of church services. Many musical instruments used to perform Western music today can trace their origins to the medieval period. These included stringed instruments such as lutes, mandolins, harps and early violins; and wood and wind instruments such as flutes, recorders and types of bagpipes.

EXTEND 8.6

1 Conduct an Internet search using the term 'medieval chant', and listen to some different recordings of the types of chants sung in churches and monasteries in the Middle Ages. Find out what this style of chanting came to be known as and why.

Christine de Pizan

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.51

How women of property and townswomen should be suitably dressed

The third point necessary for you, women of property in the good towns ... is concerning your clothing and apparel, which should not be extreme either in expense or style. And there are five particular reasons which should influence you against it. The first is that it is a sin and displeasing to God to pay too much attention to the body. Secondly, one is never admired more for such outrageousness, but rather less. Thirdly, it is a waste of money and impoverishes and empties the purse. Fourth, it sets a bad example for others, encouraging them to do the same or worse ... Fifth and finally, unsuitable, outrageous clothing cause others to sin by murmuring or uncontrolled covetousness [desire to possess], both of which are very displeasing to God ... Each woman should wear clothing appropriate to the estate [status] of her husband and herself; she who belongs to the bourgeoisie [people who live in towns] and wears clothing appropriate for a gentlewoman [a women of high birth, a lady's attendant] and the gentlewoman who dresses in what a lady [wife of a nobleman] should wear, and so on, climbing from level to level, are clearly violating social customs.

Christine de Pizan, translated by Garay and Jeay, *Le Livre des Trois Vertus* [The Book of the Three Virtues], H. Champion, Paris, 1989, pp. 197–200

Source 8.52 Christine de Pizan (1363–c.1430) was a writer of the medieval era. For over 50 years, she wrote entertaining stories and love poems, as well as serious works about the place of women in society.

INTERPRET 8.9

1 What does Christine de Pizan advise about the 'clothing and apparel' that women should wear?
2 In your own words, rewrite de Pizan's reasons for this advice. Do you agree with any of her 'five particular reasons'?
3 What does de Pizan's statement about wearing 'clothing appropriate to the estate of her husband and herself' mean? What does this reveal about medieval society?

MEDIEVAL CATHEDRALS

Close to most cathedrals was an infirmary or hospital where the sick were cared for.

It could take 80 or 90 years to complete a cathedral, which might be added to or improved. Round arches signify work done in Norman times. Pointed arches show a later building style.

Around the cloisters ran the guest house for visitors and the refectory, where the monks ate their meals in silence while one of them read aloud from the Bible.

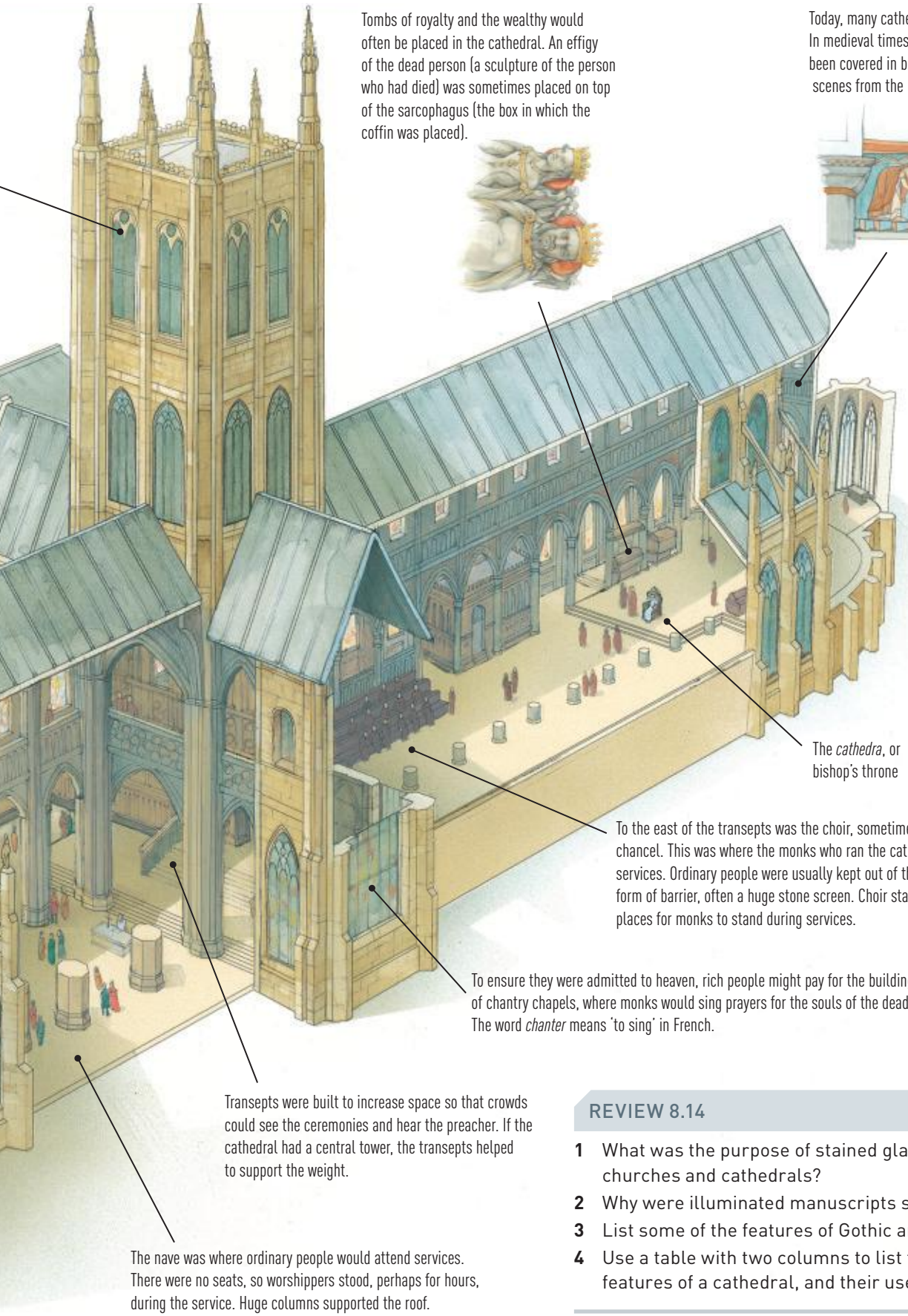
The chapter house was where the monks met to discuss the business of the cathedral.

The cloisters were a covered walkway that allowed the monks to walk around a grassed area while reading the Bible or praying.

Devilish faces or gargoyles were carved inside and out. Sometimes the external ones acted as drainage spouts (the word 'gargoyle' is related to the Latin word for 'throat', and the English word 'gargle').

Cathedrals were built facing east-west. The west end was the main entrance and was often grandly decorated to impress visitors.

Source 8.53 An artist's impression of a medieval cathedral



Tombs of royalty and the wealthy would often be placed in the cathedral. An effigy of the dead person (a sculpture of the person who had died) was sometimes placed on top of the sarcophagus (the box in which the coffin was placed).

Today, many cathedral walls are dull. In medieval times they would have been covered in brightly coloured scenes from the Bible.

The *cathedra*, or bishop's throne

To the east of the transepts was the choir, sometimes called the chancel. This was where the monks who ran the cathedral had their services. Ordinary people were usually kept out of this end by some form of barrier, often a huge stone screen. Choir stalls provided places for monks to stand during services.

To ensure they were admitted to heaven, rich people might pay for the building of chantry chapels, where monks would sing prayers for the souls of the dead. The word *chanter* means 'to sing' in French.

Transepts were built to increase space so that crowds could see the ceremonies and hear the preacher. If the cathedral had a central tower, the transepts helped to support the weight.

The nave was where ordinary people would attend services. There were no seats, so worshippers stood, perhaps for hours, during the service. Huge columns supported the roof.

REVIEW 8.14

1. What was the purpose of stained glass windows in churches and cathedrals?
2. Why were illuminated manuscripts so expensive to create?
3. List some of the features of Gothic architecture.
4. Use a table with two columns to list the different areas or features of a cathedral, and their use or purpose.

THE CRUSADES

Source 8.54 Jerusalem, with the Dome of the Rock in the forefront. The Dome of the Rock is the oldest existing Islamic monument. It was taken over by Crusaders as a Christian shrine for a short time, before returning to Islamic hands.

By the beginning of the 11th century, Muslim peoples had conquered the Arabian Peninsula, much of Central Asia, lands on the southern shores of the Mediterranean, and Spain. At this time, the Christian Byzantine Empire was not as powerful as it had been, and its territories in Asia Minor and Palestine had been overrun by Seljuk Turks. The Seljuk Turks were Muslims who had migrated from Central Asia. They captured the city of Jerusalem, which was regarded by Christians, Muslims and Jews as a holy place. There were reports of Seljuk attacks on European pilgrims who had travelled to Christian shrines in the Holy Land.

The Byzantine Emperor, Alexius I, sent a plea for help from his capitol at Constantinople to Pope Urban II in Rome. In response, the Pope rallied Christians all over Europe to fight for control of Jerusalem and take back the Holy Land. This was the start of the **Crusades**. The Crusades were a series of wars between Christians and Muslims between 1096 and 1291. Historians generally have identified seven military campaigns that are classified as Crusades. Not all of them were equally important or even reached the Holy Lands. In this unit we focus on some of the most famous events of the First Crusade (1096–1099) and of the Third Crusade (1189–1192), and the key people involved in these campaigns.

EXTEND 8.7

1 Find out why Christians, Muslims and Jews continue to regard the Dome of the Rock as a sacred place.

SOURCE STUDY

The routes taken by Crusaders to the Holy Land

Source 8.55 The extent of Christian and Muslim lands in 1095, and the main routes of the First Crusade (1096–1099) and Third Crusade (1189–1192)

INTERPRET 8.10

1 Examine Source 8.55 and identify the starting points of people joining the First Crusade and Third Crusade, the countries they passed through, and their destinations.

The First Crusade

Among the groups who headed to the Holy Land were the armies of European knights. The knights believed that taking part in a crusade to return the Holy Land to Christian control would gain them entry into heaven when they died. Some were also hoping to find wealth, territories and titles. Others were looking for adventure. Thousands of peasants who followed a monk known as Peter the Hermit also participated in the Crusades.

After a long journey over land and a series of bloody battles, the knights captured Jerusalem in 1099. The Crusaders murdered all the Muslims and Jews they could find in the city. They felt justified in their actions because they believed they were acting in God's name, and taking revenge for the earlier murder of Christians when Muslims had captured the city. The Crusaders set up the Kingdom of Jerusalem and put one of their leaders, King Baldwin, in charge. They established three other Christian kingdoms and a series of forts. An order of knights, the Knights Templar, was set up to protect Christian pilgrims who wanted to visit the holy Christian sites and to defend the new kingdom.

The Third Crusade

After the fall of Jerusalem, the city of Tyre was the last Crusader fort in the Holy Land. Saladin's victories caused great concern in Europe and led directly to the Third Crusade. The Third Crusade is perhaps the most famous of all of the Crusades because it was between Saladin and Richard I of England (Richard Lionheart), along with King Phillip II of France. There was a great deal of quarrelling between the two kings and the Crusaders failed to recapture Jerusalem. They did, however, limit Saladin's control over the Holy Land. They took back the coastal regions of the Holy Land and negotiated a treaty that allowed Christian pilgrims to visit Jerusalem. The Third Crusade could at best be called a partial success.

The Crusades had a major influence on European history. At the time, the Arab world was more advanced than Europe in science, medicine, mathematics and engineering. Returning Crusaders brought home many new ideas, as well as new foods, spices and other products that led to increased trade with the East. Some historians suggest the Crusades were the trigger for the Renaissance in Europe, a period of great cultural revival that began around 1300.

EXTEND 8.8

1 Conduct research on Peter the Hermit. Who was he and why were people willing to follow him on a Crusade? What was the result?

APPLY 8.13

1 Saladin and Richard I are two of the most famous figures associated with the Crusades. Both men have been made into heroes in the Arab world and in the West. Conduct research to prepare a biography of each man. Your aim is to discover the 'real Saladin' and the 'real Richard'.

Perspectives on Saladin and the Crusades

SOURCE STUDY

Source 8.56 A 15th-century illustration of Saladin by an Italian artist

Source 8.57 A portrait of Saladin drawn by an Arabian artist, *c.*1180

Source 8.58

> For your brethren [brothers] who live in the east are in urgent need of your help, and you must hasten to give them the aid which has often been promised them ... I, or rather the Lord, beseech [beg] you ... to persuade all people of whatever rank, foot-soldiers and knights, poor and rich, to carry aid promptly to those Christians ... Moreover, Christ commands it. All who die by the way, whether by land or by sea, or in battle against the [Muslims], shall have immediate remission [forgiveness] of sins.

From an account of the speech given by Pope Urban II at Clermont, France, in 1095

Source 8.59

> If God blesses us by enabling us to drive His enemies out of Jerusalem, how fortunate and happy we would be! For Jerusalem has been controlled by the enemy for ninety-one years, during which time God has received nothing from us here in the way of adoration ... Now God has reserved the merit of its recovery for one house, the house of the sons of Ayyub [Saladin's family].

From an account of a speech given by Saladin in 1187

INTERPRET 8.11

1. Are Sources 8.56 and 8.57 primary or secondary sources? Describe how each source depicts Saladin, and suggest how it reflects the perspective of its creator.
2. What is Pope Urban II asking his listeners to do, according to Source 8.58? What reason does he give to persuade them?
3. What do you think is the purpose of the speech given by Saladin in 1187? What reasoning does Saladin use to persuade his listeners?

Saladin

The early success of the Crusaders was largely due to the lack of unity among Muslim forces. This ended when Saladin became the Sultan of Egypt in 1181. Saladin would become a hero of the Arab world and a figure respected by his opponents. He was an inspirational and skilful ruler, leading Muslim forces in a key victory at the Battle of Hattin (a town on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean) in 1187. His victory paved the way for the recapture of Jerusalem in the same year after a 22-day siege of the city.

Unlike the Crusaders when they had taken Jerusalem, Saladin showed tolerance and mercy to those he had conquered. Recognising that Jerusalem was a special place for Jews and Muslims alike, Saladin invited the Jewish inhabitants to return to the city. He also freed most of the Christian inhabitants after demanding a ransom for their freedom.

REVIEW 8.15

1. How many years were there between the start of the First Crusade and the start of the Third?
2. Explain why the Third Crusade can only be seen as a partial success.

MEDIEVAL EUROPE'S INFLUENCE ON THE WORLD TODAY

Law and government

Meetings of parliament in the United Kingdom and in Australia can be traced back to the 13th century, to the group of men (later called the 'Great Council') who advised England's King John. When King John signed the Magna Carta in 1215, he promised that the law would determine how the country would be ruled, rather than the will of the monarch. The Great Council later expanded to include ordinary people. In 1350, it became known as a parliament and was broken into two groups. The nobles met in one place and the ordinary people (commoners) in another. This arrangement later developed into Britain's upper house of parliament, the House of Lords, and its lower house, the House of Commons. Australia inherited this governing system.

Trial by jury and the use of precedents (previous judgements) in court decisions had their origins in medieval Europe. They continue to be a key part of the Western justice system.

Towns, cities and commerce

Increasing trade and commerce in medieval Europe led to the growth of towns and cities, which became places of freedom and opportunity for people who chose to live free of feudal obligations. Urbanisation was one factor that led to the decline of feudalism. It also increased the need for moneylending, banks and financial record-keeping. These became more common across Europe, and formed the foundation of modern financial systems.

Schools and universities

In medieval towns, the need for more people who could read and write in Latin, the language of commerce, led to the founding of schools by guilds and merchants. Modern universities – with their faculties, degrees and method of teaching through lectures – originated in medieval Europe.

The English language

The English language developed during the medieval period under the influence of:

- the language of the Anglo-Saxons
- Latin, the language of ancient Rome, which was still used across medieval Europe for official documents and Church services
- the language of the Vikings, who controlled parts of England in the early medieval period
- the Normans, who established French as the language of kings and nobles in England.

Source 8.60 Words with Norman origins

crown, toast, Robert, baron, parliament, tax, music, religion, petticoat, siege, judge, lesson, satin, vinegar, vicar, arms, sentence, Henry, council, stew, reign, robe, embroidery, gravy, Richard, baptism, peace, fry, mustard, battle, gown, defence, abbey, fur, melody, royal, William, rebel, rabbit, parson

APPLY 8.14

1. Arrange the words in Source 8.60 in a series of columns, with the following words as headings for the columns: *Government*, *Church*, *Law*, *Fashion*, *Food*, *Arts*, *Military*, *Names*.
2. Write a statement explaining how French, the language of the Normans, has influenced the English language. Provide examples from your table.

REVIEW 8.16

1. Which aspect of medieval European life do you think has had the most important influence on the modern world? Write a persuasive text, giving reasons for your argument.

8.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Identify and describe some significant developments and achievements in medieval Europe, including architecture, art, medieval manuscripts, literature and music

1. Identify three types of artwork created in medieval Europe. Explain the original purpose of their creation. (3 marks)
2. What was the purpose of music in medieval Europe? Name some of the instruments from the period that are still used today. (3 marks)
3. Identify an important development in writing in the 12th century. Identify different types of literature produced in medieval times. (3 marks)
4. Describe the materials and methods used to create illuminated manuscript. (3 marks)
5. Sketch or obtain a copy Source 8.61. Add labels to describe the architectural features of a cathedral, and the different uses of the building, in medieval times. (8 marks)

» Explain how relations between Islamic countries in the Middle East and Christian countries in the West changed during the medieval period

6. What events in the early 11th century sparked the Church's call for a crusade to the Holy Land? (1 mark)
7. Outline the key events and results of the First Crusade and the Third Crusade. (9 marks)

Source 8.61 A medieval cathedral

» Investigate the importance of the Crusades and outline different perspectives on the Crusades, using a range of sources

8 The following statement was made by Saladin's biographer, who was also a member of his court: 'Indeed, God is on the side of those who do good'. What does this statement, supported by other sources, reveal about the motivations of Christians and Muslims during their fight for control of Jerusalem and the surrounding lands? (2 marks)

» Investigate and assess the role of significant individuals in the medieval world

9 Identify a significant individual involved in the Crusades, and assess the importance of their role in the medieval world. (8 marks)

» Discuss how medieval Europe has influenced the world today

10 Identify and describe four ideas, or other aspects of culture, that originated in medieval Europe and have continuing influence in the modern world. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

A timeline of the Crusades

In a group, conduct research to gain an overview of the key events and significant individuals of the First to the Fourth Crusades. Use your findings to create a timeline of the Crusades. Add sources from the text or your research to illustrate your timeline.

Investigating the Islamic world

In the medieval era, Islamic learning and knowledge was advanced compared with that of Europe. Conduct research to create a presentation about the contributions of Islamic civilisation to European understanding of medicine, mathematics, science and astronomy. What was the impact of these new technologies and ideas for Europe and the world?

Source 8.62 A page from a 14th-century Persian manuscript, detailing the treatment of boils and warts

Source 8.63 Thed astrolabe, an instrument developed by Arab astronomers, allowed sailors and navigators to chart the movements of planets and stars.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
» Analysis and use of sources
» Research
» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

9

Source 9.1 A 17th-century portrait of the Ottoman ruler Sultan Suleiman I

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

The Ottoman Empire lasted for over six centuries. This depth study focuses on the period from its beginnings in 1299 to 1683, when the Ottoman Empire was at its greatest extent. The location of its territories meant the Ottomans controlled the most important trade routes for gold, spices and other goods between Europe, Asia and Africa. This brought them great wealth, which they used to build powerful navies and armies. The Ottomans introduced Islamic faith, law and culture to lands they conquered, but they also supported religious diversity and a level of self-government in their territories.

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

9.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify key sites and the extent of the Ottoman Empire

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Ottoman Empire

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the Ottoman Empire

CHECKPOINT 9.1

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE?

9.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify and describe significant developments and cultural achievements of the Ottoman Empire

» sequence and explain significant developments in extending the strength and influence of the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East and Europe

» investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals in extending and maintaining the strength and influence of the Ottoman Empire

» explain how the Ottomans maintained relationships with subject peoples, including the policy of religious tolerance

» use sources to outline different perspectives on the Ottoman Empire

» discuss how the Ottoman Empire has influenced the world today

CHECKPOINT 9.2

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE – A TIMELINE

Source 9.3 An illustration from a 17th-century Arabic manuscript, depicting the Ottomans crossing the Dardanelles

TIMELINE

1326
The city of Bursa in Anatolia becomes the first Ottoman capital.

1354
The Ottomans cross the Dardanelles and capture the Gallipoli peninsula. This allows expansion of their territory into Europe.

1389
Ottoman forces defeat the Serbs at the Battle of Kosovo. Bayezid I becomes sultan of the Ottoman Empire.

1295 — 1320 — 1360 — 1380 — 1390 — 1400

1299
Osman I declares independence from the Turkish tribes in Anatolia (the region south of the Black Sea). His tribal group become known as the Osmanli Turks, or 'Ottomans' in English.

1361
The Ottomans capture Adrianople, in north-west Turkey; it becomes their next capital.

1396
Bayezid I defeats Christian crusaders at the Battle of Nicopolis.

Source 9.2 Osman I, first ruler of the Ottoman Dynasty

Source 9.4 The Topkapi Palace in Istanbul

Source 9.5
A 16th-century Ottoman miniature showing Ottoman troops departing for their campaign against the Hungarians in 1526

Source 9.6
Detail from an Ottoman miniature depicting the siege of Rhodes in 1522

1402
The Ottomans are defeated by the Turko-Mongol army led by Tamerlane. Bayezid I is captured and imprisoned.

1444
Aged 11, Mehmed II rules the Ottoman Empire, until his father takes over in 1446.

1451
Mehmed II again rules the Ottoman Empire, and a major period of expansion begins. The second reign of Mehmed II lasts until 1481.

1453
The Byzantine Empire's capital of Constantinople falls to the Ottomans. It becomes the final Ottoman capital, now named Istanbul. Mehmed II orders the building of the Topkapi Palace, home to the sultans for the next 400 years.

1517
The Ottomans win military campaigns in Persia and Egypt.

1520
The rule of Suleiman I begins, lasting until his death in 1566. There is a period of expansion under his rule. The Ottomans capture Belgrade in 1521 and Rhodes in 1522, and defeat the Hungarians in 1526, but they fail to capture Vienna in 1529.

1571
The Ottoman fleet is defeated at Lepanto, off the coast of western Greece.

1683
The Ottoman armies again fail to capture Vienna.

1440 1450 1510 1520 1570 1685

REVIEW 9.1

1 In chronological order, name the different cities that functioned as the capital of the Ottoman Empire.
2 How many times did Ottoman armies attempt to capture Vienna? Why?
3 Where did Ottoman sultans live for 400 years?
4 Which Ottoman sultan ruled for the longest period – Mehmed II or Suleiman I?

9.1

SECTION

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

In this section you will learn about the origins of the Ottoman Empire and features of the empire at its greatest extent. You will also explore some interesting aspects of Ottoman society, including the changing role of the sultan over the centuries and the everyday life of the common people and those at the sultan's palace.

THE ORIGINS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND EXTENT OF ITS TERRITORIES

The birthplace of the Ottoman Empire was a small area in north-west Anatolia, near the site of Ankara, the capital of present-day Turkey. By AD 1000, Anatolia had been part of the Roman Empire, and its successor state the Byzantine Empire, for over a thousand years. The Byzantine emperors ruled their territories from the city of Constantinople. Around this time, Turkish tribes began to move into the Anatolia area from the east. The Turks were a nomadic people, migrating from their ancestral lands in central Asia in search of new farmland. They had converted to Islam and, as a result, the population of Anatolia changed from primarily Greek-speaking Christians to Turkish-speaking Muslims.

In 1299 the Turkish tribal leader Osman I declared himself independent from other neighbouring Turkish tribes. His followers called themselves Osmanli (in English, 'Ottoman'). More Turkish migrations from Asia into Anatolia created population pressures, and the Ottomans continued to look further west for land.

Source 9.7 Detail from an illustration showing Ottoman troops on the attack in the 15th century

In 1354, the Ottomans crossed the Dardanelles, a narrow body of water separating Europe from the mainland of Asia. This gave them a foothold to launch attacks on south-eastern Europe, where they defeated Byzantine and Serbian forces in the **Balkan** region.

In the 15th and 16th centuries, the Ottoman Empire expanded further, in two great waves, during the rule of the **sultans** Mehmed II and Suleiman I.

Mehmed II was most famous for capturing the city of Constantinople, known to the Turks as Istanbul. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 marked the end of the Byzantine Empire.

Suleiman I, who ruled from 1520 to 1566, greatly expanded the Ottoman Empire through a series of military campaigns. He ruled over much of south-eastern Europe, the Middle East and northern Africa. Source 9.8 shows the extent of the Ottoman Empire in 1683.

The extent of the Ottoman Empire

SOURCE STUDY

Source 9.8 The Ottoman Empire in 1683

Source 9.9 A 16th-century illustration of Suleiman I receiving Sigismund, Prince of Transylvania, at his court. Transylvania was a vassal state of the Ottomans. It was governed by its own leaders but subject to the control of the Ottomans.

INTERPRET 9.1

1 Use an atlas to identify the modern-day countries with territories that were ruled by the Ottomans in 1683.
2 Describe the scene depicted in Source 9.9. What does it reveal about the relationship of the Ottoman Empire and its vassal states?

REVIEW 9.2

1 How and when did the Ottoman Empire begin?
2 Why was the capture of Constantinople by the Ottomans significant?

THE RULE OF THE SULTAN

Source 9.10 An illustration of a sultan and his court, *c.* 1330

The first Ottoman ruler to call himself 'sultan' was Bayezid I, the great-grandson of Osman I. The role of the Ottoman sultan changed over the centuries. The sultan was the absolute ruler of the Ottoman Empire from about 1453, when Sultan Mehmed II conquered Constantinople, to the 1560s, the last years of the reign of Sultan Suleiman I. The sultan could appoint or dismiss any official at his pleasure. Every decree or law came from him. He was also supreme military commander and the Islamic religious leader, responsible only to God. Under the sultan were the officials who administered the Empire (see Source 9.10).

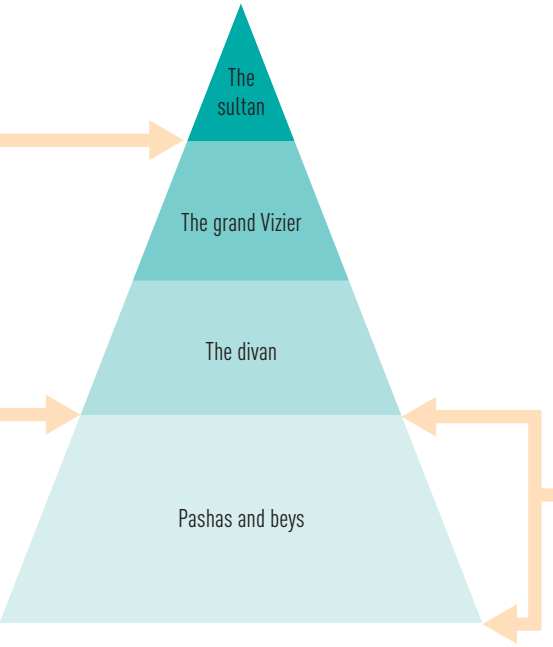
The Ottoman Empire stopped expanding after the reign of Suleiman I in the 16th century. Skills in administering the empire became more important than skills in fighting wars. Consequently, power shifted from the sultan to officials and other members of his royal household. Between the late 16th and mid-17th centuries, the sultanas (mothers and wives of sultans) were involved in decision making. Although they did not have official titles, they still had considerable power.

The role of the sultan continued to change during the 17th century. More power was exercised by the **grand viziers** and the **divan** (the council). They deliberated on important matters of state. The sultan's role became one of approving laws and policies, rather than making them.

Dignitaries of the pen administered Ottoman territories from the capital, Istanbul.

They included:

- the **grand vizier**, or chief minister, who was appointed by the sultan and could only be dismissed by him. He held the sultan's imperial seal, which had to appear on all official documents, and he could instruct the other ministers.
- the **divan** was a council of officials who worked with the grand vizier; it was responsible for the day-to-day management and functioning of the empire



Dignitaries of the sword were the governors of the different provinces that made up the empire.

Known as **pashas** and **beys**, they:

- commanded local military forces
- oversaw law and order
- acted as judges
- collected taxes for the sultan

Source 9.11 The structure of the Ottoman administration

Choosing the sultan's successor

The stability of an empire depends on the smooth transition from one ruler to the next. Over the centuries, the Ottomans introduced a variety of practices to ensure that this happened. From the 14th to the 16th centuries, the method used can be described as the 'survival of the fastest'. The reigning sultan sent all his adult sons to the provinces, where they might serve as military commanders, and gain administrative experience. When the sultan died, the first son to reach the capital, and win recognition by the court and the imperial troops, became the new ruler.

The new sultan's brothers were usually killed in order to remove any possible challengers. Sultan Bayezid I was the first to guarantee his succession in this way; he had his brother executed when he became sultan in 1389. The killing of brothers, known as fratricide, was against Islamic law, but was made legal during the reign of Sultan Mehmed II. Mehmed announced that if God had bequeathed the sultanate to one of his sons, that son could put his brothers to death for the sake of maintaining peace in the empire. His ruling was supported by the *ulema* (religious authorities), who argued that fratricide strengthened the empire. Mehmed II ordered the execution of all his brothers, as did several of the sultans who came after him. The preferred method for such approved executions was strangulation with a thin cord.

The practice of fratricide ceased around 1620. This is when the Ottomans decided that when a sultan died the oldest male in his family – often his uncle or brother – should become his legitimate successor. To prevent plots against a new sultan by his relatives, fratricide was replaced by the *kafes*, or 'gilded cages', system. Under this system, all the male relatives of the sultan were forced to live within the palace grounds. They could live a comfortable, quiet life, but out of sight of the public, and under the constant gaze of the sultan and his guards.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Sultan Mehmed III is notorious for having had 19 of his brothers and half-brothers executed when he came to power. This was done to stop them from challenging his rule. All 19 were strangled with silk handkerchiefs.

Source 9.12 A portrait of Mehmed III, who became sultan of the empire in 1595; he had his brothers legally executed to secure his position, according to the law of Mehmed II

APPLY 9.1

1 Use a storyboard to depict what happened after the death of a sultan:
   - **a** during the period when fratricide was practised
   - **b** during the period of the *kafes* system.

REVIEW 9.3

1 Create a graphic organiser to show how the role of the sultan changed over time.
2 What was the difference between 'dignitaries of the pen' and 'dignitaries of the sword'?
3 Three ways of ensuring the Ottoman succession are mentioned in the text. Discuss each in turn, pointing out its strengths and weaknesses.

OTTOMAN SOCIETY AND ECONOMY

Ottoman society was complex. Many different groups of people – each with its own customs, beliefs and histories – lived within this enormous empire. To hold the empire together, the Ottomans developed unique social and political systems. Revenues from trade were enormously important to the economy of the Ottoman Empire.

Ottoman trade

Because of its geographic location – spread across the continents of Asia, Africa and Europe – the Ottoman Empire controlled the major trade routes for goods such as spices and precious metals. Sultan Selim I, who ruled from 1512 to1520, acted to secure these trade routes. The Ottomans fought a series of wars that extended the empire's borders in the east. They defeated the Persians in 1514, and conquered Syria and Egypt in the following years, gaining control of the key trading cities of Aleppo, in Syria, and Cairo, in Egypt. Merchants in Cairo traded with countries across the Indian Ocean. Aleppo was an important centre for trade in silk, a material that came from Iran. Egypt's agriculture and commerce added considerable wealth to the empire.

Source 9.13 The courtyard of an old *caravanserai* in Turkey

Traders transported their goods using caravans, or processions of animals. Villages paid less tax in return for their protection of a section of a trade route. The Ottomans also built a series of *caravanserais* along major trade routes, to protect merchants from robbers. A *caravanserai* was an inn, with a large courtyard where caravans of camels or other pack animals could be sheltered and kept safe for the night.

Devşirme

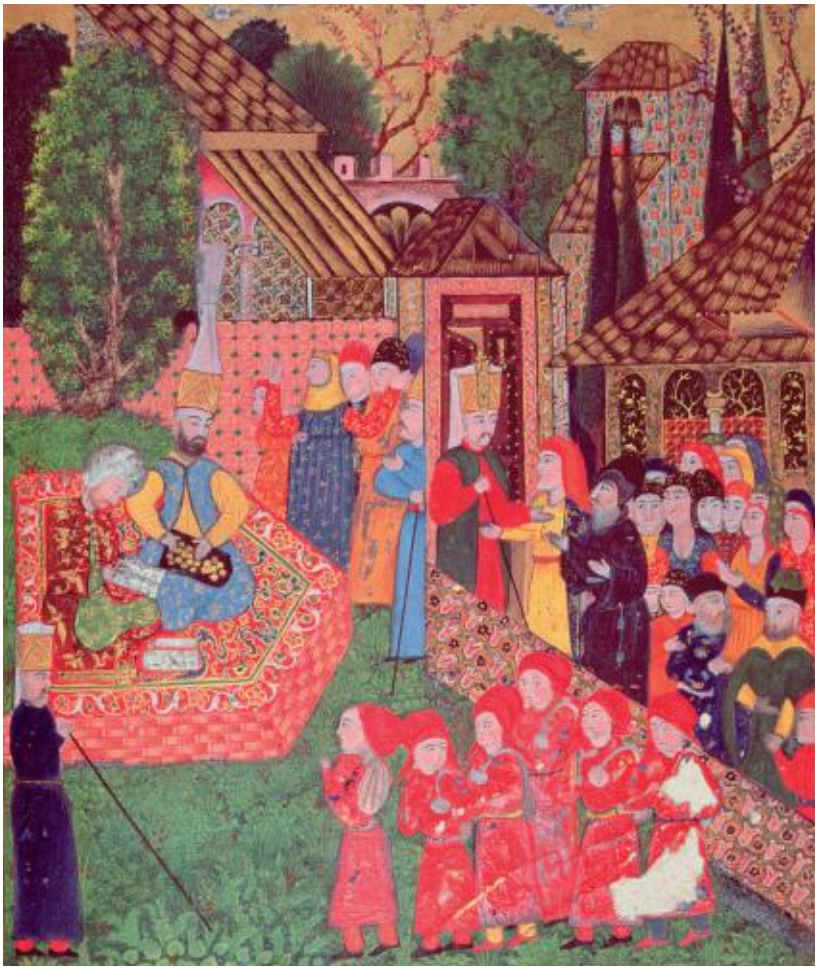
During the 15th and 16th centuries, the Ottomans practised *devşirme* (pronounced devshirme which means 'collection' or 'gathering'). It was a method of choosing young boys who would be trained as government officials or soldiers. Ottoman officials were sent to Christian villages in Anatolia, and in the Balkans, in south-eastern Europe. They assembled the male children, and selected the best and brightest between the ages of 8 and 20, regardless of class or background. These boys were taken from their families and forced to convert to Islam. Some were taught a craft or apprenticed to Turkish farmers. The most promising were sent to Istanbul, where they received the best education the state could provide. They were then appointed as government officials or as **Janissaries** (the sultan's elite soldiers).

The Ottomans thought that the boys of the *devşirme* would make good government officials because they came from outside the region they worked in. It was thought this would make them less likely to favour one group over another or be open to bribery and corruption. The Janissaries were believed to be more loyal to the sultan than other soldiers because they had no family ties. Many in the *devşirme* rose to become Janissary commanders and grand viziers, playing important roles in Ottoman history.

The system of *devşirme* cut boys off from contact with their family, so many families resisted it. On the other hand, it offered boys great opportunities, and some families wanted their sons to be taken because they thought it would lead to a better life for them. Only Christian boys were chosen, and some Muslims resented this. Muslim families sometimes even asked their Christian neighbours to raise their children for them, hoping they might have a chance of being chosen for the *devşirme*.

Devş

SOURCE STUDY



Source 9.14 An illustration from a 16th-century manuscript showing a Janissary recruiting for Sultan Suleiman I

INTERPRET 9.2

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 9.14.
2 Imagine that you are living in a small village far from Istanbul, during the rule of Suleiman I. An Ottoman official is on his way to select boys for the *devşirme*. Write the dialogue that might have taken place between a young boy and his parents in either a Muslim or Christian family.

Women in the Ottoman Empire

Source 9.15 An 18th-century European artist's portrayal of Roxelana and Sultan Suleiman I

Women in the Ottoman Empire had fewer rights than men. They did, however, generally enjoy more rights than women in many other countries did at the time. Women in other countries generally socialised separately from men, whereas Ottoman women participated actively in society. They had legal rights to own property, and wealthy women often ran businesses or traded goods (but they had to use men as agents to open shops or to sail merchant ships on their behalf). Women from poor families often worked as weavers, as servants for the wealthy, or on farms.

Most Ottoman women married, but it was rare for a woman to choose her husband. Parents arranged most marriages, and a woman would often not have seen her groom before a wedding. A man had to pay his future wife's family a **brideprice**, in the form of money or property, and could legally take up to four wives. If he failed to support one of his wives financially, she could apply to a judge for a divorce.

Women held considerable power within families. The wives and mothers of sultans were some of the most powerful people in the empire. Roxelana, the wife of Suleiman I, was one example.

Roxelana, the wife of Suleiman I

One of the most powerful influences in Suleiman I's life was his wife Roxelana (meaning 'the girl from Roxolania', a region in modern-day Ukraine). Roxelana came to Istanbul as a slave, one of the many girls captured for the Ottoman slave market. She was chosen to be one of the sultan's concubines (women kept for the entertainment and pleasure of the sultan). In the end, she became Suleiman's most beloved wife, known as *Hürrem Sultan* ('the joyful sultana'). Their wedding was spectacular, celebrated with music, jugglers and a procession of wild animals that included giraffes. Roxelana became deeply involved in court politics. Suleiman sought her advice on major decisions. He also relied on her for news when he was away from Istanbul fighting wars.

EXTEND 9.1

1 Conduct research to write a biography of Roxelana. Include discussion of the type of relationship she had with Suleiman, and examples of her political influence. Explain how she ensured the succession of her own son as sultan.

REVIEW 9.4

1 Why did the Ottoman Empire control major trade routes?
2 Why did the Ottomans build *caravanserais*?
3 In what ways did women play an active role in Ottoman society?
4 What were the positive and negative impacts on boys of the *devşirme*?

LIFE IN AN OTTOMAN CITY

In the Ottoman capital of Istanbul and in other major cities, life for ordinary people was centred on the *mahal* (which means 'local community'). Each *mahal* had its own identity that depended on the religion or ethnic background of the people who lived in the community. The heart of the *mahal* was a religious building: a mosque, church or synagogue. In 1672, there were 253 Muslim *mahals* in Istanbul, alongside 24 Christian, Jewish or other non-Islamic communities. In its dealings with Ottoman authorities, each *mahal* was considered responsible for maintaining law and order within its own small territory, and for the correct payment of taxes and other obligations to the state.

Every *mahal* had its own school and drinking fountain, and other public facilities. From the age of six, girls and boys attended lessons at their *mahal* school. In Muslim schools, children were taught to read the Qur'an (the holy book of Islam) and learned Islamic beliefs. Memorisation was the method of learning.

Facilities at *mahals* were built by the sultan or provided by *waqfs*, which were charitable foundations established by wealthy members of the community. As early as the 7th century, Islamic law had firmly established the practice of giving a portion of wealth to charity as a religious duty. *Waqfs* came to play a vital role in the economic life of the Ottoman Empire, providing for the maintenance of mosques, schools, libraries and orphanages. From the 14th century onwards, the sultan also established *imarets*, or soup kitchens, in major cities throughout the Ottoman Empire. The *imarets* gave out food to travellers and the poor. They reinforced Islamic teaching about the importance of charity, and the sultan could show that he cared for the welfare of his people.

The bazaar

The bazaar was a market and a public gathering place. The Grand Bazaar of Istanbul, which opened in 1461, is still an active centre of trade. It is one of the oldest covered markets in the world. It contains 58 covered streets, with over 1200 shops and stalls selling all manner of goods, from jewellery to carpets. The Spice Bazaar, also in Istanbul, was completed in 1660, and is still the centre of the city's spice trade.

Source 9.16 Spices for sale at the Spice Bazaar in Istanbul

Source 9.17 A fountain in the Grand Bazaar, Istanbul

EXTEND 9.2

1 If you had the wealth and opportunity to donate something to your community, what would it be? Would it be a swimming pool, skate-park, library or other facility? Justify your choice in a class discussion.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Coffee drinking was still virtually unknown in Europe at the end of the 16th century, although it was popular in many parts of the Ottoman Empire at the time. In 1669, the Turkish ambassador offered coffee to King Louis XIV of France. King Louis decided he preferred hot chocolate!

The coffee house

The expansion of the Ottoman Empire played a part in spreading a social pastime that is now popular the world over – drinking coffee. Coffee came into the empire from Yemen, a country on the Red Sea, where it had been grown and drunk for many years. Trade in coffee provided a great source of wealth for the merchants of Cairo. From the second half of the 16th century, coffee was consumed at home and in coffee houses throughout the Ottoman Empire. The coffee house was a place where men drank, smoked tobacco using water pipes, played cards, told stories, made music and played backgammon.

In the 17th century, drinking coffee was frequently prohibited by sultans' decrees, forcing coffee houses to close. Some religious leaders said coffee had the same bad influence as wine, or should not be drunk because it had not existed at the time of the Prophet Muhammad. One critic wrote: '[Coffee] curtails [prevents] sleep and the generating power in man. Coffee-houses are houses of confusion. Coffee has been by law declared illicit [illegal] in the great collections of *fetwas* [laws] wherein everything that is burnt is declared to be illegal food.'

Another reason why the government was concerned was that political discussions or meetings held in coffee houses could not easily be monitored by state officials.

APPLY 9.2

1 Imagine you are living in 16th-century Istanbul. A coffee house has just opened and some people disapprove. Create a poster or write an article arguing that the coffee house should be closed down. Refer to the criticisms of coffee houses in the text.

SOURCE STUDY

Coffee houses

Source 9.18 A 19th-century European painting of the interior of a coffee house in Istanbul

Source 9.19 A Turkish coffee house, 2013

INTERPRET 9.3

1 Examine Sources 9.18 and 9.19. What do these images tell you about continuity and change in Turkish society since the time of the Ottoman Empire? List two things that have stayed the same and two things that have changed.

Everyday foods

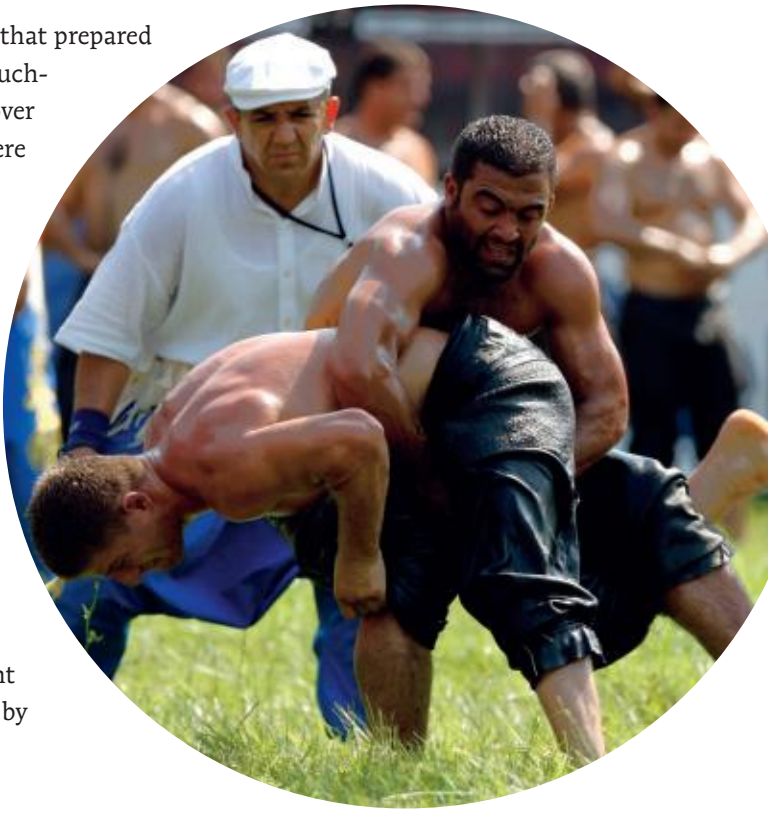
Common people in the Ottoman Empire normally ate a diet that included locally produced meat and vegetables. In Anatolia, they often ate a dish like a thick porridge, made up of whole wheat, berries and meat. People baked flat breads and ate them with spreads made from various grains or vegetables, such as hummus made from chickpeas. Common people had diets based more on vegetables than on meat. Falafel (fried balls made of chickpeas and spices), wrapped in breads with sauces, were popular in the past, just as they are today.

Source 9.20 A selection of Turkish foods, including a variety of dips typically eaten with flat breads

Sport

The favourite sports within the Ottoman Empire were those that prepared people for war, such as archery and horse riding. Another much-loved sport was oil wrestling. The wrestlers poured olive oil over their bodies before they began to fight. The strongest men were usually selected from groups of slaves. The sport was carried on throughout the empire, including during religious festivals. Oil wrestling matches were even held on special evenings during Ramadan, the holy month of fasting. Success as an oil wrestler brought rewards. A slave who was accepted into formal training as a wrestler had a chance of entering the sultan's elite infantry troops, the Janissaries.

Jareed was an equestrian sport involving two teams of horsemen armed with rubber-tipped sticks. Teams were made up of six, eight or twelve riders. The riders started on opposite sides of a square. Then they rode towards each other and threw their sticks, trying to hit one of the opposing players. A rider won if he hit an opponent or caught an opponent's stick. The game was fast and furious, decided by the total number of hits or catches.



Source 9.21 Oil wrestling is still a popular sport in Turkey

REVIEW 9.5

1. In Ottoman cities, what was a *mahal*?
2. What was the name given to the institution that gave out soup to the poor?
3. Explain the *waqf* system and say why it was an important part of Ottoman society.
4. What was the function of the bazaar?
5. Why were sports such as archery, horse riding and oil wrestling popular in the Ottoman Empire?
6. Which group in Ottoman society did not take part in the social pastime of visiting coffee houses?

LIFE IN THE SULTAN'S PALACE

Source 9.22 The entrance to the harem at the Topkapi Palace

Source 9.23 Inside the sultan's harem at the Topkapi Palace

From the mid-15th to the mid-19th centuries, Ottoman sultans lived in the Topkapi Palace in Istanbul (see Source 9.4). The palace was built on the orders of Mehmed II after Istanbul (Constantinople) fell to the Ottomans. In Mehmed's time, the palace housed around 700 people. By 1640, it was home to 4000 people. It was built as a series of circles, with increasingly restricted access as people passed through the gates from the outer to inner circles. The general public could only enter the outer circle, the main palace courtyard. People who were on official business could pass into a second court to present matters to the imperial council (known as the *divan*). The third court was reserved for government officials only. The remaining sections were exclusively for the use of the sultan and royal family, and their servants.

The sultan's harem

Many Ottoman households had a **harem**. It was the separate living quarters of the women. The word *harem* means 'forbidden' because men – other than the head of the household – were forbidden to enter the women's quarters. In the Topkapi Palace, the largest harem belonged to the sultan. It was in the innermost section of the palace. The sultan's harem had dozens of richly decorated rooms, complete with mosaics and fountains. It was guarded by eunuchs (men whose testicles had been removed).

The sultan's mother, wives, concubines and daughters lived inside the harem at the Topkapi Palace. The harem had its own social structure. The mother of the sultan (known as the *valide sultan*) ruled over the other women. Next in the hierarchy was the mother of the sultan's first-born son, then the sultan's other wives and concubines. The sons and daughters of the sultan were educated in the harem until they left the palace.

Palace foods

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Topkapi Palace had 10 kitchens. By the 17th century, 1300 kitchen staff fed up to 10 000 people a day.

Common people ate simply, but at the palace hundreds of cooks would work in teams to prepare huge banquets for the people who lived there. As the empire grew, new ingredients and recipes from different cultures were used. Ottoman feasts would include several types of meat, sherbet (sweet, chilled drinks made from fruits or flower petals), and both milk-based and baked sweets (see Source 9.30). Islamic law does not allow the drinking of alcohol. Meat dishes were eaten with the hands – there were no knives or forks at this time. Spoons were used for soups, compotes (stewed fruit in syrup) and pilafs (rice dishes). Not everything on banquet trays would be eaten. Leftovers were sent back to the kitchen to feed the servants.

Palace food

SOURCE STUDY

Source 9.24

> Dishes served to the sultan were mostly brought on golden platters arranged on a large tray. These platters were also prepared for the sultans' wives. The tray was wrapped in a cover, and sealed by the *kilercibaşı* [head of the royal pantry], who tied it with a ribbon. This was a precaution against the poisoning of the sultan and his wives ... The trays were carried on the heads of the *tablakârs* [tray carriers] ... They were met at the door to the harem by harem guards ... The dishes brought for the sultan numbered 24, sometimes as many as 37. The food left after the sultans ate [was] then taken to the princes and their mothers. According to protocol, [it was] then given to the *odabaşı* [commanding officers of the Janissaries]. Sultans never ate off of silver platters.
>
> Extract from the website of the Turkish Cultural Foundation

Source 9.25 An illustration of an Ottoman banquet being given by a chief pasha to the Janissaries in 1578

INTERPRET 9.4

1 Refer to Source 9.24. Use a diagram to show the order in which the following people were served their meals at the royal court, and who ate whose leftovers:
   - the sultan
   - the sultan's sons
   - the sultan's wives
   - Jannissary officers.
2 Describe the banquet scene depicted in Source 9.25. Identify the utensils being used, and suggest the types of foods that have been served, based on the information in the text.

REVIEW 9.6

1 What is a harem?
2 Who was allowed to enter the sultan's harem?
3 What types of food were served at an Ottoman banquet?

9.1

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

CHECKPOINT

» Identify key sites and the extent of the Ottoman Empire

1 The Ottoman Empire was at its greatest extent in 1683:
- **a** Write a statement that summarises the extent of its territories
- **b** List modern-day countries that were once part of the Ottoman Empire (5 marks)

2 Identify these locations:
- **a** the area where the Ottomans first established their dynasty (succession of rulers from the same family)
- **b** the body of water crossed by Ottoman forces in 1354, from where they expanded into south-eastern Europe
- **c** the Byzantine city captured by the Ottomans in 1453. (3 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Ottoman Empire

3 Describe the role of the sultan during different periods of the Ottoman Empire. (5 marks)

4 Who were these people in Ottoman government? What where their roles?
- the grand vizier
- the divan
- pashas and beys
- sultanas (4 marks)

5 How did Ottoman sultans guarantee their succession? (3 marks)

6 Identify the social groups in Ottoman society by occupation. (5 marks)

7 What was the most significant economic activity in the Ottoman Empire, and what did sultans do to protect it? (3 marks)

8 Explain the term *devşirme*. How does the image in Source 9.26 relate to this feature of Ottoman society? (2 marks)

9 What rights did women have in Ottoman society? (5 marks)

10 Explain the term *harem* and describe the sultan's harem. (2 marks)

Source 9.26 A 16th-century illustration of Ottoman Janissaries

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the Ottoman Empire

11 What is the meaning of the terms *mahal* and *bazaar*? Why were the *mahal* and the bazaar important for ordinary people in the Ottoman world? (3 marks)

12 Where did Ottoman children receive their early education, and what did they learn? (2 marks)

13 Describe a typical scene at an Ottoman coffee house. (3 marks)

14 Compare the foods usually eaten by ordinary people with those eaten by the sultan and his guests at a banquet. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

A day at the Topkapi Palace

1 Create a presentation titled 'A day at the Topkapi Palace', which explores life at the palace from the perspective of one of the following people:

- a servant or member of the kitchen staff
- the grand vizier or member or the *divan*
- the sultan or a woman in his harem.

Use information and sources from the text and your own research. Your presentation could be an 'interview', short story, diary entry, or other format you and your teacher agree upon.

Source 9.27 18th-century European illustration of a grand vizier

Source 9.29 An 18th-century European painting, titled *A Greek Favourite in the Harem*

Source 9.28 18th-century European illustration of a sultan's chef

Source 9.30 An Ottoman banquet

- chicken with mushrooms roasted on a spit
- fried pigeon
- fried spicy kebabs
- vine leaves stuffed with meat and rice
- soup with rice and wheat
- pilafs with chicken and pine nuts
- raisin compote
- pastries filled with meat
- milk pudding and baked desserts sweetened with honey
- lemonade and sherbets

2 Source 9.30 is a list of dishes served to foreign ambassadors at an Ottoman royal court in 1675. In groups, conduct research to find recipes that would be the equivalent of one of these dishes. On a nominated day, have each group bring in their dish, and have an Ottoman banquet.

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Empathetic understanding
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

9.2 SECTION

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE?

In this section, you will learn about the most significant developments and achievements that took place during the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans were remarkably successful because they had a powerful military. For a long time, their army was better disciplined and better equipped than its European rivals, both at sea and on land. Conquest brought the Ottomans increased wealth through trade. You will also explore their art and architecture, which thrived at this time.

EVENTS THAT LED TO EXPANSION OF THE EMPIRE

Source 9.31 The expansion of the Ottoman Empire from 1300 to 1683

The tiny tribal area ruled by Osman I in 1299 expanded to a vast empire, as shown in Source 9.31, because of the success of the Ottomans' military campaigns. Key events that led to this expansion are explored below.

Events during the rule of Orhan (1324–1360) and Murad I (1360–1389)

Orhan, the son of Osman I, captured the strategic city of Bursa from the Byzantine Empire in 1326. It became the first capital of the Ottoman Empire. Orhan created the *Yeniceri* or 'new troops', which were to become known as the Janissaries. After crossing the Dardanelles, the Ottomans captured Gallipoli in 1355, and then Adrianople in 1361.

After the introduction of gunpowder, new weapons were developed in the late 14th century. The Ottomans became masters in the use of cannons and other firearms, and continued their advance into the Balkans. In 1389, they destroyed the 70 000-strong Serbian army at the Battle of Kosovo and killed the Serb ruler Prince Lazar. After the battle, Sultan Murad I was assassinated by a Serb officer, and was succeeded by his son Bayezid I.

A Serbian perspective on the Battle of Kosovo

SOURCE STUDY

After the Battle of Kosovo, the defeated Serbians were understandably feeling like a beaten people. Therefore, Serbian churchmen and poets created the myth that Prince Lazar had died not as a defeated warrior but as a holy martyr (someone who dies for a noble cause). The Battle of Kosovo has also been portrayed as a kind of victory because it weakened the Ottoman army and slowed their advance into Europe.

Source 9.32

> A feeling of despair permeated [spread through] Lazar's lands after the prince's death ... Conscious of the need to combat pessimism in Serbia and to provide hope for a bright future, the monastic [church] authors of the day ... interpreted the events of this troubled period for their own contemporaries ... Lazar's death is depicted as a ... martyrdom [sacrifice] for the faith and the symbol of a new beginning ... the medieval writers transformed the defeat into a kind of moral victory for the Serbs and an inspiration for the future.
>
> Extract from Thomas Emmert, 'The Kosovo Legacy', website 'Serb Land of Montenegro'

INTERPRET 9.5

1 According to Source 9.32, how did churchmen interpret the Serbians' crushing defeat at the Battle of Kosovo?
2 Why do you think medieval churchmen wrote and spread the story of Lazar's martyrdom?

Events during the rule of Bayezid I (1389–1402)

The Ottoman victory at Kosovo alarmed some European rulers, in particular the King of Hungary. In 1396, he and his allies from other Christian countries, with the support of the Pope, launched a crusade to stop Ottoman expansion. This crusade was defeated by Bayezid I ('the Thunderbolt') and his troops at the Battle of Nicopolis, in modern-day Bulgaria.

In 1402, Bayezid I was fighting Mongols living in Turkey who were expanding their empire to the east of the Ottoman Empire. Bayezid I challenged their leader (known as Tamerlane) to a battle near Ankara, Turkey, but was defeated and captured.

According to various accounts, Tamerlane (head of the Turkish Mongols) had Bayezid I imprisoned in a small cage. Tamerlane fed him crumbs from his table and used him as his footstool as he sat on his throne. Some accounts say Bayezid died of a natural death in captivity in 1403. Others suggest he killed himself, either by beating his head against the bars of his cage or by taking poison.

Source 9.33 A 17th-century picture by a Mughal artist, showing the imprisonment of Bayezid I by Tamerlane

Events during the rule of Mehmed II (1451–1481)

Mehmed II (the Conqueror) is most famous for capturing Constantinople in 1453, when he was only 21 years old. He renamed the city Istanbul and made it the capital of his empire. But he also conquered many other lands during his reign, including Serbia, parts of Greece, and most of the coast of the Black Sea. He built new forts along coasts to guard against enemy ships and he increased the size of the navy.

The Fall of Constantinople in 1453

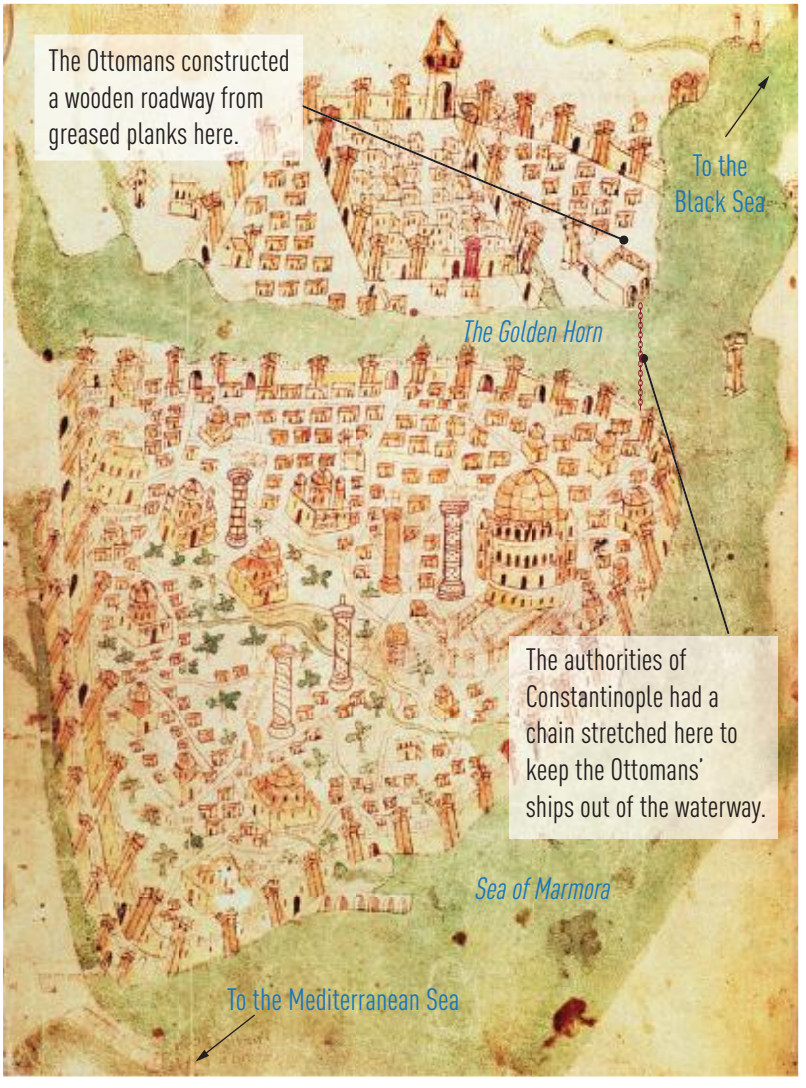
STRANGE BUT TRUE

The defenders of Constantinople hung bales of wool and sheets of leather on the outside of the walls of the city, hoping they would absorb the impact of the Ottoman cannonballs. But the tactic was useless against the Ottoman firepower.

By 1453, Constantinople was a city in decline. Its inhabitants lived in small settlements within the ancient walls of the city, and whole areas of housing had been torn down to make way for fields to grow food. Many of the churches and palaces had fallen into disrepair. However, the city was still regarded as the centre of the Christian world.

Sultan Mehmed II led approximately 60 000 troops and 126 ships in his siege of Constantinople. The city was defended by only about 7000 trained soldiers and a poorly trained citizen militia, under the overall command of Emperor Constantine XI. The great advantage that the Ottomans had was their use of cannon to batter the city walls. The cannon came in various sizes, but the largest required a team of sixty oxen to be hauled on a wagon, and fired a cannonball weighing 550 kilograms.

A waterway known as the Golden Horn protected the northern wall of the main part of the city of Constantinople. Constantine's forces had run a huge iron chain across the eastern mouth of the Horn to prevent enemy ships from entering the waterway. To bypass this, Mehmed II ordered his men to construct a wooden roadway across the northern bank of the Horn, using planks. These were covered with grease, allowing the Ottomans to drag their ships overland and relaunch them on the other side of the chain. In this way, 72 ships from the Ottoman fleet were positioned to attack the northern wall of Constantinople.



Source 9.34 A map of Constantinople, created *c.* 1450; the annotations explain the Ottomans' tactics during their siege of the city

Fighting was fierce. But when a party of about fifty Ottoman soldiers found an undefended gate into the city they burst in and unfurled their flag. This inspired the final push by Ottoman forces and the city fell. Constantine was killed, although it is not known exactly how. Some legends suggest he died standing bareheaded at the front of his troops; others suggest he was killed trying to escape from the rear of the city. Mehmed II entered the city in triumph, but immediately gave orders that all looting and destruction cease. He went to pray in the great Christian church, the Haggia Sophia. This was to be turned into a Muslim mosque, called the Ayasofya.

Mehmed II wanted to make Constantinople, or Istanbul, as it now became called, a city for Muslims, Christians and Jews. A Jewish community had existed in the city during the Byzantine period, and under the Ottomans the number of Jews increased – they faced persecution and expulsion in other parts of Europe. The cultures of East and West, Europe and Asia, met and mingled in Istanbul for many centuries under the Ottomans. By 1478, the population had doubled to 70 000. Within 100 years, Istanbul was the largest city in Europe.

The Fall of Constantinople

SOURCE STUDY

Source 9.35 A painting, created in 1903, showing the army of Mehmed II approaching Constantinople

Source 9.36

> The *ghaza* [Holy War] is our basic duty as it was in the case of our fathers. Constantinople, situated in the midst of our domains, protects our enemies and incites them against us. The conquest of this city is, therefore, essential to the future and the safety of the Ottoman state.

Sultan Mehmed II outlines his motives for attacking Constantinople

Source 9.37

> ... those on the walls killed great numbers of Turks with stones, casting them down from above without stopping, and so many were killed that forty carts could not have carried away the dead Turks who had died before getting into the city. We Christians now were very frightened, and the Emperor had the tocsin [bell] sounded [rung] through the whole city, and at the posts on the walls, with every man crying, 'Mercy, Eternal God!' Men cried out, and women too, and the nuns and the young women most loudly of all ...

Extract from Nicolo Barbaro, *Diary of the Siege of Constantinople 1453*, trans. John Melville-Jones, 1969

INTERPRET 9.6

1. According to Source 9.36, what motives did Mehmed II have for attacking Constantinople?
2. Explain the military advantages the Ottomans had when they laid siege to Constantinople, as depicted in Source 9.35.
3. Read Source 9.37 carefully. What do you think the ringing of the tocsin indicated?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During his eight-year reign, Selim I ordering the execution of seven grand viziers and around 30 000 other people. A common curse during his rule was 'May you be vizier to Sultan Selim!'

Events during the rule of Sultan Selim I (1512–1520)

As discussed earlier, under Sultan Selim I (the Grim) the Ottomans defeated their rivals in Persia, Syria and Egypt. Gaining control of Syria and Egypt, and the great trading cities of Aleppo and Cairo, added greatly to the Ottomans' wealth because it enabled them to increase trade with India and Asia. The Ottoman Empire doubled in size under Selim I, and its Islamic population was strengthened by the addition of provinces on the Arab Peninsula. The Ottomans also became the guardians of the holy sites of Mecca, Medina and Jerusalem.

Events during the rule of Suleiman I (1520–1566)

Probably the most famous of all Ottoman sultans was Suleiman I (the Magnificent). Under his rule, the Ottomans fought almost constantly in Europe, the Middle East and across northern Africa. The territory under their control reached its greatest extent in this period. Suleiman I was so successful in war that European rulers grew terrified he might conquer the whole continent. One German ambassador to Istanbul wrote home in despair: 'Can we doubt what the result will be? ... [The Ottomans] will fly at our throats supported by the might of the whole East; how unprepared we are I dare not say!'

In Europe, Suleiman I captured Belgrade in 1521, and the island of Rhodes in 1522, after a siege lasting five months. In 1526, he defeated Hungary at the Battle of Mohács. He marched further into Europe, laying siege to Vienna in 1529. But as winter set in, his army was forced to retreat. The Ottomans' advance into Europe had reached its limits.

In 1538, the Ottomans sent an expedition to India, and to Aceh, in modern Indonesia, to support local resistance to the Portuguese. Control of Egypt had brought the Ottomans into conflict with the Portuguese, who had a naval presence in the Red Sea and in the Indian Ocean, to protect their trading interests.

APPLY 9.3

1 Review the key events discussed in this unit. Then:
   - **a** create a list or table to summarise the events that strengthened and expanded the influence of the Ottoman Empire, as well as events that held it back.
   - **b** use an atlas and a blank map of Ottoman territories (find one on the Internet) to mark the locations of Ottoman battles and the cities they captured. Add the years in which these key events took place.
2 Use your labelled map to write a paragraph about expansion of the Ottoman Empire, from its beginnings until 1299.
3 Choose one of the Ottoman sultans. Conduct research into his life and achievements. Then imagine you are this sultan. Write a two-minute speech you might give to persuade an audience you are 'The greatest sultan of the Ottoman empire'.

REVIEW 9.7

1 How did Emperor Constantine XI try to stop Ottoman ships from sailing into the Golden Horn during the siege of Constantinople?
2 What happened to the inhabitants of Constantinople after the arrival of the Ottomans?
3 What do you learn about Sultan Mehmed II from reading about his actions following the Fall of Constantinople?

Source 9.38 Sultan Osman I

Source 9.39 Sultan Mehmed II

Source 9.40 Sultan Selim I

Source 9.41 Sultan Suleiman I

THE OTTOMANS AND THE PEOPLE THEY CONQUERED

When a land was conquered by the Ottomans, its rulers could suffer exile and possibly death. However, many ordinary people found they were better off under the Ottomans. Ottoman officials often took back under central state control local lands and revenues that had slipped into the hands of lords and monasteries. The common people often found themselves paying fewer taxes than they had under their previous rulers. Sultans were also generous in paying for facilities for the people, such as mosques and other public buildings, fountains, and soup kitchens for the poor.

Source 9.42 The Spiritual leader of the Greek Orthodox Christian Church still resides in Istanbul

Religious tolerance

The Ottomans were also very tolerant of different religions. Their growing empire was populated by Jews, Christians and Muslims. Under the laws of Islam, a person could not be forced to convert. So the Ottomans did not usually attempt to convert their subjects to Islam, with the exception of the *devşirme* (young boys trained to be officials). When Suleiman I attacked the Christian Knights at Rhodes, he promised they would not be forced to give up Christianity if they surrendered, saying 'I shall not require of you any tribute, or do anything ... against your religion.' Many Greek Orthodox subjects welcomed the Ottomans because they allowed them to practise their faith, at a time when the Catholic Church wanted to bring them under the Pope's authority. Mehmed II granted the patriarch of the Orthodox Church a charter that gave him total jurisdiction over his community in return for paying a special tax.

Many types of Muslims lived within Ottoman lands. The sultans were followers of the Sunni branch of Islam. However, they took care to address the needs of their Shia Muslim subjects. They supported Shia Muslim shrines and refurbished them during the 16th century. The sultans also took considerable pains to ensure the safety of all pilgrims travelling to Mecca and Medina on the annual pilgrimage. They ensured there was sufficient food for people in towns that became crowded at the time of the festival.

Social advancement

There were benefits in serving the sultan. Many Christians, as well as Muslims, supported Ottoman rulers for the riches, positions and power that could be gained. Social advancement was not necessarily hindered by not being Muslim. Earlier in the chapter we discussed *devşirme* – a system used by the Ottomans that involved conquered Christian communities giving up a number of male children, who were taken away and forced to convert to Islam, but with the promise of great reward. Children of the *devşirme* were known to attain appointments as high as grand vizier of the empire. The elite Janissary corps was almost entirely made up of ex-Christians.

REVIEW 9.8

1 Explain Ottoman policies towards people of other religions living within the empire. Give specific examples.
2 Why do you think many ordinary people would have been content under the rule of the Ottomans?

EXTEND 9.3

1 Research the Ottomans' 'millet' system. What were its features and which communities were granted this system?

OTTOMAN ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE

The period from about 1450 to 1680 is seen as a golden age of artistic creativity in the Ottoman Empire. Architecture, literature and fine arts flourished.

Architecture

Ottoman rulers commissioned many mosques, palaces and religious schools. After the conquest of Constantinople in 1453, Sultan Mehmed II started a great building program in Edirne (Adrianople), which had been the empire's capital since 1361, and in Constantinople (now called Istanbul), which became the new capital. Mehmed ordered the building of the Grand Bazaar and the magnificent Topkapi Palace in Istanbul. To design the palace, his architects incorporated designs and features from Iran.

Suleiman I sponsored a series of monumental structures within his empire. He sought to turn Istanbul into the centre of Islamic civilisation, with a series of projects that included bridges, mosques and palaces. The greatest architect of these times was Mimar Sinan. He was responsible for over 300 structures throughout the empire. His two masterpieces were the Süleymaniye mosque in Istanbul, built between 1550 and 1558, and the Selimiye mosque in Edirne, built between 1568 and 1574. The Süleymaniye mosque still dominates the skyline of Istanbul. Its dome was once surrounded by two mausoleums (tombs), baths, schools, and soup kitchens – typical of Ottoman building complexes.

Literature

The poetry and stories of the Ottomans were strongly influenced by Persian literature. Poetry was popular among the sultan's court, often exploring the themes of love, heroism or death. It was a form of literature that remained inaccessible to the common people. It was written in a literary form of Turkish, including Persian words that were not part of everyday language. Ordinary people enjoyed folk tales, which were spread by travelling storytellers and minstrels (wandering musicians). The sultans were generous patrons of literature, and many wrote poetry themselves. Suleiman I was a noted poet, writing in both Persian and Turkish.

Source 9.43 A view of the Süleymaniye mosque in Istanbul, Turkey

APPLY 9.4

1 Conduct research to create the itinerary for a modern tour of Istanbul. The tour should showcase the city's architectural wonders, including its mosques, bazaars, the ancient walls and other notable features.

The development of literature in the Ottoman Empire was limited by the rarity of printed books. The printing press with movable type was developed in Western Europe in the mid–15th century, but no books were printed in the Ottoman language until 1726. Printing was viewed as a 'Christian invention', and copying the Qur'an (the holy book of Islam) by hand was regarded as a way of earning religious merit.

Art

Calligraphy (decorative handwriting) developed into a high art under the Ottomans. Almost every Islamic building had some form of calligraphy inscribed in it, often a verse from the Qur'an or lines of poetry.

Tiny paintings, called miniatures, were executed with great skill by Ottoman artists. They usually illustrated important events in the empire's history. Many artists worked together on a single miniature. A head painter drew the main outlines with thin brushes; then his assistants filled in the outlines.

Islamic belief rejects the portrayal of living things, such as people or animals. Such portrayal is considered to be idolatry (the worship of idols rather than God). Islamic artists in the Ottoman Empire therefore mostly avoided depicting human figures. Instead they concentrated on using geometrical designs in their art. They decorated the walls, floors and roofs of important buildings with geometric patterns. They blended lines, shapes, flowers and calligraphy into intricate designs. The patterns could be astonishingly complex, and each part of a pattern had its own meaning. Circles represented the beginning of a pattern, and also stood for God, Mecca or the other centres of Islam. Triangles, squares and hexagons symbolised human consciousness, physical experience and heaven, respectively.

Source 9.44 An example of Ottoman calligraphy, the monogram of Sultan Murat III

Source 9.45 Geometric patterns in the tiles of the Sultan Ahmed Mosque, also called the Blue Mosque, in Istanbul

APPLY 9.5

1 Conduct research to find examples of Islamic geometric design. Then create your own geometrically designed page incorporating the first letter of your name.

REVIEW 9.9

1 Identify some of the significant buildings commissioned by Ottoman sultans.
2 Why was Ottoman literature not commonly read by the ordinary people?
3 Why are geometrical designs a key feature of Islamic art?

THE DECLINE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND LEGACY OF THE OTTOMANS

In 1571, the Ottoman navy was defeated at the Battle of Lepanto, near western Greece. In this naval battle the Ottomans fought against a league of Christian states, including Spain and Venice. The league lost 10 ships and 15 000 men. However, it captured or sank 240 of the Ottoman's 270 ships, and killed 30 000 men. In 1683, the Ottoman army besieged Vienna but was again beaten back. These events took place during the empire's three centuries of decline. It finally collapsed in World War I (1914–1918).

Key factors in the decline of the empire

Source 9.46 An artist's impression of the Battle of Lepanto

The Ottomans had advanced far into Europe, but when they faced the strong Germanic and Polish forces they were not able to expand their borders so easily. They also faced pressures from rival Muslim powers in the east, and were unable to concentrate their military forces in one place. Over time, less money flowed into the empire from conquest.

In the first three centuries of the Ottoman Empire, the military was more advanced than that of rival powers. But the Ottomans failed to keep up with technological advances. Western European countries eventually overtook them in terms of the development of military tactics and technologies.

The Age of Exploration also transformed the economies of Western Europe. The Spanish and Portuguese crossed the Atlantic Ocean and established colonies in the New World (the Americas), followed by the English, French and Dutch. The ships of the western Europeans were built for travelling the oceans, while the smaller ships of the Ottomans were built for navigating the calmer waters of the Mediterranean Sea. European exploration opened up new sea routes. Traders could now ship spices and other products from India and the New World without passing through Ottoman territory. These changes cost the Ottomans significant sums of money and benefitted their rivals.

The Ottomans were aware of developments taking place in Europe. However, the governing class was conservative (tended to oppose change) and would not permit the rise of a merchant class. A merchant class might have transformed the Ottoman state, but it would have overwhelmed the ruling elites. By the 19th century, the Ottoman Empire was no longer the most feared power in the Mediterranean. Instead it was referred to as the 'sick man of Europe'.

EXTEND 9.4

1 Conduct research to outline the key factors and events leading to the collapse of the Ottoman Empire during World War I.

The legacy of the Ottomans

Although the Ottomans usually did not force their subject peoples to convert to Islam, some chose to become Muslims anyway. Today's Muslim population in the Balkans (the region that includes Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece) is one legacy of Ottoman rule.

The social and political systems used by the Ottomans to rule their territories had positive and negatives consequences, for their subjects and for the empire itself. Local rulers and non-Muslims were able to play important roles in the economy and administration of their own communities. However, they were not given any political power. In comparison, other societies in Europe developed a merchant class with considerable power and influence. There were also no powerful landowning families in the Ottoman Empire to balance the power of the sultan and his government. The system of *devşirme* meant that non-Muslims were able to rise in Ottoman society, and the empire could exploit the talents of all who lived in its territories. However, government officials and the military almost exclusively came from the *devşirme* class. Their loyalty was only to the sultan, and it was he who also controlled the use of all land.

As a consequence, the Ottomans had a strong state, but their society and economy did not change, and eventually began to stagnate. The local peoples remained passive towards their Ottoman rulers, and advances in agriculture, industry or trade were not made at the same rate as in Western Europe.

The Ottoman Empire had acted as a strong, unifying force for a range of peoples. When it collapsed, nationalist sentiments that had been developing during the 19th century began to emerge. Peoples who were once forced to live with each other now competed for territories to form their own independent states. Many argue that conflicts in the Middle East and in the Balkans today can be traced back to Ottoman rule.

In 1923, the Republic of Turkey was founded. Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, who had been leader of the Turkish nationalists, became the first president of Turkey. As a direct rejection of the past, when the Ottomans ruled an Islamic empire, Turkey was founded as a secular (non-religious) state. The Ottoman sultanate was abolished and religious institutions were no longer part of the government. Ataturk also introduced political and social changes to modernise Turkey.

REVIEW 9.10

1 What were the key factors in the decline of the Ottoman Empire?
2 Compose a graphic organiser to show the short-term and long-term consequences of Ottoman rule for the peoples whose lands were once part of the Ottoman empire.

EXTEND 9.5

1 Conduct research to create a presentation comparing and contrasting the Ottoman Empire with Turkey today, such as the size of the Ottoman Empire and the size of Turkey, government, architecture, and customs, and dress of the people.
2 Find out more about the Battle of Kosovo in 1389 (also known as the Battle of Blackbird's Field) and the conflict in Kosovo in 1998–1999.

Source 9.47 The Turkish flag with an image of Ataturk

Source 9.48 Albanian refugees who were forced to flee from Kosovo in 1999

9.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE?

» Identify and describe significant developments and cultural achievements of the Ottoman Empire

1 Describe significant cultural achievements of the Ottomans in the following areas:
- **a** architecture
- **b** literature
- **c** art and calligraphy (5 marks)

» Sequence and explain significant developments in extending the strength and influence of the Ottoman Empire in the Middle East and Europe

2 Refer to the list or table you completed for Apply 9.3. Create a timeline that shows significant events that expanded the Ottoman Empire. Include detailed labels that explain why the events are significant. If possible, illustrate the timeline with images from the text or images you have found through research. (10 marks)

» Investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals in extending and maintaining the strength and influence of the Ottoman Empire

3 Identify a significant individual responsible for strengthening the Ottoman Empire or extending its influence. Outline their achievements and assess their importance in Ottoman history. (10 marks)

» Explain how the Ottomans maintained relationships with subject peoples, including the policy of religious tolerance

4 Explain how the Ottomans treated people they ruled over who had different beliefs or cultures. In your response, include reference to the millet system and to *devşirme*, discussed in Section 9.1. (5 marks)

» Use sources to outline different perspectives on the Ottoman Empire

5 Read Source 9.49. Compare this perspective on the Ottomans with your knowledge of the way that people who were ruled over were treated. (5 marks)

Source 9.50 A portrait of János Hunyadi

Source 9.49

> If my memory does not fail me, the spiteful weapons of the Turks have been lurking around Europe for a hundred years now. They conquered Greece, Macedonia, Bulgaria, Albania in quick succession … enslaving them, depriving them of their religion, forcing onto them foreign face, foreign morals, foreign laws and the language of the infidels. They showed no mercy either to the rights of the people or to those of God …

Extract from a letter written by Hungarian general János Hunyadi to the Pope in 1448, quoted in 'Hungarian Perceptions of the Ottoman Empire' by Pál Fodor, website of Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary

6 Albania was conquered by the Ottomans in 1478 and was subject to Ottoman rule for almost 500 years. Read Source 9.51 then answer the following questions.
- **a** What are the two perspectives about Ottoman rule of the Albanian people?
- **b** What do Albanians today blame the Ottomans for?
- **c** What development among Albanian people led to the version of history that portrays Ottoman Turks 'simply as enemies of Albanians'?
- **d** From your knowledge of Ottoman society, explain how Albanians became grand viziers. (5 marks)

Source 9.51

> [Albanian student Dorina Zhupa said] 'We were discussing Albanian history in the class and, at some point I said that Albania was freed from Turkish occupation in 1912. However, Professor Derjaj corrected me immediately by saying that, indeed, the Ottoman Empire administered Albania and had not occupied it …'
>
> … And the professor … stands by his statement … [He] says: 'The Ottoman Empire was a conglomerate of nations with equal opportunities. There were 36 viziers who ruled the empire and were of Albanian blood [nationality] … I think that living together with the Ottomans was welcomed by Albanians. If we analyse the language and customs of Albanians today, we can see that Albanians and Turks lived together and Turks were welcomed.'
>
> … However, like most Albanians, Zhupa learned little about these Albanian-born viziers. Instead, she was taught that the Ottomans invaded Albania and occupied the country by force for five centuries … As was the case with other nations in the Balkans, not only is the Ottoman presence … seen as an invasion, it is widely regarded as a national tragedy. The Ottomans are still blamed for arresting Albania's development to such an extent that Albanians still suffer the consequences today …
>
> [Albanian sociologist Enis Sulstarova explains] 'The kind of history that portrays Turks simply as enemies of Albanians began in the late 19th century as part of the Albanian nation-building process …'

Extract from 'Albanians Question "Negative" View of Ottomans' by Gjergj Erebara, website 'Balkan Insight'

» Discuss how the Ottoman Empire has influenced the world today

7 Discuss how the Ottoman Empire has influenced:
- **a** peoples that it previously ruled over in the Balkans and in the Middle East
- **b** the Republic of Turkey founded in 1923
- **c** beliefs and customs in the modern world. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Ottoman power on land and sea

1 In a group, conduct research and create a presentation on one of these topics:
- **a** Ottoman military tactics and use of firearms; explain how these allowed the Ottomans to expand their empire over centuries.
- **b** Ottoman naval power; explain how it allowed them to dominate the Mediterranean for centuries, and give examples of naval successes and exploits against European rivals.

Source 9.52 A 17th-century engraving of the Barbarossa brothers

2 Research the Barbarossa brothers, who were renowned pirates. Create a presentation about their characters and activities, and the times and places in which they operated. Explain the impact of their activities on the Ottoman Empire.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:
- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

Source 10.1 Michelangelo, one of the most important artists of the Renaissance, sculpted *David*, a representation of the biblical figure King David

10

RENAISSANCE ITALY

The **Renaissance**, a French word meaning 'rebirth', is the term used for a period in Europe's history that saw a renewed interest in the art, architecture and ideas of ancient times. The Renaissance period began in Italy in the 14th century and lasted until the 16th century. In the time leading up to the Renaissance, European societies had suffered the Great Famine, the plague known as the Black Death, wars and political instability.

In contrast, the years from 1400 to 1600 were a time of stability and prosperity across Europe. The Italian city-states of Florence, Venice and Milan grew into powerful centres of trade and banking because they were located on important trade routes between Europe, Asia and the Middle East. Scholars, artists and scientists in these cities believed they were entering a new age of human achievement, and were particularly inspired by the classical ideas and values of ancient Greece and Rome.

HOW WAS SOCIETY IN ITALY ORGANISED DURING THE RENAISSANCE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

10.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» explain why the period is known as the Renaissance
» identify the city-states of Italy during the Renaissance period
» describe key economic and political features of Renaissance Italy
» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Renaissance Italy
» discuss the relationships between rulers and ruled in Florence
» investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals in Renaissance Italy.

CHECKPOINT 10.1

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS IN RENAISSANCE ITALY?

10.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements in Renaissance Italy
» describe how patronage encouraged these developments and achievements
» investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals
» explain how ideas from Renaissance Italy spread to the rest of Europe
» outline the legacy of Renaissance Italy.

CHECKPOINT 10.2

RENAISSANCE ITALY – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE

1430 1440 1450 1490 1500

1434
The Medicis – a powerful family of bankers, politicians, monarchs and religious figures – gains control of the ruling council in the Republic of Florence.

1436
The dome of the Florence Cathedral is completed; it is designed by one of the most important architects and engineers of the Renaissance, Filippo Brunelleschi

1450
The German Johannes Gutenberg invents a printing press; it allows information to be spread to a wide population.

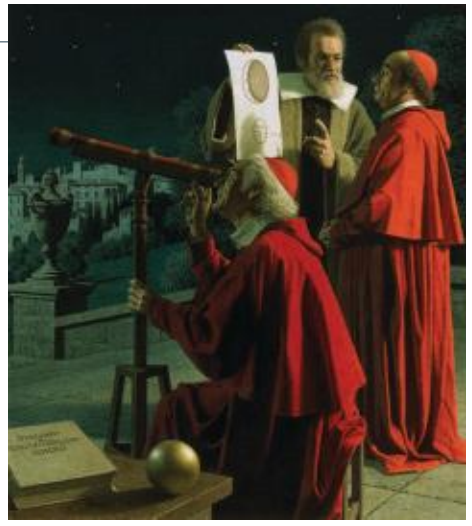
1452
Leonardo da Vinci, a renowned intellectual in many fields – including painting, engineering, music, anatomy, biology and sculpture – is born near Florence.

1498
The Medici family flees Florence after losing its power. They will return in 1512 and their dynasty will continue until the 18th century.

1501
The city of Florence commissions Michelangelo's sculpture of David. It is completed in 1504.

Source 10.2
Desiderius Erasmus, a Dutch theologian, was critical of established religions

Source 10.4 Andreas Vesalius, considered to be the founder of modern anatomy



Source 10.5 A painting of Galileo explaining his observations about the Moon

1508

Commissioned by Pope Julius II, Michelangelo starts painting the walls and ceilings of the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. His work is completed in 1512.

1513

Italian historian, philosopher and politician Niccolò Machiavelli writes *The Prince*. Desiderius Erasmus, a Dutch theologian and priest, publishes 'In praise of folly', an essay criticising established religion.

1517

Martin Luther publishes his 95 theses.

1519

Leonardo da Vinci dies. He leaves behind paintings such as the *Mona Lisa* and *The Last Supper*.

1528

Baldassare Castiglione publishes *The Book of the Courtier*.

1543

Nicolas Copernicus, mathematician and astronomer from the kingdom of Poland, publishes a book outlining his radical theory that the Sun is the centre of the universe, not the Earth. Andreas Vesalius, a Belgian anatomist and physician, publishes *On the Structure of the Human Body*.

1558

Elizabeth I becomes queen of England; The English Renaissance begins.

1610

Italian physicist and astronomer Galileo Galilei develops the first telescope capable of observing the Moon and planets. In 1632, he goes on to publish a book confirming Copernicus's theory that the Earth revolves around the Sun.

1510 1520 1540 1550 1610

Source 10.3 The *Mona Lisa*, believed to have been painted between 1503 and 1506

REVIEW 10.1

1 Create a table that lists the works of art and architecture mentioned in the timeline. Include the name of the person who designed or created each work, and the date the work was created.

2 How long was it between the publication of Copernicus's theory and its confirmation by Galileo?

10.1 HOW WAS SOCIETY IN ITALY ORGANISED DURING THE RENAISSANCE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

SECTION

In this section, you will explore the society, systems of government and way of life of **Renaissance** Italy, particularly in the great city-state of Florence.

CITY-STATES AND SOCIETY

Renaissance Italy was not a country with a single ruler, but a group of city-states. A city-state is a city and surrounding area that has its own independent government. The five dominant city-states in the area we now call Italy were the Republics of Venice and Florence, the Duchy of Milan, the Papal States and the Kingdom of Naples. Although life for most people in Europe at this time was based around farming, the city-states were urban societies in which many people made their living as merchants, bankers and skilled craftsmen.

Merchants and bankers in city-states enjoyed great wealth and high status, along with the nobles who were traditionally at the top of the social scale. The wealth of these groups allowed them to live well, and explore new ideas and participate in the general revival of interest in ancient Greece and Rome. Trade introduced new ideas and knowledge from the culture of the Byzantine and Islamic civilisations, and introduced Europeans to new foreign goods, such as spices, fruits, silks and precious metals. The fall of Constantinople to the invading Ottomans in 1453 also had an influence on the revival of classical learning in Western Europe. Greek scholars who had lived in Constantinople (formerly the capital of the Byzantine Empire and now present-day Istanbul, Turkey) fled the city. Many resettled in the Italian states, bringing with them classical Greek and Latin texts from the great libraries of Constantinople.

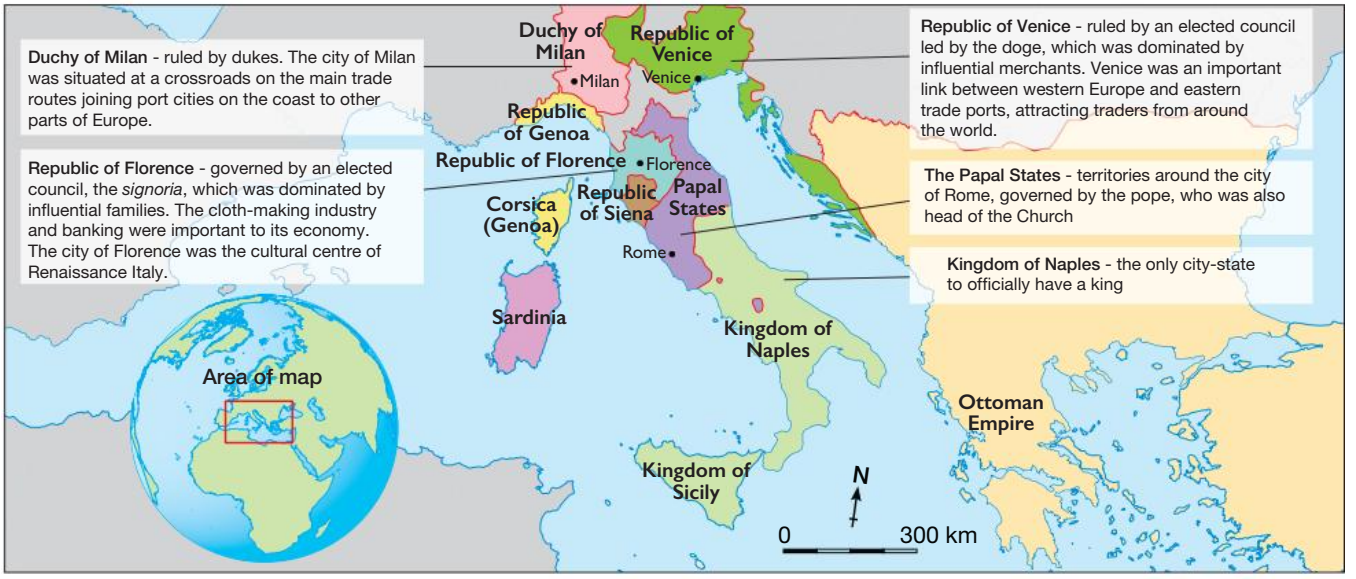
Source 10.6 An illustration of the city of Venice in 1338

At the top of the social order in Renaissance Italy were the nobles and merchants. The nobles gained their wealth through land ownership, while the merchants made their money through trade, banking or industry. These groups only made up around 3 per cent of the population but they had a great deal of influence over the rest of society. As well as being influential in government, they used their wealth to become **patrons**. Patrons provided money to construct public buildings, or to support scholars and artists.

Lower in the social order of towns and cities were the skilled craftsmen or **artisans**, followed by shopkeepers, unskilled workers and unemployed people. The unskilled workers and unemployed are thought to have made up around a third of the urban population. Away from the towns and cities, around 90 per cent of the population were peasants who worked on the land.

City-states and society in Renaissance Italy

SOURCE STUDY



Source 10.7 The main city-states in Renaissance Italy

INTERPRET 10.1

1 With reference to Source 10.7, list the key cities in the Italian city-states.
2 What advantages did these cities have that led to their growth as centres of trade or banking? Consider their geographical location and natural features.
3 Describe the appearance of the 15th-century merchant in Source 10.8. What does it tell you about the wealth and status of merchants in Renaissance Italy?

Source 10.8 A 15th-century illustration of an Italian merchant

REVIEW 10.2

1 Identify the five main city-states of Renaissance Italy. How were they governed?
2 Use a diagram to outline the social structure of Renaissance Italy.

IDEAS AND EVENTS INFLUENCING THE RENAISSANCE

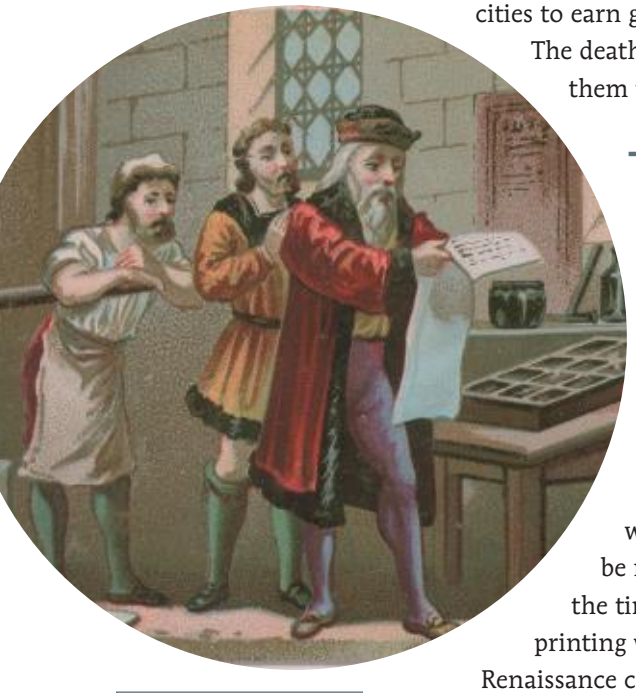
In the period before the Renaissance, the Church was the dominant influence on the way people in Europe lived their lives. Priests taught that people were on Earth for a short time and should live according to God's laws to ensure a place in heaven for eternity. During the Renaissance, new ways of thinking changed the way people viewed the world and the role of the Church in their lives.

The decline of the feudal system and the growth of towns and cities

The **feudal** system was the basis of society in Medieval Europe. It was a system of mutual obligations. Peasants lived on a noble lord's feudal **manor** (a village and surrounding land) and worked his fields. In return, they received justice at the lord's manor court and protection from **barbarian** attacks. In the century before the Renaissance, the feudal system had started to weaken. As barbarian attacks became less common, peasants left the lands of their feudal lords and began to move into towns and cities to look for work and independence. Towns and cities grew rapidly across Europe, as trade and commerce spread.

The Black Death

In 1347, the plague that became known as the **Black Death** reached Europe. It had a devastating effect. The death toll over the next five years is thought to have been around 25 million – around a third of the population of Europe at that time. Workers became scarcer as the death toll mounted. They took the opportunity of moving into the prosperous cities to earn good wages and learn a trade. This further weakened the feudal system. The death and suffering experienced by people during the Black Death also led them to question the teachings of the Church.



Source 10.9 An artist's impression of Johannes Gutenberg at his printing press

The invention of the printing press

During the Medieval era, **monks** were among the few people who could read and write. **Monasteries** housed rare and expensive manuscripts (written on animal skin or parchment) that monks had copied by hand. Most of the manuscripts – written in Latin – were religious in nature. Learning was mostly controlled by the Church.

This changed in 1450 when a German goldsmith, Johannes Gutenberg, invented a printing press with movable type. The influence of this machine in Europe, and in the development of the modern world, cannot be underestimated. Now, new and classical texts could be mass produced. One thousand copies of a book could be printed in the time it took one monk to copy a manuscript by hand. The invention of printing was probably the most important factor contributing to the spread of Renaissance culture and ideas across Europe. By 1500, there were over a thousand printers in Europe, across 270 cities. Around 40 000 titles had been published, mostly bibles and religious books, but also classical Greek and Latin texts, books on law and philosophy, and romances. Printed books encouraged people to learn to read and to gain more knowledge. People also had more choice in what they wanted to read and learn, weakening the Church's control of knowledge and education.

Humanism

The word 'humanism' is derived from the Italian word *umanista*, meaning 'a teacher or scholar of classical Greek and Latin literature'. In the 1400s, **humanism** was based on a study of the classics. It emphasised the value of human abilities and achievements, particularly the ability to use reason and logic to make decisions. Humanism encouraged people to change the way they viewed their lives. Before humanism, people lived their lives according to the rules of the Church. Questioning these rules was unthinkable.

Thinkers in the humanist movement influenced developments in all aspects of Renaissance society – in the arts, science, politics, trade and exploration. They inspired a belief that people should study, and use their intellect and abilities to serve their state.

Key thinkers of the humanist movement

Francesco Petrarch (1304–1374) was a poet and scholar who travelled around Italy looking for Greek and Roman texts. He believed the study of classical Greek and Roman literature would provide the light necessary to help people emerge from the 'Dark Age' of medieval society.

Source 10.10 Francesco Petrarch

Giovanni (Pico) della Mirandola (1463–1494) was a philosopher who wrote *Oration on the Dignity of Man* in 1486. This key text of the Italian Renaissance focused on the human quest for knowledge. It celebrated the amazing capacity of humans to achieve great things. Pico believed it was up to individuals whether they failed or succeeded.

Source 10.11 Pico della Mirandola

Baldassare Castiglione (1478–1529) wrote *The Book of the Courtier*, in which he discussed the behaviour of the ideal courtier, based on humanist ideas. The ideal courtier was an example of what became known as the 'Renaissance man'. He could speak well, sing, recite poetry, paint, and talk about classical literature. He was an excellent sportsman, and knew how to behave socially. Castiglione's book was influential in spreading the ideas of humanism across Europe.

Source 10.12 Baldassare Castiglione

REVIEW 10.3

1 Why was learning mostly controlled by the Church in medieval Europe?
2 How did the invention of the printing press change this?
3 What is the main idea of humanism?
4 Compare the views of humanists and ordinary people in the medieval era with regard to how life should be lived.
5 What were the ideas of key humanist thinkers?

DAILY LIFE IN RENAISSANCE ITALY

In Renaissance Italy, a person's experience of everyday life depended on whether they were rich or poor, male or female, or lived in a town or rural village. Renaissance Italy had a large urban population compared with the rest of Europe, with seven of the largest cities in Europe located in the Italian city-states.

Daily life for workers and the poor

In the poorer parts of Italian city–states, streets were narrow and filthy. The air was often foul because of the many dye works, tanneries and slaughterhouses where unskilled labourers worked. Most tradespeople worked from rooms at the front or on the lower storeys of their homes. Children of the poor would work alongside their parents. Or they would be sent out to work when they were considered old enough, which was sometimes no older than the age of seven. Poor hygiene was normal. It is little wonder that the *popolo minuto* (which means 'little people' – the people who were poor) would sometimes riot in protest at bad living and working conditions.

Peasants on the land worked hard to provide food for the cities and towns. They were no better off than workers in the cities. They lived mostly in one- or two-roomed cottages, which they shared with their animals. All members of a peasant family worked side by side. Children would start to work as soon as they were strong and skilled enough. Peasants worked the land from sunrise to sunset. Despite the long hours, many only barely managed to survive.

Source 10.13 Isabella d'Este was well educated, and enjoyed her power and influence. She was a patron of many artists.

Daily life for nobles and the wealthy

Unlike workers and the poor, wealthy nobles lived in great luxury in Renaissance Italy. They had time to travel and become educated. They became patrons to artists who painted their portraits, and architects who built and decorated their homes. Wealthy merchants and artisans were known as *popolo grasso* (which means 'fat people' – the people who were well off). Wealthy families had beautiful homes in the city, as well as villas (country residences) with gardens, orchards, statues and fountains. They entertained guests at great feasts, with music and poetry.

Source 10.14 Lucrezia Borgia was born into a powerful and ambitious family.

The role of women

Women could not vote whether they were rich or poor. With a few exceptions, they did not hold positions in government either. In cities, a woman could work as a dressmaker or shopkeeper, or worked with her husband in his trade or craft. The main purpose of a woman's life was to marry. She would be expected to obey her husband and look after the domestic tasks of the household. In wealthy families, people did not generally marry for love. Marriages were arranged, and marriage into an influential family was the ideal because it would improve a woman's social standing or power. **Dowries** (money or gifts a bride's family gave to her husband's family upon marriage) were very important during this period. Often, rich families would arrange a daughter's future marriage when she still very young. By 16, most girls from wealthy families were married to men who were considerably older than they were.

APPLY 10.1

1 Conduct research to prepare a biography of Isabella d'Este or Lucrezia Borgia. Outline key events and achievements in the life of the woman you select, and include a range of sources that are evidence of different perspectives on her.

Education

Children of peasants and workers usually did not receive a formal education in Renaissance Italy. However, education of boys in other social groups became increasingly common. While girls were usually instructed in household tasks, boys in towns and cities could become apprentices. They would learn a craft or trade from a master craftsmen. Boys could also be educated at cathedral schools run by the Church, or at grammar schools established by town councils or wealthy merchants. Boys of the nobility and other upper classes would be educated by a tutor at home.

Humanist ideas influenced the education of boys in the upper classes. They studied a range of subjects that would help them reach their full potential: Latin, Greek, history, philosophy, rhetoric (speaking and writing to persuade), grammar, mathematics, astronomy, poetry and music.

Life for nobles and workers in Renaissance Italy

SOURCE STUDY

Source 10.15 A 16th-century painting of the wealthy nobleman Lorenzo de' Medici inspecting a model of his villa being constructed

Source 10.16 The frescos (paintings applied onto the wet plaster of a wall or ceiling) in the central hall of the Medici villa of Poggio a Caiano

Source 10.17 A 15th-century artist's impression of a craftsman and his family

INTERPRET 10.2

1 What do the paintings shown in Sources 10.15 and 10.16 reveal about the life of the wealthy in Renaissance Italy?
2 Describe the scene shown in Source 10.17. What does it tell you about the daily life of a craftsman's family?
3 Refer to Sources 10.15 to 10.17. Describe the similarities and differences between the clothing and dwellings of noblemen and workers.

REVIEW 10.4

1 Who were the *popolo minuto* and the *popolo grasso*?
2 How was the life of a noble in Renaissance Italy different from that of a worker?
3 In wealthy families, what was the main concern regarding the marriage of a daughter?

RENAISSANCE FLORENCE

Source 10.18 The front and reverse of a 13th-century gold florin

Florence is a major city located on the banks of the Arno River in the Tuscany region of northern Italy. It was a very prosperous centre of trade during the Renaissance, where merchants traded woollen cloth, jewellery and metalwork for luxury goods from Asia and the Middle East. These included spices such as pepper and cinnamon, perfumes, silk, dye, pearls and precious metals. Wealthy merchants began to lend money, and Florence soon became the financial centre of Europe. The currency of Florence was the florin (see Source 10.18). Admired for the purity of the gold it was made of, the florin was a popular currency with traders.

Florence was a centre of the European wool trade. The political power in the city was held by wealthy wool merchants and the bankers who supported them. They built enormous mansions and contributed to the construction of grand cathedrals and public buildings. They competed with one another to commission the grandest buildings and the finest works of art. This led to a growing number of artists and scholars living and working in Florence, and the city became a significant cultural centre during the Renaissance. Living conditions for many craftsmen and artisans improved. However, the largest section of the population in Florence were still the *popolo minuto* – the 'little people' who worked in the cloth-making industries or were domestic servants. More prosperous people jokingly referred to them as *ciompi* (which means 'wooden shoes') because of their peasant footwear.

SOURCE STUDY

Renaissance Florence

Source 10.19 An illustration from 1490, which shows a complete view of Florence in that year

Source 10.20 A view of modern-day Florence

INTERPRET 10.3

1 Examine Sources 10.19 and 10.20. On the basis of these sources, what features of Florence have remain unchanged since 1490? What has changed?

2 What activity is shown in the bottom left-hand corner of Source 10.19? Suggest the identity of the figure in the bottom right-hand corner.

The guilds of Florence

During the Renaissance, **guilds** were associations for the different types of merchants, artists and craftsmen who worked in cities. Guilds educated apprentices, and made sure they attained a certain standard of skill and knowledge. Guilds also made sure goods and services were of an acceptable standard or quality. They set people's working hours and proclaimed market and feast days. They supported workers when they were sick, and provided funerals when workers died. Each guild had its own badge used to identify members. This badge featured a distinctive coat of arms, similar to those shown in Sources 10.23 and 10.24. Florence had 21 guilds. Seven of these were more highly regarded, with rich and powerful members (see Source 10.21). These members were often patrons of artists, or held positions in the government of the city.

The minor guilds included those of butchers, bakers, shoemakers, carpenters, blacksmiths, tanners, masons, armour makers, shopkeepers and tavern keepers. A sculpture representing members of one of the minor guilds, the *Maestri di Pietri e Legname* (Masters of Stone and Wood), is shown in Source 10.22.

Source 10.21 The major guilds in Florence; *arte* is the Italian word for 'guild'

Guild	Speciality
Arte di Calimala	Dyers and workers of cloth, cloth merchants
Arte della Lana	Wool manufacturers and merchants
Arte dei Guidici e Notai	Judges, lawyers and notaries
Arte del Cambio	Bankers and money changers
Arte della Seta	Silk weavers and merchants
Arte dei Medici e Speziali	Physicians (doctors), apothecaries (those who prepared medicines) spice merchants and painters
Arte dei Vaiai e Pellicciai	Furriers and skinners (makers and merchants of furs)

Source 10.22 A stone carving representing the Guild of Stone and Wood Masters. It is set in one of the niches of the Orsanmichele (Businessmen's Church), in Florence

Source 10.23 Coat of arms for the Guild of Physicians and Apothecaries

Source 10.24 Coat of arms for the Guild of Stone and Wood Masters

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Painters were included in the guild for doctors, apothecaries and spice merchants. This was because apothecaries and spice merchants supplied the pigments painters used to create paints of different colours.

APPLY 10.2

1 Refer to Sources 10.23 and 10.24. Use the images as inspiration to design your own coat of arms. It should represent a 'trade' pursued by one or more members of your family.

Government in Florence

The governing body of Florence was known as the *Signoria*. Its nine members were chosen from the city's merchant guilds and were elected for a term of two months. Only guild members could vote for the *Signoria* or be eligible for election to it. Members of the *Signoria* had to be over 30 years of age, not in debt, and not related to men already drawn in the selection. They were also ineligible for election if they had recently served a term on the *Signoria*. The *Signoria* was required to consult with two other elected councils, collectively known as *Collegi*. These two councils were made up of a further 28 representatives (mostly bankers, merchants and landowners). Other councils were elected for special circumstances, such as in a time of war or to deal with a security issue in the city.

Even though Florence was a republic (a government of elected representatives), by the 15th century a great deal of power was held in the hands of a few families. These included the Medici, Strozzi and Pazzi families. They competed with each other to retain their influence or control of the *Signoria* and of the other councils that made the important decisions for the city.

The Medici family

The Medicis were the most influential family in Renaissance Florence. Their wealth came from banking and making woollen cloth. By 1434, they gained almost complete control of the government by influencing *Signoria* members. The Medicis were the real rulers of the city–state for the next 300 years, experiencing only a brief loss of power from 1498 to 1512.

Two of the most significant members of the Medici family were Cosimo de' Medici and his grandson Lorenzo. Lorenzo's son and nephew became popes. His great-granddaughter Catherine became Queen of France by marrying into the royal family of France.

Source 10.25 Cosimo de' Medici (1389–1464)

Source 10.26 Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–1492)

Two significant members of the Medici family

Cosimo de' Medici was the first person in the Medici family to play a powerful role in Florence. He did not hold an official position in government. Instead, he used his wealth to bribe those who did have official positions to be loyal to him. Cosimo made Florentines proud of their grand city by paying for the construction of public buildings, churches and monasteries, and by commissioning works of art. He paid for the first public library in Europe to be built in the monastery of San Marco. Cosimo was popular with the people but ruthless with his enemies. To maintain power, he drove many people into exile (forced them to leave the region) or had their property confiscated.

Lorenzo de' Medici, grandson of Cosimo, was known as Lorenzo Il Magnifico ('the Magnificent'). He was educated by humanist scholars. He wrote poetry and songs, and was a good sportsman. He was a generous patron to famous artists of his time: Michelangelo Buonarroti, Sandro Botticelli and Leonardo da Vinci. Like his grandfather, Lorenzo worked hard to maintain peace among the city–states and prevent other European rulers out of Italy.

Lorenzo reluctantly took part in politics to maintain the family's power and influence and to protect the interests of his friends. However, he neglected the family's business affairs, which eventually led to the failure of the Medici bank.

Power plays – the Pazzi Conspiracy

Other influential families in Florence plotted to get rid of the Medicis. However, the Medicis treated their opposition ruthlessly. One example was their response to the failed Pazzi Conspiracy. The Pazzi family had the backing of powerful members of the Church in Rome. On Easter Sunday of 1478, a member of the Pazzi family tried to kill Lorenzo de' Medici and his brother Giuliano in the Florence Cathedral. In the attack, Guiliano was killed but Lorenzo survived. Five days of street fighting followed, and 85 relatives and friends of the Pazzis were murdered or hanged without trial by those loyal to the Medicis. This type of ruthlessness inspired Niccolò Machiavelli to write his book *The Prince*.

Niccolò Machiavelli

Niccolò Machiavelli had held government positions in Florence, but was accused of conspiracy by the Medici family and imprisoned in 1512. After his release the next year, he wrote *The Prince*. The book gives advice to men who want to become rulers, based on his observations of the Medicis and other Renaissance rulers. The advice centres around the idea that although it is better to be a good and virtuous ruler upholding Christian values, the reality is that most men are not good or virtuous. A ruler needs to use deceit and cruelty – and even murder – to stay in power for the good of his people. There has been much debate over the centuries about whether or not Machiavelli wanted his readers to take *The Prince* seriously. Some think that Machiavelli believed the exact opposite of the advice he gave in the book. They think that by seeming to support oppressive rulers, Machiavelli was in fact trying to show how bad they were.

APPLY 10.3

1 Investigate some significant individuals of Renaissance Florence, such as members of the Medici family or of another powerful family. Create a presentation that outlines significant events and achievements in the individuals' lives. Include a summary of their impact on Renaissance Italy, and sources that show different perspectives on them.

SOURCE STUDY

The Prince

Source 10.27

> Everyone realises how praiseworthy it is for a prince to honour his word and to be straightforward rather than crafty in his dealings; [but] experience shows that princes who have achieved great things have been those who have given their word lightly, who have known how to trick men with their cunning, and who, in the end, have overcome those abiding by honest principles ... A prince, therefore, need not necessarily have all the good qualities I mentioned above, but he should certainly appear to have them ... He should not deviate from what is good, if that is possible, but he should know how to do evil, if that is necessary.
>
> Niccolò Machiavelli, *The Prince*, George Bull (trans.), Penguin Books, 1961, p.100–1

Source 10.28
Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527)

INTERPRET 10.4

1 What are the main ideas in Source 10.27? Rewrite them in your own words.
2 Do you agree with these ideas? Give reasons for your response.

REVIEW 10.5

1 Which group of people was eligible for election to the *Signoria*? Who was excluded from the government of Florence?
2 Which two businesses were key to the wealth of Florence during the 15th century?
3 Where did Niccolò Machiavelli get his inspiration for *The Prince*?

10.1

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS SOCIETY IN ITALY ORGANISED DURING THE RENAISSANCE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Explain why this period is known as the Renaissance

1 Explain the origins of the term *Renaissance*. Why has it been applied to a period of European history? (2 marks)

2 Where was the Renaissance centred in Europe, and why? (3 marks)

» Identify the city-states of Italy during the Renaissance period

3 On a blank map of Italy, use shading and labels to identify the five dominant city-states in Italy during the Renaissance. (5 marks)

» Describe key economic and political features of Renaissance Italy

4 What key activities were the basis of the economies of the city-states in Renaissance Italy? (5 marks)

5 What types of government ruled the five dominant city-states? (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Renaissance Italy

6 Describe typical daily activities and living conditions in Renaissance Italy for:

- **a** the family of an unskilled worker in a city or town
- **b** a peasant family in a farming village
- **c** the family of a wealthy merchant or banker. (15 marks)

» Discuss the relationships between rulers and ruled in Florence

7 How was the government of Florence organised in the Renaissance period? (2 marks)

8 Who was eligible to govern and to vote in Renaissance Florence? Who was excluded from voting or governing? (2 marks)

9 Who were the actual rulers of Florence for much of the Renaissance period? (1 mark)

» Investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals in Renaissance Italy

10 Identify an individual who played a significant role in Renaissance Italy. Outline their achievements and explain what impact they had on their society. Assess their role in society. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Renaissance city-state research

1 Conduct research to present a detailed report on what life was like during the Renaissance in one important Italian city, such as Rome, Florence, Venice, Milan, Naples or Genoa. Include discussion of:

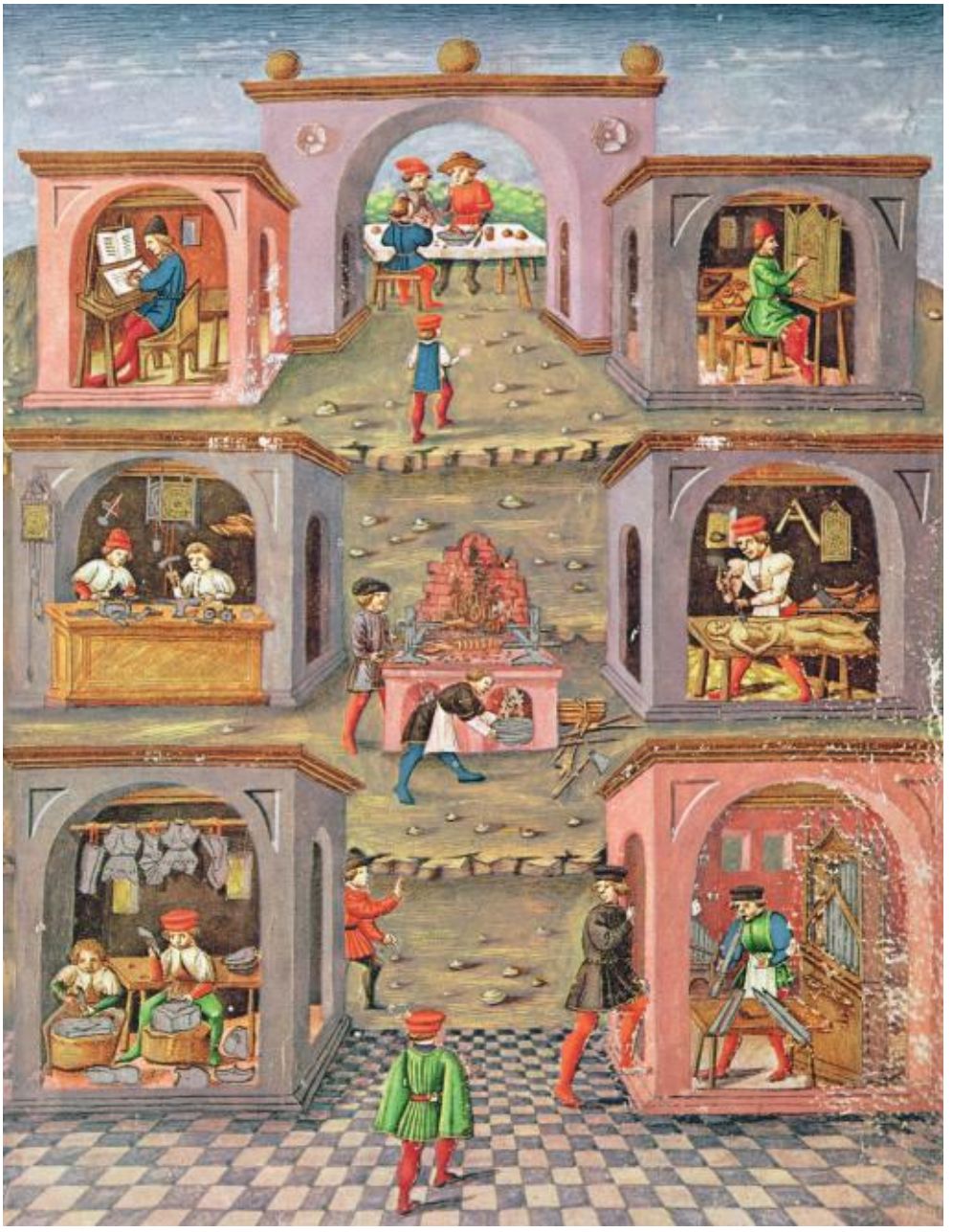
- **a** the city's location and geographical features
- **b** the form of government and rulers of the city
- **c** the most important types of trade or industries operating in the city-state where the city was located
- **d** the influential families or significant individuals associated with the city, and their roles in society.

The Renaissance apprentice

1 Conduct research into the types of tradespeople, artisans or artists who worked in a Renaissance city. Choose a particular trade, craft or art to focus on. Investigate what the daily life of a 14-year-old apprentice working in this area would have been like.

a Prepare a presentation about a typical day for the apprentice. Consider, for example, where the apprentice lives, what they eat, and what daily tasks they perform in the workshop.

b Compose a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between the apprentice's day and a typical day in your life.



Source 10.29 An illustration of 'The professions', from a manuscript *c*.1470. It shows (clockwise from top left) a scribe, a painter, a sculptor, an organ maker, an armourer and a clockmaker. In the centre are a cook and a man serving food to a table of diners.

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Analysis and use of sources
» Research
» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

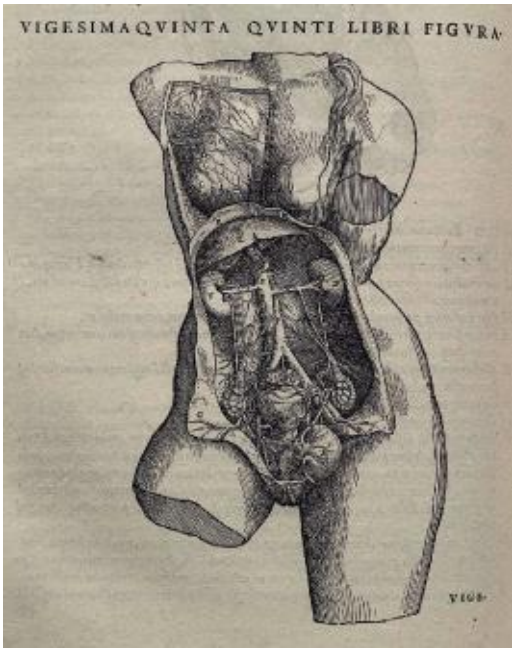
10.2 SECTION

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF RENAISSANCE ITALY?

In this section, you will explore the significant developments and achievements of Renaissance Italy in science and the arts. Patrons played an important role in many of these developments and achievements. They provided financial support for artists and thinkers, and encouraged them in their work.

RENAISSANCE SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

During the Renaissance, great advances were made in astronomy, chemistry, physics, mathematics and medicine. Renaissance scholars were influenced by humanist ideas about the ability of individuals to make their own discoveries. They rediscovered ancient Greek and Roman texts, and were inspired to apply ancient Greek methods of logic and reasoning to explain the natural world. This led to new theories about the nature of the universe, which put scholars into conflict with the Church and its interpretation of natural phenomena. The work of three men in particular would have a lasting effect on science and medicine. They were Andreas Vesalius, Nicolas Copernicus and Galileo Galilei.



Source 10.30 An anatomical diagram of a man's abdominal cavity, with the intestines removed to illustrate the organs; from Andreas Vesalius's *De humani corporis fabrica*

Andreas Vesalius

Andreas Vesalius (1514–1564) is regarded as the founder of modern human anatomy (body structure). At the beginning of the Renaissance period, the main medical textbook was based on the work of a Roman physician of Greek ancestry, Aelius Galen (129–200). Galen's works about human anatomy were based on his dissections of pigs and apes, because human dissection was banned in ancient Rome. Andreas Vesalius, who was Professor of Anatomy at the University of Padua, was determined to improve on existing knowledge of human anatomy. The Catholic Church still did not approve of dissection because the body was considered sacred and therefore should be kept intact after death. However, with the help of a local judge, Vesalius was able to obtain the corpses of criminals who had been executed. In 1543, Vesalius published *De humani corporis fabrica* (Latin for 'On the structure of the human body'), which changed the course of anatomical studies.

APPLY 10.4

1 Investigate the achievements of Vesalius, Copernicus, Galileo or another scholar of the Italian Renaissance who made an important contribution to science. How did this person's discoveries influence other scholars in his own time and in the centuries following the Renaissance period? What impact did this person's discoveries have on the modern world?

Nicolas Copernicus

Nicolas Copernicus (1473–1543) was a Polish astronomer. He lived and studied in the universities of Bologna and Padua. His studies of the movement of stars and planets led him to theorise that the Sun was the centre of the universe, with the Earth, Moon and planets revolving around it. This became known as the heliocentric (sun-centred), or Copernican, model of the universe. It was a radical departure from the old model (known as the Ptolemaic model) that had the Earth as the centre of the universe, with the other planets moving around it. The Ptolemaic model was accepted by the Church because references in the Bible supported it. To disagree with the Church's beliefs was a form of **heresy**. The consequences could be serious, such as **excommunication** (being excluded from Church ceremonies and services). Because of this, Copernicus delayed the publication of his book until a few hours before he died, in 1543.

Source 10.31 A fragment of Copernicus's work on his theory of heliocentrism

Galileo Galilei

Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) was born in Pisa, Tuscany. He studied mathematics and physics and became Professor of Mathematics at the University of Padua. In 1608, the first practical telescope had been invented in the Netherlands, which inspired Galileo to make his own telescopes. Two years later he had developed a telescope with a magnifying power strong enough to observe the Moon and planets. Through his observations, Galileo made many discoveries. He discovered stars and four satellites of Jupiter. He named the latter after the Medicis, hoping they would give him patronage – which Cosimo II de' Medici did.

Source 10.32 An artist's impression of Galileo appearing before Church officials in 1633

More significantly, Galileo's observations provided proof of Copernicus's theory that the Earth revolved around the Sun. In 1632, Galileo published his ideas in a book called *Dialogue on the Two Chief Systems of the World*. Pope Urban VIII reacted by ordering Galileo to stand trial on suspicion of heresy in 1633. Under threat of torture, Galileo publicly recanted (took back) his beliefs, but he was put under house arrest for the rest of his life. He continued, however, to work on problems of physics and mechanics. His controversial book, which was put on the Church's *List of Forbidden Books*, was finally published in Holland, in 1638.

EXTEND 10.1

1 Conduct research to find diagrams of the Ptolemaic and Copernican models of the universe, and a modern representation of the solar system. Indicate the similarities and differences between:
   - **a** the Ptolemaic and Copernican models
   - **b** the Copernican model and the modern representation of the universe.

REVIEW 10.6

1 What was knowledge about the human body based on before the work of Andreas Vesalius?
2 What is the difference between the Copernican and Ptolemaic models of the universe?

RENAISSANCE ART

During the Italian Renaissance, artists adopted new approaches in terms of techniques, materials and subject matter. The most famous Renaissance artists include Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo Buonarroti and Raphael Sanzio da Urbino (known as Leonardo, Michelangelo and Raphael, respectively). Many Renaissance artists had expertise in painting, sculpture and architecture. This meant that developments in one area influenced the others.

The changing role of the artist

Source 10.33 Self-portrait of Raphael, painted in 1506

Before the Renaissance, many artists and sculptors in Europe were in reality little more than stonemasons, plasterers or craftsmen, who performed tasks such as painting furniture or making jewellery. But as wealth increased through trade, people who became rich had money to spend on works of art. They became patrons of artists, commissioning artworks to beautify their homes, glorify their cities, and impress those around them. Many works of art were grand and imposing, demanding great skill and talent. Artists earned the public's respect and admiration. They began to sign their work and created self-portraits. Often they would include themselves in the paintings they created, standing alongside their patrons.

The leading painters and sculptors of Renaissance Italy established workshops. There, paintings or monuments were crafted, materials were made and stored, and apprentices were trained. Often, a master-painter would complete the most important parts of a work and let his students complete less important features. Many workshops developed their own specialty.

The importance of patrons

Patrons played a very significant role in artists' lives. Wealthy merchants and bankers not only commissioned works of art, but often gave an artist or sculptor a place to live, and the necessary money, time and encouragement to travel, study and explore. Patrons commissioned monuments or works of art to glorify their town or city-state, and to enhance their reputation.

Wealthy families had their homes – grand palaces and country villas –decorated with art. Works of art were also commissioned to commemorate important occasions in family life, such as weddings, births and deaths. A painter would often flatter his patron by including his family crest, or even an image of his whole family, in the work that had been commissioned.

Guilds and government bodies also commissioned artists to create work. In 1399, all the major guilds in Florence commissioned statues to fill niches (insets in the wall) in the Orsanmichele (Businessmen's Church; see Source 10.22). Florence's ruling council and other governing bodies commissioned works to beautify government buildings or rooms. The statue of David by Michelangelo (Source 10.1) was commissioned by the city of Florence in 1501.

But the Roman Catholic Church was by far the greatest patron of the arts in Renaissance Italy. The Church commissioned cathedrals and churches, and statues and paintings for their interiors. Popes commissioned decorations for their residences, their own portraits, and even sculptures for their own elaborate tombs. Michelangelo's most famous Church commission was the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican, painted between 1508 and 1512, for Pope Julius II.

Source 10.34 The Florence Cathedral (*Duomo di Firenze*) is still an important landmark in Florence. The Dome was designed by Filippo Brunelleschi and completed in 1436.

Source 10.35 The 'Creation of Adam', a detail from the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel.

APPLY 10.5

1 Refer to Source 10.34. Conduct research to find out why Brunelleschi's dome in the Florence Cathedral was a significant achievement in Renaissance architecture.
2 Use the weblink in the obook to take a virtual tour of the Sistine Chapel.

EXTEND 10.2

1 Conduct research to find examples of modern-day artworks commissioned by patrons. Compare the themes or subject matters of these artworks with those of the Renaissance. Who are the patrons of art today?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

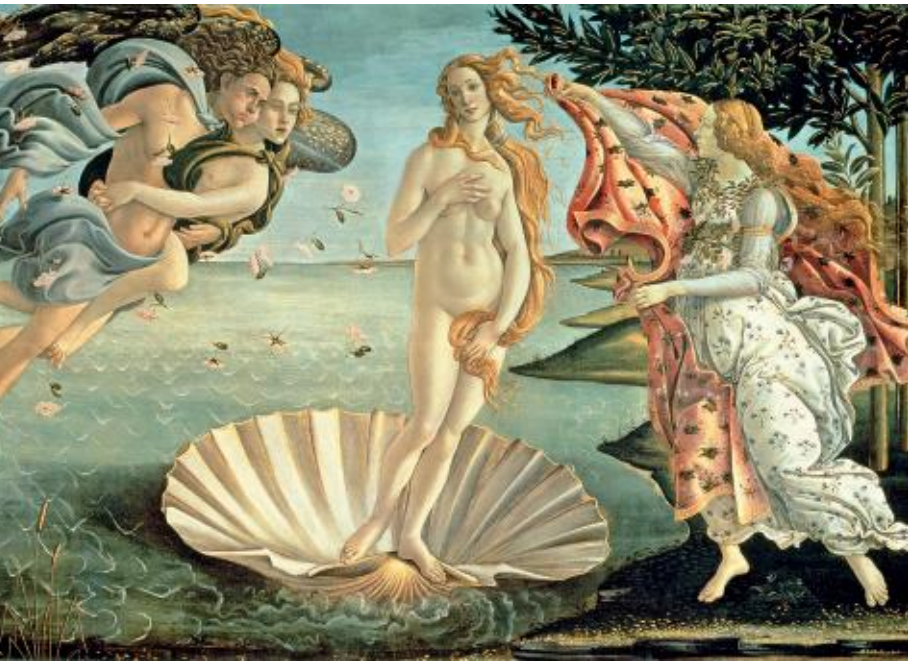
By painting the scene 'Creation of Adam' in the Sistine Chapel, Michelangelo became the first painter to represent the Christian God as a full figure. In earlier paintings, God had been depicted as a hand reaching down from the clouds.

Developments in Renaissance art

Art in the Medieval era was almost exclusively religious in theme. In the Renaissance period, the works of the ancient Greeks and Romans began to influence subject matter. Artworks with religious themes, such as those of the Madonna and child, or scenes from the life of Christ, were still popular. Increasingly, however, paintings and sculptures also depicted the myths and stories of ancient Greece and Rome. Artistic styles and techniques were also influenced by the classical works of the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Naturalism

Naturalism is the accurate representation of objects, particularly the human body. Renaissance painters and sculptors were influenced by classical Greek and Roman statues. Their representations of life-like figures were a dramatic departure from the shallow relief sculpture of medieval times. The focus now was on the beauty of the human form. Figures in paintings had poses similar to those of figures represented in classical statues. Sandro Botticelli was the first Renaissance artist to paint a full-length female nude (see Source 10.36). Depicting the naked human body, whether using marble or paint, demands a thorough knowledge of how the human body looks and moves. Many sculptors and artists began to work with live models.



Source 10.36 In Botticelli's *Birth of Venus*, the nude figure of Venus stands with more weight on one leg, copying the stance represented so often in ancient Greek and Roman sculptures.

Perspective

Renaissance artists used new techniques to show people and other objects in **perspective**. In other words, what they painted looked realistic in terms of size and proportion. Geometrical calculations centred on a vanishing point, helped give the illusion of three-dimensional space on a flat surface. Figures or buildings further away in a painting were painted smaller, just as they appear to the human eye.

Chiaroscuro

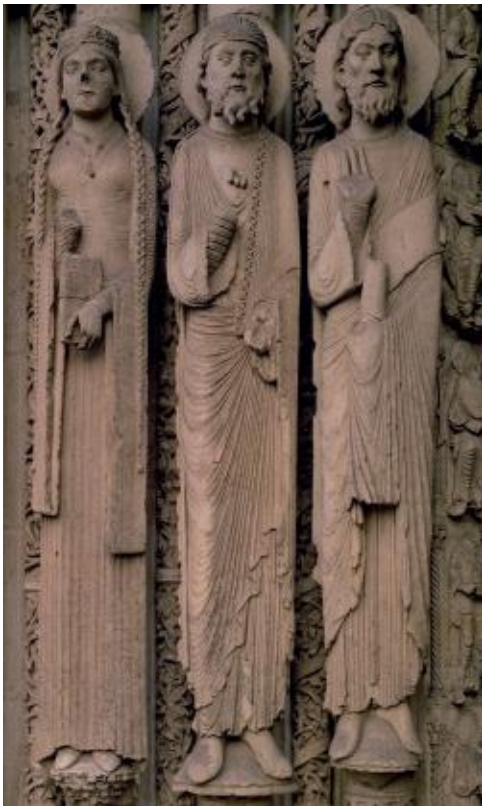
Another painting technique developed by Renaissance artists to achieve a realistic effect was ***chiaroscuro*** (meaning 'light-dark' in Italian). *Chiaroscuro* involved balancing the light and shadow in a picture. By mastering the use of shadows and tone, Renaissance artists gave the illusion of three dimensional figures.

Use of contemporary landscapes

Many artists of the Renaissance observed nature closely. They included great detail and accurate perspective in the backgrounds of their paintings. The backgrounds of Medieval pictures had been, by and large, composed of gold leaf. But landscape became an increasingly important feature in Renaissance paintings. Renaissance artists often depicted the landscapes that existed around them, rather than depicting biblical settings or ancient times. For example, they often painted biblical figures in contemporary Italian settings, mixing with ordinary citizens of the day, such as wealthy families.

Developments in Renaissance art

SOURCE STUDY



Source 10.37 A 12th-century stone relief depicting biblical figures

Source 10.39 Michelangelo's sculpture *The Drunkeness of Bacchus*, created in 1497. It depicts Bacchus, the Roman god of wine and pleasure.

Source 10.38 A 14th-century painting of a castle under siege

Source 10.40 A fresco by Pietro Perugino, *The Giving of the Keys to Saint Peter*, painted in 1481

INTERPRET 10.5

1. Study Sources 10.37 and 10.39. Describe the similarities and differences between these examples of Medieval and Renaissance sculpture, commenting on the subject matter and style of the works.
2. Study Sources 10.38 and 10.40. Describe the differences between these works of art.
3. Identify the techniques used by the artist in Source 10.40.
4. Find examples of Greek and Roman sculptures. Compare them to the figures in Sources 10.37 and 10.39.

Source 10.41 A self-portrait of Leonardo da Vinci, 1512

APPLY 10.6

1 Find and examine Leonardo's two paintings *Mona Lisa* and *The Last Supper*. Find out what these works of art depict, and describe them in your own words.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Leonardo usually used 'mirror writing' in his notebooks. His notes can only be read when reflected in a mirror. Many theories have been put forward to explain why Leonardo wrote this way. He was left-handed and may have found it easier to write from right to left to avoid smudging his ink.

A significant individual: Leonardo da Vinci

Source 10.42 A drawing of an 'air screw' within one of Leonardo's notebooks.

Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was an ideal 'Renaissance man'. His paintings, such as *The Last Supper* and the *Mona Lisa*, are known and studied throughout the world. But as well as being an accomplished painter and sculptor, Leonardo was a scientist, an engineer and an inventor. His diverse interests are reflected in the 13 000 pages of his notebooks that have survived. Among other things, Leonardo was interested in geology, mathematics, irrigation, music, botany and the anatomy of the human body. He studied the human form and made detailed drawings of bones, muscles and internal organs. As a successful artist, he was given access to hospitals where he could dissect the corpses of males and females of different ages. Leonardo investigated the human body so thoroughly he almost discovered how blood circulates through the body. He was also particularly fascinated by flight. He studied the flight of birds and tried to invent a machine that would enable man to fly (see Source 10.42).

Source 10.43

> In erudition and letters [literary and intellectual pursuits] he would have distinguished himself, if he had not been variable and unstable. For he set himself to learn many things, and when he had begun them gave them up. In arithmetic ... he made such progress that he often perplexed his master ... He gave some time to the study of music, and learnt to play on the lute, improvising songs most divinely. But though he applied himself to such various subjects, he never laid aside drawing and modelling in relief, to which his fancy inclined him more than to anything else ... and also made many designs for architecture; and he was the first, while he was still quite young, to discuss the question of making a channel for the river Arno from Pisa to Florence. He made models of mills and presses, and machines to be worked by water, and designs for tunnelling through mountains, and levers and cranes for raising great weights, so that it seemed that his brain never ceased inventing ...
>
> Extract from Giorgio Vasari, *Lives of the Artists, 1550*, E. L. Seeley (trans.), Noonday Press, New York, 1965

APPLY 10.7

1 Research the life and achievements of Leonardo. Create a timeline that shows the various periods when he worked for patrons in different city-states, and gives names and dates for his most significant works of art and for major projects he undertook.
2 Read Source 10.43. Then find two other written sources about Leonardo. What were Leonardo's characteristics and abilities, according to the sources?

REVIEW 10.7

1 What were the different types of patrons in Renaissance Italy?
2 Give examples of significant buildings and artworks commissioned by Renaissance patrons.
3 Describe artistic techniques and styles developed during the Renaissance.

THE LEGACY OF RENAISSANCE ITALY

The cultural developments and ideas of Renaissance Italy had a lasting legacy. They spread through Holland, England, Germany and France, aided by the invention of the printing press. The humanist belief in the individual's ability to think and reason influenced intellectuals in northern Europe who wanted to reform the Church. The ideas of the Renaissance eventually influenced artists, scientists and philosophers around the world.

Renaissance art and architecture

Techniques developed by painters and sculptors in Renaissance Italy influenced artists in northern Europe. They studied the Italian masters, and learned how they used perspective and *chiaroscuro*, and how they depicted the human form. Renaissance architects from Italy also received commissions from nobles in other European countries. This introduced their style to countries beyond the borders of the Italian city-states.

Scientific knowledge and methods

The scientific work of Copernicus, Galileo and other Renaissance scholars changed our understanding of the universe and helped to free the study of science from the constraints of religion. Key thinkers of the Renaissance developed their theories using logic and reasoning, observations, experiments and mathematical calculations. This approach formed the basis of the modern scientific method.

Renaissance texts

Classic Renaissance texts have influenced many people over the centuries and are still read today. *The Book of the Courtier* was translated into six languages and influenced many European courts in the period after the Renaissance. The questions Machiavelli raised in his book *The Prince* are still discussed today, especially by those studying politics and philosophy. The word 'Machiavellian' is used to describe a person in business or politics who will do anything to gain and hold onto power.

Humanist ideas

A great legacy of Renaissance Italy was the development of humanist ideas. These ideas influenced the education provided in schools for centuries, which centred on the humanities. The Renaissance passion for learning inspired the founding of universities throughout Europe.

The humanist belief in individual ability and potential spread to northern Europe, where they influenced scholars who wanted to reform the Catholic Church. One of the most influential was a Dutch priest, Desiderius Erasmus (1466–1536). The Church taught that certain rituals and conduct should be followed so that people could enter heaven after their time on Earth. Erasmus believed that Christianity should show people how to live good lives. He thought people should educate themselves by reading Christian works; they should not just follow rituals. Erasmus wanted to reform the Church 'from the inside'. In 1513, he wrote 'The Praise of Folly', in which he made fun of the way many people behaved, including priests. His essay became a best seller because it tapped into people's anger about corruption in the Church. Corrupt behaviour by priests and other Church leaders was causing many ordinary men and women to become increasingly disillusioned with the Church.

EXTEND 10.3

1 Conduct research to find works by Rembrandt (1606–1669), Rubens (1577–1640) and Dürer (1471–1528). Find out how the styles and techniques of these artists were influenced by the art of Renaissance Italy.

Source 10.44 An artist's impression of Martin Luther posting his 'ninety-five theses' on a chapel door

The Reformation

The **Reformation** is the name given to the time when large changes in thinking about the role and power of the Church in Europe took place. Martin Luther (1483–1546) was a German monk and professor of theology (religious study) who, like the humanists, also wanted to reform the Church. Like Erasmus, Luther believed a person's faith in God was the key to salvation, rather than Church rituals. Luther was also critical of Church officials who used their positions to make themselves wealthy. In particular, Luther was against the selling of indulgences, which involved Church officials accepting money in exchange for pardoning a person's sins. Unlike Erasmus, Luther called for a break from the Catholic Church. He wanted to establish a separate Church.

In 1517, Luther nailed a copy of his essay 'The ninety-five theses on the power and efficacy of indulgences' (now commonly called 'The ninety-five theses') on a chapel door. The essay was widely published and read throughout Europe. Luther was excommunicated by the Pope but his reform movement, which would become known as Lutheranism gained support. In the 1520s, German rulers who supported Luther's movement took control of churches in their territories. People who supported the reformed churches and protested against the Catholic Church became known as Protestants.

The English Renaissance

Henry VIII, king of England, was said to be a true 'Renaissance prince'. Well-educated in the humanities, he also excelled at sport, wrote poetry, and composed and played music. He surrounded himself with men who were important humanist scholars. Thomas Linacre (1460–1524) was his doctor and tutor to his son, and Thomas More (1478–1535) was his Lord Chancellor. Both these men became close friends of Erasmus.

Henry's daughter, Elizabeth I (1533–1603), was tutored by a Renaissance scholar. Her prosperous and stable reign was the height of the period known as the English Renaissance. The English Renaissance differed from the Italian Renaissance. It was important for its poetry, music and drama. Shakespeare, considered by many to be the greatest dramatist of all time, was a key figure of the period. He was influenced by the Italian Renaissance. Many of his plays are set in Italy.

The Age of Exploration

The Renaissance spirit encouraged learning and discovery. It coincided with a period from the 15th to the 17th centuries, called the Age of Exploration. Spanish, Portuguese and English explorers sailed and mapped parts of the world previously unknown to Europeans, in search of new trade routes as well as scientific knowledge. Their maps of the 'New World' led to the European exploration and settlement of the Americas.

REVIEW 10.8

1 Create a graphic organiser to summarise the legacy of Renaissance Italy.
2 Which do you think is the most important legacy of the Renaissance? Explain your answer.

10.2 CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension chronology, terms and concepts
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS IN RENAISSANCE ITALY?

» Investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements in Renaissance Italy

1 Identify significant developments and achievements in science and medicine during the Renaissance era. Why are they considered to be significant? (5 marks)

2 Explain significant developments and achievements in the painting and sculpture of Renaissance Italy. Refer to specific artworks in your response – for example, Source 10.1 (Michelangelo's *David*) or Source 10.36 (Botticelli's *Birth of Venus*). (5 marks)

3 What influence did the art of the Renaissance Italian city-states have on other parts of Europe? (5 marks)

» Describe how patronage encouraged these developments and achievements

4 Describe the different types of patrons in Renaissance Italy. How important was their support of art and architecture in the Italian city-states? (5 marks)

» Investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals

5 Identify a significant artist, scholar or scientist of Renaissance Italy. Outline their achievements and impact of their work in their own time, as well as their impact on the modern world. Refer to a range of sources in your response, to identify different perspectives on this individual. (10 marks)

» Explain how ideas from Renaissance Italy spread to the rest of Europe

6 What was the single factor that had most influence on the spread of ideas from Renaissance Italy to other parts of Europe? Explain your answer. (5 marks)

» Outline the legacy of Renaissance Italy

7 Explain the legacy of Renaissance Italy. Outline significant ideas, discoveries and inventions of Renaissance Italy. Then explain the importance of these not only for Renaissance Italy but for the modern world. Consider how today's world might be different without these discoveries or inventions. (15 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

The end of the Renaissance

1 Conduct research to find out how and why the Renaissance period came to an end. Present your findings as a timeline. Show significant events, and identify individuals who played key roles.

The Renaissance and you

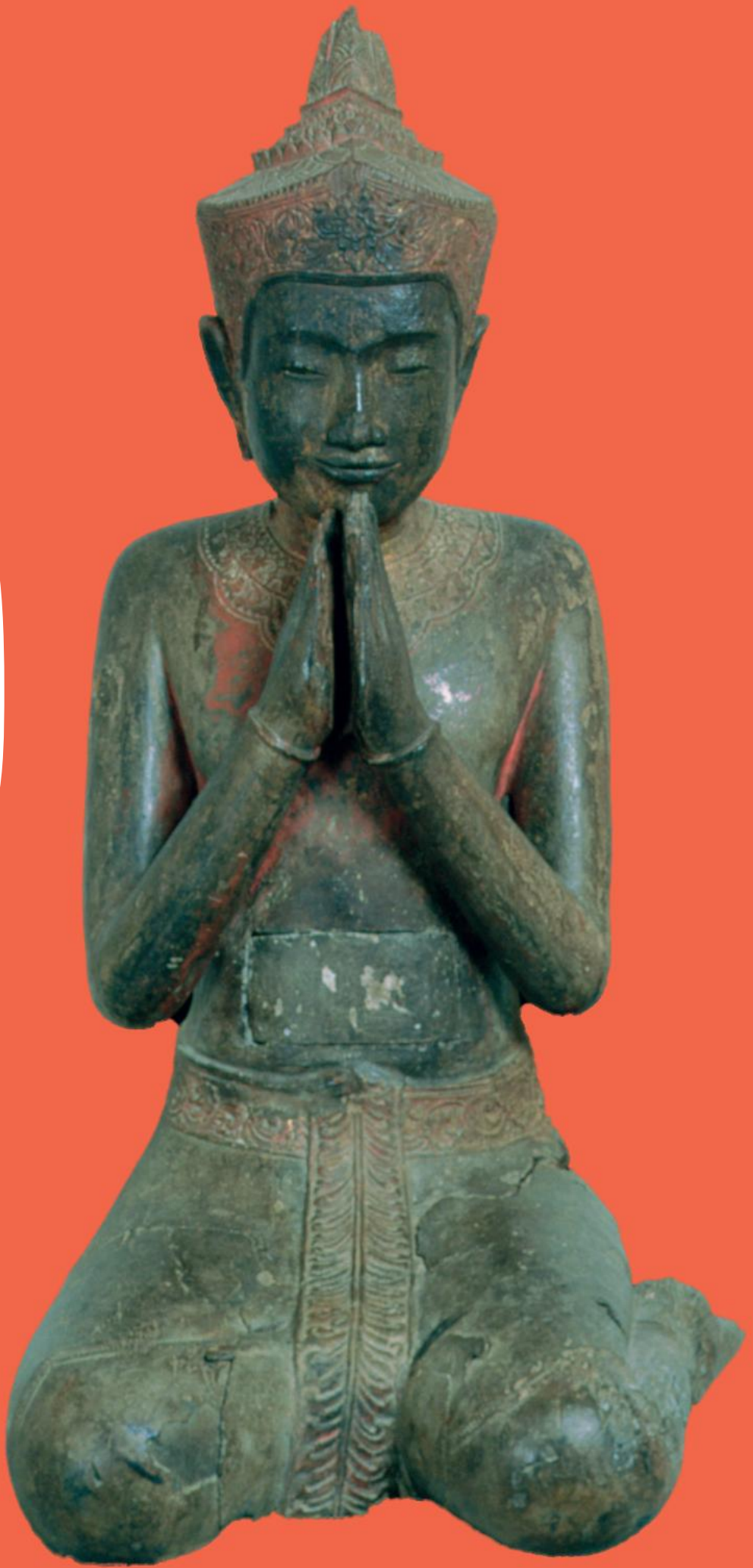
1 Create a graphic organiser titled 'How Renaissance ideas and developments have affected my life'. Share your ideas in a class discussion. Then add them to your graphic organiser, including ideas contributed by other members of your class.

The art and invention of Leonardo

1 In a group, choose one of Leonardo's works of art and one of his inventions to investigate further. Prepare a presentation in a format of your choice. In the presentation:

- describe the artwork; explain the artistic techniques used to create it, and explain why it is considered to be a significant example of Renaissance art
- describe the invention and its purpose, and identify modern-day machines or inventions that are similar to it.

PART 5



This praying kneeling figure, thought to have been made around the mid-16th century, was made in Angkor near the end of the Khmer Empire.

THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 5: THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE **11** CHAPTER

JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS **12** CHAPTER

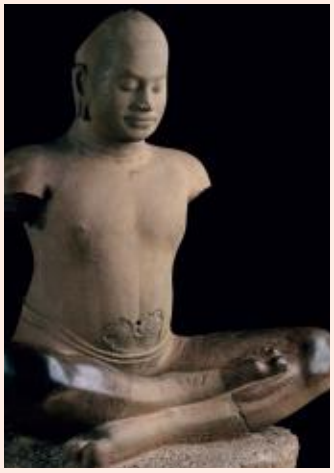
THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC **13** CHAPTER

THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

The history of the Asia–Pacific World is important to all Australians. This is not just because this is the part of the world we live in. It is also a place that has global importance. Many political experts have claimed that we are living in the 'Asia–Pacific century', much as the 20th century is said to have been the 'American century' and the late 19th century was a time when countries in northern Europe were the dominant global powers.

In this course, you have the opportunity to gain an understanding of the Asia–Pacific world through your study of the Angkor/Khmer Empire, Japan under the shoguns, or Polynesian expansion across the Pacific. Along the way, you will learn:

- why there is so little evidence of the once-powerful Khmer kings, other than stone ruins of temples such as Angkor Wat
- why the real rulers of Japan for centuries were not the emperors, but the military leaders known as shoguns
- why Māori warriors performed a *haka* or war dance when they were about to fight their enemies.



Source 0.25 A sculpture of Jayavarman VII, who ruled the Khmer Empire in the 12th century

Source 0.26 The first shogun Minamoto no Yoritomo

Source 0.27 A performance of a *haka*

BELIEF SYSTEMS AND RELIGIONS

The belief systems and religions formed the foundations of all societies across the Asia–Pacific. They also had an influence on many aspects of daily life. Many ancient societies across the Asia–Pacific region believed in spirits of the natural world.

Gods and spirits of the Polynesians

The Polynesians were a group of people whose civilisation spread over a large area of the Pacific Ocean, known as the Polynesian Triangle. Polynesians created many different societies on different groups of islands. Each society had its own belief systems and religions, but they also had many common features. All Polynesian cultural groups were **polytheistic**, worshipping multiple gods and spirits. These spirits were responsible for the Earth's natural features and processes, such as the wind, rain, sun, moon and stars. Each cultural group passed down creation stories that explained how important natural features, such as the Sun, came to be. They also worshipped their ancestors, and created rituals to please them, so that food was plentiful and women would give birth to healthy children.

Source 0.28 Many Polynesian societies made representations of their gods in the form of large wooden *tikis*.

From the early 19th century, European and American missionaries moved throughout the Polynesian Triangle, trading and converting the islanders to Christianity. These Christian missionaries transformed all aspects of Polynesian beliefs and customs to make them more 'civilised'. In many cases they destroyed traditional belief systems and replaced them with the religion of Christianity.

Shintoism, Buddhism and Confucianism in Japan under the shoguns

Like the Polynesians, the early Japanese worshipped nature and *kami* (which were spirits). The early Japanese believed that all natural things – such as the sun, hills, lakes, mountains, rivers and trees – were inhabited by spirits. The spirits were also responsible for things like fertility. After they died, people in Japan were believed to become *kami*. Over time, these beliefs developed into a more formalised Japanese religion known as Shinto. Shinto shrines were built across Japan and the emperor of Japan was worshipped as a god.

In the 5th century, Buddhism was introduced to Japan from China. From this point on, Shinto and Buddhism coexisted. In the 8th century, Buddhism became the state religion and Buddhist temples were constructed. **Confucianism** was also introduced from China between the 6th and 9th centuries, which had a positive impact on Japanese ethics and politics. Finally, Christianity was brought to Japan in 1549 by Christian missionaries. At first, Christianity was tolerated by the shoguns. However, fearing this foreign influence on their society, the shoguns placed a ban on Christian missionaries and activities in the early 17th century. The ban was not lifted until the late 19th century.

Source 0.29 The Heian Shrine in Kyoto, Japan. Shinto shrines such as these were built all over the country.

Beliefs and religions of the Khmer people

Like the early Polynesians and Japanese, the early Khmer people believed in local gods and ancestral spirits. These beliefs were passed from one generation to another through word of mouth. Unlike the societies of Polynesia and Japan, however, the Khmer people later came on to worship Hindu gods.

APPLY 0.11

1 Use the information and sources in the text and your own research to outline similarities and differences in the beliefs and religious practices of people of two of the societies studied in 'The Asia–Pacific world'.

Hinduism first developed in India and was introduced to the Khmer from the 9th century onwards. Between AD 800 and 1200, beautiful temples were built to honour the three most important Hindu gods – Shiva, Vishnu and Brahma. At the same time, Khmer kings were also regarded as living gods.

In the 12th century, the Khmer king Jayavarman VII was a follower of Buddhism, a religion that also originated in India. He built many Buddhist temples, and Buddhism in its various forms became the state religion of the empire.

Source 0.30 Carved stone faces decorate the Bayon Temple in Angkor Thom, once the capital of the Khmer Empire.

GOVERNMENTS, LAWS AND SOCIAL STRUCTURES

Although their cultures were quite distinct, the societies were are studying in the Asia–Pacific world were all organised according to strict **hierarchies** (ways of organising groups from most to least important). At the top of the hierarchy were the kings, chiefs or military leaders.

Rule of the Khmer kings

The Khmer Empire was centred on the modern-day countries of Cambodia, Laos, Thailand and Vietnam. Over the centuries, Khmer kings built hundreds of temple complexes dedicated to the Hindu gods and to Buddha. They also developed sophisticated water management systems. These irrigation systems were a key to the empire's prosperity and success. They allowed more frequent harvesting of rice, which was traded with countries as far away as India and China.

Roughly speaking, Khmer society was divided into five classes known as **castes**. These were: the king, nobles, military officials and priests, common people (including peasants, artisans and professionals), and slaves.

The king was the source of all legal and religious power, and he was head of the military. The nobles and officials at local temples administered the king's laws and collected taxes in the form of crops. They reported to larger regional temples, which then reported to the king. The priests of each village temple collected crops from the local farmers (as taxes) and provided a storehouse for grain. The village temples, in turn, provided support to the local farmers. Across the empire, networks of village temples reported to bigger regional temples, and these regional temples then reported to a central temple linked to the king.

Rule of the Japanese shoguns

For more than thousand years, Japan was ruled by a series of powerful extended families or **clans**. The head of the strongest of these clans became the **shogun**, a term that loosely means 'military leader'. During the time of the shoguns, the symbolic ruler of Japan was the **emperor**, but real power was in the hands of these military leaders.

The leader of the Tokugawa clan became shogun in 1603 after defeating rival clans. His descendants ruled Japan for the next 264 years, until the Meiji Restoration that ended the rule of the shoguns and restored the rule of the emperor.

A warrior class of fighting men known as ***samurai*** were important to the shogun's power. *Samurai* lived by a strict moral code that still influences elements of Japanese society to this day. Social rank, for the *samurai* and other groups in Japanese society, was determined at birth and was strictly defined. Broadly speaking, there were six social classes:

- emperor
- warriors (including the shogun, ***daimyo*** and *samurai*)
- peasants
- craftspeople
- merchants
- outcasts.

In many ways, this system was similar to feudalism in medieval Europe. People in each social class knew what was expected of them, and they had rights and responsibilities they had to fulfil.

Source 0.31 The fighting abilities of the *samurai*, the warrior class in medieval Japan, were important to the shogun's power.

Polynesian societies and laws

In Polynesian societies, the place of people within the social hierarchy was generally based on the clans or groups of families to which they belonged. Those whose ancestors could be traced back the furthest – the families whose canoes had arrived on the island first – often had the greatest power and social standing. For example, on the islands of New Zealand, the Māori ruling class (known as the *rangatira*) was made up of the most important families. The *ariki* (which means 'chief') usually came from the most senior family that could trace its ancestry back to the founding canoes.

At the bottom of the hierarchy were slaves who had been captured in war. They carried out all the manual tasks for the tribe, but were not prisoners. Tribal beliefs stated that once they were captured, slaves were considered dead, so it made little sense to escape. These slaves could often marry into the tribe and their children would be free.

A set of laws were central to Māori life. These were known as ***tapu***. These were developed to protect sacred places, people and objects.

Source 0.32 A 19th-century painting of a Māori chief

APPLY 0.12

1 Use the information and sources in the text and your own research to outline similarities and differences in the government, laws and social structure of two of the societies studied in 'The Asia–Pacific world'. You may want to refer to relevant units in the depth study chapters: 'Khmer society, culture and government' in Chapter 11, 'The society and economy of Japan under the shoguns' in Chapter 12, 'Common features of Polynesian societies' and 'Māori settlement, society and culture' in Chapter 13.

11

Source 11.1 A fragment from a bronze statue of Vishnu created in 11th-century Angkor

THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE

For over 500 years, the Angkor/Khmer Empire was the mightiest kingdom in South-East Asia. The Khmer civilisation was centred in the Angkor region in modern-day Camobia. Here, a succession of Khmer kings harnessed the waters of the monsoon to build irrigation systems, and the labours of their peoples to build a series of magnificent temple complexes. But all empires fall, and a combination of foreign invasions, religious conflicts and environmental factors triggered the decline the Khmer empire. Many of the temples, roads and other buildings of the Khmers vanished back into the jungles, only to be 'rediscovered' in more recent times.

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

11.1 SECTION

In this section, you will:

» identify the extent and key sites of the Angkor/Khmer Empire
» describe the status and power of the king
» identify the roles and relationships of key groups in Angkor/Khmer society
» outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Angkor/Khmer Empire
» explain how trade and agriculture contributed to the rise of the Angkor/Khmer Empire
» describe everyday life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire

CHECKPOINT 11.1

WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE?

11.2 SECTION

In this section, you will:

» describe what sources reveal about Angkor/Khmer life and culture, including the construction of the temples, the system of water management, religion and agriculture.
» outline theories about the decline of Angkor and assess which factors were most significant
» explain the significance of Angkor today

CHECKPOINT 11.2

Reference guide

Key term	Definition
Angkor	The first capital city of the Khmer Empire. This city was actually called Yasodharapura by the Khmer people who lived in it originally. The name Angkor – meaning 'city' – developed later from a word in Sanskrit, the language of ancient India. Many historians use the term Angkor to refer to the first capital city, the Angkor region, or even the Khmer Empire itself. In this book, however, it is only used to refer to the city.
Angkor/Khmer Empire	The civilisation of the Khmer people, which was centred around the city of Angkor and founded in 802; it collapsed in 1432. In this depth study we often use the shorter term Khmer Empire to mean Angkor/Khmer Empire.
Angkor region	The region within modern-day Cambodia that surrounds the city of Angkor; it covers around 400 square kilometres and features over 1000 temples (including Angkor Wat and the Bayon Temple).
Angkor Thom	The last capital city of the Khmer Empire. Angkor Thom – meaning 'great city' – was a fortified city in the Angkor region. It contained the homes of priests and officials of the palace and military. It also contained buildings for administering the empire.
Angkor Wat	The temple complex built by Suryavaram II in the 12th century. Angkor Wat – meaning 'city temple' – is located in the Angkor region. It is the largest Hindu temple complex in the world, and also the largest of all religious monuments. It covers an area of around 2 square kilometres.

THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE

c. 100 BC – *c.* AD 500
According to legend, the first Khmer kingdom, known as Funan, is founded in the Mekong River delta; through trade, Indian and Chinese customs and beliefs are spread in the Funan region.

c. 500 – *c.* 700
The power and authority of Funan declines; a neighbouring kingdom in the north, known as Chenla, gains control of the region.

c. 700 – *c.* 800
Chenla breaks apart; smaller kingdoms compete for power and control.

802
Jayavarman II forces some small Khmer kingdoms to unite, founding the Khmer Empire; he sets up a capital and declares himself *Chakravartin* ('ruler of the world'); Hinduism becomes the official religion of the empire.

877
Indravarman I, the nephew of Jayavarman II, becomes king; he establishes his court at Hariharalaya, and there one of the first Khmer temples, Preah Ko, is built; the East Baray reservoir is also built around this time.

889
Yasovarman I becomes king; he establishes the first official capital of the Khmer Empire, Yasodharapura, now called Angkor.

100 BC AD 500 700 800 900

Source 11.2
A modern-day view of Cambodia, showing the landscape of the region where the Khmer Empire was established

Source 11.3
A 12th-century statue of the Hindu god Shiva at Angkor Wat

Source 11.4
A stone carving showing Khmer troops going into battle

Source 11.5
A stone carving on the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom; it shows a Khmer king at his royal palace.

1002
Civil war breaks out in Angkor, as rival leaders compete for control of the Khmer Empire.

1113
Suryavarman II becomes king; under his rule the Angkor Wat ('city temple') is built – it serves both as a state temple and capital city of the empire, for a time.

1181
Jayavarman VII becomes king; under his rule the Cham are defeated and driven out of Angkor; many temples and hospitals are also built and the road system develops rapidly; Buddhism becomes the official religion of the empire.

***c.* 1200**
A new capital city, called Angkor Thom ('great city'), is built by Jayavarman VII.

1431
The Angkor region is attacked by the kingdom of Ayutthaya (situated in the west; now Thailand); thousands of people are enslaved, and the Angkor Thom is abandoned.

1000 | 1100 | 1200 | 1400 | 1860

968
Jayavarman V becomes king; the temple of Banteay Srei is constructed to honour the Hindu god Shiva.

1006
Suryavarman I becomes king; he expands the empire by making several military conquests.

1066
The empire is divided as several contenders for its rule fight against each other.

1177
The kingdom of Champa (situated to the east; now Vietnam) defeats the Khmer; the invaders plunder and burn parts of the Angkor region.

1296
The Chinese traveller and writer Zhou Daguan visits the Angkor region and records his observations of daily life.

1860
French explorer and archaeologist Henri Mouhot visits ruins in the Angkor region and records his observations, leading many in the West to believe he has rediscovered a lost civilisation.

REVIEW 11.1

1 Use the information in the timeline to complete the table below.

Name of Khmer king	First year of his rule	Key events during his reign

2 Use the information in your table to answer the following questions.

a How many years were there between the founding of the Khmer Empire and the invasion of the Ayutthaya which led to the abandonment of Angkor Thom?

b Under whose reign did Hinduism become the official religion of the Khmer Empire?

c Under whose reign did Buddhism become the official religion?

d Under whose reign was the Temple of Angkor Wat built?

11.1 HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

SECTION

In this section you will learn about Khmer society and the ways in which the Khmer Empire was influenced by the geographical location and natural features of the Angkor region. You will also explore the daily lives of the Khmer people. The hard work and initiative of the Khmer people helped the Khmer Empire to prosper and expand. Because of this, the Khmer people dominated South-East Asia in the areas of architecture, warfare, agriculture and art for 500 years.

THE GEOGRAPHY AND ORIGINS OF THE KHMER EMPIRE

At the height of its power, the Khmer Empire extended over a large part of South-East Asia. It included territories in modern-day Cambodia, Laos, Thailand and Vietnam. The centre of the empire was in modern-day Cambodia – a landscape that features a great plain, with the sea to the south, the Mekong River to the east, and low mountains to the west and north. In the middle of the plain is Tonle Sap (which means 'Great Lake'), the largest freshwater lake in South-East Asia. Dotted over the plain are hills, or *phnoms* (which means 'hills'), which in ancient times often became the sites of temples.

Source 11.6 Modern-day South-East Asia, showing the territory of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

Climate and natural features

Cambodia has a tropical climate, meaning that it is very warm and humid all year round. There is a wet season and a dry season. The wet season (from May until October) brings heavy rains and monsoons. In contrast, there is little to no rain at all during the dry season (from November until April).

During the dry season, Tonle Sap is a relatively small lake with an area of around 3000 square kilometres, and an average depth of 1 metre. During the wet season, its area expands to 10 000 square kilometres, with an average depth of 9 metres. This happens because the Mekong River floods during the monsoon and the southerly flow of the lake's waters is stopped. River water is then turned back towards the lake. The flooded areas around the lake provide perfect conditions for growing rice and a productive breeding environment for fish.

The city of Angkor was founded on the northern bank of the Tonle Sap, at the edge of the flood area. It was established out of reach of the monsoon season's high waters. However, it was close to the rice fields and another reliable source of food – the two hundred species of fish that inhabited the lake. People built floating houses and established villages on the lake.

The Mekong River provided water for the Khmer people to drink and to irrigate rice crops. The Khmer also directed water from the river to inland areas north of the coast, which became centres of large-scale rice production. The river provided a way for the Khmer to travel and trade with societies to the north and south of the Angkor region. The many sand bars and changing currents of the Mekong also provided natural defences. Only the Khmer had the necessary local knowledge to navigate the river.

The natural features of the territory of the Khmer Empire

SOURCE STUDY

Source 11.7 The Mekong River provided food and water for the people of the Khmer Empire, as well as a transport route along which they traded.

Source 11.8 Floating houses and villages surrounding Tonle Sap Lake today; some are similar to those that would have existed during the time of the Khmer Empire.

Source 11.9 Rice production continues today in Cambodia, much as it did during the time of the Khmer Empire. These farmers are harvesting rice in a field close to Angkor Wat.

INTERPRET 11.1

1 Describe the scenes shown in Sources 11.7 and 11.8.
2 Refer to the sources to explain how geographical location and the natural features of the landscape influenced the way society developed within the Khmer Empire.

Origins of the Khmer Empire

Before the Khmer Empire was founded around AD 802, there were several groups of small kingdoms across the Angkor region. In addition to Khmer people, the region was home to Malay people who were part of a kingdom to the east of Angkor known as Champa. From around 100 BC to AD 700, two major Khmer kingdoms gained control over different parts of the Angkor region. Today, historians refer to the first as Funan and the second as Chenla.

EXTEND 11.1

1 Conduct research into India's caste system and how it operated in ancient India. Draw a diagram that shows the roles of the different castes.

Indian culture was a great influence on the Khmer people in Funan. At this time, India was a highly developed society and its merchants travelled great distances to trade. As well as exchanging goods, Indian merchants also introduced their culture, philosophies and religion to the Khmer people. Indian beliefs and customs were eventually adopted and mixed with the traditional beliefs of the Khmer people. Historians refer to this process as **Indianisation**. Over time, the Khmer adopted Hinduism as their religion. They introduced a modified version of the Indian caste system, which organises people into a **hierarchy** of social groups.

The success of the kingdom of Funan was mainly due to its farming practices, which produced large quantities of rice. The location of its main trading settlement, Oc Eo (see Source 11.10), was also significant. Situated on the Mekong River, Oc Eo was a key stopping place on the trade route between China and India. However, in the 4th century, the Chinese developed other sea routes and established trading settlements in places such as Java. Oc Eo became less important to traders, and Funan's influence began to decline. Around the same time, another kingdom to the north began to grow in importance and prosperity. This kingdom, known as Chenla, took in the territories of Funan in the 6th century.

Source 11.10 Part of South-East Asia, showing the locations of Funan, Chenla and Champa

Although very few records from the time exist, historians believe that Chenla was made up of at least two smaller kingdoms. The kingdom in the coastal areas was known as 'Water Chenla'. The people in this kingdom were involved in trade with the outside world. The kingdom in the north was known as 'Land Chenla', and the people here were more inward-looking. Their economy was based on agriculture, particularly the production of rice.

In the 8th century, the kingdoms of Chenla broke down into a number of competing kingdoms, each fighting for control. The Khmer Empire was born in 802 when a local leader, who ruled as Jayavarman II, took control and forced these rival kingdoms to unite.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

An undated transcription records that the boundaries of the Khmer Empire under Jayavarman II were 'China, Champa (now central Vietnam), the ocean and the land of cardamoms and mangoes (presumably modern-day Thailand)'.

Jayavarman II – first ruler of the Khmer Empire

No written documents exist from the time of Jayavarman II. Much of what is known about the first ruler of the Khmer Empire is based on legends and on records from later Khmer kings, such as inscriptions carved in the stone of Khmer temples. These inscriptions provide evidence that before Jayavarman II became king he spent some years on the island of Java (now part of Indonesia), possibly as a hostage or prisoner. He returned to his own homeland in 790, when he was about twenty years old. Upon his return he began an uprising against Javanese control over the southern lands of the Angkor region, establishing the Khmer Empire and declaring himself *Chakravartin* (which means 'ruler of the world'). Jayavarman II established a system in which officials and courtiers (people who serve the king in administrative roles) were rewarded with land or political positions for their work. This system helped maintain the political and religious stability of the Khmer Empire.

REVIEW 11.2

1 In which modern-day country was the Khmer Empire centred?
2 Explain the advantages of Angkor's location on Tonle Sap.
3 When and how did rival kingdoms in the Angkor region unite to form an empire?

KHMER SOCIETY, CULTURE AND GOVERNMENT

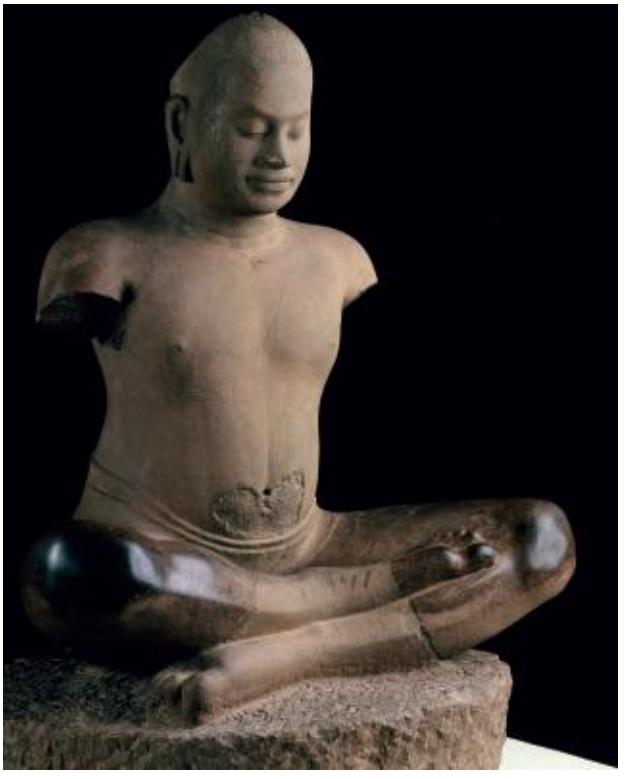
From the sources available, historians have found that the Khmer Empire had a strict social structure, or hierarchy. The people in each social group had certain rights and particular duties they were expected to perform. However, there is much that historians do not know about the Khmer civilisation because of the lack of primary source material. None of the written records that Khmer people made on leaves or paper have survived; nor have their wooden buildings, tools or household objects, such as pots and bowls. Evidence of the Khmers' society and their way of life comes mainly from stone temple carvings and inscriptions that tell of kings, events and beliefs. These sources provide an incomplete picture. The writings of a Chinese diplomat, Zhou Daguan, who travelled to the Angkor region in 1296 and lived there for about a year, have provided a valuable source of evidence to historians. But Zhou's writings cannot be fully verified because no other written sources about Khmer society have been found.

Khmer kings

At the very top of Khmer society was the king, who served as both the political and religious leader. In 802, Jayavarman II declared himself to be *Chakravartin* and also *devaraja* (which means 'god-king'). In the past, some historians thought that the term *devaraja* indicated Khmer kings were worshipped as living gods. More recent writers have argued that Khmer kings were not seen as gods, but as the chief intermediary, or connection, between people and the gods, particularly the Hindu god Shiva. The king carried out important Hindu rituals, and through his connection to Shiva was held responsible for bringing the rains that ensured regular and abundant harvests.

Members of social groups below the king, such as the nobles and military leaders, swore an oath of loyalty to the king. There was the threat of eternal punishment if they broke this oath. The king, in turn, was expected to respect his people and their social positions, and to acknowledge the local rulers within his realm.

Government and justice in Khmer society was organised around the king and the village temples, where political and economic decisions were made. Points of dispute between citizens, however small, could be taken to the king. Minor offences might be punished with a fine, to be paid in goods. Punishments for more serious matters could involve burying the criminal alive in a ditch dug outside the city gates, or cutting off of his or her feet, hands or nose. A common method of settling a dispute was to place the two disputants in separate stone towers for a period of three to four days. It was thought that the person in the wrong would develop an illness, such as a fever or ulcers.



Source 11.11 A stone sculpture of Jayavarman VII, who ruled the Khmer Empire from 1181; Jayarvaman VII is the only Khmer king of whom any lifelike representations exist.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Zhou Daguan recorded how the Khmers would punish a married person for having an affair. He wrote, 'If the husband of an adulterous [unfaithful] woman is informed of what is going on, he has [his wife's] lover's feet squeezed between two splints of wood till the pain grows unendurable and he surrenders all his property as the price for liberation [being set free].'

Nobles and officials

The next most powerful group in the social hierarchy was that of the nobles and officials who carried out administrative work across the empire. Most of the people in this group were the king's relatives.

Local nobles and officials in each part of the empire managed their land through the village temples. The priests of each village temple collected crops from the local farmers (as taxes) and provided a storehouse for grain. The village temples, in turn, provided support to the local farmers. Across the empire, networks of village temples reported to bigger regional temples, and these regional temples ultimately reported to a central temple linked to the king.

Artisans and professionals

The next group in the social hierarchy was made up of artisans and professional workers, such as architects, merchants, fishermen and skilled craftsmen. This was a very small group in society. Very little information about this group has been found by historians.

Peasants

Below the artisans and professional workers in the social hierarchy were the peasants. They made up the largest group in Khmer society. Much of the evidence we have today about this group comes from stone carvings on temple walls. Most peasants were rice farmers who paid taxes in the form of grain. These taxes were paid to nobles through the temple priests. Peasants could also be required to serve in the military or provide labour for building projects if ordered by the king.

Source 11.12 This stone carving in the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom shows slaves captured during a war being transported in restraints.

Slaves

At the bottom of the Khmer social hierarchy were the slaves. Wealthy families were known to own over a hundred slaves. Families with less money might have 10 or 20 slaves. Although it is difficult to estimate the number of slaves in Khmer society, we do know that there were different types of slaves. Some were prisoners of war, captured from other kingdoms. Others were bought and sold legally, or were forced into slavery in order to pay debts. Other slaves lived and worked at a temple. These temple slaves were considered to be the property of their temple.

Slaves were forced to call their masters and mistresses 'father' and 'mother'. They did not have any rights in society and were not permitted to leave their owner's house. Their marriages were not officially recognised. If slaves tried to escape, but were recaptured, they were tattooed, mutilated and chained as punishment.

Women in Khmer society

The position of women in the Khmer Empire, unlike the situation in many other societies at the time, was relatively strong in most social classes. Zhou Daguan observed that Khmer women could inherit land and property, and that some held political posts, including positions as judges. The king's personal bodyguards were women, for instance, as it was believed that women were more trustworthy and loyal than men.

The importance of trade and agriculture

The Khmer Empire was strengthened by its farming practices and trade links with other societies. Trade in rice and fish became a key part of the empire's economy. The empire's location on the Mekong River allowed the Khmer to trade with regions to their north and south. By 1100, sea routes to ports in southern India and inland routes across South-East Asia were well-developed. Wealth from trade allowed Khmer kings to build lavish temple complexes.

In the 13th century, the Khmer Empire exported luxury goods such as rhinoceros horns, ivory, beeswax, lacquer, pepper, feathers and cardamom. Khmer merchants traded these goods for products such as paper, metal goods, porcelain, silk and wicker. **Barter** (the practice of exchanging goods of equal value) was the most common form of trade. A deal could involve the exchange of gold and silver items, but there were no coins in the Khmer Empire.

Khmer trade

SOURCE STUDY

Source 11.13 A detail from a stone carving in the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom; it shows fish being traded at a busy market

INTERPRET 11.2

1 Examine Source 11.13. Describe the activities being depicted, and the dress, jewellery and hairstyles of the figures.

A warrior culture

Despite its peaceful trading activities, the Khmer Empire at its heart was warlike. Hundreds of stone carvings across the Angkor region show great battles fought by the Khmers. The empire clashed often with the kingdom of Champa (its closest neighbour to the east, now part of Vietnam) and the kingdom of Ayutthaya (to the west, now part of Thailand).

Based on the available evidence, Khmer soldiers appear to have been very successful in battle. The organisation of the Khmer army and the military strategies it followed were both loosely based on the Indian military. Soldiers fought with spears, swords, and bows and arrows. They also used catapults and elephants in their battles.

Source 11.14 Modern-day *bokator* fighters in Cambodia demonstrating a fighting technique.

EXTEND 11.2

1 Conduct research into the martial art known as *bokator*, which was originally developed to train Khmer soldiers. Write a short report that describes this style of fighting and its links to religious beliefs.

Religious beliefs in the Khmer Empire

Religious beliefs influenced the way society was organised in the Khmer Empire, the types of buildings that were constructed, and the way people chose to live their lives. Long before the rise of the empire, the people in the Angkor region were animists, which means that they believed in spirits of the natural world. They worshipped all living things, such as plants, animals and people, as well as natural phenomena, such as the wind, rain and sun. They also made offerings of food, flowers and wine to the spirits of their ancestors.

Hinduism

Through trade, religions from India and China began to spread across South-East Asia from the time of the Khmer's early kingdoms. Hinduism, which originated in India, was the dominant religion of the Khmer Empire for its first 400 years. Although there are many different gods in Indian Hinduism, the Hindu beliefs of the Khmer people focused particularly on a group of three of the gods – Brahma (the god of creation), Shiva (the god of destruction and re-creation) and Vishnu (the god who protects, bringing order and harmony to the land). Hindus believe their gods live on a mythical mountain in the Himalayas, known as Mount Meru. Evidence of the influence of Hinduism can be seen across the Angkor region today in the many stone temples, carved inscriptions and religious monuments. Countless stone carvings of Hindu gods decorate the walls of temples. Inscriptions are often written in **Sanskrit** – an ancient Indian language, which is also the sacred language of Hinduism.

Source 11.15 At Angkor Wat, a Hindu priest (known as a *pundit*) makes offerings at a shrine to the Hindu god Shiva.

The Khmer people believed the gods controlled all aspects of life. They consulted them on all matters, from the best time to plant and harvest crops to the best person to marry.

Buddhism

Buddhism is a religion that also originated in India. It has influenced the history and culture of many Asian societies, including the Khmer Empire. Buddhism was founded by an Indian prince, Siddhartha Gautama, who became known to his followers as Buddha. Buddhists believe a person must work toward spiritual enlightenment through cycles of reincarnation (rebirth). On reaching the state of enlightenment, known as Nirvana, a person is freed from all the pain and suffering associated with being human. There are two main schools of Buddhism – Theravada Buddhism (the oldest and strictest school) and Mahayana Buddhism (a later school). Jayavarman VII, who ruled the Khmer Empire from 1181, was a follower of Mahayana Buddhism. He ordered many Buddhist temples to be built. But despite his efforts, Mahayana Buddhism did not remain the state religion of the Khmer Empire after his death in 1218. Instead, Theravada Buddhism became the state religion in the 13th century. It remains the official religion of Cambodia today.

REVIEW 11.3

1 Draw a labelled diagram to outline how society was organised in the Khmer Empire.
2 What was the largest social group?
3 What role did temples play in Khmer society?

DAILY LIFE IN THE KHMER EMPIRE

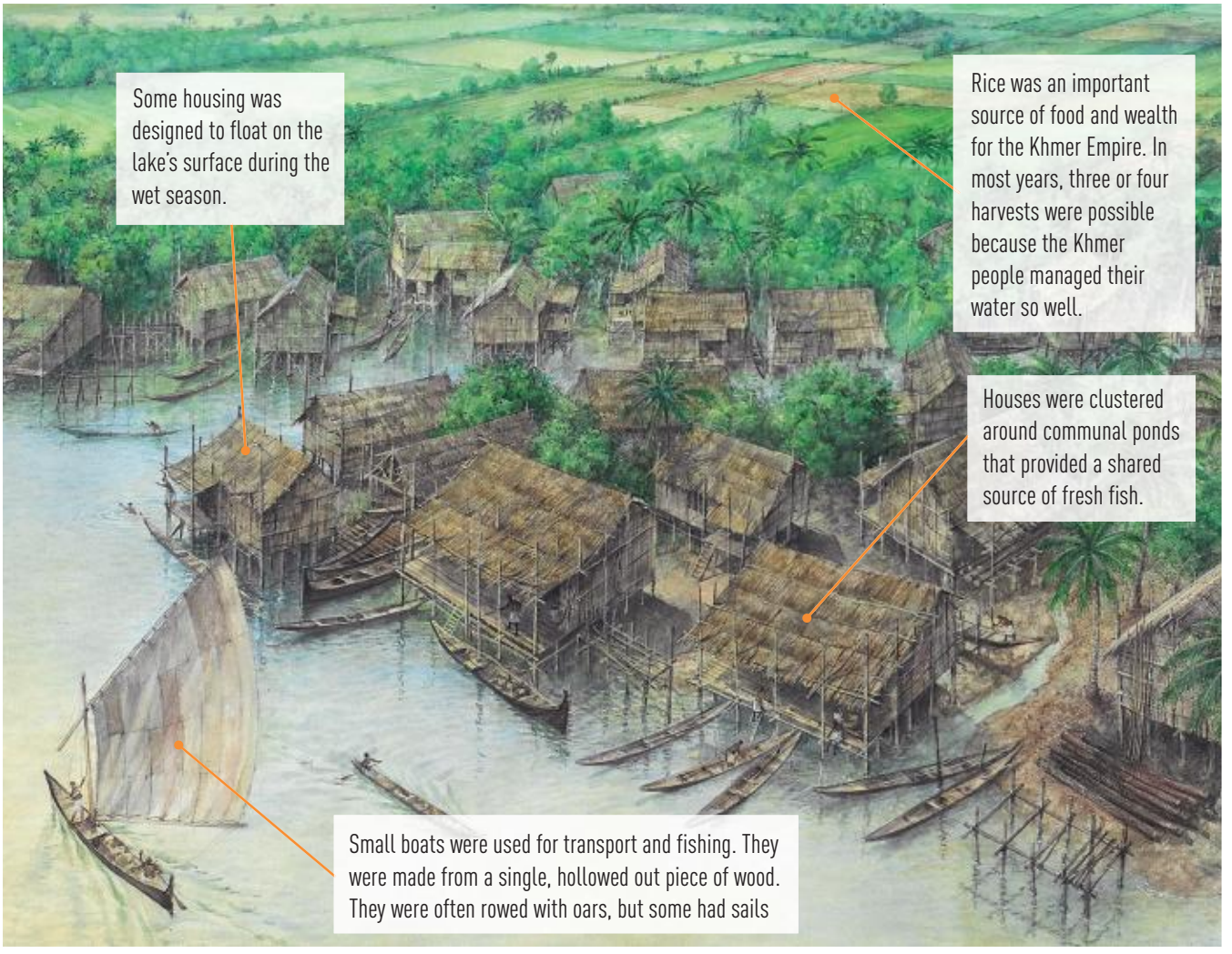
Very little is known about most people's day-to-day lives in the Khmer Empire, other than insights from the report *The Customs of Cambodia*, written by a 13th-century Chinese diplomat named Zhou Daguan. Zhou spent one year in Angkor, during which he observed the daily lives of both the rich and poor of Angkor.

Daily life for the rich and poor

The king lived in his palace with several wives and 3000 to 5000 **concubines** (mistresses). If people caught sight of the king on a procession through the city, they were expected to kneel and touch the earth with their foreheads as he passed. Zhou described the royal palace as being 2.5 kilometres in circumference, and roofed with a mixture of lead tiles and yellow pottery tiles. Princes and holders of high office also had tiled roofs on their houses, which would differ in size according to the status of the owner.

Peasants spent their days fishing and tending to their animals and rice fields. Most peasants lived in simple houses made of wood with thatched roofs. Their houses were often grouped around the communal ponds, which were a shared source of fish.

Ordinary people slept on bamboo mats laid on wooden floors, but rich people might sleep on low beds. There was very little furniture, so people sat on mats or animal hides.



Source 11.16 An artist's impression of daily life on Tonle Sap

Clothing and appearance

All men and women in the Khmer Empire, from kings to peasants, knotted their hair and went bare-chested and barefoot. Their clothing was simple. They wore a strip of cloth around their waist, over which a larger piece was could be drawn. Richer people would wear cloths made from finer fabrics, woven locally or imported from Champa or India.

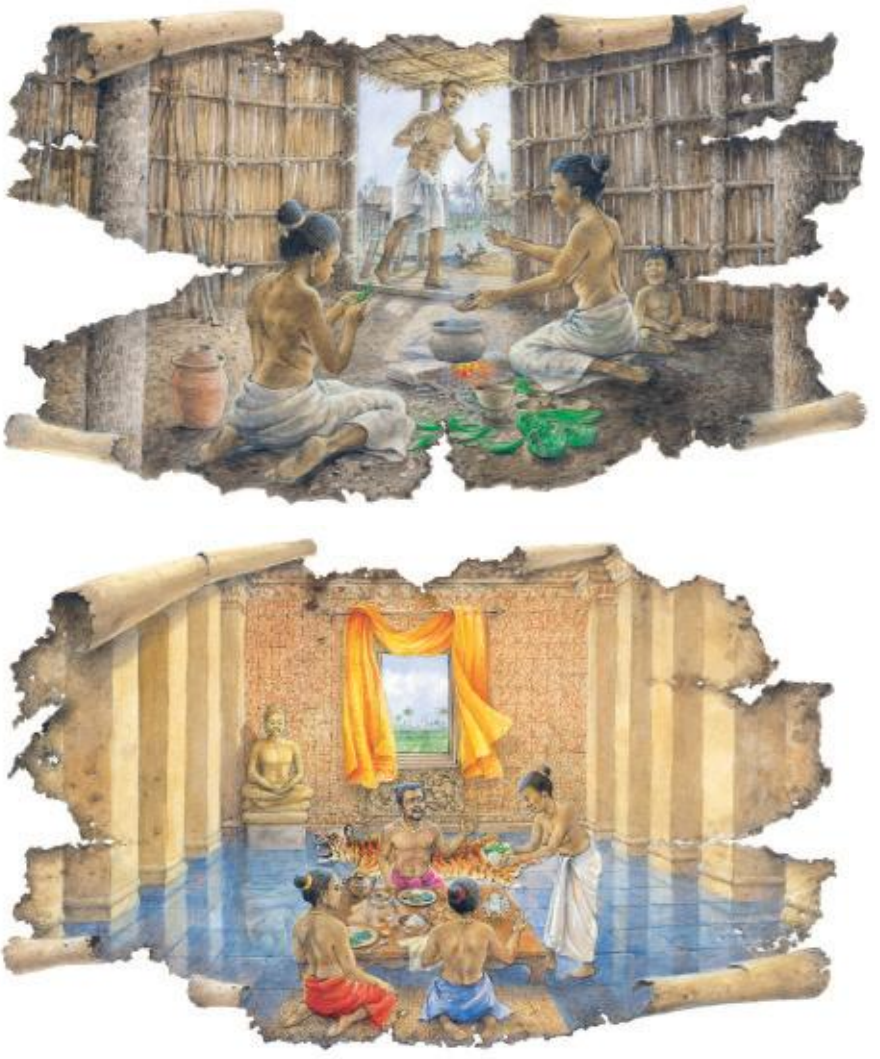
Most women did not wear hair ornaments, but might wear jewellery such as golden rings and bracelets. Ladies of the royal court prided themselves on having lighter coloured skin, and kept themselves sheltered from the strong, burning sun. Peasant women, on the other hand, were described by Zhou as 'coarse people, ugly and deeply sunburned'. Men and women alike wore perfumes made from sandalwood, musk or other essences.

Food and dining

Rice and fish were the staples of the Khmer diet. Khmer kings and officials also ate vegetables and tropical fruits such as bananas and melons. Stone carvings show scenes of pigs being slaughtered and eaten. There is some evidence to suggest that wealthy people may have used cutlery, although historians contest this. Kings, nobles and officials may also have had their food served to them on gold or silver plates. Other groups in society ate simple foods served on leaves or in wooden bowls.

APPLY 11.1

1 Examine Source 11.17, which is an artist's impression of family meals in noble and peasant households. Create a Venn diagram with three circles to show the similarities and differences between the way meals are typically eaten in your own home, and the way they were eaten by the nobles and peasants in the Khmer Empire.



Source 11.17 An artist's impression of mealtime in the Khmer Empire. The image at top shows a peasant household, and the one at bottom shows a noble household.

Daily life in the Khmer Empire – the writings of Zhou Daguan

SOURCE STUDY

Source 11.18

From the king down, the men and women all wear hair wound up in a knot, and go naked to the waist, wrapped only in a cloth. When they are out and about, they wind a larger piece of cloth over the small one.

Only the king can wear material with a full pattern of flowers on it. On his head he wears a gold crown ... Sometimes he goes without a crown, and simply wears a chain of fragrant flowers such as jasmine wound round the braids of hair. Around his neck he wears a large pearl weighing about four pounds [approximately 2 kilograms]. On his wrists and ankles and all his fingers and toes he wears gold bracelets and rings ...

Extract from the writings of Zhou Daguan, in *A Record of Cambodia: The Land and Its People*, translated by Peter Harris, Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 50

Source 11.19

At the lowest level come the homes of the common people. They only use thatch for their roofs, and dare not put up a single tile. Although the sizes of their homes vary according to how wealthy they are, in the end they do not dare emulate [copy] the styles of the great houses ...

Extract from the writings of Zhou Daguan, in *A Record of Cambodia: The Land and Its People*, translated by Peter Harris, Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 50

Source 11.20

Ordinary families have houses but nothing else by way of tables, chairs, jars, or buckets. They use a clay pot to cook rice in, and make sauce with a clay saucepan. For a stove they sink three stones into the ground, and for spoons they use coconut husks ... When serving rice they use clay or copper dishes from China; sauce comes in a small bowl made from the leaves of a tree, which doesn't leak even when it is full of liquid. They also make small spoons from the leaves of the nypa palm, which they spoon liquid into their mouths with, and throw away after using.

Extract from the writings of Zhou Daguan, in *A Record of Cambodia: The Land and Its People*, translated by Peter Harris, Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 76

INTERPRET 11.3

1 According to Source 11.18, how does the king's clothing and appearance differ from the clothing and appearances of ordinary people?
2 Source 11.19 tells us that the houses of 'common people' were made of thatch (leaves, straw or reeds). What reason is given to explain why they did not have tiled roofs?
3 Refer to Source 11.20. List the materials used to make the pots, dishes and cutlery in 'ordinary families'.

Health and hygiene

In peasant villages, families shared a trench as a toilet. When a trench was full of waste, it was covered over with earth and a new one was dug. Most trenches would have drained into the water supply from which people took water for drinking and cooking. Infectious diseases such as dysentery, caused by bacteria in drinking water, were common and usually fatal.

Zhou observed that the people of Cambodia appeared to cure themselves of many illnesses by plunging into water and washing the head again and again. Leprosy, an infectious disease that makes the skin scaly, was greatly feared in Europe and the Middle East at the time because of its side-effects, such as the loss of fingers and toes. In Angkor, however, lepers were not driven out of society as they were in those places. The disease was not looked upon as a disgrace, perhaps because there was a legend that there had once been a 'leper-king.' Lepers were allowed to sleep and eat among their fellow countrymen.

Entertainment

Music and dance were an important part of Khmer culture. The Khmers had a festival for every month of the year. For example, during the eighth month (known as 'the month of dancing'), foreign ambassadors were invited by the king to the royal palace to watch daily performances by actors and musicians, as well as boar and elephant fights. Some festivals involved huge firework displays. Zhou writes of rockets that were visible at a distance of 13 kilometres, and of huge fireworks that could shake an entire city.

Source 11.21 A stone carving showing female dancers, at Angkor Wat

REVIEW 11.4

1. Why were some houses in peasant villages designed to float on the surface of Tonle Sap?
2. Suggest why Khmer people wore simple clothing, and were normally bare-chested and barefoot.
3. Explain why toilet arrangements in villages could cause disease.
4. Describe the entertainments that were part of 'the month of dancing'.

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Identify the extent and key sites of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

1 Use a blank map of South-East Asia to shade the territories of the Khmer Empire. Label the following sites on your map: Mekong River, Tonle Sap, the city of Angkor, Phnom Penh. (5 marks)

» Describe the status and power of the king

2 What is the meaning of the terms *Chakravartin* and *devaraja*? Use these terms to explain the king's position, power and responsibilities in the Khmer Empire. (3 marks)

» Identify the roles and relationships of key groups in Angkor/Khmer society

3 Rank the social groups in the Khmer Empire in order of status: artisans and professionals; slaves; kings; nobles and officials; and peasants. What was the role of people in each of these groups? (7 marks)

4 What roles did women have in the Khmer Empire? (3 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

5 In what ways did temples play a part in Khmer society and government? (5 marks)

6 What were the main economic activities of the Khmer Empire? (3 marks)

7 What evidence suggests a strong warrior culture in the Khmer Empire? Who and how did the Khmers fight? (4 marks)

8 Explain the belief systems or religions that influenced Khmer society. Where did they originate? (5 marks)

» Explain how trade and agriculture contributed to the rise of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

9 What did Khmer people trade with other societies? Explain why trade and agriculture were so important to the Khmer Empire. (5 marks)

» Describe everyday life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire

10 Describe the housing, diet and clothing of a noble and of a peasant farmer. Also describe their typical daily activities. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

A Khmer-style mural

Examine the images of carvings in this chapter (e.g. Sources 11.3 and 11.13). Imagine you were commissioned by your school principal to make a mural depicting everyday life at your school, to be displayed at the front of the school. Which aspect of school life would you choose to depict? Consider the purpose of the mural.

1 Draw a design for the mural. Annotate it to explain the composition, choice of figures, background and details.

2 Reflect on the process of designing the mural. How has it informed your understanding of what is likely to be shown or not shown in Khmer stone carvings? What types of things can historians hope to learn from Khmer carvings, and what kinds of things can't be learnt from them?

11.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

11.2 SECTION

WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE?

In this section you will learn about some of the greatest achievements of the Angkor/Khmer Empire. The Khmer people were highly skilled in water management and farming. These skills allowed them to dominate the region and thrive. They were also great traders, warriors and builders. Despite these achievements, the Khmer Empire eventually collapsed. Later in this section you will explore some of the possible reasons why the empire declined and eventually disappeared. Some reasons had their sources within the empire, such as the breakdown of the water management system, economic problems and changes in religion. Other problems came from outside the empire, such as changes in the climate, wars and an outbreak of plague.

ACHIEVEMENTS IN WATER MANAGEMENT

Agriculture, particularly rice production, was vital to feed the growing population of the Khmer Empire. The rice trade was also an important part of the economy, creating wealth and strengthening the empire. The heart of the Khmer agricultural system was the Mekong River and Tonle Sap. The ability of the Khmer to direct and control the waters in their river system and lake was an essential part of the empire's success.

Water management for agriculture

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Indravarman I, who ruled the Khmer Empire from 877 to 889, ordered the building of a *baray* that covered an area of 3 square kilometres. An inscription records that as soon as he became king he promised 'In five days I will begin to dig'.

The Khmers constructed ***barays*** (which means 'reservoirs') and networks of canals to irrigate their farmland. During the wet season, monsoon rains flooded the Mekong River system and swelled the Tonle Sap to three times its size in the dry season. The canals channelled the excess water into the *barays*, where it was held above ground level behind raised earthen barriers. This meant that a good supply of water for irrigation was available all year round. Water could be distributed to the rice fields during the dry season when there was very little rain, which allowed the Khmer to harvest rice three or four times a year. In other regions of South-East Asia, just one or two harvests a year was normal.

When the Khmer Empire was at the height of its power, it is thought that farmers planted about 55 000 square kilometres with rice. This created a thriving economy across the Angkor region. Without a water management system, this much food production would not have been possible.

As well as constructing the irrigation system, kings were also responsible for maintaining it. *Barays* would silt up (fill with soil or mud from the river). They needed to be regularly cleaned out or replaced.

When the Khmer Empire declined, this network of *barays* and canals was built over by later generations or covered by the jungle. Archaeologists have rediscovered them using technology such as ground-penetrating radar.

Religious significance of water management

The creation of *barays* also had a spiritual significance for the Khmer people. The reservoirs were seen as re-creations of the mythical lakes that surrounded Mount Meru, the home of the gods. The water in the moats that surrounded royal buildings and temples, such as Angkor Wat, was also spiritually significant, representing the oceans.

Barays and canals were often constructed for the purposes of channelling water to the building sites of new temples. This ensured a constant supply of water and food for the people building the temples.

APPLY 11.2

1 What might the location of the canals and moats that archaeologists have recently discovered reveal about the Khmer Empire?

Water management for agriculture

SOURCE STUDY

Source 11.22 Part of a reservoir known as the West Baray, constructed by the Khmer in the 11th century

Source 11.23 A canal built in the days of the Khmer Empire, still in use today. It connects the West Baray with a number of Cambodian villages.

INTERPRET 11.4

1 Examine Sources 11.22 and 11.23, which show elements of the water management system built during the Khmer Empire. What do these sources tell us about Khmer society?
2 Apart from irrigation, what other practical uses could there be today for the reservoir and canal shown in the images?

REVIEW 11.5

1 How did Khmer people control the waters of the Mekong River and harness rain during the wet season?
2 Explain how the Khmer people's ability to channel and store water led to the empire's economic prosperity and power.

ACHIEVEMENTS IN TEMPLE BUILDING

Angkor Wat is the most famous temple in Cambodia. Its image is featured on Cambodia's national flag (see Source 11.26). But it is only one of hundreds of Khmer temples that have survived.

During the rule of the Khmer Empire, only temples and other religious buildings were made of stone. All other buildings, such as houses, were made of perishable materials, such as wood or palm leaves. Consequently, none have survived. Historians believe the remains of the temples that have been found dotted across the Angkor region represent only a fraction of the total number of temples built by the Khmers. It is thought that 13 Khmer kings built temple mountains, large temple complexes with many shrines.

The purpose and function of temples in the Khmer Empire

Khmer temples were dedicated to the Hindu gods Shiva and Vishnu, or to Buddha. They were not designed as places to meet and worship, so did not contain large rooms with high ceilings such as those in European cathedrals. Instead, they featured large open courtyards, linked by galleries and walkways.

The Khmer believed that each temple functioned as a type of palace or home for the god it was built to honour. They believed that the spirit of this god inhabited the temple in the form of a stone statue or polished stone known as a *linga* (see Source 11.24). The Khmer also used temples as official state buildings and the sites of tombs for kings. Sometimes temples also served as astronomical observatories – as was the case with the Temple of Angkor Wat.

Source 11.24 A *linga* (polished stone) within the walls of Angkor Wat

EXTEND 11.3

1 Re-read the text and conduct your own research to create a labelled diagram that shows the layout of a typical Khmer temple.

Source 11.25 The Temple of Angkor Wat

Source 11.26 The national flag of Cambodia featuring an image of the Temple of Angkor Wat

Temple-building techniques

The main materials used to build temples throughout the Khmer Empire were brick, sandstone and a kind of clay called laterite. Timber was also used occasionally for roofs and ceilings. Earlier temples tended to be built with bricks, which were easy to make. The use of sandstone increased over time, and it is seen more in temples built from the 10th century onwards. Sandstone blocks were stacked on top of each other without mortar. Building with sandstone was far more expensive than building with bricks, and only the most important temples were made entirely of sandstone. It required far more people to quarry and transport sandstone, and skilled craftsmen were needed to cut and decorate it.

The other main building product, laterite, was a special kind of clay containing large amounts of iron. When it was formed into blocks and exposed to air, it became very hard and therefore did not need to be baked as bricks did. Like sandstone blocks, laterite blocks were joined without using mortar or glue. The Khmers tended to use laterite blocks for the foundations of buildings, rather than for walls, because they could not be carved or decorated easily.

Source 11.27 This gateway at Angkor Thom is an example of a corbel arch.

Architectural features of temples

Khmer temples feature corbel arches, built by stacking two columns of stone on either side of an opening. Once the desired height is reached, each new layer of stone on either side is offset so that it juts out a little more than the last one. The whole arch structure meets in the middle. Because there is no mortar, this is not an especially strong arch, but it allowed the Khmer to create beautiful features in temple buildings.

Other significant features of Khmer temples include decorative stone lintels, providing horizontal support over doorways, and decorative stone pediments (triangular shapes above the lintels). Khmer temples were often covered with intricate stone carvings honouring important gods and kings. Archaeologists have uncovered traces of paints on carvings at Angkor Wat and at other temples, indicating they were originally brightly painted and would have appeared quite differently from the plain stone that is seen today.

Source 11.28 An intricate stone carving of kala, a mythical creature representing the Hindu god Shiva; found at the temple of Banteay Srei

APPLY 11.3

1 Conduct research to select one Khmer temple. Prepare a tourist brochure that explains when and why the temple was built, and which king was responsible for building it. Include images of the temple and a simple map for visitors.

REVIEW 11.6

1 Why are temples the only buildings that remain from the time of the Khmer Empire?
2 Why were Khmer temples built? What purposes could they serve?
3 Outlines the main materials used to build Khmer temples.

REASONS FOR THE DECLINE OF THE KHMER EMPIRE

The date given for the end of the Khmer Empire is usually 1431, when Angkor was destroyed by an invading army from the kingdom of Ayutthaya (now part of modern-day Thailand). The Ayutthayans captured thousands of intellectuals, skilled workers and dancers from the Khmer royal court. The court then moved south-eastward to Phnom Penh, nearer the Mekong River. Phnom Penh was established as the new Khmer capital but the territories that had been part of the Khmer Empire were now increasingly controlled by Ayutthaya and other neighbouring kingdoms.

Even though the invasion in 1431 played a significant role in the decline of the Khmer Empire, historians have put forward other theories for the empire's loss of power and influence. One relates to the breakdown of the Khmer's water management system. The second relates to the economic problems the empire faced. The third theory focuses on the shift in religious beliefs of the Khmer people. It is likely a combination of factors was responsible for the Khmer Empire's eventual collapse.

Breakdown of the water management system

Source 11.29 Historians believe that the breakdown of the water management system from the 13th century onwards contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire. Today, this farm close to Tonle Sap Lake once again has a reliable source of water.

Some historians argue that the empire had in fact already begun to decline at the time of the building of Angkor Wat, when it was seemingly at the height of its power and influence. They argue that the Khmer irrigation system – vital for food production, trade and travel – was badly affected by changes in the local environment. As forest areas were cut down in the heavily populated areas to the north and east of Angkor, more water ran off the land into the irrigation canals and rivers. This water carried large amounts of soil with it, clogging canals and irrigation channels with silt. This eventually killed the fish living in the canals and reduced the amount of water the Khmers could store for irrigation. Evidence from scientists has also determined that there were long periods of drought in the Angkor region. Lack of rainfall would have also have dried out irrigation canals and damaged *barays*.

Historians believe that, from the 13th century on, the number of rice harvests in the empire dropped from three or four each year to one or two. Without excess rice to trade, the Khmer Empire became less prosperous.

Economic problems

Another factor that may have contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire was the cost of the building programs ordered by kings. Jayavarman VII, in particular, began a construction program that was enormously expensive. He commissioned the building of many temples, monuments, roads and hospitals. He also conquered new territories, expanding the empire considerably. Thanks to these achievements, Jayavarman VII is remembered as perhaps the greatest Khmer king. However, the cost of his building program and maintaining a large army to defend the empire's borders was perhaps too large. Many historians now believe this was a major influence on the empire's decline.

Changing trading patterns also played a part in the population's move away from the Angkor region. It made sense to move the Khmer capital southwards towards the more accessible site of Phnom Penh. The new location took advantage of greater opportunities for trade along the coast and via the Mekong Delta.

Religious conflict

The 13th century was a time of religious upheaval in the Khmer Empire. Kings changed the state religions according to their preferences and spent more time defacing the older temples than they did building monuments to their own achievements. For example, Jayavarman VIII ordered the defacement of thousands of Mahayana Buddha images. He attempted to alter some of the images into images of Hindu gods by adding beards and changing postures.

The greatest change was the rapid growth and spread of a new form of Buddhism called Theravada Buddhism. It was most probably introduced to the Khmer Empire through increased contact with peoples to the north of Angkor who were Theravada Buddhists. Over a period of about 50 years, the Khmer people rapidly converted to Theravada Buddhism.

Source 11.30 Buddhist monks at the Temple of Angkor Wat

Theravada Buddhism, unlike Hinduism or Mahayana Buddhism, was a religion for ordinary people. It is believed that this was the reason for the rapid conversion of people in Khmer society. Some historians believe the Khmer people's conversion to Theravada Buddhism may have been a reaction against the policies of Jayavarman VII (a Mahayana Buddhist), which had financially harmed the country and its people. The new Buddhism taught all people to seek enlightenment and to abandon unnecessary worldly items, so magnificent temples were no longer needed. Buddhist monks now carried out rites in small shrines for all the people.

Gradually, rather than suddenly, the large temple complexes, extensive irrigation works and Hindu-oriented royal family faded away. Much of the physical evidence of the empire's existence, such as temples and roads, 'disappeared' back into the jungle. There it would wait for centuries, for explorers to eventually 'rediscover' it, and reveal its glory to a fascinated world.

The 'rediscovery' of Angkor Wat

After 1431, the Angkor region slowly lost its influence. Its population declined, but it was never totally abandoned by the Khmer people. Evidence confirms people continued to use the Temple of Angkor Wat, for instance. It contains Buddhist statuary from the 15th to the 19th centuries, and inscriptions on the walls of the temple date from as late as 1747. When French missionaries and explorers, including Henri Mouhot, claimed to have rediscovered the Angkor Wat complex in 1860, there was a prosperous, functioning Buddhist monastery inside its walls.

Since the 'rediscovery' of Angkor Wat, many other Khmer temples that had been overrun by forests have been found. These discoveries have provided a wealth of historical evidence, and today a great deal of work is being done to protect, preserve and restore sites in the Angkor region. The Angkor Archaeological Park site was added to the UNESCO World Heritage List in 1992. It includes the Temple of Angkor Wat, the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom, and the network of *barays* and canals created over the centuries by Khmer kings.

Source 11.31 Henri Mouhot

REVIEW 11.7

1 Draw a diagram to explain how deforestation (cutting down forests) would have affected Khmer agriculture and trade.
2 How did the change from one type of Buddhism to another contribute to the decline of the Khmer Empire?

APPLY 11.4

1 Visit the website of the UNESCO World Heritage List, and find the section on Angkor. Read the text that explains the reasons why the Angkor site has 'Outstanding Universal Value'. Explain these reasons in your own words.

11.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE?

» Describe what sources reveal about Angkor/Khmer life and culture, including the construction of the temples, the system of water management, religion and agriculture.

1 Select sources from the text or your own research, and use them to explain:
- **a** the purposes of Khmer temples, including those related to religious beliefs
- **b** the features of Khmer temples, and the materials and techniques used to build them
- **c** the water management system created by the Khmer people and its impact on Khmer agriculture. (10 marks)

» Outline theories about the decline of Angkor and assess which factors were most significant

2 Explain the various factors that may have contributed to the decline of the Khmer empire and the move away from Angkor as a royal capital. (5 marks)

3 Decide on a ranking of these factors from most to least significant. Explain the reason for your ranking. (5 marks)

» Explain the significance of Angkor today

4 Why is the Angkor region considered to be of historical significance? Use sources in your response. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/25]

RICH TASK

Investigating ancient sites of the Khmer Empire

When archaeologists, historians and conservators research an ancient site they try to understand:

- why it is significant
- what it was like in the past, and
- how it has changed.

This involves identifying and locating relevant sources that provide evidence for their theories, or hypotheses, about the site.

To apply this skill, use the Internet to locate and identify relevant sources related to the Temple of Angkor Wat and the Bayon Temple.

1 Construct a table similar to the one below to organise your thoughts and direct your research.
- **a** Begin by listing the things you already know about each ancient site. Then list the things you still need to find out.
- **b** Create keywords and search terms for an Internet search designed to answer the unanswered questions in your table.
- **c** Conduct the Internet search. Gather relevant sources and try to answer all the questions in your table. You may like to find images of the site and any conservation work that has been done so far.
- **d** Assess the reliability of the sources you have collected. Try to find out who wrote each written source and why. Consider the types of websites you have accessed. Were they reputable?

	Site 1 – Temple of Angkor Wat	Site 2 – Bayon Temple
What I already know		
Where is it located?		
What civilisation (or ruler) built it?		
Why was it built and how was it used?		
Do I know anything else about it?		
What I still need to find out		
How was it built?		
What did it look like when it was built?		
What does it look like now?		
What was it used for?		
How and why was it damaged? Should it be conserved?		

2 Make a list of all of the websites you have accessed and the sources you have gathered.

a Which sources do you think are most reliable and relevant? How can you tell?

b Which sources do you think are not reliable or relevant? How can you tell?

3 Now imagine you are a member of a committee deciding whether or not funding should be set aside to conserve the two Khmer sites. Make your recommendation about each site. If you believe it should be conserved, say why and how.

Source 11.32 A photograph taken in 1912; it shows some of the ruins of the Bayon Temple, before restoration work began

Source 11.33 A restoration team at work at Angkor Wat

In this Rich Task, you will be applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Research
- Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

12

Source 12.1 Detail of 17th-century body armour for a soldier, from time of the Tokugawa shogunate

JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

Between AD 794 and AD 1867, Japan was controlled by a series of military leaders known as **shoguns**. The title *shogun* comes from the Japanese words *sho* (meaning 'commander') and *gun* (meaning 'troops'). Although an emperor officially ruled the country at this time, he was little more than a figurehead. Real power rested with the *shogun*. Shoguns kept their power by passing it down through their sons to create a **shogunate** or **dynasty.** A number of powerful **clans** (large, extended families) fought among themselves to gain power, territory and wealth – with the ultimate goal of making their clan leader *shogun*. During the rule of the last *shogun* of Japan, when shoguns came from the Tokugawa shogunate, Japan was largely cut off from the rest of the world. The country developed a distinctive culture, politics and way of life. Afterwards, Japan modernised and adopted many Western ideas. But the legacy of the shoguns endures today in modern Japanese society.

HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

12.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» sequence time periods and identify key places in Japan from the Nara period to the Tokugawa shogunate

» identify the roles and relationships of key groups in this society using sources

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of Japanese society during the rule of the shoguns

» describe how the Japanese used natural resources, and outline the policies of the Tokugawa shoguns on forestry and land use

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Japan under the shoguns

CHECKPOINT 12.1

HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS?

12.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» outline how the Tokugawa shoguns took control of Japan

» describe how the Tokugawa shoguns revived the feudal system in Japan

» explain how foreign trade was controlled by the Tokugawa shoguns

» explain why the Tokugawa shoguns isolated Japan from the rest of the world

» identify examples of modernisation and Westernisation in Japan in this period and explain their impact

» assess the importance of Western influence on the decline of Japan under shogun rule

» explain how the shoguns have influenced modern Japan

CHECKPOINT 12.2

JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS – A TIMELINE

Source 12.3 A Japanese screen print of fighting between *samurai*

TIMELINE

710 790 1180 1330 1460 1540

794
Start of the Heian period; the imperial court moves to Heian-kyo (later known as Kyoto)

1333
Overthrow of the Kamakura shogunate by the emperor

1467
Warring States period begins, as the influence of the Ashikaga shogunate declines

710
Start of the Nara period; the imperial court establishes Japan's first permanent capital at Nara

1185
Minamoto no Yoritomo becomes the first shogun of Japan, and first shogun of the Kamakura shogunate

1336
Ashikaga Takauji becomes shogun; the Muromachi period begins

Source 12.2 The Buddhist temple at Nara was first constructed in 752 and rebuilt in the 18th century.

Source 12.5 A portrait of Shogun Tokugawa Ieyasu in court dress, 1642

Source 12.6 Commodore Matthew Perry

1573
End of the Warring States period and of the Ashikaga shogunate; start of Azuchi–Momoyama period, in which warlords fight for control of Japan

1603
Tokugawa Ieyasu becomes shogun; the Tokugawa shogunate begins

1615
Tokugawa Hidetada issues laws governing military households

1853
A United States Navy fleet, led by Commodore Matthew Perry, arrives in Tokyo Bay to demand Japan open its borders for trade with the West

1570 | 1600 | 1610 | 1630 | 1850 | 1860 | 1870

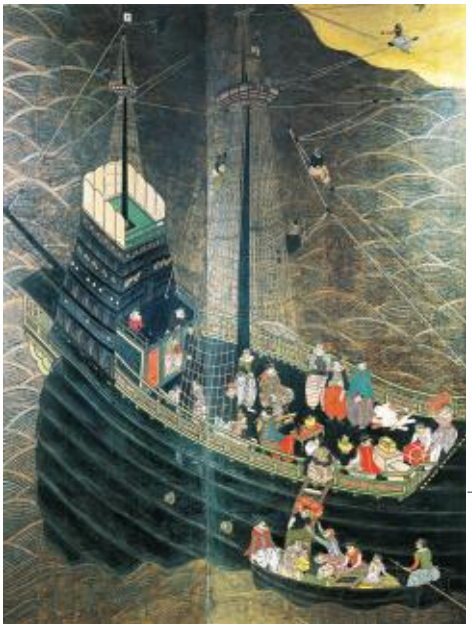
1543
First contact between Europeans and Japanese; Western firearms are introduced, and trading between European and Japanese merchants begins

1614
Tokugawa Ieyasu bans Christianity and expels Christian missionaries from Japan

1635
Tokugawa Iemitsu issues the first ruling limiting Japan's contact with the West; the sakoku ('locked country') period begins

1854
Japan and the United States sign the Convention of Kanagawa; this ends Japan's sakoku period

1867
Tokugawa Yoshinobu steps down; he hands power to Emperor Meiji, restoring the imperial regime



Source 12.4 A 16th-century screen print showing Portuguese traders unloading their goods in Japan

REVIEW 12.1

1 How long did the following periods in Japanese history last?
- the start to the end of shogun rule
- the Tokugawa shogunate
- Japan's isolation from the West

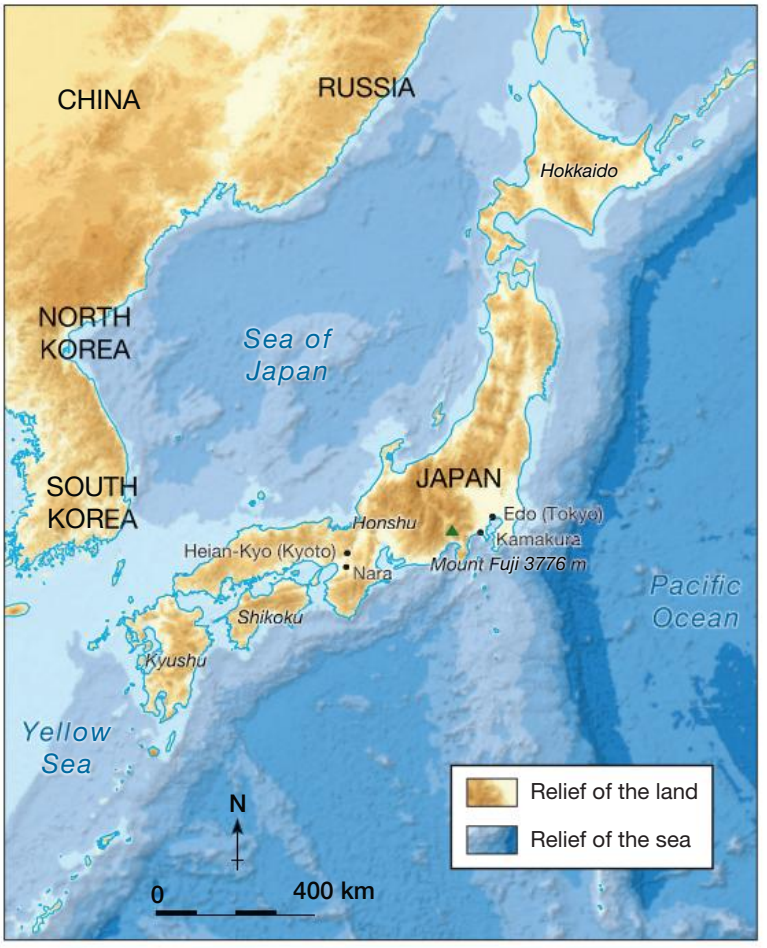
2 Name four Tokugawa shoguns and give an example of each shogun's achievements or policies.

12.1 SECTION

HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

In this section we look at Japan's geographical features and how they influenced the way Japanese society developed. We also discuss Japan's feudal system and the key **clans** (groups of families related by blood or marriage) who fought for supremacy during the rule of the shoguns.

JAPAN'S GEOGRAPHY AND ITS HISTORY OF WARRING CLANS



Source 12.7 Japan is a chain of islands. The peaks of underwater mountain ranges form the islands on the surface of the Pacific Ocean.

Japan's history has been influenced by its geographic location and natural features. The country is made up of a chain of more than 3000 islands, located off the coast of the East Asian mainland. Most Japanese live on the four largest islands of Japan: Hokkaido, Honshu, Shikoku and Kyushu.

The islands of Japan are volcanic in origin. This means that, although the country's soil is fertile, much of the landscape is mountainous and only about 20 per cent of the land is suitable for farming. Throughout Japanese history, local clans have fought over control of the limited farmland. People have also looked to the sea to provide their food. Early Japanese settlers fished from coastal villages, and seafood remains important in the diet of modern-day Japanese.

Japan's geographical isolation

China was the dominant cultural influence in the region. Its military strength also meant that many of its neighbouring territories, such as Korea, had been forced to pay tribute to China's emperor. Japanese society was influenced by aspects of Chinese society, such as the values of **Confucianism**. However, the Sea of Japan – a wide body of water separating Japan from the mainland of China – ensured that China's attempted invasions in the 13th century were not successful. This was despite the best efforts of China's mighty Yuan Dynasty led by the Mongol warrior Kublai Khan.

Japan was not on the main trade routes of its region in its early history. This geographical isolation influenced the Japanese character. It contributed to the independence of the Japanese, and made them feel different and unique. They became cautious in 'borrowing' technologies and other cultural aspects from the outside world. Changes to their culture, economy and government consequently occurred more gradually than in other countries.

EXTEND 12.1

1 Japan's islands are prone to earthquakes. Conduct research to find out why. List some significant earthquakes in Japan's history and their impact.

The natural features of Japan

SOURCE STUDY

Source 12.8 A typical landscape of Japan. Mount Fuji is the large snow-capped mountain in the background.

INTERPRET 12.1

1 Describe the natural features of the Japanese landscape shown in Source 12.8

2 How did these natural features influence the development of early Japanese society?

Japan's history before the shoguns

The first historical mention of Japan is in a Chinese account written in AD 280. It refers to an island containing 30 'warring countries'. These 'countries' were clans, each of which was protected by a group of warriors who fought in return for a share of the rice harvest. These warriors also fought warriors from other clans for land and power. These warriors were to become known as *samurai* (which means 'those who serve').

In the 5th century, the Yamato clan came to control much of southern Japan. Other clans held their own lands but had to promise loyalty to the Yamato chief. During the 7th century, the Yamato chiefs came to be known as emperor and began to use the title 'son of heaven'. They claimed that their family line was descended from the Sun goddess Amaterasu, and so had a right to rule Japan. The emperor was said to communicate with the gods and have magical powers. Therefore, he did not engage in the day-to-day running of his country. Special advisers and ministers were appointed to carry out administrative functions, all from Japan's most powerful clans. The emperor's role developed over time, and he was considered the spiritual and symbolic head of the country.

In 710, the emperor established a new capital at Nara. In 794, this capital was moved to nearby Heian-kyo, which later became the city of Kyoto. Heian-kyo was the emperor's capital until 1869, but the country was governed by the shoguns from other places from the 12th century onwards.

EXTEND 12.2

1 Conduct research to find out about Prince Shotoku of the Yamato clan, a significant individual in Japan's early society. Write a brief biography that explains how he changed the way society operated. Include discussion of Shotoku's influences and beliefs.

The rise of the shoguns

Warring between rival clans was commonplace in Japan's early history. Then, in 1185, Minamoto no Yoritomo formed a strong military government. The emperor bestowed the title of *Seii Tai-shogun* ('Barbarian-subduing great general') on him. In return, Yoritomo allowed the emperor to keep his symbolic position and receive his protection. Yoritomo, rather than the emperor, now appointed military governors in the provinces and rewarded his supporters with land. They in turn gave parts of this land to their *samurai*, rewarding their support. The period of rule by the Minamoto clan is known as the Kamakura period, named for the place where the clan was based. For the next 700 years, shoguns from several clans would rule Japan while the emperor and his court lived in isolation with no real power.

Source 12.9 This illustration shows Minamoto no Yoritomo fighting for the first time at the age of 13.

In 1274 and 1281, the Mongols, who controlled northern China, sent huge armies to Japan in attempts to invade. Although they failed both times, there were impacts on Japanese society. *Samurai* had previously been rewarded for their military service with booty or land taken from their enemies. But the defeated Mongols left nothing behind. In 1333, the emperor was able to gain the support of discontented *samurai*. They overthrew the shogun, bringing the rule of the Kamakura shoguns to an end. For a few years, the emperor ruled, but in 1336 the first Ashikaga *shogun* of the Muromachi period took power, along with a newly installed 'puppet emperor' who had no real authority. The Muromachi period is named for the district in Kyoto where the Ashikaga clan was based.

A long period of civil war, called the Warring States period, began in 1467, as the power of the Ashikaga shogunate declined. The last Ashikaga *shogun* was overthrown in 1573. A number of powerful warlords then vied for power until 1603, in what is called the Azuchi–Momoyama period. In 1603, Tokugawa Ieyasu emerged as the most powerful leader in Japan and received the title of *shogun* from the emperor. He built a new capital in Edo, now Tokyo. Members of the Tokugawa family would fill the role of *shogun* until 1868.

REVIEW 12.2

1 Create a graphic organiser to summarise how Japan's location and natural features have influenced its history and society.
2 Correctly match the dates and names of periods in Japanese history.

Azuchi–Momoyama period	710–794
Heian period	794–1185
Kamakura period	1185–1333
Muromachi period	1336–1573
Nara period	1573–1603
Tokugawa shogunate	1603–1868

EXTEND 12.3

1 Conduct research to find out how the Japanese came to repel two invasion attempts by the powerful Mongol armies of China's Yuan Dynasty, led by Kublai Khan.

THE SOCIETY AND ECONOMY OF JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

In Japan during the rule of the shoguns, stability and order were valued. A person's social rank was determined at birth. People in each social group knew the behaviour expected of them. The Tokugawa shoguns, in particular, supported Confucian ideals of social order. Confucius was a Chinese philosopher whose guidelines for social conduct (the right way to behave) influenced societies throughout Asia.

At the top of the social order was the emperor. During the time of shogun rule, he was a figurehead, and it was the shoguns who held power in reality. Below the *shogun* were the lords, or *daimyo* ('big names'). Other groups in Japanese society were the *samurai*, peasants, **artisans** (craftspeople), merchants and traders, and the two outcast groups. There was some limited movement between social groups. A poor *samurai* might become a farmer, although this was regarded as a tragedy. A peasant could become a merchant or craftsman.

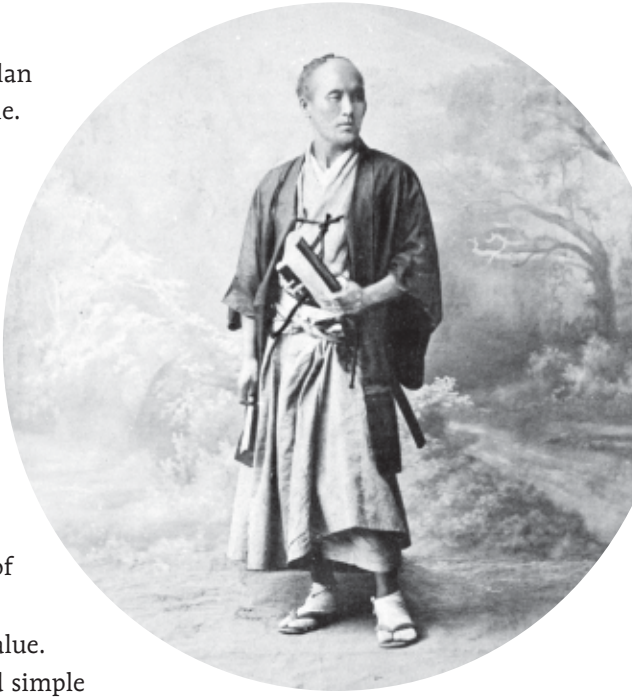
Social groups

Samurai were the warrior class. They wore plain, dark clothes bearing a clan crest so they could be easily identified, and they had a distinctive hairstyle. Men wore two swords denoting their status, and armour on special occasions. Women in *samurai* families trained in martial arts, such as archery.

Merchants could be very wealthy, but were ranked below peasants and artisans in the social order. According to Confucian thinking, they were not as important in society as they only pursued profit and did not make or produce anything. Merchants wore clothes made of intricately woven materials and silks, reflecting their wealth.

Peasants were valued because they worked hard and produced food for the country. They dressed simply, both because they were poor and because simplicity suited their daily occupations, such as fishing at sea or working in the rice fields. When it rained, they wore raincoats made of a grass-like plant called sedge.

Craftworkers and artisans were also valued for producing things of value. This class of worker included carpenters, potters and makers of tools and simple weapons. Skilled artisans made such things as paper, porcelain and samurai swords.



Source 12.10 A *samurai*, 1864

Source 12.11 A cloth merchant with his customers, *c.* 1880

Source 12.12 A carpenter, *c.* 1870s

APPLY 12.1

1 Confucianism, a code of conduct rather than a religion, was strongly supported by the Tokugawa shoguns. It set down how people in different groups should behave towards one another. Research the key ideas of Confucianism.

APPLY 12.2

1 Draw a diagram to represent the society of Japan during the rule of the shoguns based on the status of the social groups. Incorporate this information: *samurai* made up 6 per cent of the population, peasants 85 per cent, and merchants and artisans 9 per cent.
2 Conduct research into the outcast groups of Japanese society: the *eta* ('much filth') and *hinin* ('non-persons'). What were their roles in society?
3 Conduct research to create a presentation about the *samurai*. Include information and sources about their training, armour and fighting style. Explain the terms *bushido*, *seppuku* and *ronin*.

Source 12.13 Japanese peasant farmers, *c.* 1860s

The role of women

Source 12.14 An 18th-century Japanese painting of two women reading a book

In Japan during the rule of the shoguns, women were considered to be subordinate to men and did not have the same legal rights as men. A husband could divorce his wife if she did not produce a son, or committed adultery, or even if she talked too much or became seriously ill.

Evidence from woodblock prints shows that women played an active role in society. Peasant women are portrayed working alongside men doing tasks such as planting and harvesting rice. They are also seen as entertainers, actresses and *geisha* (women trained to entertain men with conversation, or by playing musical instruments or dancing). Wives of *daimyo* were prominent at court, and women in their families were literate (able to read and write). They wrote diaries, stories and poetry as pastimes. Many women became known as writers, particularly in the Heian period.

SOURCE STUDY

The role of women in Japan during the time of the shoguns

Source 12.15

> It is the chief duty of a girl living in the parental house to practice filial piety towards her father and mother. But after marriage her duty is to honor her father-in-law and mother-in-law, to honor them beyond her father and mother ... Even if your father-in-law and mother-in-law are inclined to hate and vilify you, do not be angry with them, and murmur not.

Extract from Ekiken Kaibara, *Greater Learning for Women* (written *c.* 1700), translated in *Women and Wisdom of Japan*, John Murray, London, 1907, pp. 37–38.

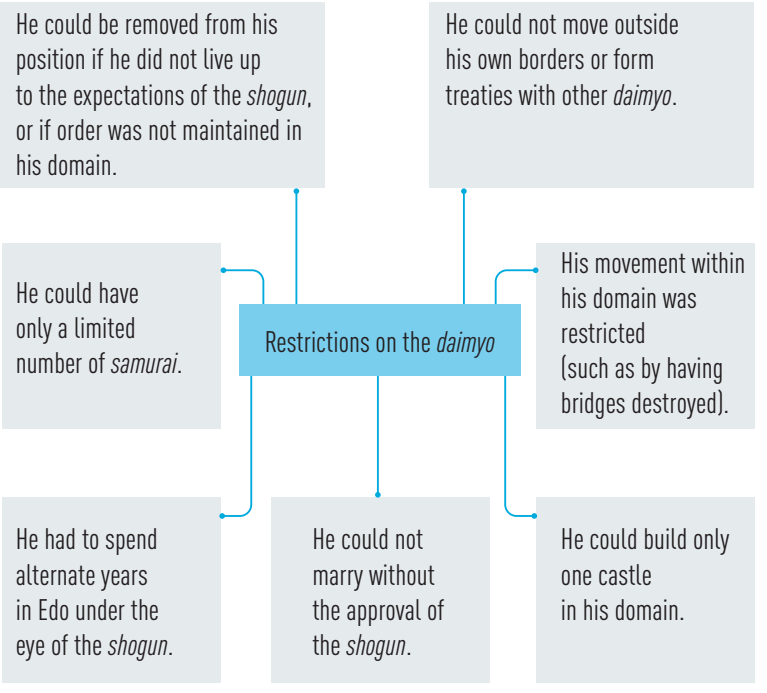
INTERPRET 12.2

1 What does Source 12.15 suggest about where women went to live after they were married?
2 What does the source reveal about the role of women in Japan during the time of the shoguns?

The feudal system

Under the rule of the Tokugawa shogunate, the *shogun* controlled a quarter of the land in Japan, and the remainder was divided into domains ruled by *daimyo*. In return, *daimyo* owed the *shogun* military support. This kind of relationship based on mutual obligation is known as a **feudal** system. The shogun's authority depended on the loyalty of the *daimyo*. The power of the *daimyo*, in turn, depended on the loyalty and military support of the *samurai*, and on the labour and taxes of the peasants and merchants. The peasants paid between 50 and 70 per cent of their crop as tax to the *daimyo*.

A wealthy *daimyo* with his *samurai* could pose a threat to the *shogun*. When Tokugawa Ieyasu came to power he placed a number of restrictions on the *daimyo* (see Source 12.16).



Source 12.16 Some of the restrictions placed on the *daimyo* by *shogun* Tokugawa Ieyasu

APPLY 12.3

1 Tokugawa Ieyasu ruled that *daimyo* and their followers had to reside in Edo every second year. Discuss the consequences for the city of Edo and the domain of each *daimyo*.

The growth of urban society

Source 12.17 Himeji Castle

The base in the domain of each *daimyo* was the castle. By 1615, over 200 castles had been built in Japan reflecting the wealth and power of the *daimyo*. Without the constant warfare of earlier periods before Tokugawa rule, castles became less important as places to retreat to when attacked. Towns grew up around castles, and became home to merchants, tradespeople and artisans. *Daimyo* and *samurai* lived in houses close to their castle walls, while merchants, artisans and labourers lived in their own areas further away.

Relatively peaceful times also encouraged growth in the economy. Agriculture remained the main economic activity and crop production increased under the Tokugawas. They doubled the amount of farm land by draining marshlands and developing irrigation projects. The population of Japan grew from an estimated 21 million in 1603 to 31 million by 1720. Commerce, and trade in goods such as silk, cotton and pottery, increased with a growing and more prosperous population. Farmers began to grow crops or make products that were in demand at the town markets. The use of money became more common.

The *daimyo* began to require that their *samurai* live closer to them, in order to have their services at hand. The castle towns grew as *samurai* moved from the countryside. More and more merchants and artisans also settled in castle towns to serve the needs of the growing populations. By the end of the Tokugawa shogunate, about 10 per cent of the Japanese population lived in towns. Japan was more urban than countries in Europe at this time.

Management of forests

Wood was the primary source of fuel in Japan during the time of the shoguns, and the main building material. It was used to build houses, temples, castles, shrines, boats and ships. Demand for timber increased as the population grew, and as more buildings were needed in growing towns and cities. This led to widespread deforestation, which in turn resulted in floods and soil erosion.

In 1666, the Tokugawa *shogun* established policies to manage forest resources. He banned individual ownership of forested land. This meant the *daimyo*, who had largely controlled the forests, now had limited access. The *shogun* also encouraged communities to plant trees on common land. Local villages managed their forest resources by cutting trees selectively, and patrolling forests to stop the illegal removal of timber. By 1724, timber harvesting had declined by 60 per cent, allowing Japan's forests to recover.

REVIEW 12.3

1. Reorganise this list of people's roles in Japan during the time of the shoguns in order from highest to lowest social status: *samurai*, *daimyo*, *eta*, *emperor*, *peasant*, *shogun*.
2. How did the *shogun* Tokugawa Ieyasu try to limit the power of the *daimyo*?
3. On what grounds could a man divorce his wife in Japan under the shoguns?
4. Why did demand for timber increase during the Tokugawa shogunate?

CULTURE AND EVERYDAY LIFE IN JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

Everyday life depended on the social group you were born into, whether you were male or female, and whether you were rich or poor. Traditional Japanese beliefs and ways of living continued to influence daily life throughout the time when shoguns ruled. The urban society that developed under the Tokugawa shoguns also changed the lifestyles of ordinary people.

Religious beliefs

Shinto is Japan's traditional religion. Its name means 'the way of the gods'. Shinto followers believe the gods are sacred spirits known as *kami*. They take the form of things and concepts important to life – the sun, hills, lakes, mountains, rivers and trees, for example, and fertility. People are also believed to become *kami* after they die, and the *kami* of a person's ancestors is worshipped. In the Shinto belief system, people are considered to be essentially good. And evil spirits are responsible for bad things that happen. Consequently, many Shinto rituals are aimed at warding off evil spirits through purification, prayers and offerings to the *kami*. Shrines for worshipping *kami* are found throughout Japan. In homes, small family altars are used to hold offerings of *sake* (rice wine) and food.

Buddhism arrived in Japan from China in the 6th century. Followers of Buddhism see life as a cycle. A person is born, dies and is reborn in a new form. This new form is a better or worse thing or person, depending on how the person lived their previous life. A Buddhist works towards reaching *nirvana* in their life. It is the perfect state from which there is no need to be reborn. *Nirvana* is achieved by observing certain guidelines and behaviours. The main form of Buddhism practised in Japan is Zen Buddhism.

APPLY 12.4

1 Conduct research to present a short report on either Shintoism or Zen Buddhism. In your report, outline the origins, beliefs and rituals of these forms of spirituality. How did these religious beliefs affect the everyday lives of people in Japan during the time of the shoguns (for example, their diet or burial customs)?

Source 12.18 A 19th-century print showing followers of Shinto leaving offerings of food at a shrine

The life of a peasant farmer

During the time of the shoguns, Japan was mainly a farming society. The majority of the population was involved in agriculture, fishing, or gathering shellfish and edible seaweeds. Peasant families were involved in daily farming activities, working in the fields to grow rice and vegetables. Tasks such as planting, threshing and hulling rice were done by hand or with the help of buffalos.

Life in the emperor's capital

In the capital city, Kyoto, the royal palace was a walled enclosure, with buildings for ceremonies and administration. The emperor lived an isolated life in the inner palace, a separate walled compound. He lived under constant guard, kept busy with rituals and ceremonies. *Daimyo* lived in large homes with wooden walls, polished wooden floors and tiled roofs. Court life was luxurious and social position was demonstrated by how close a *daimyo* house was to the royal palace.

Food and diet

Source 12.19 Sushi

Rice was the staple food of the Japanese diet in the past, and remains the staple today. During the time of *shogun* rule, meals were plain, boiled rice accompanied by side dishes. For ordinary people, these were simple dishes, such as cooked or pickled vegetables. Fish and other seafood were used in accompanying dishes for wealthy families, or eaten at feasts. Noodles, made from rice flour or buckwheat flour (soba noodles), became popular in the 14th and 15th centuries. There was no large-scale farming of livestock, so meat was not commonly eaten.

Fish was eaten fresh if possible, and often raw. Sushi originated as a way of preserving fish by salting it and wrapping it around boiled rice. Sushi with fresh fish and rice originated in the time of the Tokugawa shogunate.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In Medieval Europe, spices were used to disguise the taste of spoiled meat. Since meat was less common in Japan, and fish was usually eaten fresh, the use of spices did not develop in Japanese cuisine until much later.

Arts and entertainment

The increasing wealth of ordinary people, and the concentration of populations in the growing towns, encouraged the development of new entertainment. These included reading popular literature, and making art in the form of woodblock prints. People enjoyed visiting teahouses and restaurants, attending theatres to watch *kabuki* and puppet plays, and sumo wrestling. They travelled, making pilgrimages to religious sites and visiting cities. In this way, the fashions and cultures of the cities were introduced to people in the country.

Source 12.20 A *kabuki* actor

Education

In Japan during the rule of the shoguns, wealthy men and women in towns were usually well educated. Almost all *samurai* were literate, too, as their roles in the Tokugawa shogunate became more administrative, and they moved away from their traditional roles as warriors. *Samurai* studied the Confucian classics, poetry, and musical instruments, as well as military training.

The peaceful and prosperous times of the Tokugawa shogunate also encouraged peasants and artisans to formally educate their children. At temple schools, boys and girls were taught to read, write, calculate using an abacus (a counting frame with rows of beads), and study history and geography. Girls would also learn skills such as sewing, flower arranging, dancing and playing a musical instrument; and they would be taught the rituals of the tea ceremony. About 40 per cent of boys and 10 to 15 per cent of girls in Japan had basic literacy by the end of the Tokugawa shogunate.

EXTEND 12.4

1 Find out how an abacus is used for calculations, and whether these devices are still used by Japanese school students today.

Everyday life in Japan under the shoguns

SOURCE STUDY

Source 12.21 A 19th-century photograph showing peasants planting rice in a flooded field

Source 12.22 A 19th-century illustration of sumo wrestling. Sumo wrestling was performed as early as the Heian period; it was a skill of unarmed combat practised by *samurai*.

Source 12.23 A 19th-century illustration of a Japanese family eating

INTERPRET 12.3

1 Find an image of a sumo wrestling competition today. Compare it with Source 12.22. Note what has changed about sumo wrestling and what has remained the same.
2 Observe the style of family dining shown in Source 12.23. Note the similarities and differences with the way meals are served and eaten in your family.
3 Describe the clothing worn by the *daimyo* in Source 12.24. How does it differ from the clothing worn by people in the other social groups.

Source 12.24 An 18th-century painting of a *daimyo* being groomed by servants

REVIEW 12.4

1 How do Shinto followers ward off evil spirits?
2 How did sushi originate?
3 Explain why *samurai* in the Tokugawa shogunate had to be well educated.

12.1

HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Sequence time periods and identify key places in Japan from the Nara period to the Tokugawa shogunate

1 Draw a timeline to show the following periods in Japanese history. Include their start and end dates, names of the key clans, and the location of their capital or clan base. (6 marks)

Azuchi–Momoyama period
Heian period
Kamakura period
Muromachi shogunate
Nara period
Tokugawa shogunate

» Identify the roles and relationships of key groups in this society using sources

2 Identify the different social groups in Japan under the shoguns and explain the role and status of each group. Include relevant sources in your response. (5 marks)

3 Use a diagram to show the relationships between social groups under Japan's feudal system. (5 marks)

4 Identify ways in which women were subordinate to men in Japan when shoguns ruled. (3 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of Japan under the shoguns

5 What were the roles of the *shogun* and emperor in Japan? (2 marks)

6 What was the main economic activity in Japan during the rule of the shoguns and how did this change during the Tokugawa shogunate? (2 marks)

7 Explain why Japanese society became more urban under the rule of the Tokugawa shoguns. (3 marks)

8 Identify the major religions in Japan during the rule of the shoguns and outline their key beliefs. (4 marks)

9 Why did leisure time increase under the Tokugawa shogunate, and what pastimes did people enjoy? (5 marks)

» Describe how the Japanese used natural resources, and outline the Tokugawa shogunate's policies on forestry and land use

10 How did the Japanese use timber in the past, and what policies did the Tokugawa shoguns put in place to manage forest resources? (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Japan under the shoguns

11 Write a paragraph on each of the following aspects of everyday life in Japan during the rule of the shoguns to describe the experiences of men, women and children. (10 marks)

- Food and clothing
- Leisure activities
- Education

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Exploring Japanese culture

1 Choose an aspect of Japanese culture that particularly interests you. Conduct research to create a presentation about this in a format discussed with your teacher. Possible topics to explore include:

- Japanese arts or crafts, such as kabuki theatre, bonsai and origami
- Japanese food and cooking
- Japanese martial arts, such as ju-jitsu, kenjutsu (kendo) and sumo wrestling
- Japanese poetry, such as tanka (a form of unrhymed poem) and haiku.

Source 12.25 Kendo is a modern Japanese sport, with its roots in traditional Japanese swordsmanship.

The Tale of Genji

1 *The Tale of Genji* was written in the early 11th century by Murasaki Shikibu, a woman from a noble family. Some have argued that this is the world's first true 'novel'. Conduct research to find information about the story told in the *The Tale of Genji*. Compare it to the storylines of novels written today.

Himeji Castle defences

1 Himeji Castle, west of modern-day Tokyo, has a central tower almost 50 metres above ground level. In its time, the castle's maze-like defence system was the most up-to-date military technology in the world. Research this defence system and explain how these defences worked.

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

» Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
» Research
» Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

12.2 SECTION

HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS?

In this section, you will find out about the shoguns from the Tokugawa clan and their role in the history of Japan. The first leader of this clan, Tokugawa Ieyasu, had spent much of his life at war. In 1603, his priority as the new *shogun* was to maintain a stable government and social order. This was the aim of his policies and also the policies of the successive Tokugawa shoguns over the next centuries.

EARLY RULE AND STRENGTHENING OF FEUDALISM

Tokugawa Ieyasu was born Matsudaira Takechiyo in 1543, and became leader of the Matsudaira clan in his adult years. He changed his given name to Ieyasu and his family name to Tokugawa in recognition of the area where his family came from. During the Warring States period, Ieyasu and his clan fought alongside their allies, a powerful clan led by Oda Nobunaga. In 1573, Nobunaga captured Kyoto and overthrew the ruling Ashikaga *shogun*. Nobunaga was then assassinated by one of his own generals in 1582. Another ally of the Tokugawas, the clan leader Toyotomi Hideyoshi, then led the fight to bring Japan under one leader, and succeeded. After his death Tokugawa Ieyasu became *shogun*.

Source 12.26 A 17th-century illustration of a *samurai* armed with bow and arrow

Policies to strengthen feudalism

In order to maintain a stable social order, Ieyasu moved to strengthen Japan's feudal system when he came to power. As discussed earlier, he retained direct control of a quarter of the land, and granted *daimyo* the rule of independent domains in other parts of the country. In return, the *daimyo* were expected to support him. Without their support, Ieyasu would not have had the authority to remain *shogun*. Each *daimyo* had the means to support the *samurai* in their domains, with grants of land and payments of rice. Traditionally, *samurai* were expected to provide military support. But without constant conflict, their role changed to one of providing the *daimyo* with bureaucratic rather than military service.

In 1615, Ieyasu's successor, his son Hidetada, issued a set of guidelines for *samurai*, known as 'Laws governing the military households'. It had a Confucian emphasis on loyalty and duty, and on behaving in a way that suited one's status in society. The intention of the guidelines was to keep the warrior status of *samurai* distinct. At the time, some *samurai* were becoming less well-off than people of lower social status, such as merchants and artisans.

Policies to strengthen feudalism

SOURCE STUDY

Source 12.27

1 One must wholly devote oneself to the Civil and the Military Arts, and to the Way of the Bow and the Horse ... bow and horse are the most important things for warriors ...

2 Restrictions should be put on drinking parties and on idle, wanton amusements ...

6 Any repairs of the castles ... must certainly be reported ... let alone new construction which is strictly forbidden! ...

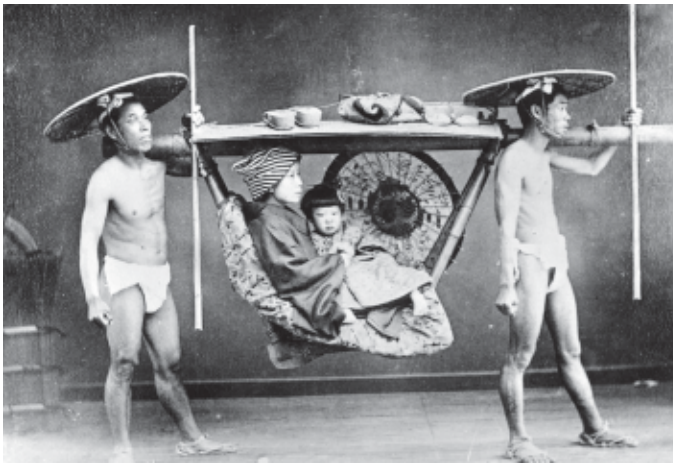
8 One must not contract marriages privately ... Marriages intended to effect an alliance with enemies [of the state] will turn out badly.

9 ... If one is not engaged in official duties, one should not at will assemble one's clansmen. One cannot move through the capital with a retinue of more than twenty horsemen.

10 Restrictions on the type and quality of clothing should not be transgressed. One should be able to distinguish lord and retainer, high and low ... It is against all ancient law that nowadays vassals and soldiers are wearing gaudy clothes of damask, gauze, or embroidered silk ...

11 Ordinary people should not indiscriminately ride in palanquins [sedan chair carried by bearers] ... This is really the extreme of presumption. Henceforth, a lord of a province and the senior members of his house may ride [in palanquins] without first needing to ask for permission.

Text according to *Dai Nihon Shiryô*, from *Chronological Source Books of Japanese History*, volume 12, part 22, p. 19 ff., WB, Historiographical Institute, University of Tokyo



Source 12.28 A Japanese litter, carrying wealthy people in the 19th century

INTERPRET 12.4

1 Which guidelines from the 'Laws governing the military households' aim to keep control of ambitious *daimyo* or *samurai*?
2 Which guidelines aim to ensure the feudal system's social order is unchanged?
3 Write some modern guidelines to encourage people to 'know their place'.

REVIEW 12.5

1 What was the original name of the Tokugawa clan?
2 Explain why Tokugawa Ieyasu chose not to personally govern all the land in Japan.
3 How did the role of *samurai* change during the Tokugawa shogunate, and why?

TOKUGAWA POLICIES TO ISOLATE JAPAN

First contact between Japanese and Europeans was in 1543 when a Portuguese ship was blown off course and shipwrecked on an island off the coast of Japan. Other traders soon followed, as well as the Jesuits (members of a Catholic Christian order). The Jesuits set up a mission in Japan to convert the Japanese from their traditional religious beliefs to Christianity. By 1570, over 30 000 Japanese had become Christian converts. European traders were welcomed by the *daimyo*, as they had new products to sell, including new military technology, such as guns and other firearms. Missionaries and traders exposed the Japanese to new ways of thinking and to new ideas about science, the arts and politics.

Source 12.29 A screen painting, *The Portuguese Arriving in Japan*; it depicts an early contact between European traders and the Japanese.

Source 12.30

> In Keicho 2 [1597] on the 4th day of the 5th moon under the reign of lord Hoin, the Hollanders' ships came to Hirado for the first time to do trade. They brought rare things including: sapanwood (growing in a bucket), cloves (same), lychee (a fruit which dispels bad fevers), stone fire-arrow rockets, bottle-nosed rockets, hand-grenades, explosive jars.
>
> *From the records of the Matsuura clan*

Ieyasu was not initially opposed to foreign trade. In the first three decades of Tokugawa rule, 350 permits were issued to Japanese, European and Chinese traders; they guaranteed the shogun's protection against pirates. But Ieyasu did see Christianity as a threat to the stability of Japan. It called for loyalty and obedience to the Pope, a leader outside Japan, and it encouraged different social groups to mix. In 1614, Ieyasu banned Christian activities and expelled the missionaries.

By the mid-1630s, the Tokugawas had changed their attitude to trade. Tokugawa Iemitsu (the grandson of Ieyasu), issued what is known as the closure edict. The edict imposed a policy of isolation on Japan, called ***sakoku*** (which means 'the locked country'). The policy aimed to limit foreign influences, such as philosophies and technologies. It banned foreign books and trade. Limited contact with Dutch and Chinese traders continued only at the port of Nagasaki. Under *sakoku*, any Japanese person who left Japan and tried to return was punished by death. The *sakoku* policy closed Japan from foreign contact for over two centuries. It was to remain in place until the arrival of the American Commodore Matthew Perry in 1853. Source 12.32 summarises the reasoning behind the introduction of this policy.

The historian Niall Ferguson has argued that societies that looked inwards in this way cut themselves off from new ideas and, as a result, fell behind the rest of the world. This historical theory was proven in the experience of Japan before the dramatic changes that took place after 1853. Ferguson also argued that one of the reasons for the rise of the West as a centre of global power was a willingness to be open to outside influences and share ideas.

Isolating Japan from foreign influence

SOURCE STUDY

Source 12.31

> With the prohibition [banning] of Christianity, the shogunate ... in 1629, began to institute a practice of making everyone trample on Christian religious pictures (known as *fumie*, or 'trampling pictures') once a year ... Typically, the images were of Christ, the Virgin Mary, or a crucifix [a cross], and were made out of stone ... Since the foot is the most unclean part of the body, it was believed that Christians would not step on religious images. People who refused to step on the images, or who revealed reluctance to do so, were identified as Christians ... and pressured to renounce their faith. Those who refused to do so were tortured ... Some were put to death in the boiling waters in the area of the Unzen volcano ... The suppression of Christianity continued until 1873 ...
>
> Extract from Constantine Vaporis, *Voices of Early Modern Japan*, Westview Press, 2013, p. 207

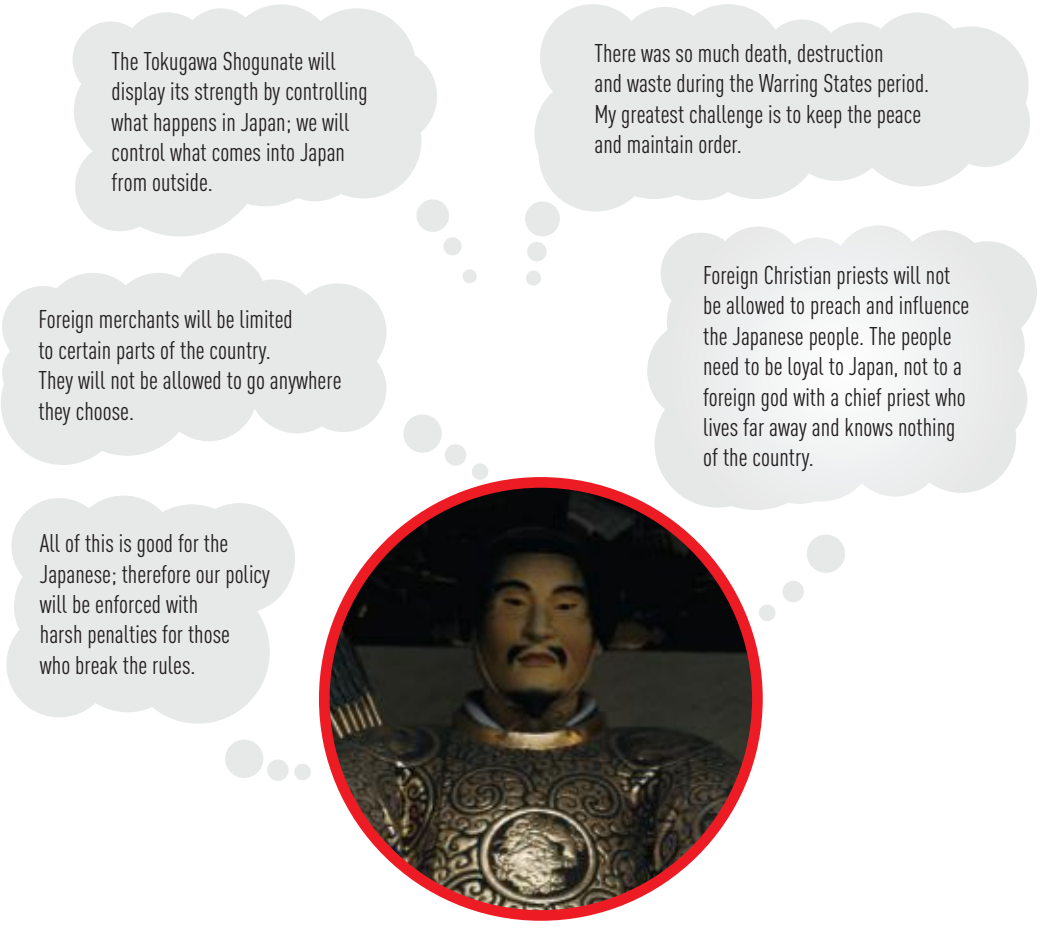
Source 12.32 Part of Tokugawa Iemitsu's closure edict, issued in 1636

1 No Japanese ships may leave for foreign countries.
2 No Japanese may go abroad secretly. If anybody tries to do this, he will be killed, and the ship and owner(s) will be placed under arrest ...
3 Any Japanese now living abroad who tries to return to Japan will be put to death.
4 If any *Kirishitan* [Christian] believer is discovered, you ... will make full investigation.
5 Any informer(s) revealing the whereabouts of a *bateren* [Jesuit Priest] will be paid ... 200 or 300 pieces of silver.
6 On the arrival of foreign ships, arrangements will be made to have them guarded by ships provided by the Omura clan whilst report is being made to Yedo [Tokyo] ...
7 Any foreigners who help the *bateren* or other criminal foreigners will be imprisoned ...
8 Strict search will be made for *bateren* on all incoming ships.
9 No offspring of Southern Barbarians [the children of foreigners] will be allowed to remain. Anyone violating (disobeying) this order will be killed and all relatives punished ...
10 If any Japanese have adopted the offspring they deserve to die. Nevertheless, such adopted children and their foster-parents will be handed over ... for deportation [sent out of the country].
11 If any deportees should try to return or to communicate with Japan by letter or otherwise, they will of course be killed if they are caught, whilst their relatives will be severely dealt with ...

Extract from Arthur Tiedermann, *Modern Japan,* D. Van Norstand Co., Princeton, New Jersey, 1962, pp. 103–104

INTERPRET 12.5

1 According to Source 12.31, why would Christians be reluctant to step on a Christian image?
2 What happened to people identified as Christians who refused to renounce Christianity?
3 What were Japanese authorities ordered to do under the closure edict?
4 How easy would it be to enforce the rules of the edict? Which rules do you think would be most difficult to enforce? Why?



Source 12.33 Tokugawa Iemitsu's reasoning on the introduction of the *sakoku* policy

APPLY 12.5

1 Read Source 12.33. If you were one of shogun Iemitsu's advisers, what would you advise about the policy of isolation?
Some points to consider:

- Limiting foreign influence means keeping out ideas and inventions that could benefit the Japanese people, as well as ideas that might be harmful.
- How can you tell in advance what knowledge should be banned and what should be allowed in?

REVIEW 12.6

1 In your notebook, correctly match these dates and events.

1543	Closure edict is issued
1614	First contact made between Europeans and Japanese
1636	Japan's isolation period ends
1853	Christianity is banned

THE END OF THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE

In 1853, Japan began opening up to the world. In 1867, the rule of the shoguns came to an end, and power was handed back to the emperor. Historians have offered two main theories to explain the decline of the rule of shoguns in Japan, a period of time that includes 260 years of rule by the Tokugawa clan. These theories relate to both internal and external pressures for change.

Internal pressures for change

From the 1840s onwards, the policy of isolating Japan from the West was increasingly questioned by a number of influential *samurai*. They had a growing awareness that Westerners had developed new and powerful weapons. Many wanted to end Japan's period of isolation because it would allow them to purchase these weapons and learn about other new technologies. This could only be done if Japanese people could travel overseas or if foreigners could come into the country. The internal debate about the policy of isolation, along with economic problems and peasant revolts, undermined the authority of the Tokugawas.

SOURCE STUDY

Internal pressures undermining Tokugawa authority

Source 12.34

> ... The establishment of peace [under the Tokugawa shoguns] after two centuries of constant warfare created in the seventeenth century a period of economic expansion and prosperity. By the end of the century the population was pressing up to the limit of the country's resources, given the existing technology. The condition of the agricultural producers worsened and it became difficult for the shogunate and the *daimyo* to maintain their revenues ... Consequently, the peasant was subject to greater exactions [higher taxes] ... Agrarian uprisings [riots in the countryside] occurred with increasing frequency during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries ...
>
> [The shogunate had] banned the importation of any foreign book ... The shogun Yoshimune (1716–44), recognizing that Japan was being deprived of valuable knowledge, in 1719 specially authorized the importation of scientific works ... Eager *samurai* threw themselves into ... study in order to gain first-hand knowledge of Western techniques in medicine, astronomy, surveying, armaments, military drill and tactics, cartography [map making], and painting. As a result of these activities ... a large section of the *samurai* had obtained a substantial grasp of Western knowledge and were growing increasingly impatient with any attempt to restrict their studies.

Extract from Arthur Tiedermann, *Modern Japan,* D. Van Norstand Co., Princeton, New Jersey, 1962, pp. 15–16

INTERPRET 12.6

1. Read Source 12.34. Discuss why there was a change to the 'period of economic expansion and prosperity' in the first century of Tokugawa rule.
2. According to Source 12.34, why were peasants unhappy with the *shogun* and *daimyo* in the 18th and 19th centuries? Why were the *samurai* 'increasingly impatient'?
3. Discuss how the Tokugawa shogunate may have contributed to its own decline.

External pressures for change

- Guns and ammunition
- A telegraph
- A telescope
- Lifeboats
- Farming tools
- Standard US measures
- Whiskey and wine
- Tea
- Stoves
- Books about science and new discoveries
- Miniature locomotive, coach and track

Source 12.35 Gifts brought by the Americans to the Japanese in 1854

APPLY 12.6

1 Refer to Source 12.35. Discuss why in 1854 the Americans might have chosen these gifts for the Japanese.

In the mid–19th century, Western countries began to push for Japan to open its borders for trade. On 8 July 1853, four warships commanded by Commodore Matthew Perry of the United States Navy anchored at Edo Bay (now Tokyo Bay). Perry carried a letter from the President of the United States to the Emperor of Japan. It offered friendship, and requested that trade links be permitted between the Japanese and American people.

Perry also gave the Japanese his own letter that was more direct. It stated that it was time for Japan to abandon its policy of isolation. Perry would leave Japanese waters but would return to hear the shogun's reply, and next time would bring much larger warships. This was clearly a threat. The American's 'black ships', as they were called by the Japanese, were more powerful than any in Japan. They carried around 1000 men and 61 guns.

In February 1854, Commander Perry returned to Japan with seven ships. He refused demands to leave, and threatened the Japanese by fixing his weapons on the capital. The Tokugawa shogunate realised Japan could not retain its isolation policy without risking war. After weeks of talks, Perry achieved what he had been working towards. A treaty that opened up trade with Japan, known as the Convention of Kanagawa, was signed by Perry and the Japanese. After more than 200 years of isolation, Japan was opening up to the world.

Source 12.36 An artist's impression of the 'black ships' entering Edo Bay (now Tokyo Bay). The Japanese had never seen steamships before, and thought they were 'giant dragons puffing smoke'.

EXTEND 12.5

1 Through intelligence reports known as the 'Dutch Special News', the *shogun* had knowledge of the Opium War waged between China and Britain from 1839 to 1842. Conduct research to write a paragraph about the reasons for this conflict, and the result and consequences for Britain and China. How would knowledge of the Opium War have affected negotiations between America and Japan in 1854?

The Meiji Restoration

Many Japanese people resented the increased power and position of the Westerners that followed Perry's arrival. The *daimyo* warlords began to lose faith in the *shogun*, who was, after all, supposed to suppress 'foreign barbarians'. As a result, the power of the *shogun* was eroded and there was talk of forcing his resignation. In 1867, *shogun* Tokugawa Yoshinobu handed back power to Emperor Meiji. On 3 January 1869, after a period of conflict between rival supporters, Emperor Meiji formally declared the restoration of his power.

After the Meiji Restoration, the new emperor quickly made his mark. The imperial court was moved from Kyoto to Edo, and Edo was renamed Tokyo (meaning 'Eastern Capital'). Shinto was established as the state religion. This reinforced the emperor's power, as according to Shinto belief the emperor was a living god. In 1871, it was declared that all the domains of the *daimyo* be returned to the emperor. The 300 domains were turned into 75 areas known as prefectures, under the control of a state-appointed governor.

Source 12.37 Emperor Meiji

Modernising and Westernising Japan

The emperor moved to modernise Japan. Western fashions and ideas were quickly adopted, and the Japanese army and navy were strengthened. As well as adopting Western weapons, the government began military conscription in 1873. It became compulsory that, on turning 21, every male had to serve four years in the armed forces. *Samurai* were no longer allowed to carry swords, and many became officers in the newly modernised army and navy.

As a result of these reforms, Japan was able to aggressively expand overseas and became a powerful new force in the region. It won a war against China in 1894–1895, gaining the island of Taiwan, and a war against Russia in 1904–1905.

A new constitution was adopted for the country in 1889. A period of rapid modernisation and industrialisation followed. Shipyards, iron smelters and spinning mills were built. Coal was in heavy demand to power factories, trains and ships. Industrial centres grew quickly with the migration of workers from the countryside. A national railway system connected industrial regions with ports. Japan's trading economy developed rapidly, strengthened by a series of treaties made with the major Western nations.

Source 12.38 Coal production in Japan, 1875–1913

Year	Coal production (metric tonnes)
1875	600 000
1885	1 200 000
1895	5 000 000
1905	13 000 000
1913	21 300 000

Source 12.39 Length of train tracks laid in Japan, 1872–1914

Year	Train track laid (kilometres)
1872	29
1883	386
1887	1030
1894	3380
1904	7564
1914	11 426

APPLY 12.7

1 Create line graphs based on the figures in Sources 12.38 and 12.39. Write a statement about what is shown by the graphs.

SOURCE STUDY

Modernising and Westernising Japan

Source 12.40 Japanese soldiers landing in China during the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–1895

INTERPRET 12.7

1 Examine Sources 12.40 and 12.41. What do they reveal about changes made to modernise and Westernise Japan after the Meiji Restoration?
2 Discuss the impact that these changes would have had on Japanese society, and on other countries.

Source 12.41 An artist's impression of the Tokyo terminus of the new Tokyo–Yokohama railway, built in 1872 with the aid of foreign engineers

REVIEW 12.7

1 By the end of the 19th century, what changes were the *samurai* wanting to make to the policies of the *shogun*?
2 What event in 1853 led Japan to open up trade with the West?
3 Outline the changes made by the Meiji emperor when his authority was restored.

12.2

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS?

» Outline how the Tokugawa shogunate took control of Japan

1 Use bullet points to outline how Tokugawa Ieyasu became *shogun*. (4 marks)

» Describe how the Tokugawa shoguns revived the feudal system in Japan

2 Use a pie chart to show how Tokugawa Ieyasu allocated land. Explain how this strengthened Japan's feudal system. (4 marks)

3 What other policy tried to maintain social order in Japan? Refer to sources in your response. (4 marks)

» Explain how foreign trade was controlled by the Tokugawa shoguns

4 What was the name of the Tokugawa shogun's policy to limit the influence of foreigners? Describe measures under this policy that controlled trade. (3 marks)

» Explain why the Tokugawa shoguns isolated Japan from the rest of the world

5 Explain the reasoning behind the Tokugawa policies to isolate Japan. (4 marks)

» Identify examples of modernisation and Westernisation in Japan in this period and explain their impact

6 How was Japan modernised and Westernised after the Meiji Restoration? (5 marks)

7 What was the impact of these changes by the end of the 19th century? (5 marks)

» Assess the importance of Western influence on the decline of Japan under *shogun* rule

8 Outline the internal and external pressures that led to the decline of the Tokugawa shogunate. (4 marks)

9 What were the most important factors contributing to the decline of the shoguns? Provide reasons for your choices. (4 marks)

» Explain how the shoguns influenced modern Japan

10 Use a graphic organiser to summarise how the policies of the Tokugawa shoguns have influenced modern Japan. Include some or all of the phrases below. (8 marks)

- Long period without warfare
- Growth in commerce and trade
- Increased agricultural production
- Population growth
- Management of forest resources
- Economic growth and prosperity
- Growth of cities and towns
- Developments in the arts
- Well-educated *samurai* class
- Limited foreign contact and trade
- Limited innovations in farming
- Peasant riots
- Limited technological innovations
- Samurais' discontent with isolation
- Rapid modernisation

11 Discuss this statement: 'The story of how Japan became modern begins not in 1868, but in 1603'. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Modernising Japan after the shoguns

In a group, conduct research about the Meiji government's modernisation of Japan's military, education system, government, legal system and transport. From which countries did they borrow ideas? Present your findings in a report, including relevant sources.

A significant European in early modern Japan

Conduct research to investigate the life of William Adams. Why is he well known, and what were the impacts of his achievements?

13

Source 13.1 A *tiki wānanga*, or godstick, was used in Māori religious ceremonies. The spirit of a god was meant to be in the stick. It had a carved figure at its head, and was decorated with cords and red feathers. Only priests were allowed to handle it, holding it high or digging it into the ground to contact the god.

THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC

Between *c.* 700 and 1756, the Polynesian peoples settled thousands of islands across a wide area of the Pacific Ocean. This region is now known as the **Polynesian Triangle**. As they spread throughout the region, Polynesians formed unique societies on each of the islands they settled. Each Polynesian society had its own traditions, spiritual beliefs and ways of life, but they also shared some common features. All Polynesian societies depended on the sea for their food and for trade with other societies. Because of this, Polynesian peoples became expert sailors and navigators who used their ocean-going canoes to travel great distances across the Pacific, discovering new uninhabited islands as they went.

HOW DID POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES SPREAD ACROSS THE PACIFIC AND WHERE DID THEY SETTLE?

13.1 SECTION

In this section, you will:

» identify the geographic extent and natural features of Polynesia
» locate the Pacific regions settled by the Polynesians
» outline theories about the origin and spread of Polynesian settlers throughout the Pacific
» describe the different societies in Polynesia
» use sources to describe the *moai* of Easter Island
» describe and assess the use of environmental resources on Easter Island

CHECKPOINT 13.1

HOW WAS MĀORI SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

13.2 SECTION

In this section, you will:

» describe the social, cultural, economic and political features of Māori society
» use a range of sources to describe the cultural achievements of Māori society
» describe and assess the use of environmental resources in Māori society
» describe daily life in Māori society

CHECKPOINT 13.2

THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC – A TIMELINE

Source 13.2
Lapita pottery

TIMELINE

c. 4000
The ancestors of Polynesian peoples begin to move east from China and South-East Asia into Polynesia.

c. 1500
Evidence from discoveries of Lapita pottery suggest the ancestors of Polynesian peoples reach the Bismarck Archipelago, north of New Guinea.

c. 1000
Samoa is settled.

c. 300
Polynesians move further east and settle the islands of Hawaii and Easter Island (Rapa Nui). The Rapa Nui people begin to make huge stone statues called moai.

c. 950
Māori myth suggests Chief Kupe sails to New Zealand and names it 'Aotearoa'.

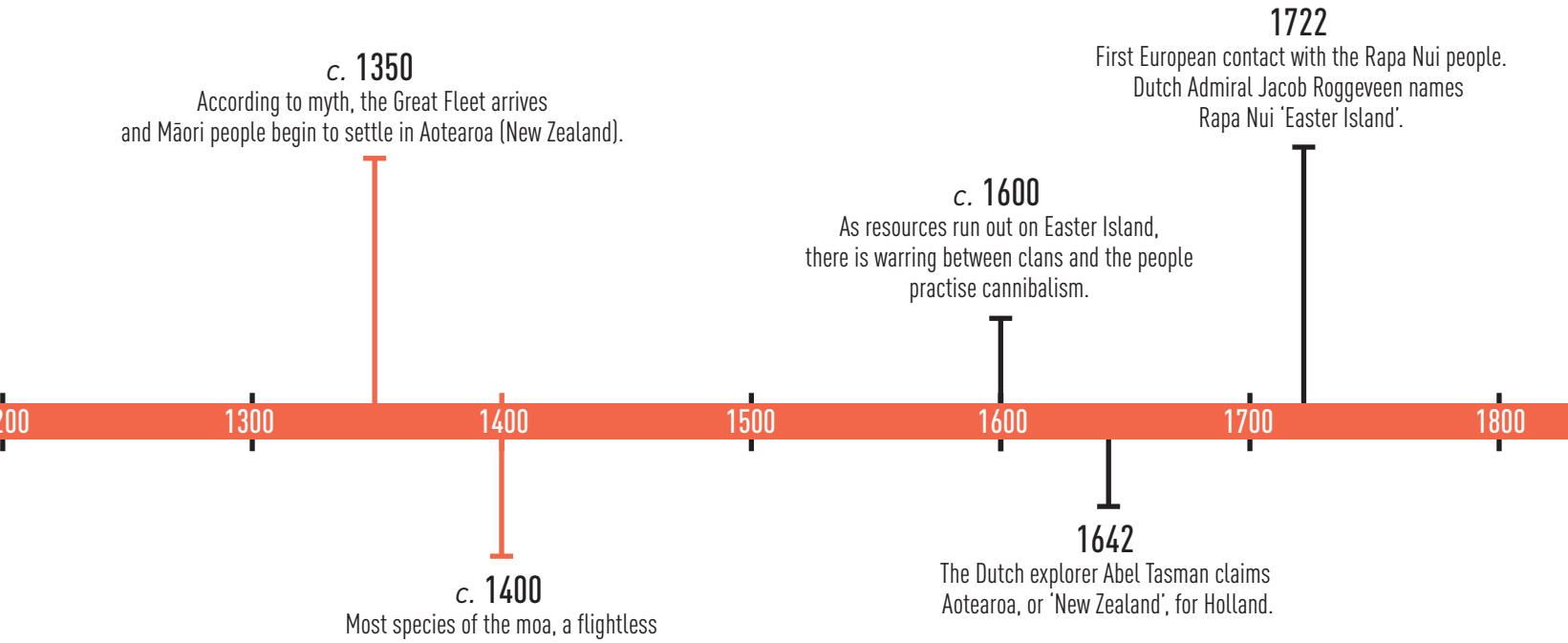
c. 1000
Humans are degrading Easter Island's environment. Deforestation is occurring.

c. 1150
Māori myth suggests the Polynesian explorers Toi and Whatonga arrive in Aotearoa (New Zealand).

4000 3000 2000 1000 BC AD 1000 1100 12

Source 13.3
Moai on Easter Island (Rapa Nui)

Source 13.4
A 19th-century artist's impression of the arrival of the Great Fleet in Aotearoa (New Zealand)



Source 13.5
Moas were hunted to extinction

REVIEW 13.1

1 Calculate the number of years between the arrival of Polynesian explorers and European explorers to:
   - **a** Easter Island
   - **b** New Zealand.

2 Use the timeline to work out the year in which each of the following islands was discovered by Polynesians. Place them in chronological order, from earliest to most recent:

Easter Island	New Zealand
Hawaii	Samoa

3 Which Polynesian societies are associated with:

a cannibalism	**c** moa
b the Great Fleet	**d** *moai.*

13.1 HOW DID POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES SPREAD ACROSS THE PACIFIC AND WHERE DID THEY SETTLE?

SECTION

In this section, you will explore the natural environments, societies and cultures of the different Polynesian societies. Historians have disagreed about where the Polynesians' ancestors came from originally, and about the way in which Polynesian settlement expanded. We also examine their different views.

GEOGRAPHY AND NATURAL FEATURES

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The people of Vanuatu are thought to be the 'inventors' of bungy jumping. They practised land-diving, which was linked to the harvest and to the time when young boy became men. Boys jumped 20 to 30 metres from a platform, with vines tied to their ankles. The vines were meant to be long enough for the jumper's head to just brush the ground.

The story of how Polynesian people settled the Pacific region is one of history's epic tales of exploration and adventure. Polynesia is part of what is more broadly classified as Oceania. Oceania includes all of the islands in the central and south Pacific Ocean. **Anthropologists** (people who study different societies and cultures) have named three different cultural groupings in Oceania:

- *Micronesia* – This is a collection of very small islands east of the Philippines and north-east of New Guinea. Micronesia includes the Marshall Islands, Mariana Islands, Nauru, the Federated States of Micronesia, Palau and some of the Kiribati islands.
- *Melanesia* – This group of islands includes New Guinea and the smaller islands to the north and east of Australia. It includes the Bismarck Archipelago north of New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, New Caledonia, the Loyalty Islands and the Fiji Islands.
- *Polynesia* – This includes all the islands within what is generally called the Polynesian Triangle. The three corners of the triangle are Hawaii in the north, Easter Island (also called Rapa Nui) in the east and New Zealand in the south. Samoa, Tuvalu and Tonga mark the triangle's western edge.

Source 13.6 A land-diver on Vanuatu, jumping from a bamboo platform

There are many different natural environments in Polynesia – from tiny islands with tropical climates, to the heavily-forested South Island of New Zealand with its snow-capped peaks. There is not much vegetation on the hundreds of coral reefs that have formed islands (which are called 'atolls'). In the past, Polynesians on these coral islands mainly lived by fishing, growing crops such as yams and taro, and raising animals such as pigs, dogs and chickens. Hawaii, New Zealand and remote Easter Island are volcanic islands, not coral islands. Societies here developed agriculture on a much larger scale because of the rich volcanic soil. They also lived by hunting, fishing and gathering edible plants.

The geography and natural features of Polynesia

SOURCE STUDY

Source 13.7 The areas of the three cultural groupings in Oceania, which includes all the islands in the central and south Pacific Ocean

Source 13.8 Namu atoll in the Marshall Islands

Source 13.9 South Bay and the Seaward Kaikouru Mountains, South Island, New Zealand

INTERPRET 13.1

1 Examine Source 13.7. In a table, list the islands of Polynesia according to cultural group.
2 Use the map to write a statement about the geographical location of the Polynesian islands, and the size of New Zealand and its location compared with that of other islands.
3 Sources 13.8 and 13.9 show the natural environments of different parts of Polynesia. Suggest how the different environments would have affected people's ways of life.

EXTEND 13.1

1 In a group, find out about the climates of Samoa, Hawaii, New Zealand and Easter Island. Summarise your findings in a table. Individually, write a paragraph comparing the climates of these places.

REVIEW 13.2

1 What are the boundaries of the Polynesian Triangle?
2 In which region of Oceania is land-diving practised?
3 What are the different climates and natural features on the islands of Polynesia?

THEORIES ABOUT POLYNESIAN EXPANSION

Source 13.10 *Moai* on Easter Island

Source 13.11 A Mayan stone statue in Central America. The Mayans were a powerful Central American civilisation in ancient times

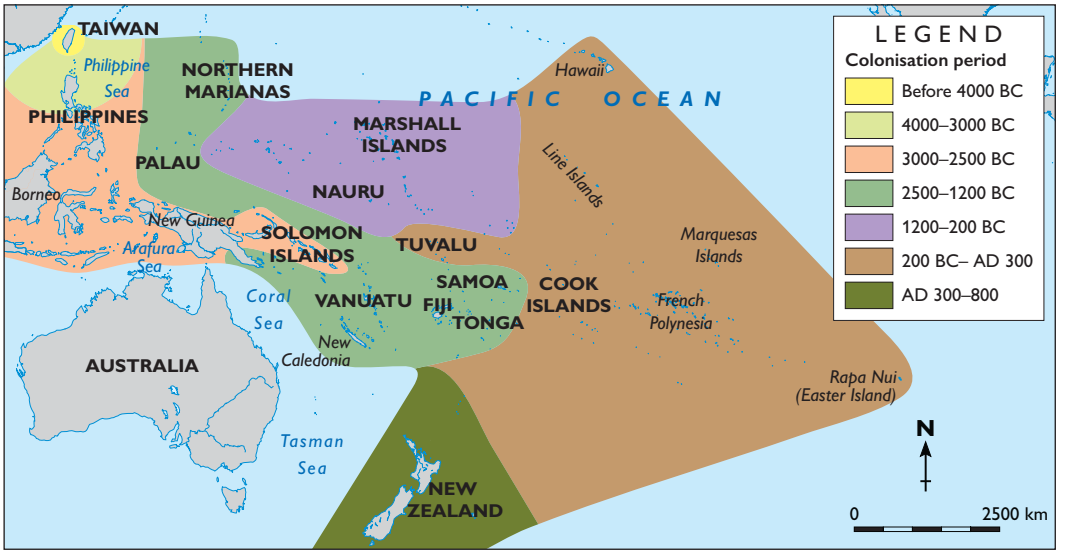
Historians do not agree on exactly how or when the Polynesians spread throughout the Pacific. They have also disagreed on where the ancestors of Polynesian peoples came from. Historians have worked closely with other experts such as anthropologists, archaeologists and scientists to find clues that could lead to a better understanding of Polynesian history. Some historians and adventurers have even attempted to re-create Polynesian sea voyages in order to prove their theories.

The origins of the Polynesian peoples

One of the biggest controversies in Polynesian history has concerned the origin of the Polynesians. Did their ancestors travel eastwards across the Pacific (from South-East Asia) or westwards (from South America)?

Some historians say that Polynesian settlers originated from South America, possibly from modern-day Peru. They say the settlers floated across the ocean on rafts made from balsa wood, which were common to that area. Historians who support this idea believe regular wind patterns and ocean currents would have allowed this type of travel, and that travel in the opposite direction would have been very difficult. They also sometimes suggest there are similarities between Aztec, Incan and Mayan stone buildings found in the Americas, and the stone statues of Polynesia, such as the ***moai*** (which are large stone statues) on Easter Island (see Sources 13.10 and 13.11).

Recent archaeological evidence, however, has supported an opposing view – that Polynesian settlers had travelled eastwards. Most people now believe the ancestors of Polynesian people travelled from the Malay Islands and along the coast of New Guinea. From New Guinea, they would have moved east along the Solomon Island chain, into Vanuatu. These early settlers then moved on into modern-day Polynesia, taking with them animals and plants from their home in the west. From Vanuatu they travelled east to the Cook Islands, to the Society Islands, to the Marquesas, and then across the huge sea gap to Hawaii, to Easter Island and down to New Zealand.



Source 13.12 Most historians now believe Polynesian settlers colonised the islands of the Pacific in the order shown in this map.

Evidence of Polynesian expansion

Historians and other experts have used a variety of sources as evidence to investigate Polynesian expansion.

Archaeology

Most of what we know about Polynesian expansion is based on the work of archaeologists. These specialists study the artefacts of the past as evidence of people's daily lives. They look at objects that people used every day, such as weapons, cooking pots and tools. Archaeologists increasingly rely on scientific techniques – such as **radiocarbon dating**, **DNA testing** and the analysis of pollen samples from plants – in their investigations. They also rely on the work of meteorologists and oceanographers (who specialise in the study of climate, wind and ocean currents).

As a result of DNA testing of Polynesian peoples, most historians now accept that the ancestors of the Polynesians came from South-East Asia and from China more than 6000 years ago. They made their way south, settling first in what is now Indonesia. They then settled in the Bismarck Archipelago, a group of islands north of New Guinea. This is where the Lapita culture first appeared. The Lapita people are believed to be the ancestors of both the Melanesian and Polynesian peoples.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Polynesian rat is a species of rat today found on many Polynesian islands. Archaeologists have found ancient remains of the rat on Easter Island and in New Zealand. It originally came from South-East Asia, rather than from the Americas. It could therefore only have been introduced to the Pacific Islands long ago by Polynesian voyagers in their travels from the east.

Anthropology

Anthropologists have also given us a great deal of information about Polynesian history. These specialists study the cultures and languages of modern-day Polynesian communities. They also study the writings of European explorers, who described their first encounters with Polynesians. Captain James Cook, for example, left a record of his encounters with the Polynesians in Hawaii, Tahiti, Tonga, New Zealand and Easter Island. He noted that the people on these islands shared a common language.

Anthropologists also study the oral traditions of Polynesian societies. Ancient Polynesian societies did not leave behind written records. However, stories that have passed down through the generations offer valuable clues about how Polynesia was settled. Historians use these stories – from the Māori of New Zealand, the Hawaiians, and the Rapa Nui people of Easter Island – as a starting point for their investigations. For example, the traditional stories and songs of the Māori tells us about the canoes that brought the first settlers to New Zealand to a place called Hawaiki, which may be a real island or a mythical place. Hawaii has legends and stories that link it to Kahiki, which many believe to be the island of Tahiti. These stories, when considered alongside other sources, provide a more complete understanding of Polynesian history.

Source 13.13 A Polynesian rat

Source 13.14 An example of Lapita pottery. This style of pottery, with its distinctive designs, has been found at sites that range from the Bismarck Archipelago to the islands of Samoa and Tonga in the east of Polynesia.

APPLY 13.1

1 Find a traditional Māori story, or story from another Polynesian culture, about people's ancestors first arriving at the island they made home. What evidence does the story provide for historians? Does it tell us anything about the beliefs of the people, the voyages their ancestors made, or contacts with other peoples?

Accidental discoveries or great explorations?

Several historians have suggested that Polynesian expansion throughout the Polynesian Triangle may have been accidental. New Zealand historian Andrew Sharp believes that the early Polynesians did not plan their longer voyages. Instead, he says, they found new islands when they were blown off course by storms or because of poor navigation. He calls this kind of expansion 'drift voyaging'. Recent research into Polynesian seafaring methods has shown that Polynesians were expert navigators, and that the 'drift theory' is probably not correct. The winds in the Pacific usually blow from south-east to north-west. If the Polynesians were just victims of the winds, they would not have drifted towards Easter Island or made any of their other great discoveries.

We now have a lot of archaeological evidence that the Polynesians continually improved their boat-building techniques and navigational skills until long ocean voyages were possible. Sailing in large, double-hulled canoes that were 20 metres long, the Polynesians were able to carry enough supplies for their journeys and much of what they would need to begin life on a new island. Their cargo would have included a range of domesticated plants and animals, including, taro, bananas, coconuts, pigs, chickens and dogs.

APPLY 13.2

1 The Pacific Ocean is large and has very few landmarks to guide sailors. Conduct research on the methods used by Polynesian voyagers to navigate their way across the wide open seas. Consider the Polynesians' knowledge of the stars, cloud formations, wave patterns, wind directions and bird sightings.

   Choose one of these navigational methods. Create a presentation, using diagrams and other images, explaining how the method would have been used on Polynesian voyages.

2 Research the different types of boats used by Polynesian peoples.

   a Create a montage that shows a range of Polynesian boats, such as 'composite rafts', simple dugout canoes, outrigger canoes, and double-hulled canoes.

   b Create a presentation about the materials and techniques used to build the large double-hulled canoes. Explain how the canoes were sailed, the number of people they could carry and how far they could travel.

Source 13.15 Replicas of Polynesian double-hulled, ocean-going canoes. Similar boats would have been used by early voyagers to cross the Pacific Ocean.

REVIEW 13.3

1 What arguments have been used by historians who believed Polynesians arrived from South America?

2 Outline the evidence that supports the view that Polynesians arrived from South-East Asia.

3 What are the most recently settled islands of Polynesia?

COMMON FEATURES OF POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES

Polynesian societies developed in many ways that are similar:

- Polynesian languages are closely related and contain many similar words (see Source 13.16).
- Early Polynesian societies depended heavily on fishing and seafaring, and on the cultivation of crops such as sweet potato, banana and coconut.
- Tattooing, using needles, chisels or a comb dipped in dye, was practised nearly everywhere in Polynesia. Tattoos often displayed a person's rank, family history or achievements. Different parts of the body were tattooed, depending on whether a person was male or female.
- Polynesians shared many beliefs about gods and the creation of the world. In the past, most Polynesian peoples believed there were many gods. One of the most commonly known gods in Polynesia was Tangaloa (known as Kanaloa in Hawaii and as Ta'aroa in Tahiti). According to some myths, Tangaloa created the universe out of darkness. Other stories say Tangaloa was god of the ocean or of the underworld. Other gods who were common across Polynesia included Kane (a god of fertility), Lono (a god of rain) and Ku (a god of war).

Source 13.16

English word	Tahitian word	Hawaiian word	Maori word
person	*ta'ata*	*kanaka*	*tāngata*
eye	*mata*	*maka*	*mata*
wind	*mata'i*	*makani*	*matangi*

EXTEND 13.2

1 Conduct research to find out the number of Polynesian languages spoken today. How many people speak each of these languages?

Common features of Polynesian societies

SOURCE STUDY

Source 13.17 Sketch made by French explorer Dumont D'Urville in the 1800s, showing a traditional Tongan tattoo

Source 13.18 Wooden figure representing the god Ku Kaili in Hawaii

INTERPRET 13.2

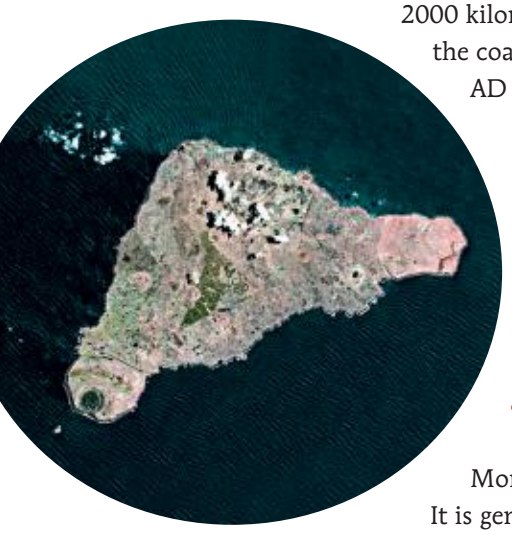
1 How could historians use sources such as Source 13.17 and 13.18 to investigate Polynesian cultures?

2 For each source, write three inquiry questions. Use the words *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* to start your questions.

The society and culture of Easter Island

Easter Island was once known to its inhabitants as 'Te Pito-te-henua', which means 'navel of the world'. It was one of the most isolated settlements on Earth, located more than 2000 kilometres from the nearest inhabited Polynesian island and over 3000 kilometres from the coast of South America. The island was first settled by the Rapa Nui people around AD 300. When European explorers discovered it, they renamed it 'Easter Island'.

The challenge for any historian studying Rapa Nui society is a lack of information. When Europeans first saw Easter Island it was already in dramatic decline. The population had become very small, apparently after a period of civil war and cannibalism. However, by studying the oral traditions and artefacts of the islanders it is possible to piece together an understanding of the Rapa Nui way of life. The focus of a great deal of the study of Easter Island has been on the giant stone statues, called *moai*, the Rapa Nui constructed.



Source 13.19 Easter Island is only about 25 kilometres long, and 12 kilometres wide; it is almost triangular in shape.

The *moai* of Easter Island

More than 800 *moai* have been found on Easter Island (see Sources 13.3 and 13.20). It is generally acknowledged that carving, moving and erecting these huge statues was a feature of islander life for about 300 years, from AD 1200. The Rapa Nui obtained the stone to make most of the statues at a quarry at Rano Raraku. They carved them at Rano Raraku, and then transported them to the coast, where they set them on stone platforms facing inland. Most of the statues found on Easter Island are still in the quarry at Rano Raraku, where they were waiting to be moved. Some were simply left unfinished. It is thought the *moai* represented the ancestors of the different clans on Easter Island, and that they were placed to watch over the clans and their lands. But our understanding of the role of these statues in islander life is incomplete because there are no written records of the time before Europeans arrived. Also, later generations of islanders appear to have deliberately ruined the statues, perhaps as a rejection of their own past culture.

Source 13.20 Some of the *moai* on Easter Island. The largest of the *moai* weighs 75 tonnes and stands almost 10 metres tall. Each statue is carved from stone, with coral originally used for the eyes.

APPLY 13.3

1 According to Rapa Nui legend, the *moai* were once alive and walked to their current locations. Conduct research to find out the theories archaeologists have to explain how the *moai* were transported, and discuss the methods used to test these theories. Create a presentation to show which theory you think is most likely to be correct. Include sources and diagrams.

Social organisation and grouping

Source 13.21 A 19th-century illustration of Rapa Nui people

In many Polynesian societies, including among the Māori of New Zealand and the Rapa Nui of Easter Island, the leader of the society is the *Ariki* (which mean 'chief'), who belongs to a hereditary ruling class. In Rapa Nui society, the *Ariki* claim to be direct descendants of Hotu Matu'a, who was a legendary figure. According to legend, the god-like figure of Hotu Matu'a was the first to settle the island, arriving with his extended family in two great canoes.

Rapa Nui society has been classified by anthropologists as an 'open chiefdom'. This means that the power and the authority of the chief depends on his political connections and the support of a strong group of warriors. The island population was divided into classes: the chiefs, priests and warriors were the leaders, and the common people provided the labour force.

The *Ariki* organised the labour force and collected taxes. The *Ariki* also supervised trade between the various clans or tribes, and was responsible for keeping the peace and ensuring the food supply. In some cases this involved controlling a central store of food to be used when food supplies were low. The labour force was made up of the farmers, fishermen, craftspeople and warriors. The common people lived in small, round or rectangular houses, built on stone foundations. Sweet potato was the main crop on the island. It was a vital food source because it provided high yields, even in poor soil.

The carving, moving and placement of the *moai* would have called for a well-organised social structure. Some sections of the community would have had to ensure a surplus of food to feed the important stone masons, tool makers and engineers who were responsible for making and putting up the *moai*.

Source 13.22 A Birdman motif carved on rocks on Easter Island

The use of Easter Island's natural resources

Easter Island once had over a million giant palm trees and other types of trees and vegetation. But by the time the first Europeans saw the island in 1722 most of the trees were gone. Some historians think that the history of Easter Island is a warning about ruining the environment through deforestation. Timber was used by the Rapa Nui as fuel for fires, to build canoes and houses, and possibly to make rollers and sleds for moving the *moai*. As the Rapa Nui cut down the trees to obtain timber, they gradually destroyed the ancient forests. Deforestation also caused soil to blow or wash away. Then streams began to disappear. There is evidence that the Polynesian rat, which was brought to the island with the first settlers, also contributed to the destruction of the forest. Rats ate the seeds of palm trees before they could grow.

Deforestation did not automatically mean the end of Rapa Nui society. The islanders, like other Polynesians, were not totally dependent on wildlife or palm trees for food. They also cultivated sweet potato, raised and ate chickens, and caught seafood. The disappearance of the forests over a period of 400 to 500 years would have allowed people to gradually adapt. However, Rapa Nui society was also devastated by clan warfare around 1680. This led to the final breakdown of its traditional structure. The population may once have been as high as 15 000. But by the time Europeans arrived, there were only 2000 to 3000 people living on the island. Contact with Europeans then devastated the remaining population. Europeans not only brought deadly diseases such as smallpox (which the Rapa Nui people had no immunity to), they also introduced the slave trade.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Around 1680, there was evidence of cannibalism on Easter Island, perhaps due to food shortages. A common insult shouted at enemies was 'The flesh of your mother still sticks between your teeth!'

APPLY 13.4

1 Conduct research to find out about the Birdman Cult of the Rapa Nui. What was the purpose of the race to in which representatives of different clans would race down steep cliffs, swim across to small islands, and bring back an unbroken egg of a seabird? How was the race related to a changing society and changing religious beliefs?

SOURCE STUDY

The use of Easter Island's natural resources

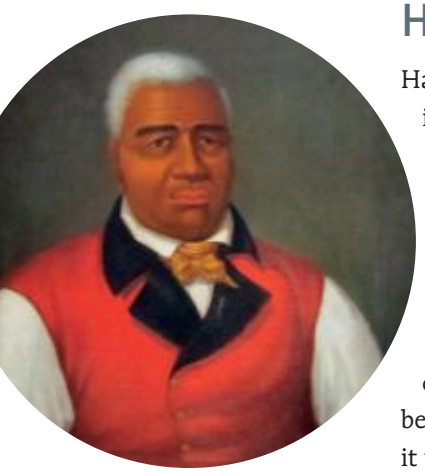
Source 13.23

> The overall picture for Easter Island is the most extreme example of forest destruction in the Pacific, and among the most extreme in the world: the whole forest gone, and all of its tree species extinct. Immediate consequences for the islanders were losses of raw materials, losses of wild-caught foods, and decreased crop yields.
>
> Raw materials lost or else available only in greatly decreased amounts consisted of everything made from native plants and birds, including wood, rope, bark to manufacture bark cloth, and feathers. Lack of large timber and rope brought an end to the transport and erection of statues, and also to the construction of seagoing canoes.

Extract from Jared Diamond, *Collapse: How Societies Choose to Fail or Survive*, Penguin Books, London, 2006, p. 107

INTERPRET 13.3

1 Create a graphic organiser to outline the 'immediate consequences' of deforestation on Easter Island, according to Source 13.23.
2 Add details about how these consequences would have affected the society and daily life on Easter Island, based on the source and your own ideas.



Source 13.24 A painting of King Kamehameha I

Hawaiian society and culture

Hawaiian society was made up of people who lived on many different islands. The chain of islands, called the Hawaiian Archipelago, is located in the northern part of the Polynesian Triangle. Like other Polynesian groups, Hawaiians traditionally grew breadfruit, taro and sweet potato, raised chickens, dogs and pigs, and fished for seafood.

Hawaiian society was strictly ordered and divided into classes. Each of the major islands, such as Hawaii, Maui, Kauai and Oahu, had their own chief, with lesser chiefs ruling smaller areas under them. *Ali'i* (which means 'chief') and *kahuna* (which means 'priest') had the highest status in society, and commoners were below them. The lowest class of people were slaves descended from war captives. Marriage was tightly controlled between classes. Higher classes were forbidden from marrying slaves. But among the chiefs, it was common for brothers and sisters to marry to keep bloodlines pure. Children of these marriages were considered so sacred they were forbidden to talk to other people during daylight.

The Hawaiian Islands were unified by King Kamehameha I, who declared himself the ruler of the Kingdom of Hawaii in 1810. He had conquered the islands of Hawaii, Oahu and Maui, and then led a fleet of 800 double canoes against Kauai and Ni'ihau. His soldiers used cannon and muskets as well as traditional spears. Today, Hawaii is part of the United States of America.

Samoan society and culture

Samoan society was organised around a system called *fa'a Samoa*, meaning 'the Samoan way', which continues to be important today. According to *fa'a Samoa*, rules governed how a person should behave in many aspects of their lives, including eating and drinking, and behaviour towards elders. Following these rules was important in order to show respect. Samoan villages were based on extended family groups. Each family group would elect a *matai* (which means 'chief'). The chief was responsible for maintaining the culture, upholding laws and punishing misconduct. He also spoke on behalf of the family at village councils.

One of the most important Samoan ceremonies was the kava ceremony. It is still important today (see Source 13.25). **Kava** is a drink made from the dried roots of the kava plant. The roots were mixed with water in a special bowl and strained using ritual techniques. The resulting drink had relaxant properties. The kava ceremony normally involved songs and speeches, with the drink handed out in order of the social rank of the drinkers, starting with the most important. The kava ceremony was used on many special occasions, for example at the election of a new chief or when welcoming guests.

Source 13.25 A Samoan kava ceremony being performed today

Other Polynesian societies

There were many different Polynesian societies in the past, such as those of the Marquesas, Tahiti, the Cook Islands and Tonga. Many of these societies continue today, with their traditional ways of life blending with modern practices. The Kingdom of Tonga is the only Polynesian country never to have been colonised by Europeans or Americans. The current king of Tonga, Tupouto'a Lavaka Ata, can trace his royal line back to 1600.

REVIEW 13.4

1 List some of the common features of Polynesian societies.
2 What do the *moai* tell us about the Rapa Nui society of Easter Island?
3 What were palms trees used for on Easter Island, and why did the forests disappear?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Riding the waves on a surfboard is thought to have originated in the islands around Tahiti, and was well established in Hawaii hundreds of years ago. Hawaiian chiefs used surfboards that were 4 to 5 metres long, made of the most buoyant wood. Commoners used boards less than 4 metres long, made of heavier woods.

EXTEND 13.3

1 Conduct research to select one Polynesian society. Find out about the first contacts between the Polynesian people of this society and European explorers and settlers. What impact did Europeans have on the society?

13.1

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES SPREAD ACROSS THE PACIFIC AND WHERE DID THEY SETTLE?

» Identify the geographic extent and natural features of Polynesia

1 Which islands form the boundaries of the Polynesian Triangle? (5 marks)

2 Identify the different types of environments within Polynesia and provide examples of their natural features. (5 marks)

» Locate the Pacific regions settled by the Polynesians

3 On a blank map of the Pacific region, mark the islands that were settled by Polynesians. (5 marks)

» Outline theories about the origin and spread of Polynesian settlers throughout the Pacific

4 On your map of the Pacific region, show where the ancestors of Polynesian settlers are now believed to have come from, and show the direction of travel of the people who first settled Polynesia. Do the same for the opposing theory about the origin and spread of the Polynesians. (5 marks)

5 Outline the theory about the origin and expansion of Polynesian settlers that is supported by recent evidence. List the types of sources used by historians to support the theory. (5 marks)

6 Why was the discovery of Lapita pottery significant in supporting the theory? (5 marks)

» Describe the different societies in Polynesia

7 In your notebook, create a table such as the one below to describe features of the Polynesian societies of Rapa Nui, Hawaii and Samoa. (6 marks)

	Rapa Nui society	Hawaiian society	Samoan society
Features of their society			
Features of their culture			

» Use sources to describe the *moai* of Easter Island

8 Use sources to describe the *moai* statues of Easter Island. Include comments on how and why the Rapa Nui people are thought to have created the statues, and transported them across the island. (4 marks)

» Describe and assess the use of environmental resources on Easter Island

9 Describe the natural resources of Easter Island. How were they used by the Rapa Nui? (5 marks)

10 What was the consequence of this use for the environment, and for Rapa Nui society? (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Testing the theories of Polynesian expansion

1 Experimental archaeology involves using the tools and equipment that would have been available to ancient people to test theories about the past, such as whether it would have been possible for the Polynesians to make long voyages across the Pacific. Conduct research on the following:

a the voyage of Thor Heyerdahl on the *Kon Tiki* in 1947

b the voyage organised by the Polynesian Voyaging Society in the 1970s, which used the *Hokule'a*, a replica of a Polynesian canoe, to sail between distant islands

Write a short report that explains the results of these voyages. Include relevant sources and a sketch map of the journeys. What evidence did these voyages provide? What conclusions did they lead to about Polynesian expansion across the Pacific?

2 Write a persuasive text that argues for one of the theories of Polynesian expansion. Discuss the weaknesses in the evidence that supports the opposing theory.

Source 13.26 A poster for the documentary film *Kon-Tiki*, about Thor Heyerdahl's voyage across Polynesia; the film, made in 1950, won an Academy Award.

Source 13.27 The *Hokule'a*, a 60-foot replica of an ancient Polynesian, double-hulled voyaging canoe

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Perspectives and interpretations
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

13.2

SECTION

HOW WAS MĀORI SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

In this section you will look in more depth at the distinctive society and culture of one of the most interesting Polynesian societies: the Māori. We explore aspects of Māori society, daily life and use of natural resources.

MĀORI SETTLEMENT, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

The Māori call New Zealand 'Aotearoa', meaning 'land of the long white cloud'. The islands of New Zealand were one of the last areas to be settled by the Polynesians. Historians believe that the first Polynesian explorers arrived between 950 and 1150. At first the settlers established themselves in coastal areas. They brought with them animals such as dogs and the Polynesian rat. They quickly discovered that their new land was home to animals that were sources of food, such as the flightless birds known as moas.

Oral traditions about Māori settlement

The Māori oral tradition tells of Chief Kupe's voyage to Aotearoa, travelling in a canoe from a land called Hawaiki. It is believed that he said 'He ao, he aotea he Aotearoa' (It is a cloud, a white cloud, a long white cloud) when he first saw the land. Following this discovery, two other Polynesian explorers, Toi and Whatonga arrived. Then came the settlers who arrived in canoes, known as the Great Fleet. Māori people trace their ancestry to these settlers, in their songs and other oral traditions.

Many modern historians question the Great Fleet story. But archaeologists have found evidence of Polynesian settlers dating from around 1280. They have obtained radiocarbon dates of gnawed seeds and of the bones of Polynesian rats. Māori family histories (known as 'genealogies') support this evidence of early Polynesian settlement. Scientists have also found signs that around this time there were major changes in the landscape. Forests were cleared, and there were changes in the populations of land and sea animals.

Source 13.28 An artist's impression of Polynesian voyagers sailing to New Zealand

Māori society and culture

Traditionally, Māori society was organised around its tribes, which traced their ancestors back to one of the original canoes of the Great Fleet. The main group within each tribe was the sub-tribe (known as *hapā*). This was the primary political and economic unit in Māori society. A sub-tribe was usually made up of approximately 500 people organised in several related family groups. Each sub-tribe was independent and had established land boundaries. Sub-tribes traded with each other to obtain goods that were not available locally.

Source 13.29

> Due to the difference in economic resources between communities, there was much trade between hapu. The coastal communities exchanged fish with inland communities, who reciprocated with preserved birds, rats and various other forest products. Obsidian was popular to trade and was used for minor cutting operations, delicate carving and the scraping of woodwork. Pounamu (greenstone), found primarily in the South Island, was also highly prized for its hardness for cutting tools, and for its ornamental appearance.
>
> Extract from 'Historical Influences: Māori and the Economy', at the website 'Te Puni Kōkiri' (in section 'For Maori Future Makers')

Source 13.30 A Māori greenstone *tiki*, traditionally worn around the neck to bring good luck to its wearer

Māori social classes

There were five classes of people in Māori society: the rulers, including the chief (*ariki*); elders; specialists and priests; commoners; and slaves.

The ruling class was made up of the most important families. The chief of each sub-tribe was the first-born son of the most senior family that could trace its ancestry back to the canoes of the Great Fleet. The chief was expected to prove his leadership in war, diplomacy and the wise treatment of the people. People who had shown special talent as children became the priests or specialists who built houses or canoes, or were responsible for specific tasks, such as fishing or carving. Priests and specialists were also the educators in the tribe, passing on tribal history. The commoners and slaves were the largest groups in society. The slaves, who were at the bottom of the class structure, were people who had been captured in war. Slaves did all the menial tasks, but were not prisoners. According to tribal beliefs, once someone was captured in a war, they were considered dead. So it made little sense for a slave to try to escape. Slaves would often marry into their new tribe, and their children would be born free.

Source 13.31 A 19th-century painting of a Māori chief. His tattoos show his social position.

Ruling the sub-tribe

Important decisions were reached at a public meeting in or near the meeting house. The chiefs listened to opinions from all members of the sub-tribes, then made the final decision. The meeting house was the physical and spiritual centre of the tribe. Meetings and ceremonies, such as formal welcomes, were performed in front of it. In a welcoming ceremony, a visitor might begin by remembering the dead. Their host might then welcome the visitor with the *hongi*, which was the mixing of breath that symbolised the union of people.

Source 13.32 Māori elder Ben Hutana greets Britain's Prince William with the *hongi*, in New Zealand, in 2011

APPLY 13.5

1 Draw a 'social pyramid' that shows the five classes in Māori society.

APPLY 13.6

1 Find out about tattooing in Māori culture. How were traditional Māori body markings made, and what was their significance?

The Māori warrior culture

Māori society became very warlike, as its population grew and the competition for limited resources increased. Warfare increased between the tribes over competition for land or if one tribe insulted another. After an insult or a defeat, an injured party was obliged to seek revenge and restore their status. War parties prepared themselves for battle using special rituals and a dance, called the ***haka***.

Once ready for war, a chief would lead his warriors to battle in war canoes that could fit 70 people or more. They would often attack at dawn, hiding in the bush to carry out surprise raids. The raiders would try to kill all enemy warriors so that revenge attacks would not be possible. Fighting was hand-to-hand, using clubs made from wood, bone or greenstone. To scare their rivals, Māori warriors would perform a special *haka* that called on Tāmatauenga (the god of war). In this *haka*, men waved their weapons, and made loud cries, and fierce facial expressions, poking out their tongues and bulging out their eyes. Throat-cutting gestures and other threatening movements made it clear what was about to happen to the enemy.

SOURCE STUDY

The Māori warrior culture

Source 13.33 Paddlers from different canoes perform a series of *haka* on Waitangi Day, New Zealand's national day

Source 13.34 A 19th-century print showing a Māori war canoe

INTERPRET 13.4

1 Examine Sources 13.33 and 13.34. What do these sources suggest about continuity and change in Māori society, from the 19th century to the modern day?

The use of *tapu*

The Māori have a spiritual and social code of conduct known as ***tapu***. This code is used to protect sacred places, people and objects. If an item is *tapu* it cannot come into contact with a person; if it does the gods may become angry. In the past, the chief and his food were *tapu*. People of lower status could not touch him. The chief's house was also *tapu*, and could only be entered, particularly by women, after a special rite was carried out. Other people who were *tapu* included the healer or priest; his homes and possessions were also *tapu*. Areas such as burial grounds were *tapu*. The word *tapu* is where our word 'taboo' comes from.

The use of natural resources in Māori society

The Māori believe that all living things are descended from gods. These gods are part of the environment and are found in the rivers, mountains and lakes. Geographical features are thought to possess *mana* (a spiritual essence or power). When the Māori first settled New Zealand, each tribe was responsible for maintaining the *mana* of their environment. In many ways, early Māoris were more closely linked to their environment than the later European arrivals. However, as the extinction of the moa illustrates, early Māoris did have a huge impact on the environment of New Zealand.

Extinction of native species

One early source of food for the Māori was the **moa**, a large, flightless bird. There were originally 24 species of moa in New Zealand, ranging in size from a 1-metre turkey to a giant bird 3.7 metres high. All moa were herbivores, living on twigs, shrubs, leaves and tree fruits. Being flightless, they were easy to kill and were hunted for food by the Māori. Along with other species, moa were hunted to extinction in New Zealand. The flightless goose and the adzebill (another large flightless bird) also disappeared, as did many species of swans and pelicans. The number of sea lions and elephant seals were also severely reduced. As these food sources started to disappear, the Māori moved from hunting to farming and storing food, and to conservation of some wild food resources.

Source 13.35 An artist's impression of early Māori settlers hunting a giant species of the moa, a flightless bird

Source 13.36 A skeleton of a moa, estimated to be 5000 years old.

The use of *rāhui* to conserve natural resources

The Māori learned from their experiences with the moa and began to use special *tapu*, called *rāhui*, for the protection of the environment. *Rāhui* involved banning the use of particular natural resources for a specified time. For example, fishing might be forbidden in a particular lake in order to give fish a chance to breed, or an area of land set aside so that plants might recover. After declaring a *rāhui*, a chief would mark an area with a post or describe the features of the landscape that served as its borders. Some *rāhui* might depend on time rather than space, with hunting of particular animals or birds forbidden during specific times of the year.

The system of *rāhui* meant the Māori could use the natural resources without killing off entire species. It ensured resources would be available for future generations. *Rāhui* is still used in New Zealand today to protect of native wildlife.

SOURCE STUDY

The use of *rāhui* to conserve resources

Source 13.37

> The conservation *rāhui* was used to protect the products of the land and water ... [the] chief Tukuha ... set up a *rāhui* post at Te Rautawhiri. The post remained in the same position, but whenever the chief wanted to *rāhui* the eels of his part of the Rangitaiki River, he would 'hang one of his old garments' on it. That would signal a complete ban on that one resource, eels. In this instance, the name of the place, Te Rautawhiri (the leaves twisted on), indicates that it was used by custom as a place to signal a *rāhui*.

Extract describing a *rāhui* from Hirini Moko Mead, *Tikanga Māori: Living by Māori Values*, 2003.

INTERPRET 13.5

1 What resource does the *rāhui* described in Source 13.37 aim to protect?
2 How does the chief signal that the *rāhui* was in place?
3 What does the signal mean to people in that community?

REVIEW 13.5

1 What is Chief Kupe known for in Māori oral tradition?
2 Identify the types of evidence that historians can use to investigate the early Māori settlers.
3 In your notebook, correctly match these Māori terms and meanings:

ariki	a greeting to welcome visitors
haka	a flightless bird, now extinct
hapū	a type of *tapu* used to conserve natural resources
hongi	a sub-tribe made up of related family groups
moa	a Māori chief
rāhui	a dance performed by Māori warriors
tapu	a rule that protected sacred places, people or objects

DAILY LIFE IN A MĀORI VILLAGE

The border of a Māori village (known as a *pā*) was ringed with strong wooden walls for protection against attacking warriors. Some villages were further strengthened with protective ditches, moats or towers. Villages were often built in places that could be easily defended, such as on ridges or islands.

Food and diet

The Māori farmed much of their food, but also hunted and gathered food from the land and sea. Birds, fish and native vegetables supplemented sweet potato, which was the staple food. Diets varied between regions. On Stewart Island, for example, the mutton bird was plentiful. People in other areas caught eels or collected shellfish.

Hāngi

The *hāngi* was a method of cooking. To make a *hāngi*, Māori cooks first dug a large pit. They would light a fire in the pit, heat stones until they were hot, and then arrange them in the bottom of the pit. Men and women would work together to prepare the food for a *hāngi*. It nearly always included sweet potato, as well as other vegetables, meat or fish. Puddings were also made in a *hāngi*. Food was wrapped in leaves to protect it from burning. Food might also be placed in baskets, which were placed on the hot stones and covered with earth. A *hāngi* was left buried for around three hours. When a *hāngi* was 'raised' the food was ready to share.

Source 13.38 Food being prepared for cooking in a *hāngi* pit

The learning house

Tribal history was preserved and taught to younger people in a village by skilled older men. Important aspects of their culture, such as the law and *tapu* (sacred rules or restrictions), were also passed down to them from the older generation. Teaching took place in a special school building or just a selected space in the village.

Genealogy (the study of family history) is important to the Māori because each tribe traces its ancestry back to a canoe of origin. Māori genealogy is known as *whakapapa*, which means 'placing the people in their layers'. A special carved genealogy staff called a *rākau whakapapa* is used to recite the history of Māori people (see Source 13.39). The *rākau whakapapa* is about a metre long and covered in knobs. Each knob on the staff represents a different generation and serves as a reminder to a person reciting his or her genealogy.

Source 13.39 Wi Huata tells the history of his family going back 50 generations; he uses a *rākau whakapapa* (genealogy staff).

SOURCE STUDY

Daily life in a Māori village

Source 13.40 Illustration of a village on Rotorua Lake, drawn by George French Angas in 1847

Source 13.41 *The Interior of a Māori Pā in the Olden Time* by Sam Stuart, 1885 (Auckland Art Gallery Toi o Tamaki; gift of Mrs Sam Stuart, 1923)

INTERPRET 13.6

1 Refer to Source 13.40. Describe the Māori *pā* and its surroundings. Explain what advantages the location of this *pā* would have had for the people living in it.
2 Refer to Source 13.41. Describe the village scene. Include comments on the activities people are engaged in, their housing and clothing.

REVIEW 13.6

1 What is a *hāngi*?
2 Why is genealogy particularly important in Māori society?
3 Explain the purpose of a *rākau whakapapa*.

13.2

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS MĀORI SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Describe the social, cultural, economic and political features of Māori society

1 Describe how Māori communities were organised. (5 marks)
2 Identify the groups in Māori society and describe their roles. (5 marks)
3 How and where were decisions by Māori leaders made? (5 marks)
4 What types of goods were traded between Māori communities? (5 marks)

» Use a range of sources to describe the cultural achievements of Māori society

5 Use sources to describe these aspects of Māori culture: (6 marks)
   - *haka*
   - *rāhui*
   - *tapu*.

» Describe and assess the use of environmental resources in Māori society

6 Describe Māori beliefs related to the environment. (4 marks)
7 Assess the Māori's use of natural resources. Include references to:
   - species which became extinct or declined in numbers after the Māoris arrived in New Zealand
   - the practice of *rāhui*. (5 marks)

» Describe daily life in Māori society

8 Describe the typical features of a Māori village. (5 marks)
9 What were the usual activities in and around the meeting house? (5 marks)
10 Describe the typical diet in Māori villages, and the method of cooking a *hāngi* (a fire-pit meal). (5 marks)

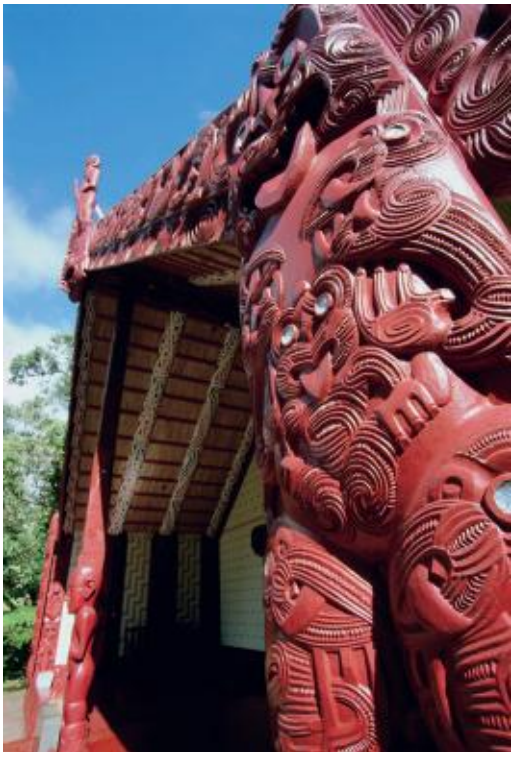
TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Māori carvings and *tā moko* (tattooing)

Carvings in wood, bone and greenstone, and *tā moko* markings, are all important art forms for Māori people. In the past, Māoris told their tribe's story through these art forms, using familiar symbols, as well as representations of people. Human figures were often shown in the position of the *haka*, with eyes bulging, tongue poking out and a club in the hands. Sometimes a person was shown as a large head with a squat body.

Conduct research on Māori carving and *tā moko,* and look at some examples. Then design a graphic that represents who you are and where you have come from. The image does not have to be for a tattoo or carving; it could be a pattern to go on a T-shirt, or it could be a designed for street art.



Source 13.42 Traditional Māori carvings often show the *haka* position

PART 6

This 19th-century Plains Indian doll is dressed in authentic buckskin and beading. A Native American woman would have worn similar clothing at the time.

EXPANDING CONTACTS: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 6: EXPANDING CONTACTS

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

MONGOL EXPANSION **14** CHAPTER

THE BLACK DEATH IN ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA **15** CHAPTER

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS **16** CHAPTER

ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY **17** CHAPTER

EXPANDING CONTACTS: AN OVERVIEW

In this depth study, you will learn how people reacted when they came into contact with other cultures, religions and ways of life. You will also understand not only the impacts that these contacts had on people and their societies, but on history. In 'Expanding contacts' you will read about conquest and resistance, trade and exploration, greed and ambition and the terrible consequences of disease.

You will have an opportunity to explore the interaction of different societies through a study of one of the following:

- the Mongol empire in the 13th century and its rapid expansion westwards from their homelands in Mongolia and southwards into China
- the fall of the Aztec and Inca empires at the hands of the Spanish **conquistadors** (conquerors) in the 16th century
- the more recent experiences of contact and colonisation between the British Empire and the Indigenous peoples of Australia and North America from the 17th to the 19th centuries.

In the topic 'The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa', you have the opportunity to investigate the origins and spread of the great plague known as the **Black Death**, and how it affected European and other societies across the world.

WHY DID SOME SOCIETIES RISE AND DOMINATE OTHERS?

Writers and historians have offered some arguments as to why some societies rose, prospered and came to dominate other societies. These include the use of superior weapons, the impact of disease, and influence of the social organisation of particular groups. Each of these factors explored in the depth study topics,

Use of superior weapons

The Mongol cavalry were famously skilled in the use of longbows, which they were able to shoot with great precision at full gallop on horseback. The European development of gunpowder and use of rifles and cannons were important factors in the Spanish conquest of the Americas, and in determining the fate of the Aboriginal and Indigenous peoples in Australia and North America.

Source 0.33 The Mongols were able to defeat their enemies because of their greater numbers, highly disciplined army and skilled use of the longbow.

Source 0.34 The Spanish conquistadors' use of cannon and muskets was a great advantage against Aztec and Inca warriors using simple wooden clubs.

The impact of disease

In Australia, North America and South America, the introduction of European diseases such as smallpox had a devastating impact on Indigenous people who came into contact with European explorers, traders and settlers.

Source 0.35 A 19th-century illustration of a Native American village during a smallpox epidemic.

Social organisation

The importance of social organisation for successful conquest is clear when we look at the Mongol Empire. Genghis Khan's discipline of his army assured his place as one of the world's great leaders. The organisation of his vast empire and the laws he and his successors set in conquered territories proved the key to the Mongol dominance.

The influence of social organisation can also be seen in the development of European banking, government, industry and commerce. Developments in these areas meant that Spain, Britain and other European countries were able to finance and create professional armies and navies.

SUPPLANTING SOCIETIES

Another idea for understanding the interactions that took place between European colonisers and Indigenous peoples during this period is the idea of **supplanting societies**. This is the argument that, for much of human history, whenever a group of people moved, they moved onto land that was occupied by other people. In other words, the Spanish in the Americas and the British in Australia were supplanting societies – they supplanted or replaced the Indigenous inhabitants.

The Indigenous peoples of the Americas and Australia were all victims of the European desire for colonial expansion, trade and conquest. Each of them was also victim to European diseases and superior weaponry. In many cases, the European supplanting society renamed the key landmarks and invented a new national story around pioneers and explorers, even though the lands that they moved onto had already been named and explored by the Indigenous people who had lived there for centuries before the Europeans arrived.

BELIEF SYSTEMS AND RELIGIONS

Religious beliefs and values were often among the most important reasons why societies went to war or wanted to expand their power and control. A dedication to religious beliefs helped to motivate the expansion of empires. This was the case with the European colonisation in the Americas and in Australia, where the possibility of converting Indigenous peoples to Christian beliefs was one of the justifications in settling on their land.

Source 0.36 A modern-day Mongolian shaman making an offering to the spirits

Shamanism – beliefs of the Mongol tribes

The traditional belief system of the Mongol tribes was known as shamanism. The Mongols worshipped spirits of the earth and sky, and their spiritual leaders (called **shamans**) were believed to be messengers between the spirit world and the human world. The shaman's role was to interpret messages from dead ancestors, perform healing rituals and predict the future.

For the Mongols, it was not their spiritual beliefs that drove the rapid expansion of the empire, but the need for resources (such as grain and metals) and access to pastures for animal grazing.

The Mongols were actually very tolerant of different religions and races. In fact, Confucian scholars and Tibetan Buddhist monks acted as court advisors to the Mongol rulers. Over time, religious missionaries spread the religions of Buddhism, Christianity, Islam and Judaism throughout different parts of the Mongol empire. Conquered peoples were able to continue holding their own beliefs, and over time many Mongol overlords would be converted to local beliefs and customs.

The Black Death and its effect on religious beliefs

One of the unforeseen consequences of Mongol expansion was the spread of a deadly outbreak of plague known as the Black Death. There are many theories about how it spread, but the most widely held belief is that it originated in China or central Asia around 1334 and was carried across the Mongol Empire to Europe and Africa along land and sea trade routes.

Source 0.37 During the Black Death in Europe, flagellants travelled from town to town publically flogging themselves. This woodcut dating back to 1493 shows a pair of flagellants.

For periods throughout the 14th century, the Black Death ravaged populations across Asia, Europe and Africa, killing an estimated 75 million people.

Religious beliefs were central to the lives of people in medieval Europe. These beliefs were put to the test when disease quickly swept through whole communities. As a result, some people turned away from the strict rules of the Church, choosing instead to live life for the moment – gambling, drinking and feasting. Others became even more devoted to the teachings of the Church in order to prove their faith and obedience to God. Some of these devoted Christians, known as **flagellants**, publicly flogged themselves with steel-tipped whips to atone not just for their own sins, but the sins of others.

Across parts of Europe, minority groups were blamed for the disease. In particular, Jews were unfairly singled out and blamed for the spread of the Black Death. In parts of France, Switzerland and Germany, many thousands were tortured and killed.

Aztec gods and sacrifices

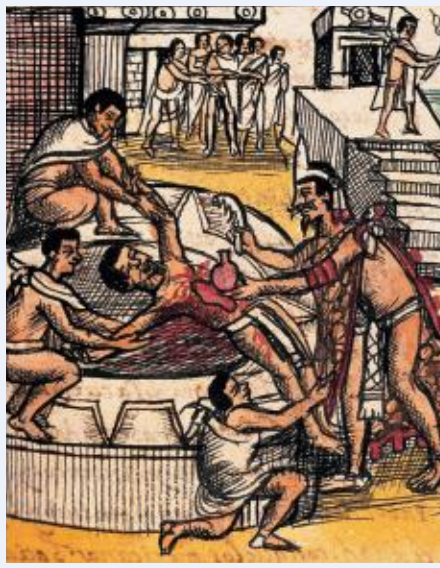
By the 15th century, the Mongol Empire had broken apart, which made existing overland trade routes such as the Silk Road less safe to travel. The search for new trade routes from Europe to the East began, marking the start of an age of exploration and discovery, as explorers set sail across uncharted oceans.

In 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed west seeking a safer and more direct passage to Asia. He was to discover the islands now known as the Bahamas, sparking the Spanish exploration and conquest of the Inca and Aztec societies.

The Aztecs believed that nature and human activities were controlled by gods and spirits. Many of these gods were greatly feared by the Aztecs, who made offerings to please them, including human sacrifices. The beating hearts of victims were cut out of their chests and their bodies were thrown down the steep stairs of the temple.

When Spanish conquistadors arrived they considered both the Aztecs and Inca to be primitive barbarians. The Spanish brought their Catholic beliefs with them to the Americas and set about converting the natives to Christianity. They also enslaved or murdered many inhabitants and stole their gold and silver.

Many Indigenous people believed their own gods had abandoned them. They saw the Spanish conquest and devastating loss of life from European diseases as a sign of this. As a result, large numbers converted to Christianity.



Source 0.38 A 16th-century artist's impression of a human sacrifice during an Aztec religious ceremony. The beating heart of the sacrificial victim is offered to the sun god.

A spiritual connection to the land

Before the arrival of Europeans, the Native American peoples of North America, and the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia had developed rich cultures of their own. Across the continent of North America, there was a diversity of tribal groups, which meant there were a variety of spiritual beliefs and rituals. What they had in common was a spirituality based on their relationship with the land, which held a central place in their daily lives. They believed a Great Spirit existed in natural things, such as plants, animals, earth and sky, and these elements were respected.

In Australia, the Indigenous peoples also had a spiritual connection with the land. **The Dreaming** is the term used for the time when ancestral beings created life and the features of their traditional lands. Dreaming stories are passed on through the generations through storytelling, song, dance and art. As in North America, the European settlers did not understand that separating Indigenous peoples from their land was also separating them from their culture and history.

Source 0.39 Dreaming stories of Australia's Indigenous peoples are expressed through storytelling, song, dance and paintings, such as this artwork.

CONSEQUENCES OF EXPANDING CONTACTS

Each of the topics in 'Expanding contacts' explores events that had significant impacts on individuals, communities, countries and empires – and ultimately on the way that the world that we live in developed.

Governing the expanding Mongol Empire

Under Genghis Khan, the leader who unified the Mongol tribes, the Mongol empire expanded rapidly. Within 100 years, this territory would grow to become the largest continuous land-based empire in human history. Genghis and his successors realised that the traditional culture and social structures of the Mongol tribes needed to change as the empire grew.

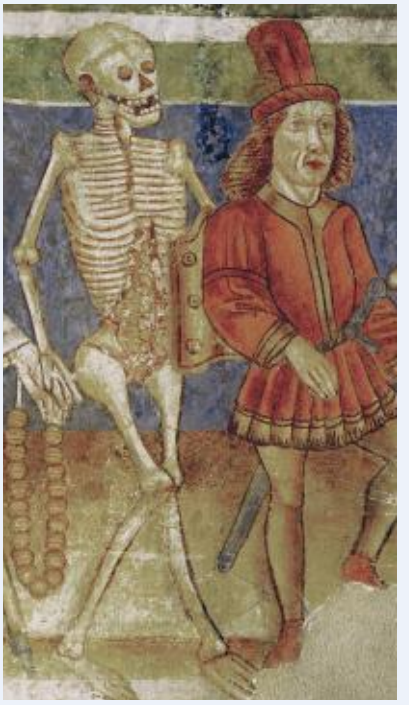
He created an organised army, loyal to their military leaders and the ***khan*** (which means 'leader' or 'king') rather than to their own tribes. An elite group known as the imperial guard provided Genghis Khan with the people he needed to organise and administer his empire, and became the basis of the Mongol ruling class.

Whenever a new territory was conquered, the *khan* introduced immediate changes. If the rulers of these territories submitted to Mongol rule they were treated as allies and left in a position of power. If they refused, their cities were destroyed and their populations were killed. Once a new territory became part of the empire, the *khan* ordered a **census** be conducted. A census itemises all the people and property in a region. Next, taxes were imposed on the population. Finally, the *Yasa* (which was a set of laws) was introduced. At its peak, the *Yasa* governed over 100 million people.

Social and political legacies of the Black Death

Some of the most important legacies of the Black Death were the social and political changes that resulted from it. This disease killed around a third of the population of Europe, leading to huge labour shortages. As a result, many peasants and other workers knew they could sell their labour elsewhere or demand higher wages. Because of this, laws were passed to ensure that peasants stayed with their feudal lords under their old pay and conditions.

Over time, the workers' obligation to work for a lord on his **feudal** manor was reduced, and many people began moving to look for better-paid work. More people began moving from feudal estates to towns and cities as independent workers. This was an important step in weakening the feudal system across Europe. Despite these improvements, there were still many peasant uprisings and violent revolts against the ruling classes. Most were in response to the introduction of new taxes or poor working conditions. Eventually, a number of laws were introduced protecting some basic rights and relaxing the strict class divides that had been in place for so long.



Source 0.40 *The Dance of Death*, painted by Johannes de Castuo *c.* 1490, shows a victim of the Black Death being escorted to his grave.

Consequences of the Spanish conquest of the Americas

The Spanish conquest of the Americas (which became known as the **New World**) had significant consequences not only in Europe and the Americas but all around the world. In the Americas, the cultures of the Aztec and Inca societies were almost completely destroyed, as their populations were devastated by wars and disease. Their faith in their traditional religions and leaders was greatly weakened, and there were also economic impacts. The Aztecs and Inca lost many craftspeople and farmers. There were severe labour shortages and it became difficult to grow and harvest crops to feed the population.

While devastating for the Aztecs and Inca, the Spanish conquest of the Americas was a very positive development for Spain and Europe. In Spain, the riches discovered in the Aztec and Inca empires created huge wealth for the Spanish king. The success of the conquests also made Spain a powerful force in Europe. In addition to being sources of gold and silver, Spanish colonies in the Americas supplied new land and a captive population to work on the plantations.

Because so many Indigenous people in the Americas had died from disease or battles with the Spanish, slaves started being brought from Africa to work on plantations and in mines. This was the beginning of the transatlantic slave trade that would continue midway through the 19th century.

The New World was also an important source of crops for Spain and for Europe. Many crops that we take for granted around the world today had never been seen in Europe until they were brought back from the Americas. These included chocolate, tobacco, potatoes, tomatoes, bananas and chilli. Some of these crops, such as tobacco, were extremely valuable in monetary terms. Others, such as potatoes and tomatoes, were valuable for improving the nutrition of Europeans. New food helped to enrich the diets and improve the health of the population, which also helped to trigger population growth in Europe.

APPLY 0.13

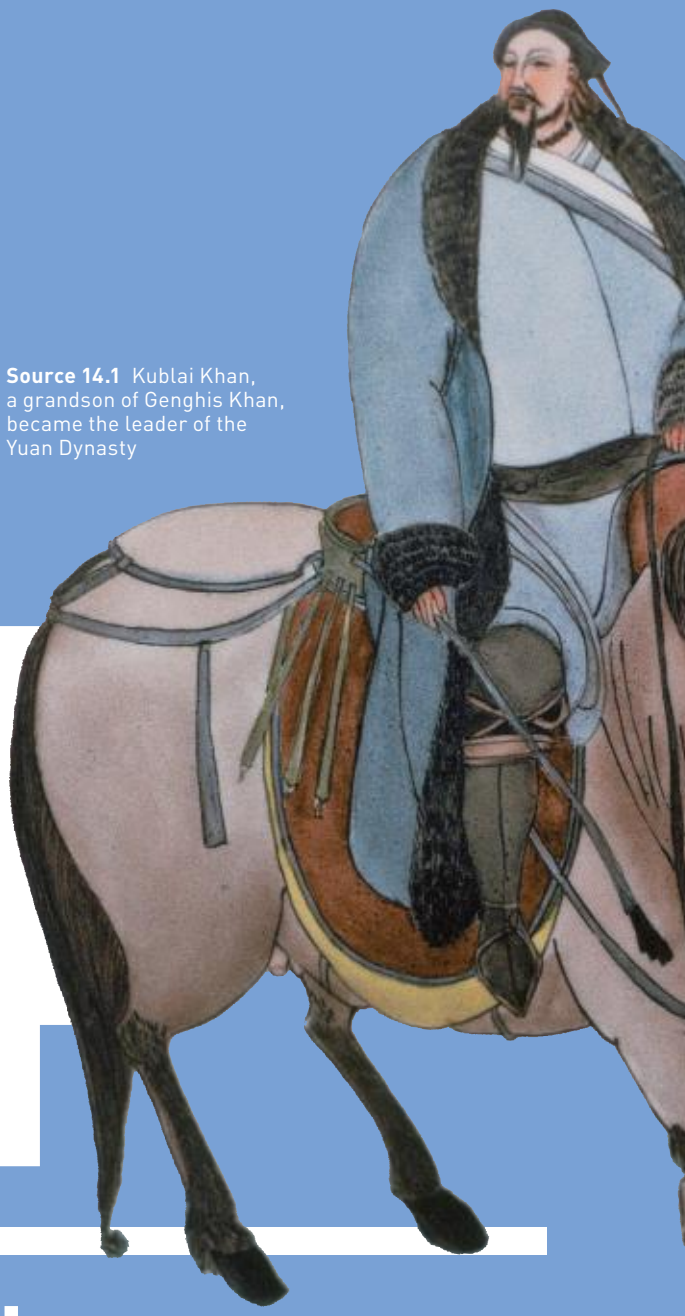
1 What was the impact of Britain's colonisation of North America or Australia? Discuss this question in a group, then conduct research to explore the impact of contact and colonisation in one of these countries. Consider the impact from the perspectives of:

- Indigenous peoples
- European settlers
- the British Empire
- the development of the modern world.

Present your ideas to the class.

Source 0.41 Aboriginal people gather to receive blankets to mark the birthday of Britain's Queen Victoria in 1890, a little over a century after the arrival of the first British settlers to Australia.

14



Source 14.1 Kublai Khan, a grandson of Genghis Khan, became the leader of the Yuan Dynasty

MONGOL EXPANSION

From around 1206, small tribes of **nomadic** animal herders known as Mongols united to form a great army that began to invade and conquer neighbouring lands. Over the next 150 years, from their homelands of northern Asia, the Mongol army grew and pushed westward to the borders of Western Europe and eastward into China. Although Mongols were feared as violent and merciless warriors, killing tens of millions as they conquered new territories, they also made many positive contributions to the societies they conquered, some of which remain to this day. In this period, a network of roads linked Asia and Europe. Under the rule of the great ***khans*** (leaders), traders, diplomats and intellectuals – including the Italian explorer Marco Polo – could travel in safety. *Khans* were known for allowing religious freedom, introducing policies and laws that were ahead of their time.

HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

14.1

SECTION

In this section you will:

» identify the extent and geographical features of the Mongol homeland
» describe the features of Mongol nomadic life
» describe key political and economic features of Mongol society
» describe the life of Temujin (Genghis Khan)
» outline the organisation of Genghis Khan's Mongol army

CHECKPOINT 14.1

WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION?

14.2

SECTION

In this section you will:

» describe the impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East
» locate the extent of the Mongol conquests and expansion across Asia and Europe
» describe the impact of Mongol rule on Chinese social structure
» explain the cultural and religious consequences of Mongol rule in China
» explain how and why life in China changed under Mongol rule
» describe the Mongol policies used in governing their empire including laws and taxes
» describe how the Mongols treated conquered peoples
» describe and assess the significance of Mongol expansion
» assess the reign and contributions of Kublai Khan to the Chinese empire and the wider world

CHECKPOINT 14.2

MONGOL EXPANSION – A TIMELINE

Source 14.3
A recreation of a Mongol cavalry charge

TIMELINE

1206
Genghis Khan becomes ruler of all Mongol tribes, marking the beginning of the Mongol Empire.

1218
Mongol forces capture the capital of the Khwarezm Empire in central Asia.

1229
Ogodei, son of Genghis, becomes Great Khan.

1237
Mongol forces begin their attacks on Russia and Eastern Europe.

1180 1200 1210 1220 1230 1240

1185
Temujin (later known as Genghis Khan) becomes leader of his Mongol tribe at the age of 18.

1215
Mongol forces invade the Jin Dynasty capital Zhongdu (the site of Beijing).

1227
Genghis Khan dies.

1241
Mongol forces invade Poland and Hungary. They reach the most western point of their empire in Austria, before Ogodei's death in the same year.

Source 14.2
An artist's impression of Genghis Khan

Source 14.4
Mongke Khan, who was responsible for the continued growth of the Mongol Empire

1251
Mongke, grandson of Genghis, becomes Great Khan. Mongol forces move into Tibet, India and the Middle East.

1264
Kublai Khan's rule begins.

1272
Kublai Khan decrees the beginning of the Yuan Dynasty in China..

1274
An attempted invasion of Japan fails.

1275
The merchant traveller Marco Polo is said to arrive in Dadu, the capital of the Yuan Dynasty (now Beijing).

1279
Mongol forces complete the conquest of China, and Kublai becomes emperor of a united China.

1281
A second attempted invasion of Japan fails.

1294
Kublai Khan dies, and the Mongol Empire begins to break down.

c. 1330
After a period of flood and famine in China, outbreaks of disease kill a large number of people over a 10-year period.

1368
The Mongols are driven out of Beijing by Chinese rebels, marking the end of the Yuan Dynasty and the Mongol Empire.

1250 1260 1270 1280 1290 1330 1370

Source 14.5
Yurts (traditional round tents) in modern day Mongolia

REVIEW 14.1

1 List the Mongol *khans* (leaders) mentioned in the timeline, in the order of their rule.
2 Which *khan* ruled for the longer period – Genghis Khan or Kublai Khan?
3 Identify the two cities that were capitals of the Mongol Empire.
4 What was the most westward point of Mongol expansion?
5 How long did the Yuan Dynasty last?
6 How long did the Mongol Empire last?

14.1

SECTION

HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

In this section, you will explore the features of traditional Mongol society and the nomadic lifestyle of its people. Mongol society was influenced by the natural features and climate of the environment in which the people lived. In this harsh environment, a leader emerged who united the tribes, and created an army whose victories would go on to form one of the most powerful empires the world has ever known.

THE MONGOL HOMELANDS AND NOMADIC LIFESTYLE

The Mongols were originally one of several tribes, including the Tatars and the Naimans, who lived on the Eurasian **Steppe**. The steppe is a large area of treeless grassland stretching from Ukraine in Eastern Europe to China (see Source 14.7). It is a land of hot, dry summers where temperatures reach 40° Celsius. In winter, cold winds sweep across the plains, with temperatures as low as −40° Celsius. The soil in this region is poor, and not suitable for agriculture, although there are river valleys that provide a water supply and sheltered areas where trees can grow.

Because of the environment in which they lived, the Mongols were **nomads**. They lived in tribal groups, moving in response to the seasons. They grazed their animals (such as sheep and horses) on the plains during the summer months, and took shelter in the valleys during the winter months. They tamed and rode the wild horses native to the region and hunted wild game. They traded with more settled societies in the south for foods and materials that they could not make, grow or find themselves, such as grain and metals for weapons. They lived in large, circular tents – called *gers* or ***yurts*** – that could be taken apart and moved from season to season (see Source 14.8). Inside these portable homes, carpets covered the floor, while a hole (which could be capped in bad weather) was left at the top to let smoke escape.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

When entering a *yurt* it was considered a bad omen if you tripped over the threshold (the bottom of the entranceway). One Mongol *khan* employed two guards with sticks to beat visitors if they stumbled over the tent entrance.

Source 14.6 The Mongolian Eurasian Steppe today

The Mongol homelands and nomadic lifestyle

SOURCE STUDY

Source 14.7 The extent of the Eastern Eurasian Steppe and the Mongol homelands

Source 14.8 Yurts are still used by Mongols today

INTERPRET 14.1

1 Use the scale in Source 14.7 to estimate the size, in square kilometres, of the Eastern Eurasian Steppe. Conduct research to find the land area of both Australia and New South Wales, then write a statement that compares the size of these territories to the steppe.

2 Source 14.7 includes the boundaries of modern-day countries. Use an atlas to identify the countries close to the Mongol homelands.

3 Examine Source 14.8 (and Source 14.6). Refer to these sources to explain how climate and natural features of the Mongol homeland influenced the lifestyle of the early Mongols.

Mongol clans and tribes

The Mongols lived in **clans**, which were groups of several families with a mutually accepted leader. The clans were part of much bigger tribes, each of which had a chief. Although the chief was chosen on merit, not heredity, this did not mean that anyone could become chief. The tribes had their noble families from which a leader would be expected to emerge. The chief of all the Mongols was called the *khan*.

Mongol nomads measured their wealth by the number of sheep and horses they owned and would raid neighbouring clans to increase their wealth by stealing livestock. There were often feuds between clans and families that might run for many years, so the Mongols were rarely united. Warriors often moved from clan to clan, swearing new allegiances to the men most likely to protect their families and make them rich. It was the custom to marry outside one's clan. To avoid paying a **brideprice** (money a young man's family would pay to the family of his bride-to-be) women were often taken in raids.

Source 14.9 A shaman performs a ceremony on a mountain top in western Mongolia

The Mongol's use of animals

The animals that Mongols kept provided for most of a clan's needs. Horses were used for transport, for hunting, and for herding their flocks of sheep and goats. Female horses (mares) provided milk, which was the Mongol's main source of nutrition. They used the milk to make yoghurt and cheese, and a popular fermented drink known as *qumis*. Sheep and goats provided skin and wool for clothing, bones for arrowheads, wool to make felt for *yurts*, meat, milk and cheese, as well as dung to burn for cooking and heating. Camels and oxen were used as transport animals, pulling carts full of goods or belongings as the Mongols travelled in their seasonal migrations.

Religious beliefs

The Mongols did not have one fixed code of religious belief. The most ancient of their practices was **shamanism**, a form of ancestor worship. Shamans, who could be male or female, were holy people who were believed to have special powers to communicate with ancestral spirits. Shamans had an honoured placed in Mongol society. Their role was to speak with the spirits on behalf of the people, bless the herds and young children, and prophesy (foretell) the future. This was done by burning the shoulder blade of a sheep and examining the cracks that resulted. They also had practical knowledge of their environment, such as creating medicines from local plants.

As their empire expanded, Mongols were willing to embrace beliefs from other cultures. Some adopted Buddhism, a religion that originated in India and was practiced in China. Some converted to Islam, from encounters with Muslim merchants from Persia. Some Mongol tribes practised an early version of Christianity called Nestorianism.

EXTEND 14.1

1 Other societies also believed that religious figures, like the shamans, could prophesy the future. Investigate methods used, from ancient times to the modern day, to predict the future.

Social roles in Mongol society

Each Mongol man was the head of his own family, which could consist of several wives and many children. With men often away herding flocks or fighting with other clans, women were responsible for much of the day-to-day work. This included milking and looking after the livestock, making felt for yurts, and household chores, such as cooking and sewing.

Although men were regarded as the natural leaders in Mongol society, Mongol women held a strong social position and could have great influence in their clans. Women were seen to possess wisdom, so it was common for men to have older wives to advise and guide them. It was considered unmanly if a husband did not listen to his wife. Women sometimes received military training, and at times fought beside the men in battle. Mongol women could also be shamans. Genghis Khan (whose birth name was Temujin), the first great Mongol leader and founder of the Mongol Empire, is said to have listened to the advice given by his wife, Yesui. When she advised him to choose a successor in case he was injured or killed in battle, he is reported to have said, 'Even though she is only a woman, what Yesui says is quite right.' Temujin's mother also had a great influence over him.

Source 14.10 Female archers from Mongolia taking part in a *Naadam* – a traditional games festival.

Animals in Mongol society

SOURCE STUDY

Source 14.11 Milking goats in Mongolia

Source 14.12 A woman shearing a goat in Inner Mongolia, China

Source 14.13 Cooking a goat in a *yurt*

Source 14.14 Mongolian women riding a bull cart during the summer migration

INTERPRET 14.2

1 Sources 14.11 to 14.14 are recent images taken in Inner Mongolia, now part of China. Using your observations of the sources, information in the text, and your own research, create a graphic organiser to summarise the various ways that animals were and are used by Mongolian tribes. Include sketches or other images in your graphic organiser.

2 What do these images of life in Mongolia today reveal about continuity and change in Mongol society?

The role of women in Mongol society

Source 14.15

> Girls and women ride and gallop as skilfully as men. We even saw them carrying quivers and bows, and the women can ride horses for as long as the men; they have shorter stirrups, handle horses very well, and mind all the property. The Tartar [the name many Europeans gave to all Mongol peoples] women make everything: skin clothes, shoes, leggings, and everything made of leather. They drive carts and repair them, they load camels, and are quick and vigorous in all their tasks. They all wear trousers, and some of them shoot just like men.

A description of the skills of Mongol women from *The Story of the Mongols Whom We Call the Tartars*, Giovani DiPlano Carpini (1245), translation by Erik Hildinger, Branden Publishing Company, Boston, 1996

INTERPRET 14.3

1 Is Source 14.15 a primary or secondary source? Explain why.

2 List the skills Mongol women had, according to the source.

APPLY 14.1

1 In a group, investigate one aspect of the Mongol's traditional nomadic lifestyle, such as food and diet, clothing, housing, family life, marriage customs and burial practices, and tasks involved in looking after animals. Present the results of your group's investigation to the class in a creative way. Share your group's information and sources with the class.

REVIEW 14.2

1 Explain why the Mongols followed a nomadic lifestyle instead of settling down on farms.

2 Explain the meaning of the following terms: *ger*, *qumis*, shaman, *Naadam*, *khan*.

3 How would you describe the Mongols' attitude towards religion or spiritual matters?

4 Describe the role of women in Mongol society.

THE RISE OF TEMUJIN (GENGHIS KHAN)

The Mongol Empire grew out of the leadership of a great ruler known as Temujin – who later took the title of Genghis Khan. Under his rule, the tribes united and began expanding their territory. Within 100 years, this territory would grow to become the largest continuous land-based empire in human history.

Temujin's childhood

Temujin's father was Yesugei, a minor Mongol clan leader. Yesugei was poisoned by a neighbouring **Tatar** tribe when Temujin was only nine years old. Despite his youth, Temujin succeeded his father as clan leader, being the eldest of his five sons. Yesugei's followers did not support the young leader. To survive, his mother Ho'elun took her young family to the upper reaches of the river Onon, between the steppe and the forest. There they lived in poverty, eating berries, roots, birds and mice.

When Temujin reached his teens, other Mongol clans became aware that he had leadership qualities. Perhaps fearful of his potential – and what he might do to avenge the treatment of his family – one group abducted him and carried him off to their camp. He was put in a *cangue* (a large wooden collar, to which his hands were tied) and displayed in a cage (see Source 14.16). He was fortunate that one of the clan members took pity on him. He removed the *cangue* and hid Temujin in a cart, covered with a pile of wool. When searchers came, they drove their spears into the pile of wool, narrowly missing Temujin. His rescuer then gave him a horse and some food, which allowed him to make his way home.

Source 14.16 A prisoner in a *cangue*, from a 19th-century photograph

The rise of Temujin

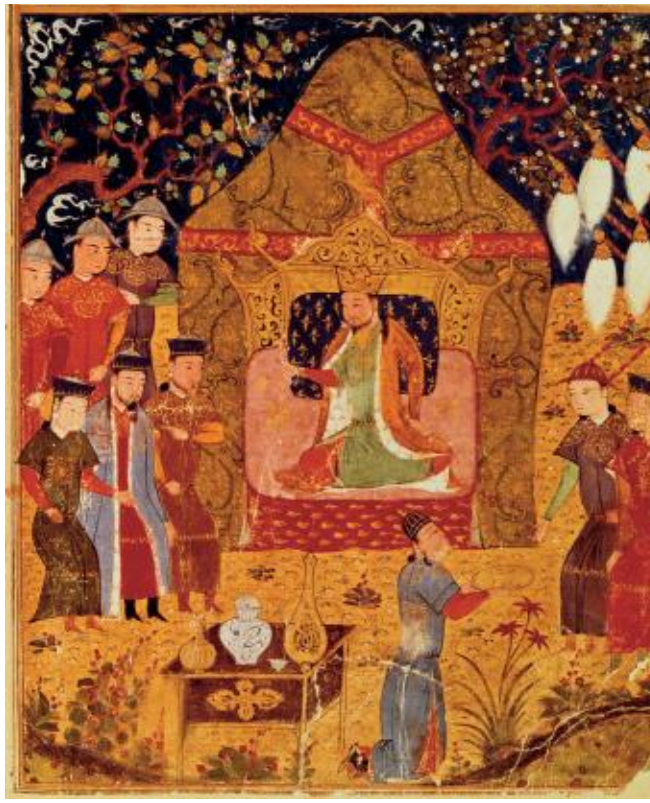
As Temujin grew, he gained a reputation as a warrior and began to recruit followers. He believed that he had survived his life of misfortunes because he was destined for greatness. He had the support of influential shamans. One shaman claimed to have ascended into heaven in a trance, bringing back a message from the supreme god: Temujin and his sons would one day rule the whole world! When he was about 18, Temujin was chosen as the *khan* of his tribe. He immediately began to organise and train his army, dividing them into heavy and light cavalry and making them into a strong fighting force.

Source 14.17 A re-enactment of a Mongol army battle

To increase his power, Temujin also created alliances with other clans and tribal groups. He joined forces with the Kerait tribe. Their *khan*, Toghrul, had been a blood brother of Yesugei. Together, they launched attacks on Tatar groups. They were supported by the Jin Dynasty of northern China, who felt that the Tatars were becoming too powerful. In 1202, Temujin's well trained and disciplined army defeated the Tatars, even though his forces were outnumbered. They killed and captured thousands. Tartar women and young boys were taken into slavery, and every male Tatar who stood taller than the axle of a wagon was put to death.

In the summer of 1204, Temujin rode west to meet the forces of the Naiman tribe. Also fighting against Temujin was a childhood friend named Jamuka, who had once been his 'blood brother'. At this battle, Temujin was heavily outnumbered, but again the superior organisation of his army ensured their victory. Jamuka escaped from the battlefield with a few followers and hid in the Tannu Mountains where, in 1205, he was betrayed to Temujin and was executed. Jamuka's betrayers had hoped for a reward, but Temujin prized loyalty above all, so he had the men executed for their disloyalty to Jamuka.

Temujin also fell out with Toghrul, who also felt threatened by the younger man's rise. When Temujin attacked Toghrul's camp the older man fled, dying shortly after.



Source 14.18 A 14th-century illustration of Genghis Khan in his tent, at the time he was declared the supreme leader in 1206

The rule of Temujin as Genghis Khan

The way now lay open for Temujin to assume control of all the Mongol tribes. In 1206, a great council (a *kuriltai*) was summoned. Tens of thousands of Mongols attended the council, held beneath the sacred mountain at the source of the river Onon. They chose Temujin as their *khan*. He was now the leader of a united Mongol nation. As part of the ceremony, the Mongols gave Temujin the title 'Genghis Khan', a name meaning 'Oceanic Ruler of the Universe' or 'Universal Ruler'. (The Mongol people believed that at the dawn of time the world had emerged at the centre of four oceans. They used the word 'ocean' to express the idea of a universe.) Genghis Khan was now the ruler of about one million people, with a territory the size of Western Europe. But not content with this, he began the expansion of his empire.

EXTEND 14.2

1 Imagine you are a journalist, sent to cover the election of Temujin as the new *khan*. As a good journalist you should investigate more about his background: How did he find his wife? Is it true that he murdered his half-brother when he was only eleven? Write a news article after researching more about Temujin's 'shady' past.

REVIEW 14.3

1 In your notebook, match the historical figure in the first column with the appropriate description in the second.

Person	Who was this person?
Ho'elun	father of Temujin
Toghrul	a 'blood brother' of Temujin who fought against him
Jamuka	A 'blood brother' of Temujin's father who fought with him, then later fled from him
Yesugei	mother of Temujin

2 Use a storyboard to retell one of the episodes in Genghis Khan's childhood or rise to power.

3 What abilities or qualities did Genghis Khan have that led to his rise as the leader of the Mongol nation?

THE MONGOL ARMY

The Mongol army fought on horseback. It had no **infantry** (foot soldiers). All male Mongols under the age of sixty were expected to perform military service. This allowed the Mongols to have large armies. However, their victories were not the result of the size of the armies, but of their military organisation and discipline, and their skills as horsemen.

The organisation of the Mongol army

Genghis Khan used the decimal system to organise groups of Mongol warriors into units that were multiples of ten:

- the army was made up of large fighting units known as *tumen*, consisting of 10 000 members
- each *tumen* was then broken into *minghan*, with each unit having 1000 members
- each *minghan* was then broken into *zuut*, each of which had 100 members
- finally, each *zuut* was broken into *arav*, each of which had 10 members.

In this way, warriors from different tribes were unified into fighting groups that were not based on tribal loyalties. Instead, each soldier's loyalty was to his military unit, and beyond that, to the house of Genghis Khan.

Before he became the supreme Mongol leader, Genghis Khan had a personal guard made up of his most faithful supporters. This group now became an imperial guard known as the *keshig*. In 1206, the imperial guard was 10 000 strong. Recruits came from all tribes, and membership was regarded as a great honour. The imperial guard also provided Genghis Khan with people he could trust to organise and administer his empire. Later, members of the *keshig* became the basis of the Mongol Empire's ruling class.

Mongol weapons and fighting tactics

The army itself was divided into two sections: the light **cavalry** and the heavy cavalry. The light cavalry consisted mainly of archers. Members of the heavy cavalry carried battle axes and hooked lances (poles), used for dragging opponents from their saddles. Some in the heavy cavalry also carried a sword, a leather-covered wooden shield and a lasso.

Archers in the light cavalry carried bows made of animal sinew on a wooden frame. Some claim they were more powerful than any of the bows found in Western Europe. The Mongols could bend and string their bows in the saddle and shoot in any direction at full gallop. They were trained to release their arrows so that the jolt of their horses' hooves did not affect their aim.

In battle, the light cavalry galloped backwards and forwards in front of the enemy, showering them with arrows. Once the enemy had been reduced to chaos by the casualties, the light cavalry broke away on both flanks, and the heavy cavalry charged through the centre to deliver the final blow. Another favourite tactic was to attack, then pretend to retreat in order to draw the enemy forward into a trap – an arc of waiting archers.

Source 14.19 An archer at the annual Nadaam games in Mongolia

APPLY 14.2

1 Create a diagram to outline the organisation of the Mongol army.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

To help train his army units to work together, Genghis introduced the Great Hunt. Mongol horsemen formed a line across the steppe 130 kilometres long, which moved forward, driving all wild animals – rabbits, wolves, wild boar, bears and even tigers – before them. During the hunt, no animal was to be killed, and no animal was allowed to escape. On the final day of the hunt, Genghis' warriors fought and killed some of the trapped animals to show their bravery and hunting skills, some using arrows or swords, and others using only their bare hands.

The life of a Mongol horseman

The basic uniform of all Mongol horsemen consisted of baggy trousers and long coats known as *kalats*, which were lined with fur in winter. They also wore high, laced-up leather boots and conical caps with thick fur brims. On the march, every horseman carried a large waterproof hide saddlebag that could be inflated into a crude lifejacket for crossing rivers. As well as weapons, they were required to carry a water bottle, cooking pot, food supplies and tools for repairing weapons and horse harnesses. Wherever possible, they rode brood mares (female horses used for breeding) so they could drink their milk. Their high-protein diet of meat, milk and yoghurt would have ensured the strength and health of each Mongol warrior.

Each man had three or four horses. When marching to battle, this meant that soldiers could change mounts regularly. By eating in the saddle (or pausing briefly to slit the leg of a weak horse and drink its blood) a Mongol horseman could cover nearly 130 kilometres a day.

Mongol weapons and fighting tactics

SOURCE STUDY

Source 14.20 A recreation of a Mongol cavalry charge to mark the 800th anniversary of the founding of the Mongol nation by Genghis Khan in 1206

Source 14.21 Detail from the 800th anniversary celebrations of the founding of the Mongol nation

INTERPRET 14.4

1. Describe the weapons, equipment and clothing worn by Mongol warriors, as shown in the recreated battle scenes shown in Sources 14.20 and 14.21
2. Read the text section on Mongol weapons and fighting tactics and examine the sources here. Do they depict heavy or light cavalry riders? Explain your reasoning.
3. Which Mongol battle tactic do you think Source 14.20 is showing?

REVIEW 14.4

1. In which skills did Mongol warriors need to be expert?
2. Describe the tactic used by combined light and heavy cavalry forces that often brought victory to the Mongol armies.
3. Why were the Mongol armies able to cover large distances quickly?

14.1

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Identify the extent and geographical features of the Mongol homeland

1 On a blank map of Europe and Asia, mark the areas of the Eurasian steppe and the homelands of the Mongol tribes within this area. (2 marks)

2 Describe the climate and natural features of the Mongol homelands, including images with detailed captions to illustrate your response. (5 marks)

» Describe the features of Mongol nomadic life

3 Explain why the Mongol tribes developed a nomadic lifestyle and describe its main features. (4 marks)

4 Describe a typical day for a Mongol family. Include information about housing, food and meals, and daily activities. Use sources from the text or research conducted by the class that illustrates aspects of traditional life that continues in modern-day Mongolia. (8 marks)

Source 14.22 A young girl performs a traditional dance in her family's yurt as her mother prepares milk tea.

5 Describe the different ways animals are used for food and other resources in Mongol society. (5 marks)

» Describe key political and economic features of Mongol society

6 Explain how Mongol society was organised, and the basis on which leaders were chosen. (2 marks)

7 How was wealth measured in Mongol society, and how did this affect contacts within the society? (2 marks)

8 How did Mongols obtains goods that they did not produce themselves? List the type of goods they traded. (5 marks)

» Describe the life of Temujin (Genghis Khan)

9 Describe key events in:

a the early the life of Temujin

b the rise to power of Temujin, leading to his rule of all the Mongol tribes. (8 marks)

» Outline the organisation of Genghis Khan's Mongol army

10 Outline how the Mongol army was organised under Genghis Khan, and the advantages of this arrangement. (2 marks)

11 Explain how Mongol warriors fought, including weapons that they commonly used. (5 marks)

12 What were some of the battle tactics used successfully by Mongol armies? (2 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

The *Naadam* festival – continuing military traditions in Mongolia

Each summer in Mongolia, a festival known as *Naadam* celebrates Mongolia's military traditions, particularly the skills of wrestling, archery and horseracing. *Naadam* means 'three manly games', although the competitions for archery and horseracing are open to males and females.

The tradition of *Naadam* is thought to have started in the 13th century, when Genghis Khan used the games as a form of celebration at the end of successful military campaigns. *Nadaam* has now been formalised into a modern competition, where teams from all over the country compete for a place at the finals that are held in Ulan Batar. The day of this event is a national holiday.

The *Naadam* today follows many historic traditions. Competitors wear traditional costumes to compete in. For example, wrestlers are all dressed in leather boots, open-front jackets and briefs, all embroidered with traditional patterns. Archers compete wearing the traditional Mongolian silk robe. Before each race, the child jockeys, aged 7 to 12, gather on horseback to sing the *Giigoo*, a folksong that encourages their horses to run well.

1 Prepare and deliver a 5-minute audiovisual presentation on the *Naadam* in Mongolia today. Your presentation should focus on each of the 'three manly games'. In particular you should explore elements of continuity and change for each activity. Your presentation should be well researched and based on relevant and reliable sources. Use the following questions to guide you:

- **a** What is the link between the three activities in the 'three manly games' and 13th-century Mongol society?
- **b** Who participates in each of these activities?
- **c** Why are these three activities still considered important today?

Source 14.23 Boy jockeys race horses at the *Nadaam*

In this Rich Task, you will be applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Research
- Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

14.2 WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION?

SECTION

In this section you will learn how only a few years after becoming Mongol leader, Genghis Khan began his conquest of other lands. He gained control of China and a large area that stretched over much of Central Asia, the Middle East and Eastern Europe. We will also examine the role of the successors of Genghis and the impact of Mongol rule on China and the world.

EXPANSION OF THE MONGOL EMPIRE

Having united the Mongol tribes into a nation, Genghis Khan faced two problems. First, a large and organised army was required. If so many warriors were left to manage themselves, there was the risk that they would go back to being separate, quarrelling tribes again. Second, there was the attitude of the neighbouring Chin Empire in northern China to consider. The Chin had for a long time held great influence over life on the steppe by never allowing any one tribe to grow too large and become a threat to them. Now that Genghis Khan had united the Mongols, the Chin would try to destroy him – if he did not destroy them first.

Mongol expansion into China under Genghis Kahn

At the beginning of the 13th century, China was a divided country. In the north lay the Jin Dynasty, the Tangut Xia Dynasty ruled in the north-west, and the Song Dynasty in the south. In 1209, Genghis Khan first launched the Mongol army on the Tangut Xia Dynasty, whose rulers came from a semi-nomadic people known as the Tanguts. The Tanguts commanded a strong army and were protected by walled cities. These types of defences were new to the Mongols and they had to develop new warfare tactics to deal with them. They learned to invade fortified towns by building ramps and siege machines such as catapults.

Source 14.24 The Panmen Gate, part of the ancient city walls of Suzhou, is an example of the fortifications that the Mongols faced in their conquest of China.

The policy of the Mongols was to spare any city that surrendered and did not attempt to fight. Those who resisted could expect no mercy – the men would be slaughtered, and women and children killed or enslaved. To avoid the complete destruction of his army and capital, the Tangut Xia emperor agreed to provide Genghis with herds of camels, flocks of hunting falcons, carts overflowing with silk, an annual tribute payment and one of his daughters as an extra wife. Content with these terms, the Mongols withdrew and Genghis planned the next stage of his campaign.

In March 1211, Genghis marched east with around 65 000 horsemen to begin his war against the Jin emperor. Against him, the Jin emperor could call on 500 000 infantry and 150 000 cavalry. By the summer of 1212, the Mongols reached the plain outside Zhongdu (modern Beijing). The wall surrounding it was almost 30 kilometres long and 12 metres high, and included 900 towers. In the winters of 1212 and 1213, Genghis was forced to withdraw to rest his army after failing to take the city by siege. Despite these failures, the Mongols had become increasingly skilled at siege craft. In 1215, the Mongols finally captured and destroyed Zhongdu, though the Jin emperor had already moved to Kaifeng in the south. The conquest of China was not complete, but Genghis Khan now turned his attention elsewhere. Leaving his top general in China with instructions to conquer all of the Jin lands, Genghis returned to the steppe. Most of the Jin territory was conquered by 1216, although resistance by the Jin continued until 1234.

Genghis looks to the west

Genghis Khan now set his sights on the Khwarezm Empire – a large territory in the western part of Central Asia. In 1218, the Khwarezm had made a trade treaty with Genghis, as they both controlled traffic along the important east-west trade routes. However, the Khwarezm became suspicious of Mongol intentions, killing their ambassador and sending his head back to the *khan*. Genghis immediately moved to take revenge. He gathered one of his largest invasion forces, 200 000 strong. The Khwarezm could call upon an army of 500 000 Turks and Persian auxiliaries, but they were ill-trained and inexperienced. The Khwarezm capital at Samarkand was captured in March 1220. Following his defeat, the Khwarezm leader fled, leaving his son to continue the war. The Mongol army marched through Khwarezm territories to find and capture the new leader, flattening cities and killing everyone within. It has been estimated that over four million men, women and children were killed.

In the spring of 1223, Genghis Khan left Samarkand and moved back to the steppes, where he spent almost two years hunting and resting. In 1226, now nearly 60 years old, he returned to fighting, to stop a Tangut Xia revolt against Mongol rule. On this campaign, he fell ill and died in 1227 while laying siege to the Tangut Xia capital.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

One ingenious weapon used by the Chinese was a bomb launched by catapult into a city. These bombs were made with gunpowder, powdered human excrement and the crushed remains of poisonous beetles. It is said that the powdered excrement formed a noxious cloud when it exploded, while the toxin from the beetles caused blistering to the skin.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Just before his death, Genghis Khan is said to have told his sons, 'Life is short. I could not conquer all the world. You will have to do it.'

Source 14.25 The extent of the Mongol Empire at the time of Genghis Khan's death in 1227, and the extent of the empire under his successors during the 13th century.

SOURCE STUDY

The changing nature of Mongol warfare

Source 14.26
Manuscript illustration of Mongols besieging a city using a catapult. The round objects in the bottom left corner are most likely ceramic bombs containing naphtha

Source 14.27

As the Mongols chalked up victory after victory, they readily adapted any weapon or method of attack which was an improvement on their own. The catapult and the cataphract (a heavily armoured catapult) are two examples of this. The use of flaming naphtha (a flammable liquid) hurled into a walled city is another.

The art of the siege was unknown to the Mongols when Genghis Khan was forming his empire. His warriors quickly learned it when they invaded China. They also used prisoners of war, forcing their captives to lead parties storming the walls of a besieged city. In the capture of Nishapur in Khurasan, the heart of Muslim power in the east, the Mongols made effective use of prisoners taken in preceding battles. The prisoners were forced to build siege engines at the walls of the city under heavy fire from the city's defenders. Then these same captives were driven ahead of the Mongols, assaulting the city's walls. Nishapur fell to the Mongols in less than a month.

Extract from Robert Webb, *Genghis Khan: Conqueror of the Medieval World*, Franklin Watts, 1967

INTERPRET 14.5

1 Which siege weapons did the Mongols learn to use, according to Source 14.27?
2 How did Mongols make use of prisoners of war?
3 Describe the weapons, clothing and armour of the opposing soldiers in Source 14.26.
4 Does the evidence provided in Source 14.26 agree with the writing in Source 14.27?

Mongol expansion under Ogedei Khan

Before his death, Genghis Khan had divided the Mongol Empire into four regions or *khanates*. Three sections were given to his sons Ogodei, Chagatai and Tolu. The fourth was given to the family of his eldest son, Jochi, who had recently died. On Genghis Khan's death, Ogodei became Great Khan. Under his leadership, the empire continued to expand.

One of the main achievements of Ogodei's reign was the conquest of Russia and Eastern Europe. A series of Mongol campaigns against the Russians between 1237 and 1240 started with an assault against the Bulgars on the Volga River. This assault was led by Ogodei's nephew Batu. In 1241, the Mongols went on to invade Eastern Europe in a two-pronged attack. A smaller part of the Mongol force attacked through Poland and headed towards eastern Germany. It defeated a combined European army in 1241 at Liegnitz. The larger Mongol army attacked Hungary and crushed the Hungarian army at the river Sajo. The Mongols continued their advance to the west as far as Austria. At this point they seemed on the verge of conquering all of Western Europe. However, in December 1241 the Great Khan Ogedei died in Mongolia. Batu Khan withdrew, concerned about the succession, and the Mongols never again returned to Europe in force.

In the end, Batu Khan was to rule an area that became known as the Golden Horde, with his capital as Sarai on the Volga River. From there the Mongols supervised the Russian lands, until their influence in Eastern Europe declined in the mid-14th century.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Mongols captured thousands of prisoners in Eastern Europe. Rather than having to feed and transport them back to Mongolia, they were offered to the Italians, who sold them to slave traders in Cairo. This arrangement continued for two centuries; the Italians provided the Mongols with European goods in exchange for Slavic slaves.

Mongol expansion under Mongke Khan

After the death of Ogedei in 1241, there followed an unsettled period of Mongol civil war during which family members struggled for supremacy. In 1251, Genghis's grandson Mongke was elected Great Khan. Under his leadership, the Mongol forces pushed into Tibet, India and parts of the Middle East – eventually reaching the Egyptian border. In the 1250s, the Mongol army attacked and conquered the city of Baghdad and moved into Palestine. At the same time, Mongke renewed the assault on southern China, but died during a siege in Sichuan in 1259. Mongke was succeeded by his brother Kublai Khan, the man who was destined to become the first Mongol Emperor of China, and known to the western world through the writings of the traveller and explorer Marco Polo. His rule was to last from 1264 until 1294.

Source 14.28 An illustration from a 1353 manuscript shows the battle in Liegnitz in 1241 in which the Mongols defeated the combined forces of Poles, Czechs and Germans

REVIEW 14.5

1 Which Chinese dynasty did Genghis Khan attack first?
2 Explain why and how the Mongol army changed their methods of warfare.
3 Where was the Khwarezm Empire located, in relation to the Mongol homelands?
4 What is a *khanate*?
5 Which territories were added to the Mongol Empire under the rule of:
   a Ogedei Khan
   b Mongke Khan.

Source 14.29 Kublai Khan, founder of the Yuan Dynasty of China

CHINA UNDER MONGOL RULE

Almost immediately after taking power, Kublai Khan continued the conquest of southern China, ruled by the Song Dynasty emperor. His army took the Song capital, Hangzhou, in 1276, and wiped out the remainder of any resistance in 1279. Kublai Khan now controlled all of China and founded a new imperial dynasty, known as the Yuan Dynasty. He had abandoned the old capital of Karakorum for a capital further south, in China, which grew to become the city of Beijing. He named it *Dadu,* meaning 'great capital'.

EXTEND 14.3

1 Kublai also established a summer capital further north in Manchuria, called Shang-du (Xanadu in English). Conduct research to find descriptions of Xanadu, known in folklore as a place of luxury and splendour. Find modern references or uses of the Xanadu legend in music and literature.

SOURCE STUDY

City life in southern China

Source 14.30 A portion of the panoramic painting *Along the River during the Qingming Festival*

Song Dynasty China before Mongol rule

Under the Song Dynasty, which ruled southern China from 960 to 1279, people lived in a stable society. In the fertile river valleys around the Yangtze River, agriculture flourished, aided by a system of irrigation canals that had been developed by several emperors over time. It was a society that was becoming increasingly prosperous. Farmers were able to produce a surplus of rice, which allowed them to grow other crops or make crafts for sale in the markets.

China was primarily an agricultural society and most people lived and worked in small farming villages. However, there was also a growing urban society. In towns and cities, such as Kaifeng and the Song capital of Hanzhou, residents enjoyed the pleasures of urban life (see Source 14.30). There was a thriving trade within China, and with countries as far away as India and Arabia. Chinese merchants travelled along the **Silk Road** to sell goods such as silk, tea and porcelain in exchange for horses and camels, spices, exotic woods, gold, silver and precious stones.

1. Two women consult a pharmacist
2. A scholar in a travellers hat rides a horse
3. A toy seller carries toys on a wooden back frame.
4. Two men draw water from a well
5. A group outside a pawn shop
6. A man selling religious figurines under umbrellas
7. Donkeys pull a cart with barrels of wine
8. A scholar talking to a Buddhist monk with shaved head
9. The sign outside this building reads *Liu Family Shop for Fine Sandalwood Furniture*

The panoramic painting known as *Along the River during the Qingming Festival* was created sometime in the 12th century by the artist Zhang Zedan. Over five metres long, it shows a city in Southern China, probably based on Kaifeng, and the surrounding countryside during the spring festival. Although it leaves out aspects of a city scene such as beggars and filth, it provides a lively portrayal of what life in 12th-century China would have been like. Source 14.30 is a section of the painting, showing the scene at a busy crossroads in the city.

INTERPRET 14.6

1. Using the labels and your own observations, describe the scene shown in Source 14.30. Try to identify details such as people from different social groups and occupations, clothing styles, activities.
2. Use a Venn diagram to compare everyday life in a Chinese city with life on the Mongolian steppes. Then write a paragraph that summarises your observations on this topic.

Traditional Chinese society

China's social order was structured according to the writings of Confucius (*c.* 551–479 BC). Confucius was a philosopher who developed a code of behaviour that influenced almost every aspect of life in Chinese society. At the top of the social order were the emperor and imperial family. Next came the scholar-gentry (the educated government officials), then the peasant farmers who were valued for their hard work and role as food producers. Next in line were the artisans and craftsmen, who were valued for creating useful goods. Lowest in terms of social status, although not in wealth, were the merchants. Education was highly valued in Confucianism, and in Chinese society. The scholar-gentry were selected for government posts after rigorous examinations, which were open to men only.

Women had a lower social position in traditional society than men. They were expected to be obedient to their fathers and husbands. The practice of foot binding for women, which reflected this subordinate role, began during the Song Dynasty. From a young age, girls from wealthy families endured the painful process of having their feet tightly wrapped. Over the years, their feet would remain small and deformed, producing the 'lotus feet' that men and women considered a sign of beauty that would help the girls to marry well.

Source 14.31
A 17th-century painting of an emperor consulting with scholars

APPLY 14.3

1 Conduct research to find out the key values of Confucianism, and write a short report to outline how this philosophy influenced Chinese society.

Cultural achievements during the Song Dynasty

The Song Dynasty was a time of significant cultural achievements, particularly in literature and the arts. Printing had been invented in the earlier Tang Dynasty (618–906), which made the writings of poets, novelists and philosophers more readily available. Chinese artists during the Song Dynasty were inspired by the landscape and the natural world. Artisans had developed techniques to make fine porcelain that was highly valued in other societies.

Impact of Mongol rule in China

From the time he declared himself emperor of a new Chinese ruling dynasty, Kublai Khan lived the life of a Chinese emperor and adopted Chinese ways. He dressed as a Chinese emperor and learned to perform the religious rites expected of an emperor. His treatment of southern China was different from the way *khans* had usually treated conquered peoples. Kublai appreciated the importance of agriculture and city life and there was a minimum of destruction. He established what he called 'pacification committees' round the country to rebuild and restore farmland, roads and local temples that had been destroyed in the conflict. Southern Chinese landowners were left in possession of their estates, a move that ensured their continuing loyalty to the new regime.

APPLY 14.4

1 Conduct research to find out more about the role of women in Chinese society. Compare this to the status and role of women in Mongol society, and suggest why Mongol women did not adopt the practice of foot binding.

Impact on Chinese society

The Mongols created their own hierarchy in China, with themselves at the top as the rulers. In conquered territory in Persia, which had a stable society and a well-established government system like China, the Persian officials continued to administer the land under Mongol rule. Kublai refused to appoint Chinese to the highest offices in China, but he did keep lower level civil servants. In the new social ranking of the Yuan Dynasty, he placed Mongols in almost all of the highest positions of responsibility. Second were officials from other parts of the empire: Persians, Georgians, Armenians and other trusted vassals. The Jin of northern China came third, with the Song or southern China in the lowest tier.

Mongols appreciated the importance of trade, and merchants were held in higher regard than they had been previously when the scholar-gentry were a dominant influence in society. Kublai also valued the skill of artisans. Under his rule, they enjoyed a higher social status and their taxes were reduced. The distinctive style of blue-and-white porcelain came from the Yuan Dynasty period.

To support the peasant farmers (and the taxes they contributed to the empire), Kublai built grain stores in case of poor harvests, and set their taxes at a fixed rate. Kublai also organised peasants into farming units or cooperatives of 50 families, supervised by an appointed leader. This system had some benefits, such as farming efficiencies and organised support to families in need. However many peasants resented this change. They were also unhappy with the burden placed on peasants who had to provide their labour to construct Kublai's grand projects, such as public works and buildings in the capital and the extension of the Grand Canal, which was to become the longest artificial waterway in the world.

Cultural consequences of Mongol rule in China

Chinese civilisation and culture continued during the Yuan Dynasty. Literature flourished, possibly because the scholar-gentry class had been excluded from government posts. These highly educated Chinese looked for other outlets for their abilities, as writers, painters and calligraphers.

Kublai Khan enjoyed drama, and playwrights produced at least 500 new plays during his reign. Traditionally, performers such as actors, dancers, singers and musicians had a very low status in China. To show his regard for artists, Kublai created new theatre districts and encouraged writers to write in the local language of the people rather than in the formal classical style in traditional writing. A new style of drama known as *Yuan Zaju* became popular, which combined singing, poetry and acrobatics. Other art forms, such as landscape painting and porcelain making, also flourished in the Yuan period.

Religious consequences of Mongol rule

Kublai was to make his capital a centre of international trade, and he welcomed merchants and diplomats from around the world. To serve the religious needs of the population, Muslim imams, Buddhist monks, Christian priests and Jewish rabbis moved to the city and opened houses of worship. He kept the tradition, established by Genghis Khan, of not taxing members of the clergy. He protected all temples, churches, mosques and synagogues to guarantee full freedom of religion.

APPLY 14.6

1 After 1279, Kublai Khan's main focus was on his rule in China. However, he continued to add territories to his *khanate*. Conduct research to find out about his conquests and create a presentation that includes key events and dates and peoples conquered.
2 Conduct research on a significant failure of the Mongol to expand their territory – their attempted invasions of Japan. Explain why the Mongols were unsuccessful even though Kublai was able to assemble tens of thousands of soldiers and hundreds of ships.

REVIEW 14.6

1 What were the names of Kublai's capital cities?
2 Identify differences in the natural features of southern China and the Mongolian homelands.
3 List, in order of status, the social groups in traditional Chinese society.
4 Which group lost their role in government during the rule of Kublai?
5 Explain the measures put in place by Kublai to support the peasants.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The popular Chinese saying 'scholars the ninth and beggars the tenth' comes from a belief of this social ranking of ten classes during the Yuan Dynasty: government officials, functionaries (bureaucrats), Buddhist monks, Daoist priests, doctors, engineers, artisans, prostitutes, scholars and beggars. It is more recently considered a myth created by people critical of Mongol rule.

APPLY 14.5

1 Prepare a presentation on cultural achievements (literature, painting, porcelain making and textiles) in China during the Yuan dynasty.

Source 14.32 This example of Yuan porcelain is typical of the delicate work produced during the rule of Kublai Khan.

GOVERNMENT AND LAW ACROSS THE MONGOL EMPIRE

Genghis Khan's task was to make one nation out of a collection of tribes, not all of whom were Mongol. Therefore, he turned his attention to creating the laws that would govern his new empire and all the people in it.

Unified laws – the *Yasa*

Before Genghis Kahn united the Mongol clans, there was no single set of laws governing all the clans. After he became the *khan*, he created a set of laws that would apply across all the lands he controlled, whether in the Mongolian homelands or in his expanding empire. This legal system was known as the ***Yasa***.

- Seizing a wife by abduction, or by buying or selling a woman, was illegal.
- All children, whether born of a wife or a concubine, were to be considered legitimate.
- No Mongol could enslave another Mongol.
- The theft of livestock would be punishable by death.
- Hunting was forbidden from March to October when animals were breeding, and a hunter should only kill what he needed for food.
- The clergy or religious men of all religions were exempted from taxation or army service. These exemptions were later extended to doctors, lawyers, teachers, scholars and undertakers.

Source 14.33 Some of the laws imposed under Genghis Khan's rule

Communication and safer travel across the empire – the *yam*

Genghis Khan and his successors also developed a complex communications system called the *yam*. This involved setting up a series of staging posts every forty kilometres (the distance that a good horse could gallop without needing to rest). Each post was guarded by at least 10 men, and provided food and fresh horses for the couriers. Couriers wore thick leather belts covered with bells to alert the guards of an approaching rider, so that horses were saddled and ready for a quick changeover. With this system, messages could be carried from one side of the empire to another at a rate of 200 kilometres per day.

Soon, the guarded paths of the *khan*'s couriers became commercial routes for travelling merchants, and the staging posts became safe overnight shelters. Genghis' successors even planted trees along the routes to give shade to travellers in the hot summers. In the second half of the 12th century, European ambassadors and merchants travelling east reported with awe that unescorted travellers were safer in the *khan*'s empire than in any other kingdom on earth. It was commonly said that 'a maiden bearing a nugget of gold on her head could wander safely throughout the realm.'

Introduction of taxation

After his defeat of the Jin Dynasty, Genghis Khan selected a former Jin minister as one of his key advisors. This minister created an effective and efficient administration system that included a taxation system for everyone living in the empire. Whenever a new territory was taken over, a *darugha* (a person in charge of taxes and administration of a province within the empire) was appointed (see Source 14.34). He usually imposed taxes of 1 per cent on herds, and up to 5 per cent on commercial transactions. Before the formation of the Mongol Empire, members of Mongol tribal groups were not required to pay taxes to the *khan*, so this was a significant change to traditional Mongol government.

Source 14.34 An artist's impression of a Mongol *darugha* in a Russian city

Treatment of conquered peoples

The conquered people were always at the service of the Mongols. Men might be conscripted for the army, skilled professionals and artisans could be sent to Karakorum to serve the *khan*, and women could be taken to become concubines of high-ranking Mongols. On the other hand, the *khans* were tolerant of the customs and religions of conquered peoples. The governor of a province usually appointed judges and other government officials from within the local population. Although the Mongols collected taxes from the conquered peoples, they rarely interfered with local laws and customs. In fact, after the Mongol conquest, Jews in Christian lands or Christians in Muslim countries could find that they enjoyed more religious freedom than under previous rulers. This approach helped to ensure the support of many different religious groups in the empire. Many of the invading Mongols themselves adopted the religious beliefs and practices of the people they conquered. In the eastern *khanates*, for example, Buddhism flourished; in the western *khanates*, Islam became the dominant religion.

Other features of Mongol government

All existing and new territories also had to submit to a regular census, so the *khan* would know the number of people living in the various parts of his empire. Genghis Khan abolished inherited aristocratic titles so that leaders would be selected for their abilities, and he granted diplomatic immunity to foreign ambassadors.

Under the rule of Ogedei, new regulations were introduced to encourage trade across the empire. These included the standardisation of weights and measures and the introduction of paper money (an idea borrowed from the Chinese), which was easier to carry on longer journeys than gold and silver.

APPLY 14.7

1. Suggest which of the new laws listed in Source 14.33 were directed at preventing the fighting that was once common between Mongol tribes and clans.
2. Discuss why people in some occupations were exempt from taxation.

SOURCE STUDY

Mongol treatment of conquered peoples

Source 14.35

> Mongke brought new vigour to the ... task of striving for universal domination. He started with a flurry of reforms and plans for expansion. The two went together: renewed conquests would unite his divided people, but only if they stopped working for themselves and worked together; this required the exercise of authority, on the basis on an accurate account of available resources. So there would be a census...covering the whole empire. This vast project was undertaken during the 1250s...enumerating peoples, towns, animals, fields and raw materials from the Pacific coast to the Baltic...There would be a head tax...paid in cash, an agricultural tax paid in kind and a commercial tax on businesses. The census also told Mongke's secretariat the potential size of his armed forces, and identified in every region households with young men available for military service.

Extract from John Man, *Kublai Khan: The Mongol king who remade China*, Bantam Press 2006, pp. 34–35

Source 14.36

> ...Kublai remained something of a religious chameleon. His personal preference was for [a version of] Buddhism...But his own faith normally remained a private matter – itself an unusual state of affairs when religion led to more wars than any other cause. Such toleration was a boon when it came to ruling the Great Khan's diverse domains. The Confucian elite of China regarded him as the righteous upholder of their ancient cultural system. To Buddhists he appeared as .. the Boddhisattva of Wisdom, while to Christians...Kublai Khan always seemed to be on the point of converting to their faith. For their part, Muslims saw the Great Khan as a wise and normally respectful protector...

Extract from David Nicolle, *The Mongol Warlords*, Firebird Books 1990 pp. 94 and 99

INTERPRET 14.7

1. According to Source 14.35, what was the purpose of the census taken of the Mongol empire in the 1250s?
2. What advantages and disadvantages could this census have for people in conquered territories?
3. Why was Kublai Khan's attitude to religion unusual for his times, according to Source 14.36?
4. What were the advantages of the *khan*'s tolerance for different religions in the Mongol empire for the *khans*, and for conquered peoples?
5. What do these sources tell us about the approach of the *khans* in governing their empires?

REVIEW 14.7

1. What was the purpose of:
   - **a** the *Yasa*?
   - **b** the *yam*?
   - **c** the appointment of a *darugha*?
2. Why do you think the Mongols conducted a census in the lands they conquered?

THE LEGACY OF THE MONGOL EMPIRE

As we have seen, the Mongols had a great impact on the regions they conquered. As well as their obvious impact as conquering warriors, they were also responsible for the expansion of trade and the exchange of ideas and culture that came with it.

End of Mongol rule in China

In 1281, Kublai's favourite wife Chabi died. Four years later, his son and heir Zhenjin also died. Overwhelmed by grief, Kublai began overeating and drinking heavily and became enormously overweight. On 18 February 1294, at the age of 80, Kublai died and was succeeded by his grandson Temur. None of Kublai's successors had his abilities, however, and his death was followed by times of civil war. This weakening of control was made worse by a series of natural disasters. Extensive flooding of the Yellow River did great damage to crops and caused widespread famine. From the 1330s, China was devastated by outbreaks of disease, including a major outbreak of plague in 1353-4 that killed enormous numbers of people. (The plague spread to the west where it became known as the Black Death.)

As a result, peasant uprisings broke out across China, and in 1368 one of the rebel leaders marched north with his followers, driving out the Mongol *khan* of the time, Toghan Temur. The Mongols were forced out of Dadu in 1368 and the Yuan dynasty, after 96 years of existence, was no more. The rebel leader, Zhu Yuanzhang, became the first emperor of the new Ming Dynasty. Surviving members of the Yuan dynasty fled to Mongolia. The Mongols who remained in China were either killed or absorbed into the population.

The significance of Mongol expansion

The Mongols are remembered as fierce fighters whose arrival terrified their opponents. There is no doubt that Mongol armies killed millions of people during their campaigns and, in this respect, the Mongol conquests were a disaster on a grand scale. Historians disagree about how many people were victims of the Mongols – certainly millions, perhaps as high as 40 million. Yet one aspect of this military prowess that endures is that the tactics of Genghis Khan have remained a subject of study in military circles even today.

The impact of Mongol rule across the empire

As we have seen, Genghis Khan and his successors founded dynasties that ruled different parts of the world for centuries. Mongols who had settled in the *khanates* adopted the way of life and religious beliefs in these regions. About 30 years before the Yuan dynasty was driven out of China, the Mongols in Persia and neighbouring territories, descendants of Kublai's brother Hulegu, had lost power. The small number of Mongols who had made their home in these regions were absorbed into the larger population.

In Central Asia, most Mongols returned to their former nomadic life on the steppe. But a Mongol power base developed in the cities of Bukara and Samarkand where Mongol settlers converted to Islam and adopted the language and many of the customs of the Turks.

From their capital at Serai on the lower Volga River (where the modern city of Volgograd now is) the people of the Golden Horde ruled Russia and modern-day Ukraine for more than 200 years. In India, Mongol descendants founded the great Mughul dynasty.

In Asia, their most significant influence was to give China a political unity that it has not lost. It owes its present-day borders to Kublai's conquests of regions that were not traditionally Chinese: in Manchuria, Tibet and Mongolia.

EXTEND 14.4

1 Conduct research to find the meaning of the phrase 'Mandate of Heaven' in traditional Chinese society. Use this information to explain why peasant uprisings broke out in the 14th century and led to the change of dynasties.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Mongol descendent Babur established the Mughal dynasty in India in the early 16th century which lasted until the 19th century when India came under the control of Britain. The word 'mogul' came into the English language to mean a wealthy Indian, and has since come to mean a powerful person in the media industry.

APPLY 14.8

1 Choose one of the regions of the Mongol Empire and conduct research to create a timeline of key events and significant individuals during its time under Mongol rule. Include events that explain how and why the influence of the Mongols declined in these regions, and when Mongol rule ceased in the chosen region.

The impact of the Mongol empire on trade

The Mongols enhanced and protected trade routes stretching from the Chinese seaboard to the fringes of Europe. They encouraged the journeys of merchants and other travellers, helping to spread knowledge and trade in the medieval world. As they extended their empire across Asia, the Middle East and into Europe, the Mongols established world trade on a level not seen since the days of the Roman Empire.

APPLY 14.9

1 Conduct research to list areas where knowledge and ideas spread to Europe from Islamic and Asian civilisation as a consequence of Mongol expansion, such as in the areas of art, science, mathematics, technologies and commerce.

The impact of the Mongol Empire on Europe

Under the protection of their Mongol overlords, intellectuals, artisans and merchants were able to travel freely across the empire. The result was an exchange of ideas and cultures between East and West. Advances in Europeans' knowledge of science, mathematics and new technologies, came from these contacts with the Islamic and Chinese civilisations. This included military technologies such as gunpowder and canons.

European contact with the Mongol Empire brought Europe out of its isolated view of the world. The writings of travellers such as Marco Polo and William of Rubruck helped to develop an interest in the learning and wealth of the East. People in Europe developed an insatiable appetite for goods from the East such as silks, spices and porcelain. This inspired Columbus and other explorers to set sail during the Age of Exploration, seeking a fast route to eastern markets, as well as knowledge about the unknown parts of the world. Their voyages would lead to European colonisation of new continents, contributing to the development of the modern world.

SOURCE STUDY

The significance of Mongol expansion

Source 14.37 Trade routes linking East to West

Source 14.38

The Mongol threat had woken Europe from its ignorant isolation...the teachings of Moslem mathematicians and their translations of the Greek philosophers had reached Europe through Moslem Spain, and similarly the work of their artists and scientists had been introduced to Europeans...When these seeds became to flower among a newly inquisitive people, they led to a renaissance [a revival of interest in classical learning and culture]...

Extract from James Chambers, *The Devils's Horsemen: The Mongol invasion of Europe*, Cassell Publishers Ltd, 1988, pp.198–199

Source 14.39

Unlike the masters of other great empires, the Mongols contributed little to the civilisations that came after them...they had altered the course of history and they had left it scarred. Russia was torn away from Europe, and when the Mongols abandoned it after two hundred years it was feudal and backward. Poland and Hungary were so devastated they never emerged to play their part in the renaissance that followed the west...The lands that once nurtured the great civilisations of the Persians...never recovered.

Extract from James Chambers, *The Devils's Horsemen: The Mongol invasion of Europe*, Cassell Publishers Ltd, 1988, pp.201–202

Source 14.41 Medieval traders unsuspectingly carried the source of plague to the West – rats infested with plague-carrying lice.

Source 14.40

From the Mongol period on, then, we can speak about a Eurasian — if not a global — history, in which developments in one part of Europe would have an impact not only in Europe but also in Asia, with the same being true for Asia. And if we remember that Christopher Columbus was actually looking for a new route to Asia when he landed in America — and that one of the few books he had with him was Marco Polo's account of his travels in Asia — we could even say that global history begins with the Mongols and the bridge they built between the East and the West.

Extract from 'The Mongols in World History' on the Columbia University website *Asian Topics in World History*

INTERPRET 14.8

1 Examine Source 14.37 and list your observations about the location of the Mongol Empire and world trade routes in the medieval world.
2 Many historians now agree that the 14th-century plague known as the Black Death spread along these trade routes. Suggest the routes by which infected people and animals could have spread the plague from China and Mongolia to Europe.
3 Read Sources 14.38 to 14.40 and use a table to summarise the positive and negative impacts of Mongol expansion, according to these writers. Conduct research to find a range of perspectives about the significance of Mongol expansion, and add these to your table.

REVIEW 14.8

1 How long did the Yuan Dynasty last?
2 What was the main legacy of Mongol rule for China?
3 In what ways did the Mongols advance the exchange of ideas and cultures between East and West. Why was this significant?
4 Create a table with two columns. In one column, list the benefits brought about by the existence of the Mongol empire. In the other column, list the costs or disadvantages of the existence of the Mongol empire.

APPLY 14.10

1 Debate this statement: 'The Mongol Empire was a disaster for the world'.

14.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION?

» Describe the impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East

1 On a blank map of Europe and Asia, mark the extent of Mongol expansion under Genghis Khan. (5 marks)

2 What consequences did Genghis' rule of united Mongol tribes and then the expansion of his empire have on Asia and the Middle East? (5 marks)

» Locate the extent of the Mongol conquests and expansion across Asia and Europe

3 On the same map used for question 1, mark the extent of Mongol expansion during the 13th century. (2 marks)

4 In your notebook, copy and complete the table below to outline the territories and peoples that were attacked or conquered by Mongol armies, under the rule of these *khans*. (8 marks)

The expansion of the Mongol Empire under the great *khans*

Genghis Khan	Ogodei Khan	Mongke Khan	Kublai Khan

» Describe the impact of Mongol rule on Chinese social structure

5 Outline key aspects of society in Song Dynasty China. In what ways did it differ from traditional Mongolian society? (10 marks)

6 What was the status of southern Chinese people under Kublai Khan, compared to other peoples in the Mongol Empire? (5 marks)

7 How was the status of different groups in traditional Chinese society affected under Kublai Khan? (5 marks)

» Explain the cultural and religious consequences of Mongol rule in China

8 What was Kublai Khan's attitude to these features of Chinese society, and what were the consequences of his influence?

- **a** the arts
- **b** religious beliefs (5 marks)

9 How did Kublai Khan influence writing and literature? (2 marks)

» Explain how and why life in China changed under Mongol rule

10 In what ways did life change, or remain unchanged, for people in these social groups in China:

- **a** the scholar-gentry
- **b** merchants
- **c** artisans
- **d** peasant farmers. (8 marks)

» Describe the Mongol policies used in governing their empire including laws and taxes

11 Name and describe the set of laws introduced by Genghis Khan. Where were they applied? (10 marks)

12 Describe the system known as the *yam*. What was its purpose, and what were the results of this system? (5 marks)

13 Describe the taxes introduced by the *khans*. Which groups were exempt from paying taxes or had their taxes reduced? (5 marks)

» Describe how the Mongols treated conquered peoples

14 Describe the Mongols' treatment of conquered peoples across their empire. In your response, refer to sources that provide evidence or perspectives on their:

- use of people from conquered territories to govern the empire, and serve the *khan* or fight for the Mongol army.
- tolerance of local customs and religions
- use of a census in administering the empire. (10 marks)

» Describe and assess the significance of Mongol expansion

15 How significant was the Mongol Empire's contribution to:

- the development of trade and commerce in the medieval world?
- the spread of the 14th-century plague known as the Black Death?
- European knowledge?

In your response, refer to sources that support your assessment. (10 marks)

» Assess the reign and contributions of Kublai Khan to the Chinese empire and the wider world

16 How did Kublai Khan's conquests contribute to the way China's borders were defined after his reign? Suggest how the world would be different today if Kublai Khan had failed to conquer southern China and other territories in the region. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

Marco Polo – traveller or fraud?

Marco Polo was born in Venice in 1254. His father and uncle were merchants, and according to Marco they were welcomed at the court of Kublai Khan in 1260 and spent several years in China. On their second journey to China in 1275, they were accompanied by Marco. According to his book *The Travels of Marco Polo*, the Khan kept him in his service for 17 years.

In recent years, historians have questioned his claims. In 2011, archaeologist Daniele Petrella agreed with the view that Marco Polo never reached China, but picked up stories about China, Japan and the Mongol Empire from Persian merchants whom he had met. Historian Frances Wood has proposed that Marco Polo copied an early book about China written by Persian merchants, and passed it off as his own experiences. A mystery still remains – did Marco Polo reach the Mongol Empire or was he a fraud with a talent for making up stories?

1 Conduct research about the life and writings of Marco Polo, and the views of historians about the accuracy of his accounts. Keep a record of the sources you have used in your investigation.

a Present arguments for and against Marco Polo, as if he were on trial accused of being a fraud for claiming to have travelled to and worked in the Mongol empire.

b What would your final verdict be?

Women with influence

1 The Great Khans were greatly influenced by the women in their lives, their wives and mothers. Conduct research to write a short report on the lives and influence of important women such as Genghis Khan's wife Yesui or Kublai Khan's mother Sorkaktani and his wife Chabi.

In this Rich Task, you will be applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

Source 15.1 Black rats carried the plague germ in their bloodstream. Fleas fed on the rats' blood then passed the disease on to people through flea bites.

15

THE BLACK DEATH IN ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA

During the 14th century, a deadly outbreak of bubonic plague known as the **Black Death** spread across Asia, Europe and Africa. Scientists and historians now believe that merchants returning home from the East introduced the disease to Europe in 1347. Within three years, it had spread across most of Asia, Europe and into North Africa. A lack of medical knowledge, filthy living conditions, superstitions and fear helped the disease to spread quickly. In Europe alone, 25 million people – one-third of the population – died of the Black Death. People infected with the bubonic plague died horrible deaths. No-one at this time knew what caused the plague, or how to cure it.

WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE 14TH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE?

15.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» locate the extent of human settlements in 14th-century Asia, Europe and Africa
» describe the daily life of men, women and children in the 14th century
» describe life expectancy at this time
» describe what doctors understood about diseases and their treatment in the 14th century
» outline what people in Europe believed about religion and the power of God in the 14th century
» outline the extent of trade between Europe and Asia in the 14th century

CHECKPOINT 15.1

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD?

15.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» explain how trade and travel contributed to the outbreak and spread of the Black Death
» describe the causes and symptoms of the Black Death
» use sources to identify common treatments of the disease and discuss their effectiveness
» outline responses of different groups in society to the spread of the disease

CHECKPOINT 15.2

WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH?

15.3 SECTION

In this section you will:

» assess the impact of the Black Death on Asian, European and African societies
» discuss different interpretations of the Black Death's impact on European society
» describe the short-term and long-term effects of the Black Death on medieval societies
» assess the role of the Black Death in breaking down the feudal system in Europe

CHECKPOINT 15.3

THE BLACK DEATH – A TIMELINE

Source 15.3
A section of a medieval painting called *Danse Macabre* (or Dance of Death)

TIMELINE

1330 — 1340

1330
Widespread famine and the Black Death breaks out in north-eastern China over the decade

1346
The Black Death reaches the trading city of Kaffa on the Black Sea; Genoan merchants return to Sicily, spreading the disease

1347
Genoan merchants on their return journey to Sicily spread the Black Death to Constantinople and Cyprus, and from there to the Italian peninsula; it reaches Venice as well as Alexandria in Egypt

Source 15.2
A rat flea of the kind that was responsible for the spread of the Black Death

REVIEW 15.1

1. Where did the Black Death first break out?
2. In what year did the Black Death reach Sicily, its entry point in Europe, and how long did it take to reach England?
3. How many continents were affected by the Black Death?
4. Using the timeline, calculate how long the Black Death epidemic lasted in Europe during the 14th century.

Source 15.4
Detail from *The Dance of Death*, a painting by Johannes de Castuo c. 1490, shows a victim of the Black Death being escorted to an open coffin by skeletons.

1348

The Black Death reaches the French cities of Marseilles and Paris, then moves to England; it moves along the Rhine River and into modern-day Belgium, the Netherlands and Luxembourg; there are outbreaks in Tunis, Cairo and Gaza; the flagellant movement gains popularity; serious persecution of Jews starts

1350

The Black Death has largely run its course in the countries around the Mediterranean Sea

1353

35 million die from the Black Death in China since 1330s

1350 — 1381

1349

Widespread persecution of Jews, with thousands burned to death; the Black Death reaches Aswan in Egypt and the entire Islamic world is now affected

1351

The Statute of Labourers is introduced, making it illegal for employers to increase workers' wages; the Black Death reaches Russia

1381

The Peasants' Revolt in England marks the beginning of the end of feudalism

Source 15.5
An artist's impression of the death of Wat Tyler, the leader of the Peasants' Revolt

15.1 WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE 14TH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE?

SECTION

In this section you will learn how and why the Black Death spread across Asia, Europe and Africa during the 14th century. In order to do this, it is necessary to look at the living and working conditions of people in this period. We also look at the religious beliefs of people in Europe, and their understanding of diseases and medical treatments at this time.

ASIAN, EUROPEAN AND AFRICAN SOCIETIES IN THE 14TH CENTURY

The 14th century AD was a time of change for many societies – in China, the Mongol Empire, North Africa, the Middle East and Europe.

Societies in Asia

The expansion of the Mongol Empire across Asia between the early 13th century and mid-14th century had significant impacts on the societies that it conquered. The Mongols introduced positive changes, such as religious freedom. They also helped to keep travellers safe on the network of trade routes known as the Silk Road. This increased contact and trade among societies in the East and West. Not all elements of Mongol rule in Asia were quite so positive though. Their conquests of new regions often resulted in the deaths of many people and disrupted vital activities such as farming and food production. In addition to this, a series of civil wars and natural disasters across Asia led to crop failures in the early 1330s. This in turn caused widespread famine across the region. Weakened and malnourished, many people were no match for the plague outbreak that followed.

Source 15.6 A re-enactment of a 13th-century Mongol army expedition on the steppes of Asia

APPLY 15.1

1 Refer to Source 0.1 in Overview Part 4. Under each of the headings *Asia*, *Europe* and *Africa*, write a paragraph that identifies the empires or peoples who ruled territories in these parts of the world in the medieval period.

Societies in Africa

Most of what is known about social and economic conditions in Africa in the 14th century relates to North Africa, including Egypt. In this period, a number of powerful Islamic nations were dominant – the Mamluk Sultanate of Egypt and powerful dynasties across North Africa. Despite conflicts between these nations, sea trade and commerce thrived. Port cities along the north coast of Africa, such as Tunis and Tripoli, traded with European societies, particularly those on the Italian peninsula. There were also busy trade routes between Alexandria in Egypt and Constantinople, as well as other ports around the Black Sea. When the Black Death broke out, all these trade routes and centres helped it to spread.

APPLY 15.2

1 Why do you think medieval peasants, working under the feudal system, might have been attracted to town life?

Societies in Europe

Source 15.7 A medieval illustration of serfs harvesting grain in a lord's manor fields

From the 10th century onwards, the system of **feudalism** that had organised society and provided protection and stability began to weaken. **Barbarian** raids that had taken place in Europe from around AD 500 to 1000 had largely ended by the middle of the 11th century. Many towns and cities were growing quickly. By the early 13th century, there were about 600 cities in Europe – three times as many as 50 years earlier. New ideas and products brought back to Europe from the holy wars, known as the **Crusades**, between the 10th and 12th centuries also had an impact on the rapid growth of towns and cities. It led to a large increase in trade with societies across Asia and Africa. The resulting increase in prosperity led to a large increase in the birth rate, as well as extremely overcrowded and unhealthy living conditions.

Farming methods had remained inefficient and farmers struggled to grow enough food to feed the growing population. From around 1250 onwards, the weather also became unusually cold and wet. This caused a series of crop failures that led to a number of famines across Europe. Many people died of starvation. Just like those living in Asia and Africa, the people of Europe were not prepared for what they were to face with the first outbreak of the Black Death.

Historical evidence on the Black Death

One of the difficulties in studying the spread and the impact of the Black Death in Asia and Africa during the 14th century is that very few detailed sources of evidence are available. Written records have either been lost over time or have not yet been analysed by historians in the West. By contrast, many sources of evidence relating to Europe are available. In countries such as England and Italy, local authorities and members of the church kept records of births and deaths, as well as **census** information. Artists, poets and writers also recorded their experiences of the period, which are available to Western historians. Given that much more research and analysis has been carried out on the effects of the Black Death across Europe, this chapter will largely focus on the experiences of the people there.

REVIEW 15.2

1 What were the positive and negative effects of Mongol conquest in Asia?
2 Which were some of the trading routes between North Africa and Europe?
3 What factors led to the growth of towns and cities in medieval Europe?

DAILY LIFE IN THE 14TH CENTURY

Living conditions across Europe during the 14th century were often very harsh. A population boom in the 11th century led to an increase in the number of people living in towns and cities. For this reason, there was a great deal of competition for food and accommodation.

Living conditions in towns and cities

Medieval towns and cities were noisy, crowded places. At the centre of many towns there was a marketplace where goods were bought and sold. One might hear animals bleating, the clatter of cart wheels, the cries of merchants as they carried out their trade, and the yells of children.

SOURCE STUDY

Life in cities and towns

Source 15.8 An artist's impression of a street scene in 14th-century London

Source 15.9 A modern street scene in the Chester Rows, Britain, showing buildings that date from the 13th century

INTERPRET 15.1

1 Describe the activities that you can see in the street scenes shown in 15.8 and 15.9.
2 List the changes and continuities in street life from medieval to modern times.

The dirty streets

The streets in medieval towns were dirty and smelly. Each day, household rubbish and the contents of chamber pots (used for going to the toilet) were tossed onto the street because there was no sewerage system. Rotting food scraps and sewage typically blocked the drains. It was common to see animals such as pigs and chickens roaming the streets and alleyways. The smell of animal manure and human waste was constant, and the streets were the perfect environment for rats, mice and insects. Narrow stone or dirt streets separated the rows of wooden buildings with thatched or shingled roofs. These building materials made most structures in a town a major fire risk.

People living in medieval towns and cities included both the very wealthy and the very poor. Rich people might live in castles or manor houses on the outskirts of towns, or in tall, impressive homes in the town centre. Homes for the poor in medieval towns were often just one or two rooms in one of the shabby multi-storeyed buildings clustered around a market area. Many of these buildings were joined together, similar to the way modern apartment blocks are connected.

Family businesses were usually run from the ground level (which often had a dirt floor). Floors on upper levels were often covered with straw. Over time, this floor covering became a stinking squashed mat of rotting food, bones, bodily wastes and grease. Bathing was not seen as a daily routine in those days. In fact, some people thought that washing was bad for their health! The poor and rich alike lived with lice and fleas and scurrying rats. From our point of view today, it seems hard to believe that people would live in these conditions.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1321, a court case was brought against two men – Thomas at Wytte and William de Hockele – for building latrines (toilets) that stuck out from the walls of houses in a laneway. Human filth from these latrines fell on the heads of the passers-by who were using the lane. The problem was not that this was a health hazard, but that this blocked the use of the lane!

Living conditions in London around the 14th century

SOURCE STUDY

Source 15.10

Concerning dung

No-one is to throw straw, dust, dung, sawdust, nor any other unpleasant material into the streets or lanes. Rather they are to have them removed by the rakers or others to places designated for the dumping of such dirt, under penalty of 2s [2 shillings].

Concerning pigs and cows

No-one is to raise pigs, bulls, or cows within their houses, under penalty of seizure of the same to the Chamber.

Extract from Corporation of London Records Office, Liber Albus, f.213, *c.* early 13th century, translated and reproduced in Henry Thomas Riley, ed. Liber Albus, Rolls Series, no.12, vol.1 (1859), 335.

Source 15.11

Almost all the floors are made of clay and rushes from the marshes, so carelessly removed that the bottom layers sometimes remain for 20 years, keeping there below spittle and vomit and urine of dogs and men, beer that has been thrown down, leftovers of fishes and filth unimaginable ... It would help also if people made the council keep the streets less dirty from filth and urine.

A letter from the Dutch scholar Erasmus to an English doctor (1524), with his ideas to stop plagues.

INTERPRET 15.2

1. What do these sources indicate about the living conditions of people in towns and cities around the 14th century?
2. Comment on how successful the rules laid down by the Corporation of London were, based on Source 15.10.
3. Why do think people continued to live in these unhygienic conditions for such a long period?

Living conditions in the country

For much of the **Middle Ages**, most people in Western Europe lived in small villages and worked the land, growing food crops and raising farm animals such as cattle, goats, pigs and chickens. Farm work was difficult: everything had to be done by hand, and tools were basic. Tools included such devices as sickles and scythes – large, curved, sharp-edged knives used to cut down hay and long grass, and to reap grain crops. People went to bed early and rose with the sun (there were no such things as electric lights then). There was very little time left for leisure.

Source 15.12 An 18th-century painting of farmworkers planting seeds in a field in the 15th century

Houses were small and had dirt floors covered in straw. These houses were usually dirty, smelly and dark, and were often shared with animals such as chickens and pigs. Windows were narrow openings that could be boarded up in winter. The toilet was a hole in the ground outside. Peasants living in the country worked long hours to produce their food, and were often undernourished. This, and the unhealthy living conditions, made them susceptible to many different kinds of illnesses.

Women in 14th century Europe

The social divisions between men and women in medieval society influenced the way people lived. This applied whether people were rich or poor. Women had few opportunities to be other than wives and mothers (or nuns), and had virtually no legal rights. Very few were educated. The lives of most medieval women revolved around their men and families.

In wealthy families, women might spend their free time spinning and weaving (skills learned by almost every girl). If a woman was the wife of a lord, she might supervise some of the workers of the lord's house. She might oversee the work of castle needlewomen, weavers, kitchen staff and young pages while attended by her ladies-in-waiting. A few women (for example, those from wealthy merchant families) might work in commercial businesses with their husbands.

Life for peasant women was difficult. They not only had to serve and obey their husbands and care for their families, but also had to work hard in the fields and homes. Household tasks included spinning and weaving cloth, washing clothes, collecting water from the local well or stream and baking bread.

APPLY 15.3

1 Conduct research to find the latest statistics for life expectancy and infant mortality rates for Australians (Indigenous and non-Indigenous). Write a statement that compares these figures to life expectancy around the 14th century.

Life expectancy

Life expectancy during the 11th and 12th centuries was very low compared to today. Life expectancy in medieval Europe became worse from about 1300 (even before the Black Death) as a result of famine and the dirty, overcrowded living conditions in cities. Infant mortality rates were very high and many people died when they were in their teens or early 20s. Many women died during childbirth, whereas many more males died as children before the age of 10.

Although people commonly lived to be 60 or 70 years old, the early deaths of so many other people meant that the *average* life expectancy was about 35 years for men and 31 years for women. To calculate the average life expectancy of a child who died at 2 years of age and a man who died at 65, add their ages (2 and 65) together and divide by two (the number of people). Their average is therefore 33.5 years.

Source 15.13 This medieval illustration depicts the fate, symbolically, of a great many children in medieval times. Some estimates suggest around half died before the age of five. Death rates were also high for mothers giving birth.

Daily life for women in the 14th century

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 15.3

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 15.14
2 Are the people shown in the source town dwellers or peasant farmers? Explain your reasoning.
3 What evidence does the source provide about the role of men and women in medieval Europe?
4 Write some thought bubbles to show what you think the characters are thinking from a medieval perspective.

Source 15.14 A medieval illustration of women serving their families

REVIEW 15.3

1 Why were towns and cities – especially the poorer parts – such fertile areas for the spread of the plague?
2 Describe a typical day's activities for:
   a a peasant woman
   b the lady of a castle.
3 What was the average life expectancy for a male or a female living in medieval Europe?
4 Why do you think the average life expectancy was lower for women than men?

MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE IN THE 14TH CENTURY

APPLY 15.4

1 Medieval healers often made up potions or herbal remedies from plants they had collected themselves. How are herbs mainly used today? Are they still used for healing purposes?

By today's standards, medieval medical care was very primitive. There were some university-trained doctors in Europe, but only the wealthiest people in society could afford to visit them. Poor people received medical attention from monks or nuns, or older women in the community who were respected for their knowledge of illness and herbal treatments. People relied on herbal and 'folk' medicines handed down through the generations. There were no antibiotics to cure infections, no anaesthetics to stop pain, no X-rays, no vaccinations, no blood transfusions. If you were really ill in the 14th century, you probably died.

Treating the four 'humours'

Doctors believed that sickness was caused when the four basic elements (known as 'humours') that make up the body were out of balance. The four humours were blood, phlegm (mucus), black bile and yellow bile. The purpose of medical treatment was to restore their natural balance in the body. Medical treatments included forcing a patient to vomit, or bringing on severe sweating or diarrhoea. If you were cold or shivering, you could be given something hot to drink, or kept in a warm room. To reduce fevers, a sign that your body was overheated, you could be given cucumber to eat (a 'cooling' vegetable). Or you could be bled because it was believed that too much blood led to excessive heat. Bleeding was done in several ways – by cutting a vein (see Source 15.16), by cupping (done by placing a heated cup over a cut in the skin to draw out a small amount of blood), or by attaching bloodsucking leeches to various parts of the patient's body. This procedure was done in a barber's shop, by the barber-surgeon.

Source 15.15 This illustration, called *The wound man*, was used by many medieval surgeons as a manual or 'procedures guide'.

Surgery in the 14th century

In 1215, a decree from the Pope ruled that priests could not be involved in shedding blood. Surgery and other medical treatments became the responsibilities of barbers, who were presumed to know how to use sharp instruments. In the 14th century – and even up to the 19th century – barber-surgeons performed bloodletting, extracted teeth, set broken bones and amputated (cut off) diseased or damaged limbs.

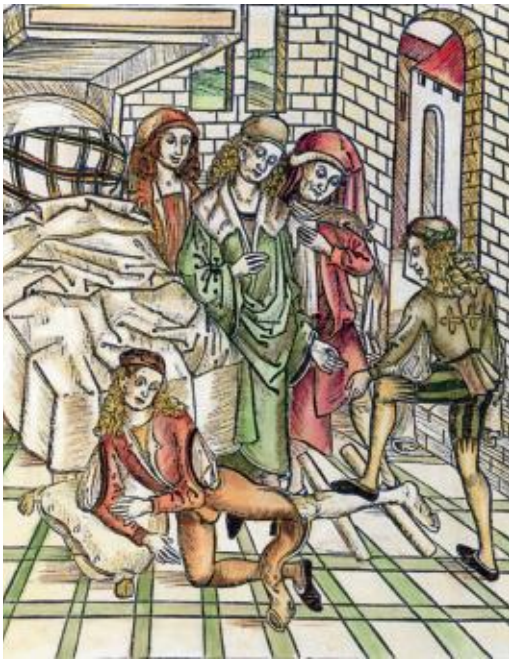
If the patient was to survive a major operation, the surgeon needed strength (to cut through the tissues and bone with his saw) and speed (so that the operation was over quickly before the patient died of shock). Though some surgeons experimented with potions to drug their patients into a kind of sleep, there were no effective anaesthetics. There were also no antiseptics. This means that a patient who did not die of shock or blood loss on the operating table often died of infection afterwards.

Frequent wars during the medieval period gave surgeons plenty of experience in treating wounds. Source 15.15 is the 'wound man', a picture from a medieval book. It shows the wounds that surgeons felt able to treat successfully – presumably as long as the man did not have all the wounds at the same time!

Surgery in the 14th century

SOURCE STUDY

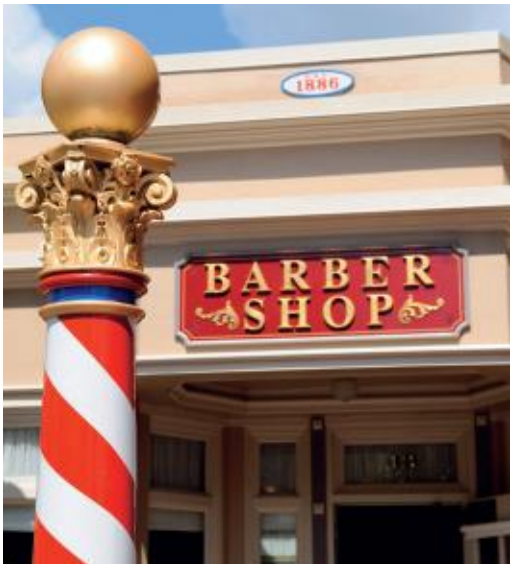
Source 15.16 A 15th-century illustration of blood-letting



Source 15.17 An artist's depiction of a medieval surgeon treating a broken leg

INTERPRET 15.4

1. Describe what is happening in Sources 15.16 and 15.17.
2. Conduct research to find out more details about these medieval treatments and compare your findings to these illustrations. Are the sources accurate?
3. Suggest the likely outcomes for the patients. Explain your reasoning.
4. Write a short story or diary entry based on one of these sources, from the perspective of either the patient or the barber-surgeon.
5. Find out the medical treatment for a fever or a broken leg today and suggest why it has changed since the 14th century.



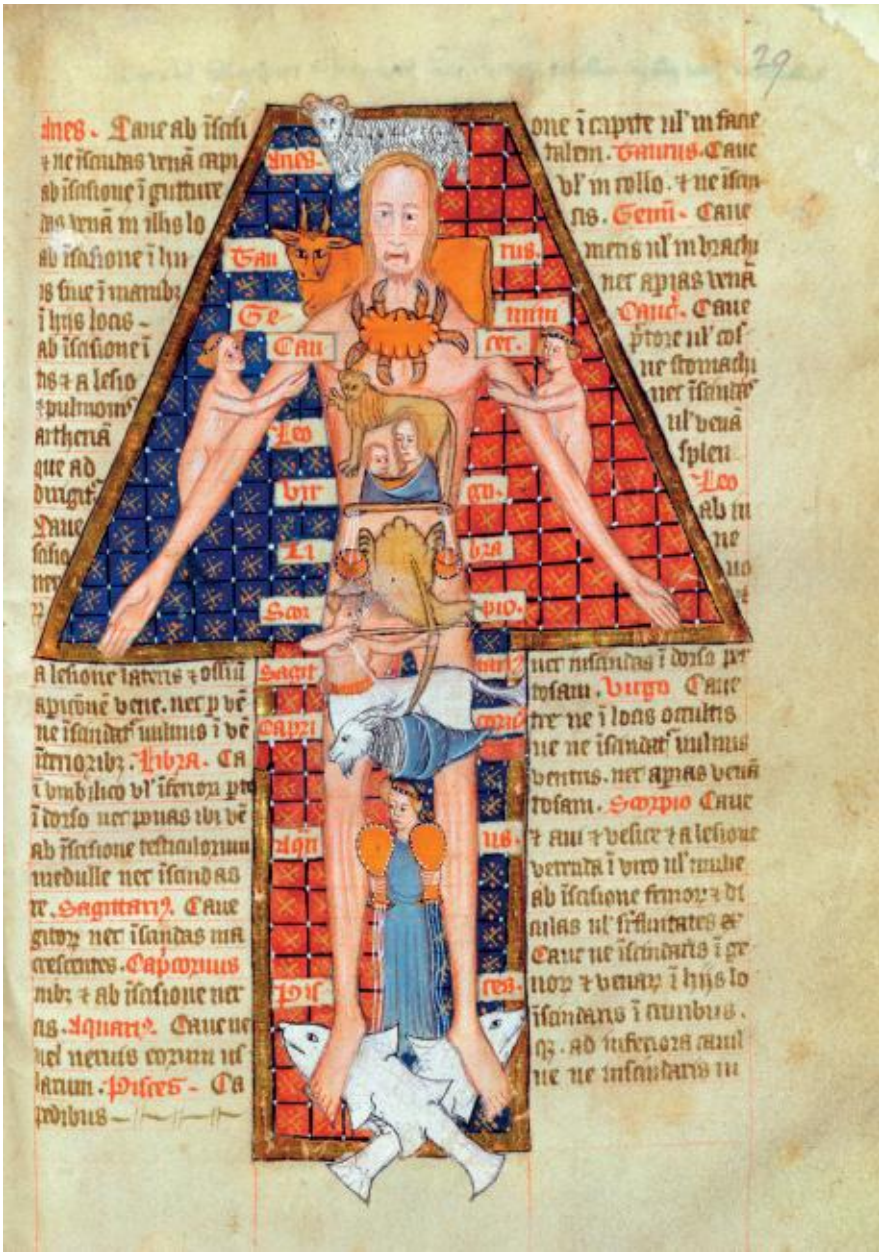
Source 15.18 Barber poles are a reminder of the services barbers provided in earlier times. Poles were used during blood-letting procedures, with a bowl at the top to hold leeches and one at the bottom to catch the blood. Used bandages were often hung out to dry on poles. Over time, the stripes from traditional barber poles came to represent the red bandages stained with blood and the clean, white bandages

Medicine by the stars

Many doctors in medieval times also believed that the moon, stars and planets had a great influence on the health of humans. It was thought that since both the human body and the planets were made up of the same basic elements – earth, air, fire and water – there must be a relationship between them. It was therefore important to know the planets' positions when diagnosing an illness and deciding how to treat it. This was done with the use of a zodiac chart (see Source 15.19). By consulting his zodiac chart a physician could discover which stars or planets was influencing a certain part of the body and choose his treatment accordingly.

EXTEND 15.1

1 Conduct research to find out how a zodiac chart would influence the treatment of disease by doctors in medieval times.



Source 15.19 An illustration of a 'zodiac man' in a manuscript from the 14th century, now kept in the Bodleian Libraries, University of Oxford

REVIEW 15.4

1 Use a graphic organiser to summarise people's understanding of disease in the 14th century and their treatment of diseases as a consequence of these beliefs.
2 How did frequent wars help to develop medieval surgery?
3 Explain why becoming ill in medieval times was an unpleasant experience.

THE POWER OF GOD IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

The Catholic Church, headed by the Pope in the Church's headquarters in Rome, was a powerful body in medieval Europe. Because the authority of the Church was seen to come from God, people regarded it with great fear and respect. Most people in Europe were Christians. Church teachings were therefore widely accepted and followed.

The control of the Church

The Church was important in the lives of medieval Christians from birth to death. People learned from early childhood (through their parents, local priests and others) how the Church expected them to behave, and what they should believe. This, in turn, influenced their day-to-day behaviour. For example, an unbaptised person could not go to heaven, and unmarried couples living together were considered to be sinful. Baptisms, marriages and burial services all happened in a church in medieval Europe.

All these services had to be paid for. By acquiring land and by collecting the tithes (one-tenth of income) and payments from the people, the medieval Church became very wealthy. It did not have to pay taxes.

As head of the Catholic Church, the Pope had great influence and had the power to excommunicate (ban from the Church) sinners. This was a frightening punishment for medieval Christians. Excommunicated people could not go to church, which meant that when they died their souls would end up in hell.

Religious festivals and feasts were held throughout the year, and people's lives typically revolved around the activities of the village or town church. For many, especially those who lived short, miserable lives, the Church's teachings were a great comfort. For those who believed that they might be punished or that hell might be their fate after death, those same teachings would have been a source of fear. Carvings such as the one shown in Source 15.20 were constant reminders of a terrible afterlife to be avoided.

Source 15.20 This scene of demons tormenting souls in hell decorated a wall in Bourges Cathedral, which was built in France in the late 12th century.

REVIEW 15.5

1. How might images such as the carving shown in Source 15.20 have helped to control the behaviour of medieval churchgoers?
2. Why did medieval Christians fear being excommunicated?
3. Name two ways in which the medieval Church acquired wealth.
4. Name three ways in which the Church's teachings or practices helped to influence how people lived their lives.

TRADE BETWEEN EUROPE AND ASIA IN THE 14TH CENTURY

European explorers such as Marco Polo (1254–1324) opened up the Eastern world to Europe. The luxury goods that he and other merchants brought back from Asia included spices, semi-precious stones and silks. Wealthy Europeans wanted more – and they wanted more knowledge about this part of the world. Trade was also beginning to boom between European towns and places such as Constantinople, Damascus and Alexandria. Goods were carried back and forth along a network of land and sea trade routes (see Source 15.22), often to be sold in huge open-air markets.

The Silk Road

Much early medieval trade between West and East took place along the Silk Road. By the mid-1200s, this network of tracks – stretching from China in the east, westwards to the Mediterranean Sea – was controlled by the Mongol Empire. Mongol protection meant safer passage and more reliable delivery of goods. However, merchants looked for new ways to reach markets faster and more cheaply.

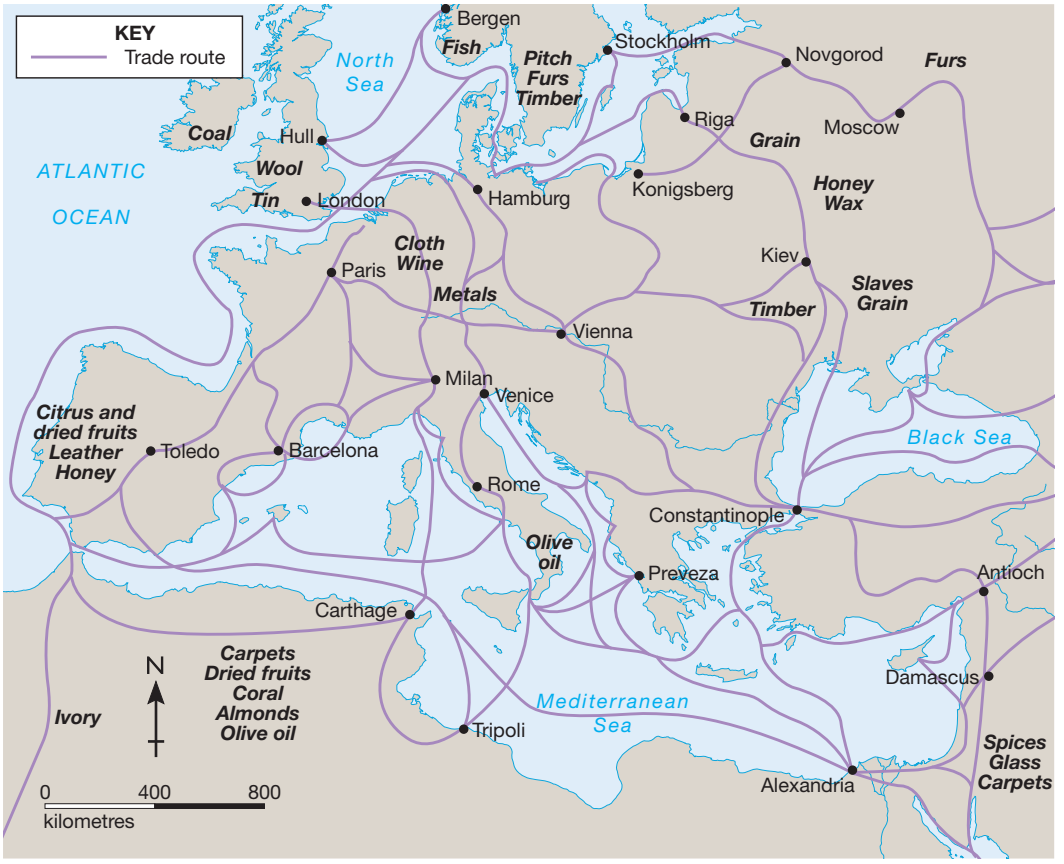
New sea routes

Countries such as Portugal and Spain led the push in Europe to discover new sea routes to eastern markets – and to claim lands in the New World (the Americas). European sailors, starting in the late 15th century, pushed further and further into unknown waters. Not only were these new sea routes faster than land travel, they also made it possible to transport more cargo. There were many risks, including being shipwrecked on rocks, facing wild storms at sea and being attacked by pirates. However, as ship design and navigational skills improved, some risks were reduced.

Source 15.21 A 16th-century illustration of ships, showing navigation with the use of a compass

Trading routes in the 14th century

SOURCE STUDY



Source 15.22 Trade routes and goods traded in the 14th century

INTERPRET 15.5

1 Study Source 15.22 and an atlas to look up the modern-day countries that these trade routes passed through.

2 Where did the following goods come from?

- wool
- honey
- spices
- wine
- furs
- carpets
- slaves
- metals

EXTEND 15.2

1 The early explorers took great risks as they pushed further into unknown waters. Suggest why they were motivated to take these risks. What types of activities do people undertake today for similar reasons?

REVIEW 15.6

1 Which goods from the East were popular in Europe?

2 How did the discovery of new sea routes improve trade in medieval times?

15.1

WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE 14TH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE?

CHECKPOINT

» Locate the extent of human settlements in 14th-century Asia, Europe and Africa

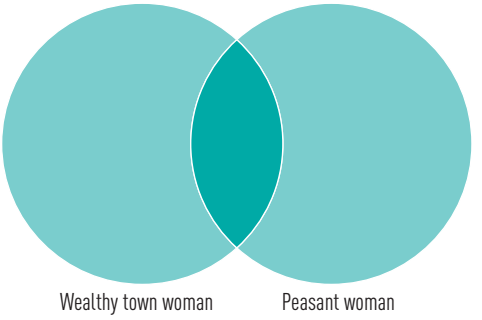
1 On a blank world map, add labels and shading to indicate territories ruled or inhabited by different peoples in medieval Asia, Europe and Africa. (5 marks)

» Describe the daily life of men, women and children in the 14th century

2 Describe the living conditions for people living in a medieval town or city. (5 marks)

3 Describe what life was like for peasants who worked on the land. (5 marks)

4 Use a Venn diagram to compare the similarities and differences of the role and typical daily activities for a wealthy woman living in town and a peasant woman in medieval Europe. (5 marks)



Roles and daily activities

» Describe life expectancy at this time

5 What was the life expectancy of males and females in medieval Europe before the outbreak of the Black Death? (5 marks)

» Describe what doctors understood about diseases and their treatment in the 14th century

6 Explain what doctors and other healers believed was the cause of illness in medieval Europe? (5 marks)

7 Describe some of the medical treatments that patients had to endure because of these beliefs. Include sketches or images that illustrate or provide evidence for your description. (5 marks)

» Outline what people in Europe believed about religion and the power of God in the 14th century

8 What were the main rituals and teachings of the Catholic church, and what did people believe would happen if they did not follow them? (5 marks)

» Outline the extent of trade between Europe and Asia in the 14th century

9 Write a paragraph that summarises where trade routes were located between Europe and Asia in the 14th century. (5 marks)

10 Give five examples of goods traded within Europe or between Asia and Europe. Where did they come from and where were they sold? (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Using historical sources about medieval medicine

When you look at historical sources, it is important to be able to make a judgement about their usefulness for a historical inquiry. Making an organisational chart is one good way to do this. Below is a sample of an organisational chart, with instructions about how to fill it in. Look at Sources 15.23, 15.24 and 15.25 and complete the following questions.

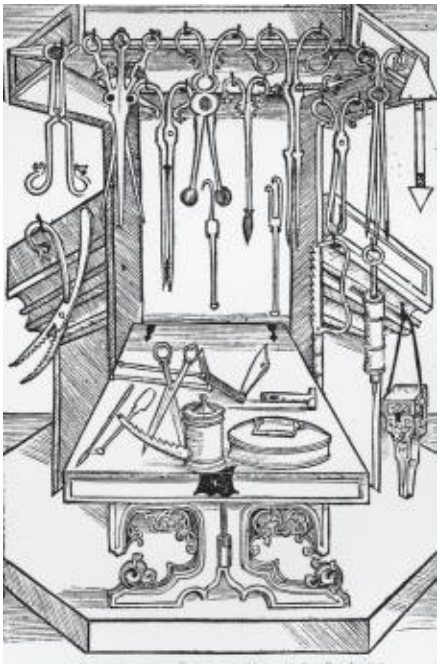
1 Which sources do you believe present the most reliable and the most unreliable evidence of what medieval medicine was like? Why?

2 Which of the treatments described or shown in the sources do you think may have been effective and which do you think may have been dangerous?

List the name of the source.	List all of the positive things (pros) and negative things (cons) about the source. For example, does it come from a reputable website? (pro); is it very brief and doesn't include all the details you need? (con)	List the type of source it is – primary or secondary	List the details of where you found it, such as Internet address or book title and author details

Name of the source	Pros and cons	Primary or secondary source?	Source details
The Leech's Chamber (painting)			
Woodcut showing medical tools *c.* 15th century			
Table of treatments and ailments			

Source 15.23 This painting, called *The Leech's Chamber*, shows sick people going to the doctor to have blood extracted using leeches, *c.* 16th century



Source 15.24 This woodcut print shows assorted medical tools from the medieval period, *c.* 15th century

Source 15.25 Some of the treatments used in medieval times for a variety of ailments

Ailment	Cure
Toothache	Put the beak of a magpie in a pouch around your neck
Smallpox	Wrap in red cloth and drape red hangings around the bed
Leprosy	Have the patient attend his own funeral and banish him to live with other sufferers.
Poisoning	Take a preparation made from carbonate of copper, pearls, charred stag's horn and coral
Epilepsy	Blow the crumbs of a roasted cuckoo up the nostrils
Dim vision	Apply the juice of wild lettuce and its leaves softened by honey

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

15.2 SECTION

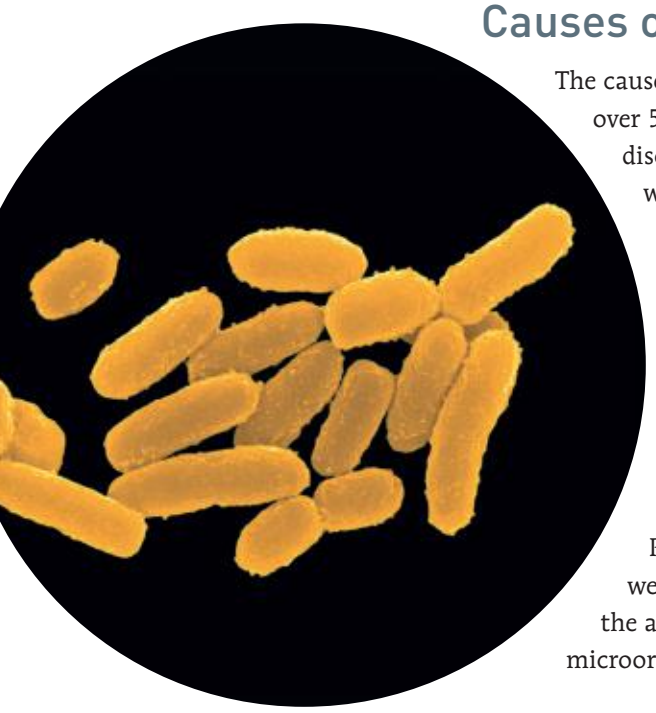
WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD?

In this section, you will learn more about a plague called the Black Death and explore theories about where it came from. You will also look at how, where and why outbreaks of disease spread across Asia, Europe and Africa, and investigate how people in the 14th century responded.

CAUSES AND SYMPTOMS OF THE BLACK DEATH

The Black Death was a **pandemic** (which is a highly infectious disease that spreads across a large region in a short time). This particular pandemic did not become known as the Black Death until many years later. It was given this name because of the black lumps, known as **buboes**, that appeared on the skin of victims.

Causes of the Black Death



Source 15.26 *Yersinia pestis* bacteria, as seen through an electron microscope

The cause of the bubonic plague, the *Yersinia pestis* bacterium, was discovered over 500 years after the Black Death pandemic. The bacterium itself was discovered by Swiss researcher Alexander Yersina in 1894. Scientists working in 2011 confirmed that *Yersinia pestis* was the cause of the Black Death by DNA testing the bones and teeth of English plague victims from a 1348 burial pit.

Bacteria are microscopic organisms that can cause disease. The plague could take three different forms, depending on how the victim was exposed to the bacteria (see Source 15.27):

- bubonic plague
- pneumonic plague
- septicemic plague.

Plague bacteria can still be found in parts of Asia, Africa and the western United States today. It is a disease that can now be treated with the appropriate antibiotics (substances that can kill bacteria and other microorganisms).

Symptoms of the bubonic plague

For most sufferers, the first sign of the Black Death were large bulges or lumps that appeared on the skin, usually in the groin, in the armpits or on the neck. These lumps – called buboes – initially appeared as a red colour, before turning purple, and then finally black. These buboes would spread all over the body. Victims would also get a fever and headaches. Over the next few days, victims would lose control of their bodies, so that they could not speak or walk properly.

Bubonic plague:

- transmitted by fleas with plague bacteria in their stomachs; fleas were carried by rats. When a rat died from the plague, fleas would jump onto other warm-blooded hosts, including humans.
- the most common form of plague, not very infectious
- 60–90% death rate, kills in 4 to 7 days from time of infection

Pneumonic plague:

- the second most common form of plague
- spread through the air by a victim's cough
- attacks the respiratory system
- almost 100% death rate, kills in 1 to 8 days

Septicemic plague:

- the rarest and deadliest form of the Black Death, and the least common
- spread by infected fleas, but moves directly into the bloodstream
- skin and other body tissues may turn black and die
- almost 100% death rate, kills in hours before buboes have had time to form on the skin

Source: 15.27 The three forms of plague known as the Black Death

STRANGE BUT TRUE

If two black rats bred for three years, they and their offspring could produce 329 million baby rats over that time. No shortage of plague carriers!

EXTEND 15.3

1 Penicillin was the first antibiotic used by doctors to treat infections caused by bacteria. Find out when and how it was discovered.

APPLY 15.5

1 Imagine that you have been transported back in time to a plague city in 1349. Create a printed proclamation issuing ten orders to the people of the city, telling them how to avoid catching the disease. Use your knowledge of the causes of the Black Death, but keep the instructions simple – they will not understand your 21st-century reasoning.

SOURCE STUDY

Symptoms of the bubonic plague

Source 15.28 Descriptions of symptoms and outcomes of the Black Death in medieval Europe

From Italy:

In men and women alike the plague first showed itself in the appearance of swellings in the groin and armpits. Some as large as apples or eggs, some less. From these two parts of the body the boils spread in all directions and after this black spots appeared often on the arm and thigh.

From France:

In Provence, a man climbed on to the roof of his house and threw down the tiles into the street. Another performed a mad dance upon the roof.

From England:

The plague passed most rapidly from place to place, swiftly killing before midday many who in the morning had been well.

Source 15.29 A detail, called 'Suffering man', from a painting by Matthias Grünewald (*c.* 1480–1528) provides evidence of why this terrible disease caused such fear and horror.

Source 15.30 Modern-day bubonic plague victim, with buboes in his groin

INTERPRET 15.6

1 Describe the symptoms of the bubonic plague as described in Source 15.28 and shown in Sources 15.29 and 15.30

REVIEW 15.7

1 Why was the 14th century plague called the Black Death?
2 Draw a sketch or diagram to show how the bacteria that causes the bubonic plague can spread from victim to victim.

ORIGINS AND SPREAD OF THE BLACK DEATH

The Black Death swept through Asia, Europe, North Africa and the Middle East from around 1330 to 1351, killing an estimated 100 million people. But where did it first appear, and why did it spread across the world so quickly?

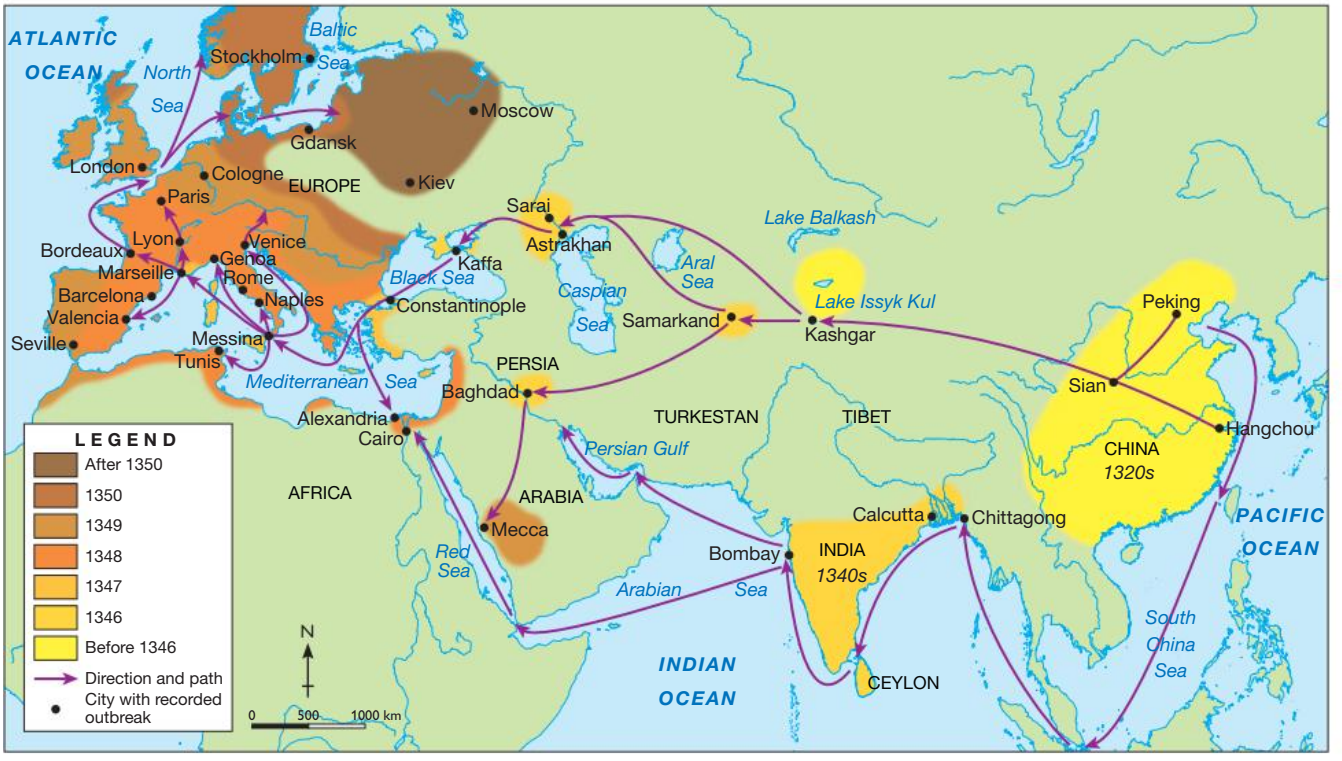
Origins of the Black Death

Historians differ over when the plague was first recorded. Some believe that it was reported over 3000 years ago in Babylonian writings. It was certainly present in the Roman Empire around AD 550 when it caused many deaths. It is thought that the medieval plague epidemic had its origins in southern China in the 1320s. This area had been conquered by the Mongols. Their horsemen and supply trains carried it to Mongolia, as they travelled back to Karakorum, their capital in the Gobi desert and an important city on the Silk Road.

The Black Deaths spreads to the West

Various theories have been suggested to explain why the plague began its spread westwards from the Mongolian region to Europe. Source 15.31 shows the path of the Black Death in the 14th century, including recorded dates of outbreaks in different areas. Source 15.31 outlines some of the known events and movements that are thought to have caused the plague to spread from East to West.

The movement of people is thought to be mainly responsible for the Black Death's spread. The plague seemed to move along the important east–west trade routes that linked China with Europe through central Asia. Others have argued that environmental change may also have been a contributing factor.



Source 15.31 The origins and spread of the Black Death

Source 15.32 The rapid spread of the Black Death

1330s–1340s	• Plague believed to originate in China, is carried to Mongolia by Mongol horseman and supply trains, then travels across central Asia carried by traders along the Silk Road • Plague reaches India and Ceylon by traders and travellers from China, along sea routes
1346–1347	• The plague reached Kaffa (now Feodosija in the Ukraine), a Genoese trading colony on the Black Sea. At the time, Kaffa was being besieged by a Mongol army. Numerous plague deaths forced them to abandon their three-year siege in 1348. Before leaving, the Mongols catapulted bodies of their plague victims over the city walls. Plague immediately spreads through the port city. • Genoese ships flee Kaffa. Their route home takes them via Constantinople, the capital of the Ottoman Empire, from which trade routes stretch across the Mediterranean. • The Genoese unknowingly introduce the disease to their homeland, through infected crew or the rats on board who jump to land after docking. • In October 1347 the Black Death arrived at Messina in Sicily, the gateway to Western Europe. • Plague reaches Egypt. The city of Alexandria is infected only two months after the outbreak of plague in Constantinople, carried by Ottoman traders across the Mediterranean Sea. It also travels up the Red Sea from India. By early 1348, up to 1000 people in Alexandria were dying every day. In villages on the Nile delta, the death rate was so high that towns were abandoned, and bodies were piled up in mosques and shops. Rotting corpses were left on the roads and eaten by dogs and rats. In Cairo, the plague kills 37% of the population.
1348	• Plague reaches Marseilles and other cities in southern France, then moves into Spain, further into Italy and is carried to England by sea. • Spreads along the north African coastline from Egypt. • Plague reaches Tunis, most likely through trading links with Sicily. From there, it pushes into today's Algeria and Morocco. • Plague reaches Gaza in the Middle East, which served as the gateway for the plague to enter Palestine and Syria. Eventually, the whole of the Islamic world was affected, especially those living in towns or cities.
1349	• Plague spreads across the British Isles and across the North Sea into Norway and across the mainland into Germany • Plague carried to Mecca by pilgrims • Plague reaches Aswan in Egypt, 1000 km south of Cairo. • Plague reaches Damascus in Syria, where deaths halved the population of 100 000.
1350–1352	• Plague becomes widespread across Europe as it further spreads into eastern Europe, Russia and the rest of Scandinavia
1351	• Plague spreads to Yemen in the Middle East. The king of Yemen and his attendants carried the disease to their home country after their release from a Cairo prison.
1360s onwards	• New, but smaller outbreaks of the plague occurred in 1361, 1369, 1374 and 1390 and most notably in the Great Plague of London in 1665. The last great European plague epidemic occurred in France in 1720.

EXTEND 15.4

1 Imagine that you were a defender of Kaffa in 1348. Your city has been under siege by the Mongols for three years. Write a short story that describes your reaction when rotting corpses of plague victims are flung into your city.

APPLY 15.6

1 Use the information in Sources 15.30 and 15.31 to create a detailed timeline that shows when outbreaks of the Black Death reached various parts of the world. Use four different colours in your labels to show events in Asia, Europe, Africa and the Middle East.

2 How many years did it take for the plague to run its course through Europe?

3 What does the information tell us about the reasons why people travelled in the 14th century, carrying infected people and rats to new places?

4 What was the most significant contributor to the plague's spread across the world? Discuss this with your class.

Climate – a contributing factor?

Climate scientists point to a recorded changing of the wind and climate patterns around the time of the Black Death, which helped it to spread westwards. From the mid-13th century to early 14th century, Western Europe became much wetter. At the same time, hot winds from the Sahara blew into the already hot and dry central parts of Asia. The unusual heat dried out the pasture that was relied on by Mongols to feed their herds. They moved their animals westwards in search of better grazing land. The drier climate also caused disease-carrying wild rodents in central Asia to move westward to look for food and water. They infected local rodent populations along the way with the plague.

The Black Death spreads to the West

SOURCE STUDY

Source 15.33 An illustration from a medieval manuscript *c.* 1300 shows goods being loaded onto a ship in Turin, Italy

Source 15.34 Detail of an illustration showing a Mongol army attacking a city

INTERPRET 15.7

1 What evidence does Source 15.34 provide about siege weapons used by the Mongol army in the 14th century? Identify the weapon that might have been used to hurl plague bodies into the city.
2 Examine Source 15.33 and suggest different ways that the plague bacteria could come aboard a merchant ship.

REVIEW 15.8

1 Where did the 14th-century plague first appear?
2 What is believed to be the main reason why the Black Death spread so quickly from East to West?
3 What other contributing factors are believed to have caused the plague to spread westwards?

RESPONSES TO THE BLACK DEATH IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

There were many different reactions to the plague. Some common reactions in medieval society are presented in Source 15.39. People hoping for a cure turned to plague doctors in the hope of fighting the disease. Many thought the Black Death was a punishment sent from God for their sins. Others started looking for someone to blame.

Finding a cure

Bad smells were commonly considered to be a cause of the disease. To counteract bad odours, people carried small bunches of flowers or pouches filled with herbs, spices or flowers. Green wood, such as a rosemary plant, was burned in the home to give off a fragrant smoke. Other remedies for the Black Death are shown in Source 15.34.

Towns and cities hired specialist physicians known as plague doctors (see Source 15.36). However, they could do little for their patients, except separate them from people who had the disease, burn their clothes, and pray for them. People held differing beliefs about how they could prevent the disease from affecting them, as described in Source 15.34.

Source 15.35 Common remedies for the Black Death

Remedy	Reason
Lie still.	If you have to move, move slowly; exercise brings more air into the body and with the air, more poison.
Avoid hot baths.	Baths open the pores of the skin and allow the poison to get in.
Crouch over a toilet for several hours.	Bad drives out bad, so breathe in the foul smells.
Do not sleep on your back.	Sleeping this way will cause a stream of evil substances to descend on your palate and nostrils.
Take a live frog and lay it on its belly next to the plague sore.	If the frog bursts within 15 minutes the patient will live. Then lay on another frog, as it will draw out the poison. If neither frog bursts, the person will die.

APPLY 15.7

1 Most people in medieval times could not read. Choose one of the remedies from Source 15.35 or in the text and design a poster to get the message across to medieval town dwellers.

Source 15.36

> Some thought that moderate living and the avoidance of all superfluity [excesses] would preserve them from the epidemic ... they shut themselves up in houses where there were no sick, eating the finest food and drinking the best wine very temperately [moderately], avoiding all excess, allowing no news or discussion of death and sickness ... others thought just the opposite. They thought the sure cure for the plague was to drink and be merry, to go about singing and amusing themselves, satisfying every appetite they could, laughing and jesting [joking] ...
>
> Many others adopted a course of life midway ... they did not shut themselves up, but went about, carrying flowers or scented herbs or perfumes in their hands, in the belief that it was an excellent thing to comfort the brain with such odours...

Extract from *The Decameron* by Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375), vol 1, translated by Richard Aldington, 1930

Treating the Black Death

SOURCE STUDY

Source 15.37 An illustration from the Toggenburg Bible (1411) showing a couple covered in buboes

Source 15.38 A 17th-century painting of the uniform typically worn by plague doctors. Medieval plague doctors were similarly dressed. The masks were filled with strong-smelling items such as mint, spices, garlic, flowers or vinegar, in the hope this would protect them from disease.

INTERPRET 15.8

1. Describe the plague doctor's uniform depicted in Source 15.38 and suggest why he is dressed this way.
2. According to your knowledge of the causes of the Black Death, how effective would the uniform be in protecting him from the disease?
3. What do you think the effect of his appearance would be for his patients?
4. Suggest what the standing figure in Source 15.37 is doing. How effective would this remedy be in curing the disease?

WHEN THE BLACK DEATH STRIKES

This labelled illustration shows some of the effects of the Black Death in medieval society. It also shows some common responses as people struggled to deal with this terrifying disease.

Source 15.39 Common responses to the Black Death in medieval Europe

Plague doctors wore full-body cloaks, and masks with long beaks filled with sweet-smelling substances. Sick female patients began to allow male doctors to examine all parts of their bodies, which was not common before.
Believing the plague was God's punishment for wrongdoing, people known as **flagellants** began walking the streets whipping themselves in a bid to repent for their sins and ask forgiveness from God.
Doctors suggested unusual cures, such as telling people to sniff herbs or lemon leaves, or even their own faeces. Sometimes leeches were attached to the skin to remove blood believed to be causing an imbalance in the body.
Some people adopted an 'eat, drink and be merry, for tomorrow we die' attitude, celebrating in drinking houses as they waited to die.
People began to avoid others for fear of catching the disease; some ran away. Many victims were abandoned even by their own family and were left to suffer and die alone.
People did not know then about the health dangers associated with mice and rats, nor did they know that disease could be transferred by coughing and sneezing.

Flagellants and persecution of Jews

When people are afraid, they will often try to find someone or something to blame for what frightens them. During the time of the Black Death, this led to the flagellant movement and the persecution of the Jews in Europe.

Flagellants were groups of male and female religious fanatics who travelled through parts of Europe. They called themselves the 'Brethren of the Cross' and wore red crosses on their clothing. Each person carried a heavy whip with three or four leather thongs tipped with metal studs. They would strip to the waist and begin to beat their own backs and chests. One description said: 'They lashed themselves on their bodies so that they became swollen and blue, the blood ran down to the ground. Occasionally they drove the spikes so deep into the flesh that they could only be pulled out by a second wrench.' As the same time they would cry to God to forgive them for their sins and to take away the plague. The flagellants also encouraged attacks upon the Jewish populations in the towns they visited.

Jews were a minority population in Europe in medieval Christian Europe. They were looked down upon because of the Christian belief that Jews were responsible for the crucifixion of Jesus Christ. There were even false scare stories spread that Jews sometimes kidnapped and killed Christian children. Not surprisingly, when the Christian population was looking for someone to blame for the horrors of the plague, they chose the Jews. A common accusation was that the Black Death was caused by Jews who had had poisoned the town's water supply.

Massacres of Jews began in the spring and summer of 1348, starting in France. The worst massacres were in Germany and modern Belgium. In Brussels, as the flagellants approached, all six hundred Jews in the city were killed by the inhabitants. In Mainz, which had the largest Jewish community in Germany, a massacre started in the middle of a flagellant meeting and the whole community of 12 000 was wiped out.

In October 1349, Pope Clement VI accused the flagellants of failing to follow church rules. He and also made laws to protect the Jews. By 1350, the flagellant movement had died away as quickly as it had begun, but for many Jews it was too late.

Source 15.40 A procession of flagellants, painted by the Spanish artist Goya between 1815 and 1819

REVIEW 15.9

1 List some common remedies for the Black Death and comment on their effectiveness.
2 Some people fled from towns to the countryside to escape the Black Death. Suggest reasons for and against doing this.
3 Who were the flagellants and what was the purpose of their actions?
4 Why were Jews persecuted during the Black Death?

15.2

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD?

» Explain how trade and travel contributed to the outbreak and spread of the Black Death

1 Combine your knowledge of medieval trade routes from section 15.1, and your knowledge about the spread of the Black Death, to explain how trade and travel contributed to the outbreak and spread of the plague.
   - **a** Identify the main land and sea routes used for trade in the medieval world.
   - **b** How much of the world was connected by these routes for trade and travel.
   - **c** Explain the ways in which traders and travellers could unknowingly spread the disease to new cities and territories. What was the role of rats and fleas? (10 marks)

2 Explain other factors that contributed to the Black Death's rapid spread in the 14th century. (10 marks)

» Describe the causes and symptoms of the Black Death

3 Describe the causes and symptoms of the Black Death by completing the table below in your notebook. (10 marks)

Forms of the 14th century plague	Causes	Symptoms
Bubonic plague		
Pneumonic plague		
Septicemic plague		

» Use sources to identify common treatments of the disease and discuss their effectiveness

4 How did plague doctors treat their plague patients? How effective were these treatments in curing their patients and preventing the spread of the disease? (10 marks)

» Outline responses of different groups in society to the spread of the disease

5 Outline the different ways that people responded to the outbreak of plague:
   - **a** to try and avoid contracting the plague
   - **b** to find an explanation for the cause of the plague and inflict punishment. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Modern-day 'plagues'

1 Find information and sources about a modern 'plague' such as SARS (Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome) or bird flu (also known as avian influenza). Investigate these areas:
   - where and when the disease first appeared
   - its symptoms, how the disease is contracted and how it spreads
   - its treatment and survival rates
   - how ordinary people and government authorities responded to the disease.

2 Write a paragraph for each of the areas, noting similarities and differences to the Black Death.

Source 15.41 Boys in Hong Kong wearing compulsory face masks so they can return to school after a period of school closure due to the SARS outbreak in 2003.

15.3 SECTION

WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH?

In this section, you will find out about some of the effects of the Black Death on medieval society. Some were immediate and obvious, such as bodies lying in the streets. Others were slower and less obvious, such as the loss of people's religious belief. There were long-term effects that affected the economies and the politics of society as well. Some of these effects permanently changed relationships between groups of people, such as employers and workers, landowners and peasants, and priests and churchgoers.

APPLY 15.8

1 Find out the current population of Australia and use this figure to estimate the number of deaths that would occur for a disease that kills 30 per cent of the population.

SHORT-TERM IMPACTS OF THE BLACK DEATH

Many of the immediate impacts of the Black Death on society were the result of death on a massive scale. People from all walks of life, all trades and professions were affected. Rich people died just as horribly as poor people.

Depopulation

It is difficult to give an exact figure for the number of people who died from the Black Death. Claims made by many medieval authors about the number of deaths in particular areas are considered to be unreliable. Church records of births and deaths can also be unreliable because there are many gaps and errors in them. Many primary sources do not distinguish between deaths caused by the Black Death and deaths from other factors, such as old age or injury.

Source 15.42 A section of the painting *Triumph of Death* by the Flemish painter Jan Brueghel (1568–1625). This artwork symbolises the widespread nature of death at the time – anyone could be a victim.

The effects of the Black Death on Eastern societies are not understood as well as they are in Europe. The most recent estimates suggest the following approximate number of deaths as a result of the Black Death across the world:

- 33 to 40 per cent of the population of Europe, with mortality higher in rural areas
- 28 per cent of the population in China
- about 30 per cent of populations in the Middle East
- 40 per cent of Egypt's population.

Impact on religion

Many monks, nuns and priests died as a result of the Black Death. Some others in the general population saw this as proof that the lifestyles of these religious people had displeased God. Some priests and other religious figures ran away, abandoning their parishioners because they were afraid of infection. Those who replaced them were often poorly trained. This added to the disappointment and anger of many ordinary people toward the Church. The dominant position of the Church started to weaken.

The effect on towns

Rubbish and raw sewage in the streets of medieval towns was a common sight, even before the plague. Once the plague struck, this filthy situation became even worse. Abandoned houses were left dirty and untended, and muck in the streets piled up. There were few people to make repairs even if they had wanted to. Tradesmen and craftsmen died along with cleaners, magistrates and officials.

Burial of the dead

People were dying so quickly, and in such large numbers, that there was no time for proper burials or religious ceremonies. In fact, some Christian priests began refusing to bury victims in case they caught the disease. Mass burials became common, with corpses shovelled into large pits and covered with earth.

APPLY 15.9

1 Imagine how it would affect you if a third of your family and community died of a disease within only a few years. Make a list of some of the ways your life would change.

Burying victims of the Black Death

SOURCE STUDY

Source 15.43

> [The people] sickened by the thousands daily, and died [alone] and without help. Many died in the open street, others dying in their houses, making it known by the stench of their rotting bodies ... churchyards were not enough for the burial of the ... bodies, which were heaped by the hundreds in vast trenches like goods in a ship's hold, and covered with a little earth.

Extract from *The Decameron* by Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375), vol 1, translated by Richard Aldington, 1930

Source 15.44 An 18th-century artist's impression of a mass burial during the 14th-century plague in Florence, Italy

INTERPRET 15.9

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 15.44
2 Is the scene of a mass burial in Source 15.44 consistent with the description in Source 15.43?

REVIEW 15.10

1 Use a graphic organiser to summarise the short-term impact of the Black Death in medieval societies.
2 Why is it so difficult to give an exact figure for the number of deaths resulting from the Black Death?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Peasants comprised the group most prosecuted under the Statute of Labourers. However, there were examples of employers being fined for offering higher wages, including a church rector who was prosecuted for paying his household servants too much.

LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH

It is often only with the passage of time that the long-term impacts of devastating events become clear, and the Black Death is no exception. As we have seen, the Black Death reduced the populations of towns, villages, cities and manors dramatically. In some cases, the populations of whole towns were wiped out, leaving the countryside empty. The population of Europe would not recover until the 16th century, and this would have long-term consequences for societies.

Weakening of feudalism

The Black Death and the growth of medieval towns were two of the main factors that weakened and eventually ended the feudal system. The massive drop in population drastically affected trade, manufacturing, and the production of food from the land. Skilled labourers and craftsmen were now in short supply and had more bargaining power with their employers. Consequently, their social status improved.

In time, this situation helped to break down the already weakened system of feudalism. Instead of providing their labour free in return for a lord's protection and support, knights and manor workers could now demand money for their services. In towns, workers could demand higher wages. The wealth available to survivors of the Black Death is believed to have been at least five times what it had been before the plague struck. Spending increased in towns and cities, increasing the power and social position of surviving members of the middle class. Prices also began to increase in some areas.

Concerned by the increase in wages being demanded (and paid), some rulers tried to introduce new laws to keep wages low. In England, the Statute of Labourers was introduced in 1351. This law made it illegal for employers to offer higher wages to attract new workers. It also made it illegal for workers to travel to other areas to look for better-paying work. This law upset many peasant workers. Indeed, it created some of the unrest that led to the Peasants' Revolt of 1381.

Source 15.45 A painting showing farm workers on a manor soon after the plague ended

APPLY 15.10

1 Take the part of either a landowner or a peasant and argue for or against the ideas behind the Statute of Labourers.

The effects of the plague

SOURCE STUDY

Source 15.46

> In the following autumn one could not hire a reaper at a lower wage than eight pence with food, or a mower at less than twelve pence with food. Because of this much grain rotted in the fields for lack of harvesting ... Meanwhile, the king ordered that in every country of the kingdom, reapers and other workers should not receive more than they were used to receiving ... the workers however were so aggressive and hostile that they did not obey the king's command, indeed if anyone wished to employ them, he had to pay them what they wanted.

Extract from *The Chronicle of Henry Knighton, 1348–50*

Source 15.47

> It was recently commanded by our Lord the King ... that the workers, both men and women, should be compelled to work in return for their normal wages ... It was also commanded that such workers who refused to serve in this way should be punished by imprisonment ... But now our Lord the King has been informed that such labourers completely ignored his command ... and refused to work for nobles and others unless they have liveries (sets of clothes) and wages twice or three times as great as those they used to take.

Extract from the *Statute of Labourers*, 1351

INTERPRET 15.10

1 Read Source 15.46 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** What conditions are the labourers demanding in return for their labour?
   - **b** What problem is being caused by the lack of labourers?
   - **c** How did the king react to the situation?
2 Read Source 15.47 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** How did the king try to enforce his commands?
   - **b** What demands were the labourers making?
3 What issue, shown in both sources, would be a particular concern for a medieval king?

The Peasants' Revolt

The **Peasants' Revolt** took place in England in 1381. This revolt, which involved separate but related uprisings by peasants, eventually led to the end of feudalism in England.

The lower classes under feudalism were often badly treated. They lived in complete poverty and were enslaved to their lords. Despite their poverty, peasants in England at this time were required to pay taxes to support the king, and the Statute of Labourers meant they could not ask for better employment terms (such as higher wages or freedom to travel).

When some peasants refused to pay these taxes, they were fined or put in the stocks as punishment. But the discontent was felt in many places, and peasants across England revolted. The leader of the revolt, Wat Tyler, was eventually killed by the mayor of London (see Source 15.5).

Although the demands for better working and living conditions were not immediately met, the upper classes began to realise that they could not rule over the peasants in the same ways they had in the past. They also realised that large groups of workers could be a significant political force, and that changes had to be made.

Weakening of the Church

The inability of religious leaders to limit the terrible effects of the plague – as well as the deaths of so many monks, nuns and priests – led to a lessening of many peoples' faith in the Church. People began to question the influence and power that the Church had over society and to openly criticise some of its practices.

In time this would lead to a strengthening of power of the state over the Church and to movements such as the Reformation that would see the start of new and less powerful Christian churches.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Black Death seems to have ended the scourge of leprosy in England. Lepers, being already ill, easily died of the plague and after the epidemic had passed, the number of leprosy sufferers was so low that the disease could not maintain its hold and died away.

The start of the slave trade

One long-term effect on African society was the start of the slave trade. Africans from the Sahara region began to be taken as slaves in the 14th century, at first to boost Europe's greatly reduced labour force. The Portuguese established a steady trade in African slaves, and the Spanish also entered the slave trade. As European nations began to establish colonies from the 16th century onwards, the slave trade increased as labour was needed in these new lands.

Foundations of the Renaissance

After the Black Death had passed, many wealthy survivors in Europe chose to invest in the creation of art or literature as a means of expressing their gratitude for being left alive. Some became patrons of artists and writers. They supported talented individuals so they could create paintings, build churches and other public buildings, and to write literature. Some patrons encouraged scientific research, hoping that answers might one day be found to what caused the Black Death. These developments added to the cultural rebirth in Europe at the time. This would later become known as the Renaissance (which means 'rebirth' in French).

APPLY 15.11

1 Conduct research to find a range of sources about the number of deaths caused by the Black Death, and about the impact of depopulation on European society. Outline any differences that you find in the interpretation of both these aspects. Refer to the section *Analysis and use of sources* in the Historian's toolkit to draw conclusions about the usefulness and reliability of your sources.

Interpreting the impact of the Black Death

Over the centuries since the Black Death, historians have developed different views on the impact of the 14th-century plague on European people, as well as the proportion of the population that actually perished.

Many historians have argued that although the Black Death had terrible effects on individual people, there were positive impacts for European societies in the longer term. The shortage of workers and higher wages encouraged labour-saving farming innovations in agriculture. Landowners began paying wages to their farm workers, who would previously have been tied to the land by feudal obligations. There were also developments in medicine once it was realised how ineffective previous methods had been in preventing and curing diseases.

Historians, however, have differed in their assessment on how much of a factor the Black Death was in changing European societies. Rosemary Horrox Page, in her book *The Black Death*, writes that even though the Black Death had many good and bad effects on the population, many modern historians now believe that things were already starting to change in the world. The Black Death simply brought about social and scientific changes a bit more quickly than they might have.

REVIEW 15.11

1 Use a graphic organiser to present the long-term effects of the Black Death. Use sketches as well as words to show each effect.

15.3

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Empathetic understanding
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH?

» Assess the impact of the Black Death on Asian, European and African societies

1 What impacts did the Black Death have on the societies across Asia, Europe and Africa? (3 marks)

2 Why is more known about the impacts of the Black Death in Europe compared to Asia and Africa? (2 marks)

» Discuss different interpretations of the Black Death's impact on European society

3 Discuss different interpretations about the effects of the Black Death on European society, in terms of the mortality rate in Europe and its impact on different social groups. (5 marks)

» Describe the short-term and long-term effects of the Black Death on medieval societies

4 What were some of the immediate and short-term terms effects on the Black Death in towns and cities? (5 marks)

5 Describe some of the long-term effects of the Black Death in Europe caused by the deaths of a significant proportion of the population. (5 marks)

» Assess the role of the Black Death in breaking down the feudal system in Europe

6 How significant were the effects of the Black Death in weakening the feudal system in Europe? What other factors contributed? (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/25]

RICH TASK

Imagining life after the Black Death

1 Imagine you are a medieval peasant who has survived the Black Death. In your village, the churchyard is full of new graves, houses are empty and crops are left rotting in the fields with no-one to harvest them. For the first time, you realise how much the lord and his family need your labour and farming knowledge. Prepare a speech to deliver to your lord, requesting better conditions and pay. Consider the following:

- what you will ask for and why
- the evidence you will use to convince your lord to agree
- the tone you will use – for example, will you choose to present your demands reasonably or use threats to get what you want?

2 Then imagine that you are the lord of the manor who hears this speech. Your income has fallen considerably even though prices for food and other resources have risen because of scarcity. Write a response to this peasant whose family has served yours for generations.

Source 15.48 A 14th-century engraving showing a scene from the Black Death in 1348

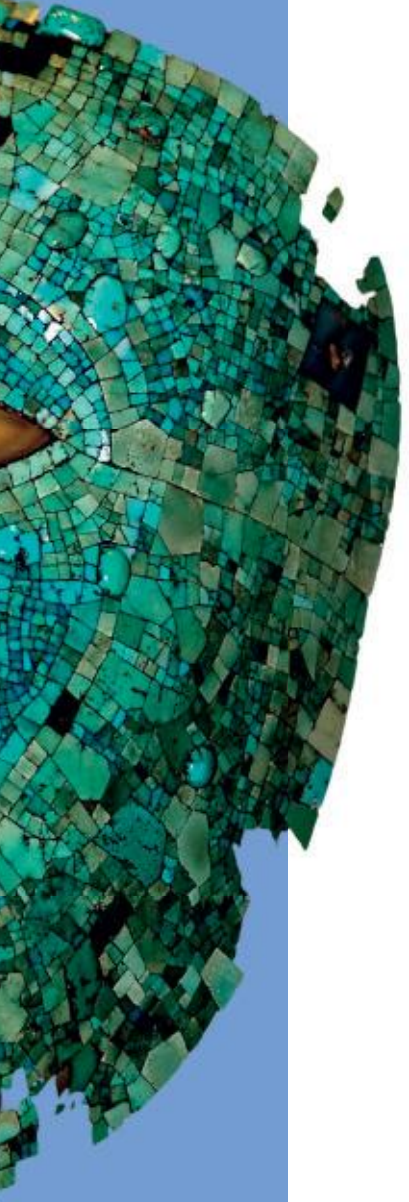
16

Source 16.1 This turquoise mask represents the Aztec god Xiuhtecuhtli, the 'Lord of Fire'

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS

During the **Age of Exploration**, the European powers sent expeditions to unknown parts of the world. They were motivated by a desire for new territories and the wealth that could be gained from the discovery of new trade routes to Asia. Spanish captains sailed westward, never realising that between them and Asia was the large land mass now called the Americas.

The Spanish discovery and conquest of the Americas brought about the end of two major civilisations – the Aztecs and Incas. They were complex and advanced societies, but were no match for the weapons and diseases that the Spanish brought with them from Europe.



WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH?

16.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» locate and identify the major civilisations and cities of the pre-Columbian Americas
» outline the organisation of society in the pre-Columbian Americas
» describe the beliefs of the Aztec society
» describe key aspects of Pre-Columbian life in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan

CHECKPOINT 16.1

WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS?

16.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» explain the reasons for Spanish conquest and settlement in the Americas
» identify the societies that the Spanish conquered in the Americas
» describe how geographic features influenced Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire
» describe different perspectives on the first-contact experiences between the Spanish and Aztec society
» explain how the Spanish conquered and controlled Aztec society
» explain how the Aztecs were affected by the Spanish conquests
» investigate the wider impact of the Spanish conquests of the Americas
» assess the long-term effects and legacy of colonisation by the Spanish in the Americas

CHECKPOINT 16.2

Reference guide

Term	Definition
North America	the northern continent in the Western hemisphere, from the northern border of Canada to the southern border of Panama, including the Caribbean – the Aztecs lived in the southern part; the Maya lived on the Yucatán Peninsula and further south
South America	the southern continent in the Western hemisphere, from the northern border of Colombia to the southern end of Chile and Argentina – the Inca lived on the western edge of the continent
Central America	the southern region of North America, south of Mexico and north of Colombia; the Maya lived in the northern part as well as on the Yucatán Peninsula in North America
the Americas	the combined continents of North and South America
Latin America	a social rather than a geographical term, which means all countries and regions within the Americas in which Spanish and Portuguese people settled
pre-Columbian America	the Americas, particularly the central and southern regions, before the arrival of Christopher Columbus, an Italian explorer commissioned by the Spanish monarchy

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE

1492
Christopher Columbus arrives in the Americas, landing in the Bahamas, Cuba and Hispaniola in the Caribbean.

1494
The Treaty of Tordesillas is signed, by which Pope Alexander VI grants all lands to the west of a line in the Atlantic Ocean to Spain, and all lands to the east of the line to Portugal.

1507
'America' is first named by the cartographer Martin Waldseemüller, in honour of the explorer Amerigo Vespucci.

1420 — 1490 — 1500 — 1510

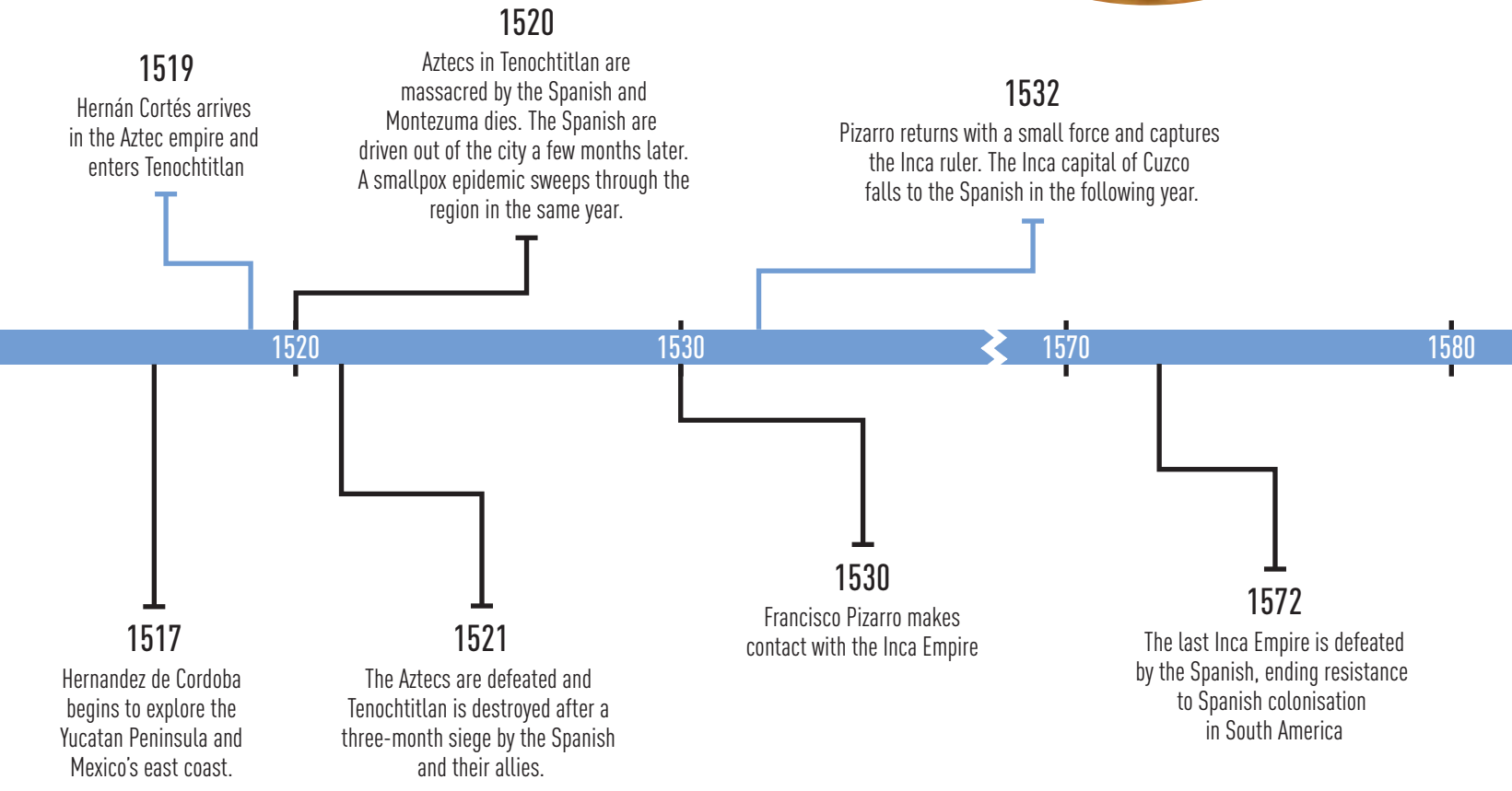
1428
A triple alliance is forged between the cities of Tenochtitlan, Texcoco and Tlacopan. This cements the power of the Aztec Empire.

1502
Montezuma becomes the Aztec ruler.

Source 16.2
An artist's impression of the great city of Tenochtitlan

Source 16.3
A 16th-century illustration depicting the arrival of Cortés and his conquistadors in the Aztec Empire.

Source 16.4
A painting showing Pizarro's attack on unarmed Inca warriors in 1532



REVIEW 16.1

1 List the Spanish or other Europeans mentioned in the timeline and the key events in the Spanish conquest in the Americas in which they were involved.

2 How long was the period between:
   a the arrival of Cortés in the Aztec Empire and the capture of its capital Tenochtitlan?
   b Pizarro's arrival in the Inca Empire and the capture of its capital Cuzco?

16.1 WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH?

SECTION

In this section you will find out about the major civilisations of the Aztecs, the Maya and the Inca, and the key aspects of their societies in the **pre-Columbian** period, the time before Christopher Columbus explored the region. You will also investigate the way of life of the Aztecs in greater depth.

THE MAJOR CIVILISATIONS OF THE MAYA, THE AZTECS AND THE INCA

Human occupation of the Americas began when people migrated from Asia eastwards, 15 000 to 40 000 years ago. They journeyed on a land bridge between Asia and North America that existed where the Bering Strait is located today, when sea levels were lower. Some peoples moved eastwards and settled across the northern parts of North America.

Others moved into the most southern regions of North America and into South America. There were three main civilisations in this region – the Maya, the Aztecs and the Inca (see Source 16.6). Two of these civilisations remained by the time of the Age of Exploration in the 15th century, when European explorers first reached the Americas. These were the Aztecs, in the region that is now Mexico, and the Incas in the region that is now Peru.

APPLY 16.1

1 Use an atlas to find physical maps of North and South America. Examine the maps and describe the main types of environments within the territories of the Aztec, Maya and Inca civilisations as shown in Source 16.6

EXTEND 16.1

1 Use an atlas to locate the Bering Strait. A strait is a narrow passage of water that connects two oceans or bodies of water. Which oceans are on either side of the Bering Strait? Which countries are separated by the strait? Estimate the distance across the strait.

Source 16.5 The Americas

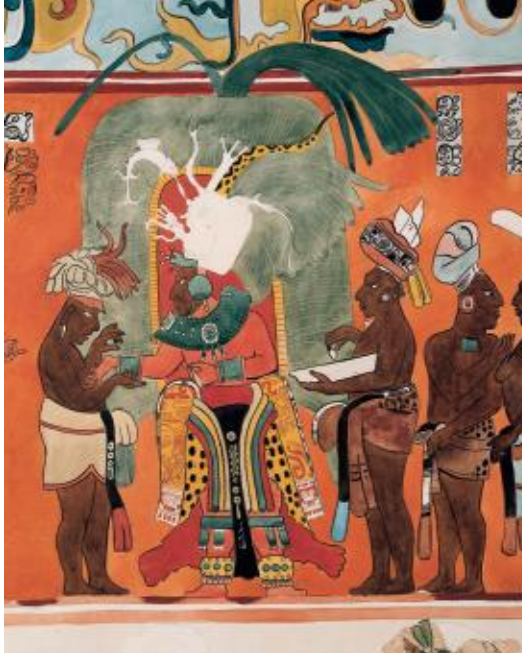
Source 16.6 Details showing the locations of the Aztec, Maya and Inca civilisations

The Maya was the oldest of the three civilisations we will examine. It was at the height of its power between AD 250 and 900, when the Maya ruled a large area around the Yucatán Peninsula (see Source 16.6). The Mayan people did not have a sole leader or capital city. Each of their cities had its own ruler who governed independently. The Maya were skilled in arithmetic and astronomy, as well as having their own form of **hieroglyphic** writing.

Their civilisation declined after AD 900, for reasons that are still not fully understood by historians. A new Mayan empire was built around Chichen Itza, on the Yucatán Peninsula, but this also fell after invasion from neighbouring peoples in the 15th century.

The Aztecs originated in the south of modern-day Mexico. By conquering rival tribes, the Aztecs created an empire that stretched between the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico. By 1519, there were around 489 city–states in the Aztec empire.

The Incas were originally one of many tribes in the Andes Mountains of South America, in modern-day Peru. They conquered other tribes, and by 1493 the Incan empire had become the most powerful in the pre-Columbian Americas, with the city of Cuzco as its capital. Their territories extended for 4000 km on the western coast of South America. They included parts of modern-day Chile, Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia. To govern their empire, the Inca developed an efficient administrative system, an extensive network of roads and strategically built stone fortresses. They excelled in working metals such as silver, copper and gold.



Source 16.7 Detail from a reproduction of a fresco at the Mayan site of Bonampak

Key features of the Aztec, Maya and Inca societies

The Maya, Aztec and Inca were agricultural societies. Before the arrival of the Spanish, farming life was very different from that found in Europe. In the Americas, there was no iron or steel, and farmers used digging sticks rather than metal ploughs to turn up the land. There were no horses, cattle, sheep, pigs or goats until they were introduced by the Europeans. In Central America, domestic animals such as turkeys, dogs and guinea pigs were eaten. The Incas kept large herds of llama for use as pack animals. They also kept alpacas, which were prized for their long silky coats that could be woven into cloth.

For many years, historians believed that the wheel was not used in pre-Columbian America. The wheel was not needed for transportation because the terrain was either too mountainous or swampy for animals to pull carts. Pre-Columbian children's toys with wheels however, have been found.

In the Maya, Aztec and Inca societies, the rulers and priests at the top of the social order were privileged, and lived well compared to the ordinary people. The Aztec king ruled with the help of his officials, counsellors, judges and military leaders. These ruling groups lived on their own estates and were the only people allowed to wear cotton cloth, sandals, patterned garments and ornaments made of gold or set with precious stones. All free-born commoners were grouped into clans. Members of each clan owned and farmed their land. They were responsible for maintaining their local temples and schools, which every child attended. At the bottom of the social hierarchy were the landless peasants and slaves.

Source 16.8 A pre-Columbian child's toy with wheels

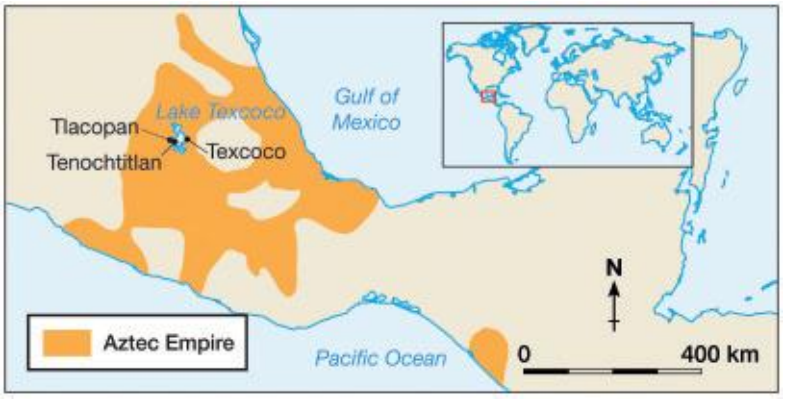
REVIEW 16.2

1 What were the three main civilisations in the Americas?
2 What does the term 'pre-Columbian' mean?
3 How did farming differ in the Americas and Europe?
4 Which groups were at the top of the social hierarchy in pre-Columbian societies in the Americas?

APPLY 16.2

1 In a group, conduct research about key aspects of the societies of the Maya, Aztec or Inca societies. Present your information, including relevant sources, to show how the status of people in each society affected the way they lived, and how each society was governed and administered.

THE AZTEC EMPIRE BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH



Source 16.9 The Aztec Empire showing the location of its major cities Tenochtitlan, Tlacopan and Texcoco

The rise of the Aztec Empire was very rapid. (The word *Aztec* can refer to the civilisation itself, the people, or just the ruling class. The term that the Aztec people called themselves was the *Mexica*.) The Aztecs expanded their control of territories now in present-day Mexico from around 1428, by conquering other tribes. They also formed an alliance between its major city, Tenochtitlan and the cities of Texcoco and Tlacopan. Of these three cities, Tenochtitlan was by far the largest and most dominant. Tenochtitlan was the centre of Aztec civilisation.

Source 16.10 The Aztec king Montezuma

Social groups in Aztec society

Aztec society was organised according to a strict **hierarchy** (which means that people had a particular place or class in society). There were five major social classes: the emperor, nobles, warriors, commoners and slaves, and there was little chance of movement out of the class into which one was born.

Emperor

At the top of the hierarchy was the emperor. When the Spanish arrived in 1519, the empire was led by Montezuma II (also known as Moctezuma), who had been in power since 1502. The emperor was an absolute ruler, selected as leader by a council of nobles. He was regarded by the people as a god and the 'Great Speaker'. He lived in a highly decorated palace and enjoyed a luxurious lifestyle.

Nobles

The nobility included high-level priests, military leaders, landowners, judges and heads of government. Noble status was passed down from parents to children. Nobles could receive tribute (something given as a mark of respect) from commoners and were the only class other than the emperor allowed to wear decorated capes and jewellery. Wealthy people and heroes of war dressed elaborately, with intricate headdresses (often made of feathers), necklaces, earrings and bangles made of gold, silver, copper and precious stones. Their body art included holes in the ears and split bottom lips. The nobility would also show their

wealth and dominance through extravagant feasts and expensive gifts to each other.

Warriors

Warriors were highly respected in Aztec society. Most males in Tenochtitlan were trained to be warriors. Women could not be warriors. At puberty, most young men left their families and went to live in the local warrior house. There was a formal hierarchy within the warrior group based on how many live captives (who were later sacrificed to the gods) a warrior had taken in battle. Successful warriors could expect to receive gifts and riches, but for most it was a part-time profession. Most warriors had to practice another trade for their livelihood.

Commoners

Commoners included farmers, craftspeople, merchants and low-level priests. They were expected to pay tributes to the nobles who owned the *calpulli* (neighbourhoods) that they lived in. Commoners usually ate basic foods and lived in simple homes. They were not allowed to wear cotton, wear cloaks longer than the knee, or wear sandals in the presence of people with higher rank. Commoners could sometimes become nobles through marriage or bravery in war.

Source 16.11 The long feather headdress worn by an Aztec noble.

Slaves

Slaves were owned by nobles or wealthy merchants and had few rights. Typically, people became slaves if they were criminals, could not pay their debts or had been captured in war. Slaves could marry with their master's permission and could also buy their freedom. Slave status was not passed down to children; the children of slaves were born free.

The role of men and women in Aztec society

An Aztec family was made up of a man, his chief wife, his other wives, his children, and other relatives such as his parents. Older people were highly respected in Aztec society. Marriages were arranged with help from priests, who would consult the stars to check for suitable matches. Girls married at around 16 years of age and men at around 20 years of age. Both boys and girls went to school, although they were destined for very different lives. Women were expected to care for children, cook and weave cloth. They helped to tend home gardens and any other plots the family was given to work. They had almost no public role. Men were expected to become warriors and seek glory by capturing enemy warriors.

SOURCE STUDY

The role of men and women in Aztec society

In the 16th century, Spanish explorers commissioned illustrated histories (called codices, which is the plural of codex) to provide information to people back in Spain. Each codex was a collection of animal skin pages, bound together to form a book. These codices (such as the Florentine Codex and the Codex Mendoza) have provided valuable information to historians.

Source 16.12

Midwife's address to newborn boys:

My precious son, my youngest one ... heed, harken: thy home is not here, for thou art an eagle, thou art an ocelotl [a jaguar] ... Thou belongest out there... Thou hast been sent into warfare. War is thy desert, thy task. Thou shalt give drink, nourishment, food to the sun, the lord of the earth. Perhaps thou wilt receive the gift, perhaps thou wilt merit death by the obsidian knife [be killed as a sacrifice to the gods].

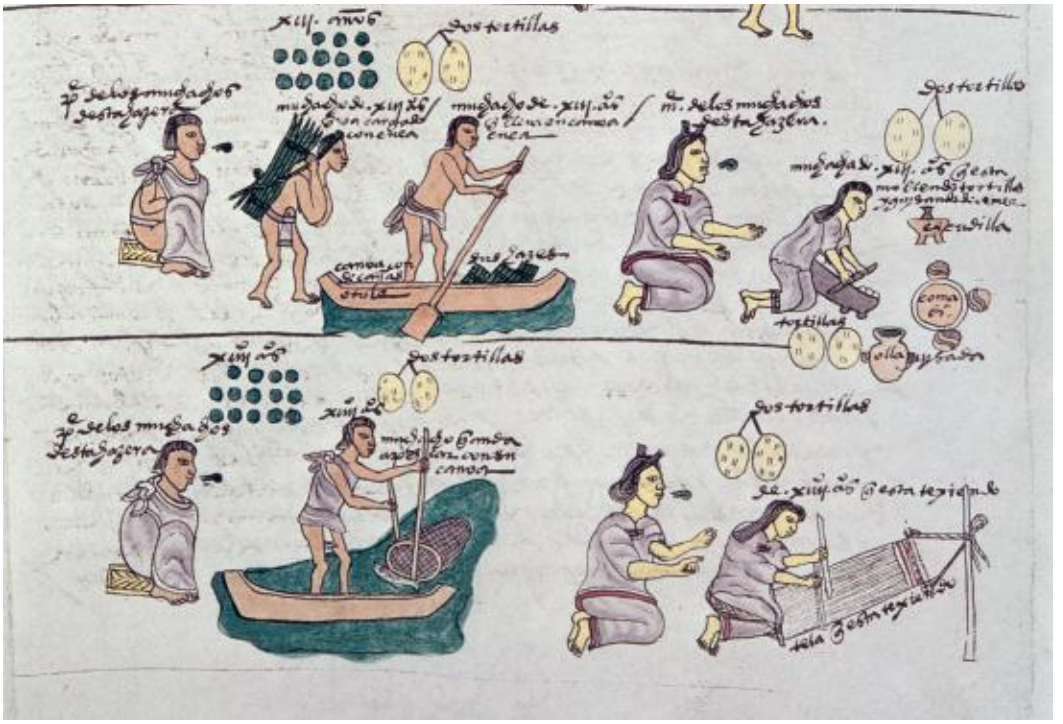
Midwife's address to newborn girls:

Thou wilt be in the heart of the home, thou wilt go nowhere, thou wilt nowhere become a wanderer, thou becomest the banked fire, the hearth stones ... And thou wilt become fatigued, thou wilt become tired; thou art to provide water, to grind maize, to drudge; thou art to sweat by the ashes, by the hearth [the floor of a fireplace].

Part of the addresses given by midwives to newborn boys and girls as described in the *Florentine Codex*

INTERPRET 16.1

1 What do the sources tell you about the role and expectations of men and women in Aztec society?



Source 16.13 Illustrations from the 16th-century Codex Mendoza provide an account of Aztec life. These illustrations show the meal ration (two tortillas) and typical tasks for children. On the left hand side, a 13-year-old boy carries a load of rushes on his back and transports them in his canoe, and a 14-year-old boy goes fishing in his canoe. On the right hand side, a 13-year-old girl grinds maize (corn) for tortillas, and a 14-year-old girl is weaving.

Aztec discipline

For Aztec children, discipline was very strict, both at home and at school. Punishments included being speared with the sharp spines of a cactus, being left bound and naked in the dark in a cold puddle, or being bound and held over a fire to inhale smoke from burning chillies. Girls were awakened in the middle of the night to sweep the house, and had their fingers cut if they made a mistake in tasks such as weaving. These stories may have been exaggerated by the Spanish, but certainly discipline was physical. Children were being prepared for an unforgiving world dominated by demanding gods.

APPLY 16.3

1 Why do you think the Spanish may have exaggerated stories about the Aztec's discipline of children?

Source 16.14
Illustrations from the 16th-century Codex Mendoza shows punishments for disregarding parental advice: being forced to inhale dry chilli smoke and being forced to lie on damp ground with bound hands and feet.

Religious beliefs

Religion played a very important part in Aztec society. The Aztecs worshipped a variety of gods, some of which were adopted from conquered tribes.

- Huitzilopochtli, the god of the sun and of war. The Aztecs believed that Huitzilopochtli battled with the forces of darkness every night so that the sun would come up the next morning. If ever he grew weak the sun would not rise and the universe would come to an end, so man had to provide nourishment for him in the form of blood sacrifice.
- Tlaloc, the god of rain, agricultural fertility and water. Tlaloc was welcomed as a god who gave life and sustenance, but he was also feared for his ability to send hail, thunder and lightning
- Xipe Totec, the god of springtime and new crops. Every spring the priests flayed (skinned alive) sacrificial victims and paraded in their skins. This symbolised the annual spring renewal of vegetation or the renewal of the earth's skin.
- Quetzalcoatl, the god of nature, earth and air. The name means 'the feathered serpent god'. The temple of Quetzalcoatl at Teotihuacan was decorated with large sculptures of feathered serpents.
- Tezcatlipoca, the god of the night sky, giver and taker of all life on earth.
- Mictlantecuhtli, the god of the dead.

Source 16.15
A drawing of the god Quetzalcoatl 'the feathered serpent god' from the Codex Borbonicus

The Aztecs believed in life after death. The way that Aztecs died, rather than the way they lived, decided what would happen to them in the afterlife. If a person died a normal death, his or her soul would pass through the nine levels of the underworld before reaching Mictlan, the realm of the death god. However, warriors who died in battle and women who died in childbirth joined Huitzilopochtli. The dead were buried with goods of all descriptions that would be of use to them in the next life.

Human sacrifices

Most human sacrifices were performed in honour of the gods of the sun, rain and earth. The most common form of sacrifice among the Aztecs involved stretching the victim over a sacrificial stone. Four priests held the limbs of the victim while another priest cut open the chest and took out the heart. The heart was placed in *chacmool* (see Source 16.18) and the victim was then thrown down the steep temple stairs. The body was picked up and part of it, such as the thigh, was given as a reward to the victim's captor, to eat. Those who were sacrificed were considered to be fortunate, since they were guaranteed a place in the highest heaven reserved for warriors who died in battle.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Sometimes human sacrifice was carried out on a massive scale. In 1487, when the temple of Huitzilopochtli was finished, as many as 20 000 captives were sacrificed. A companion of the Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés counted 136 000 skulls on the rack that stood beside the same temple in 1519.

Source 16.16 A stone sculpture of the god Huitzilopochtli, *c.* 1500

Source 16.17 A knife used by Aztec priests for human sacrifices

Source 16.18 An Aztec *chacmool* – a reclining human figure with a sacrificial tray on his lap, where the hearts of sacrificed victims were placed

LIFE IN TENOCHTITLAN – THE AZTEC CAPITAL

Tenochtitlan was founded around 1325 in the Valley of Mexico, now the site of modern-day Mexico City. As the power of the Aztec Empire grew, the entire urban area of Tenochtitlan was carefully rebuilt. By 1519, it housed 200 000 inhabitants on an island of about eight square kilometres. This was at a time when Spain's largest city, Seville, had a population of 70 000.

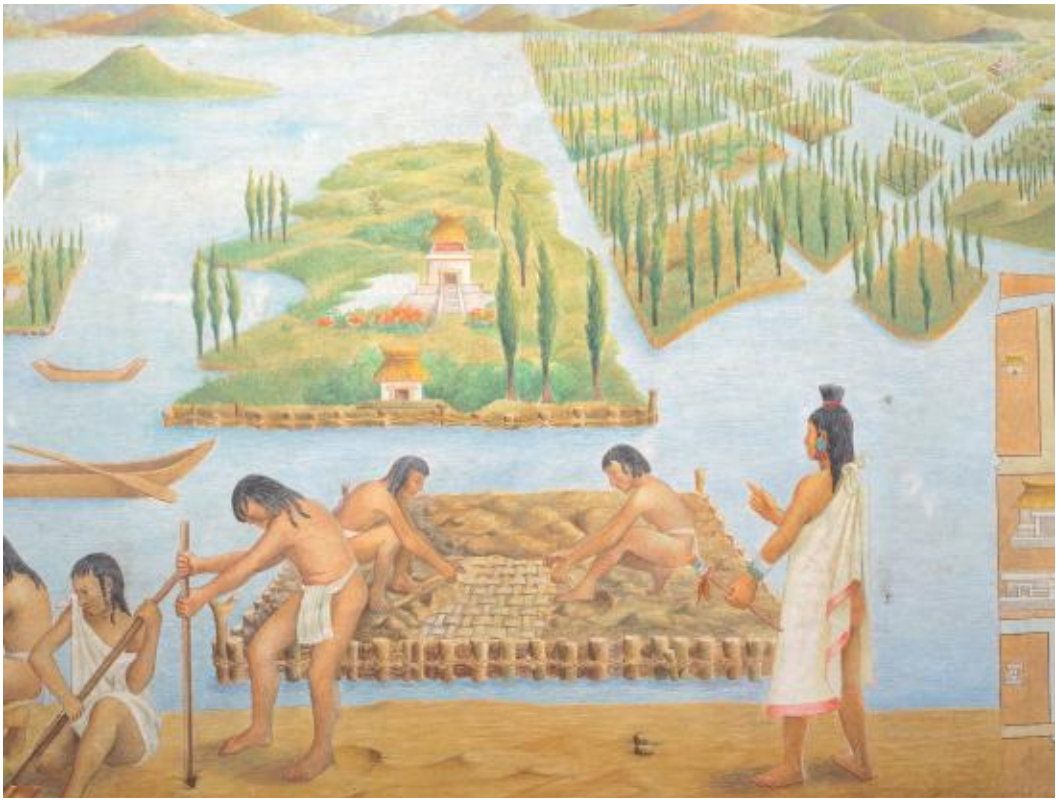
The rebuilt city was laid out on a grid pattern, with 'roads' running north-south and east-west (see Sources 16.2 and 16.19). In Aztec mythology each of the four main points of the compass had important religious significance, each with its own gods, rituals and colours. Because it mirrored the path of the sun, the east-west axis was the most important one.

Many of Tenochtitlan's 'roads' were in fact canals. Six major canals – and many smaller ones – criss-crossed the entire city. It was possible to travel virtually anywhere in the city by boat. The city was divided into four districts. Each district was composed of neighbourhoods called *calpulli*, inhabited by commoners such as craftspeople and farmers. The crops cultivated by farmers included maize (corn), tomatoes, potatoes, beans, chillies, peanuts, limes and avocadoes. They farmed on an ingenious system of artificial islands called *chinampas*, built on the shallow parts of the lake and joined together. Canoes took sewage from the city's public toilets to be used as fertiliser on the *chinampas*.

The centre of commerce was the huge market square, where 60 000 people a day came to buy and sell. There was a sacred precinct in the centre of the city, surrounded by walls to limit access to ordinary people. Within this precinct were temples, public buildings, palaces, and plazas. Over everything, the Great Temple or Templo Mayor loomed. The blood on its stairs from human sacrifices was visible from a great distance.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

According to legend, the Aztecs were guided to the site on an island in the middle of Lake Texcoco by their chief god Huitzilopochtli. It was pointed out to the Aztecs by an eagle sitting on a cactus (Tenochtitlan means 'the place of the prickly pear cactus').



Source 16.19 A copy of an illustration taken from a manuscript shows the *chinampa* system used by the Aztecs to construct the city of Tenochtitlan.

EXTEND 16.2

1 Conduct research about the Aztecs *chinampas*, and draw a labelled diagram to show the methods used to construct them.

1 The *Templo Mayor* (Great Temple) dominated the city. Huge numbers of people – and sometimes animals – were sacrificed at an altar atop this pyramid to please the gods.

2 A popular game involved the use of elbows, knees and hips to flick a rubber ball through a stone hoop on the wall. Sometimes the defeated team lost their lives as well as the game!

3 Maize (corn), the staple food of the Aztecs, was ground into a course flour to make tortillas, flat bread to wrap around vegetables and meat.

Source 16.20 An artist's impression of daily life in Tenochtitlan.

4 A poor farming family's home on a *chinampa* (artificial island) was made of mud brick, and its roof was made of reeds.

5 The markets were the lively centre of the city. Merchants travelled great distances to the markets, by foot or canoe, to sell goods such as feathers, rubber, animal skins and foodstuffs.

6 Nobles dressed elaborately, with colourful clothing, jewellery and headdresses. For the poor, clothing for men was typically a length of plain cloth wrapped around the body and knotted on one shoulder. Women wrapped a piece of cloth around their hips and legs (much like a skirt), and added a loose top.

REVIEW 16.3

1 Draw a diagram that shows the social hierarchy in Aztec society.
2 Why did Aztec warriors capture, rather than kill, enemy warriors?
3 Outline the role of men and women in Aztec society.
4 What were some of the punishments given to Aztec children who did not perform their tasks properly or were disobedient?
5 What did the Aztecs believe would happen if sacrifices were not made to Huitzilopchtli?
6 Explain the meaning of these terms: *calpulli*, *chacmool*, *chinampa*.

16.1

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Perspectives and interpretations
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH?

» Locate and identify the major civilisations and cities of the pre-Columbian Americas

1 On a blank map of the Americas, use shading and labels to show the territories of the Maya, Aztec and Inca civilisations. Add the locations of key cities for each civilisation. (3 marks)

» Outline the organisation of society in pre-Columbian Americas

2 Identify the people at the top of the social hierarchy in the Maya, Aztec and Inca societies. (2 marks)

3 Outline the different groups in Aztec society, in order of highest to lowest status. What were their roles or occupations? (5 marks)

4 Explain the differing roles of men and women in Aztec society. Refer to sources in your response. (5 marks)

» Describe the beliefs of the Aztec society

5 Explain Aztec beliefs about the role of gods, including examples. (10 marks)

6 What did Aztecs believe about death? (5 marks)

7 Explain how their religious beliefs influenced Aztec rituals and warfare. (5 marks)

» Describe key aspects of Pre-Columbian life in the Aztec city Tenochtitlan

8 Describe the Aztec capital Tenochtitlan, including aspects of daily life for its inhabitants. Use images and sketches to illustrate your response. (15 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

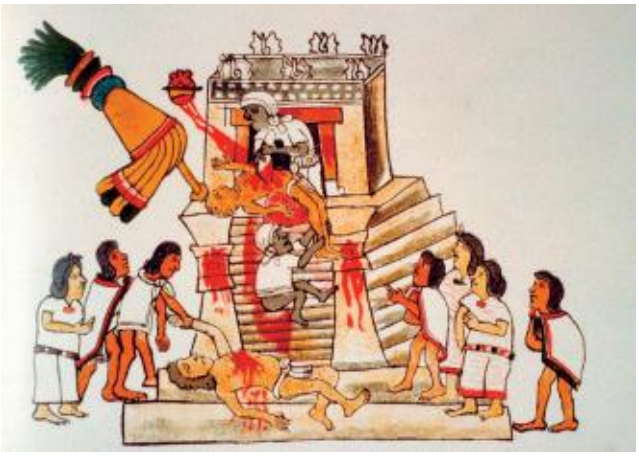
Investigating Aztec culture and daily life

1 In your group, allocate one or two aspects of Aztec life and culture to each student to research individually. Present the results of your research to the rest of the group and share your presentation and source material. Examples of topics to investigate include:

- agriculture
- calendars and related beliefs
- daily life of rich and poor Aztecs, including clothing, housing, food and leisure
- trade and commerce, including valued products
- warfare, including weapons and tactics
- gods and religious rituals.

Sacrifice at the Great Temple

1 Write an account of the sacrifice depicted in Source 16.21, from the perspective of one of the Aztecs nobles watching the ritual.



Source 16.21 An illustration of a ritual killing from the Codex Magliabechiano, showing victims being sacrificed on the steps of a temple

16.2 SECTION

WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS?

The discovery of lands in the Caribbean by Christopher Colombus started a wave of exploration and conquest throughout the Americas. Many hundreds of thousands of Indigenous peoples died through disease and warfare, and their traditions and cultures were almost entirely lost.

OVERVIEW OF SPANISH CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT IN THE AMERICAS

Source 16.22
An artist's impression of the arrival of Columbus in the Americas

Towards the end of the 15th century, great voyages of exploration were being undertaken by the Portuguese and the Spanish, as they sought new sea routes between Europe and Asia. While the Portuguese sailed southward towards the tip of Africa, the Spanish looked to the west, across the Atlantic Ocean. Explorers such as Christopher Columbus (an Italian commissioned by the Spanish royalty) were eager to reach the fabled lands of Cathay (China) and Cipango (Japan).

On 3 August 1492, Christopher Columbus set sail from Palos in Spain with three ships – the *Niña*, the *Pinta* and the *Santa Maria* – hoping to find a shortcut to the 'spice islands' of the East Indies. In October of that year, however, he landed in the Caribbean islands that are the present-day Bahamas, Cuba and Haiti. He thought that Cuba was Cipango (Japan) or perhaps part of the mainland of Asia. In further voyages between 1493 and 1504, he landed on other islands in the Caribbean, and searched the Orinoco River in South America for a fabled passage into the Pacific Ocean. Having failed to find the passage, Columbus returned home in poor health. He died in 1506, still believing that he had achieved his aim of discovering a western route to Asia.

Spanish exploration and conquests – key events

After the journeys of Columbus, more than 200 ships brought other explorers and wealth-seekers from Spain to the Caribbean between 1506 and 1518. Spain sent *conquistadors* – conquerors such as Hernán Cortés and Francesco Pizarro, who took huge risks to explore new territories in the hope of enormous reward. Source 16.23 outlines key events in the Spanish exploration and conquests in the New World.

EXTEND 16.3

1 Conduct further research on the life of Columbus. Then write an obituary for him in which you assess his personality and achievements.

Source 16.23 Spanish exploration and conquests – key events

1492	Columbus establishes a settlement at Hispaniola (now Haiti and the Dominican Republic), which becomes a launching ground for subsequent Spanish expeditions.
1508–1510	Puerto Rico and Jamaica captured, settlement established in Panama
1511	Cuba invaded by Diego Velázquez
1513	Florida, on the northern coast of the Caribbean, is discovered but not colonised by Juan Ponce de Leon
1517–18	The Yucatán Peninsula, the lands of the Maya, are discovered by Hernández de Cordóba Mexico's east coast explored by Juan de Grijalva, who brought back gold trinkets and stories of rich and civilised tribes in the interior
1518–21	An expedition led by Hernán Cortés reaches the Aztec capital Tenochtitlan. His soldiers are driven out of the city in 1521, but with the help of Aztec allies the Spanish capture and destroy the city. This marks the end of the Aztec Empire.
1522	Colonies established in Venezuela ('little Venice'), in South America
1528	The Inca coastline of South America is explored by Francisco Pizarro.
1530–33	Francisco Pizarro sails from Panama with a force of 180 men to conquer the Inca lands. Pizarro's forces capture the Inca ruler and sack the Inca's largest city of Cuzco. Resistance to the Spanish invaders finally ends in 1572.

Source 16.24 Aztec gold jewellery

EXTEND 16.4

1 Conduct research to complete a table similar to Source 16.23, to outline Spanish exploration and conquests in North America.

Spain's government and its people were motivated to explore and conquer new territories in the Americas for several reasons, outlined in Source 16.25

Source 16.25 Reasons for Spanish exploration and conquest

Expanding empires: The Spanish and other European powers sought to expand their power and wealth by adding new colonies to their empires. New colonies created wealth for empires through increased trade and taxation, and by using the labour of indigenous peoples.

New trade routes: Explorers searched for new trade routes to reach China and the Indies by sea.

Spreading Christianity: Supported by the Pope, the Spanish and other explorers wanted to convert pagan peoples (those who did not worship the Christian god) to Christianity.

The lure of adventure and riches: Younger sons of the nobility who would not inherit property and men from ordinary families became conquistadors in the hope of finding adventure and wealth, both for the Spanish Empire and for themselves.

The quest for gold: In the 15th century, there was an increased European demand for gold to make coins, jewellery and gold thread for tapestries.

APPLY 16.4

1 The Tainos society on Hispaniola, Spain's first settlement in the region, were wiped out as a result of their treatment by Spanish colonisers. In a group, conduct research to find out the impact of Spanish colonisation of the societies of present-day Venezuela, the Yucatan Peninsula and the Caribbean islands mentioned in Source 16.23.

REVIEW 16.4

1 Which island did Columbus mistake for Japan?
2 Explain why the Americas were not named for Columbus.
3 How long did it take the Spanish to conquer the Aztec and Inca civilisations following the discovery of the Americas?

APPLY 16.5

1 Use a graphic organiser, that includes illustrations, to explain the reasons for Spanish exploration and conquest.

Source 16.26 Hernán Cortés

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Cortés was also instructed to find the Amazons, a fabled race of warrior women said to live in the region. He was also sent to find out if it were true that there were people with gigantic ears or faces of dogs.

THE EXPEDITION OF CORTÉS TO TENOCHTITLAN

Hernán Cortés was chosen by the governor of Cuba to lead an expedition to the mainland of South America. Like other *conquistadors*, Cortés had come to the West Indies to escape the poverty of his home town in Spain and to seek fame and fortune. In 1519, he set sail with 11 ships and 530 *conquistadors* – including 30 crossbowmen and 12 men armed with arquebuses (an early form of rifle) and cannon. They also took 16 horses and several large fighting dogs. Cortés intended to conquer and colonise on behalf of the king of Spain and in the name of Christianity. His intent was also to find the strait that separated the 'island' of Yucatán from the 'mainland' in the hope of finding a route to Asia, as it was still believed that China and India were close by, towards the west.

The expedition landed at present-day San Juan de Ulua on the eastern coast of Mexico. Here, the *conquistadors* heard tales of the powerful Aztec king called Montezuma, who ruled from his capital at Tenochtitlan, high in the mountains and several days' march from the coast. When news reached Montezuma that strangers had landed on the coast, he was unsure how to deal with them, not knowing whether the newcomers were men or gods. He sent splendid gifts, including gold trinkets in the shapes of various animals, a snake's head made of gold with eyes inlaid with precious stones, and two huge discs as big as cartwheels, one of gold and one of silver and covered with figures and designs. Along with these gifts he sent a message that it would be impossible for the Spaniards to see him and he tried to dissuade them from attempting to come to the capital.

In Aztec culture, giving lavish gifts was a sign of power. Montezuma's first splendid gifts were intended to show his dominance of Cortés. However, Cortés would have interpreted the gifts as signs of weakness or an attempt to bribe the Spanish. In return, he sent small gifts such as glass ornaments, bracelets and an embroidered cap. These simple gifts were designed to insult Montezuma.

APPLY 16.6

1 Draw cartoons of Montezuma and Cortés, with speech bubbles that show their reactions to the gifts they received from each other. Remember to think from the perspective of both the giver and the recipient of the gifts.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Initially, Spanish horses were a terrifying sight to the Aztecs. It is said that the first Native American to see an unhorsed Spaniard fled, believing that the strange animal had come apart to form two separate beings.

The *conquistadors'* journey to Tenochtitlan

The distance to Tenochtitlan from San Juan de Ulua was around 400 kilometres. Cortés first moved up the coast to establish a settlement and entered the territory of the Totonac people, who were subjects of the Aztecs. The Totonacs promised to support Cortés in an overthrow of their Aztec masters (the support of tribes who resented the domination of the Aztecs was an important aspect of Spanish conquest). Cortés set out for Tenochtitlan in August 1519 with a force of around 300 *conquistadors* and 800 Totonacs.

The climate was hot and humid, and the first part of their journey was through a flat, heavily forested region, dotted with maize plantations. The land then rose sharply to 1800 metres, where the climate was milder. The next stage was over a cold, bleak plain dominated by a large salt lake. Between the plain and Tenochtitlan, was a chain of high mountains that included the volcanoes Popocatépetl and Ixtaccihuatl, both over 5000 metres high. A pass lay between them at around 4000 metres, after which the land fell away to a valley, and the great lake and the city of Tenochtitlan. Cortés passed through this valley in the summer, when rain fell every afternoon. The paths were deep in mud and rest stops were impracticable.

The *conquistadors'* journey to Tenochtitlan

SOURCE STUDY

Source 16.27 A satellite image of Mexico showing the conquistador's landing point on the gulf coast of Mexico at present-day San Juan de Ulua, and their destination: the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan, now the site of present-day Mexico City

Source 16.28 Mount Iztaccihuatl (right) and Mount Popocatepetl (left). Between these two volcanoes is a high pass known as the Paso de Cortés.

INTERPRET 16.2

1 Use Sources 16.27 and 16.28 to sketch a map showing the route taken by Cortés, including mountain ranges and other natural features along the way. Add labels to describe these natural features and how they would have influenced or affect the *conquistadors'* journey.
2 Use Google Earth or a digital atlas to explore the region through which the *conquistadors* travelled. Suggest which features of the landscape would be unchanged since the time of the journeys of Cortés, and which features would have changed.

REVIEW 16.5

1 What was the main purpose of the expedition led by Cortés in 1519?
2 Why did Montezuma send gifts to Cortés when he arrived on the Mexican coast?
3 Why did the Totonacs support the Spaniards?

THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AZTEC EMPIRE

Tenochtitlan fell to the forces of Cortés two years after his arrival on Aztec territory. The Spanish had the advantage of superior weaponry. Their cause was also aided by the devastating effects of a European disease, and by the tribes who became allies of the Spanish.

First conflicts

The first conflict between the *conquistadors* and native tribes took place when the Spanish encountered and fought the Tlaxcalans, whose territories lay midway between the coast and Tenochtitlan. After being defeated, the Tlaxcalans agreed to become allies and march to Tenochtitlan. Cortés then reached Cholula, a town close to the high mountains, where Cortés stayed for several days. The Cholulans were allies of the Aztecs and were planning to ambush and capture the *conquistadors* on the road. Cortés learned of the plan and summoned the Cholulan leaders. They arrived unarmed to the temple courtyard, where they were slaughtered by the Spaniards. The Aztecs would have heard about this treatment of their Cholulan allies, before the conquistadors reached Tenochtitlan.

Source 16.29 An artist's impression of *conquistadors* slaughtering the Indigenous population at Cholula in central Mexico

The first allies of Cortés, the Totonacs, now returned to their homes laden with gifts from the Spaniards, and Cortés left Cholua with a force of around 1000 Tlaxcalans. He chose to cross the mountains over the most difficult pass (now known as Paso Cortés), to surprise the Aztecs.

The conquistadors in Tenochtitlan

The *conquistadors* reached Tenochtitlan in November 1519. Montezuma met Cortés on the causeway (a raised path) leading into the city. He believed Cortés had been sent by the god Quetzalcoatl, but he soon realised that the Spaniards were actually after land and treasure. As relations became less friendly, Cortés took Montezuma as a hostage and sent expeditions into the countryside in search of gold, while he continued to amass any treasure he could find in Tenochtitlan.

In May 1520, while Cortés was out of the city, the Spaniards massacred a group of Aztec nobles during a festival (see Source 16.30). This led to an uprising of the city's inhabitants, and Cortés returned to find that the *conquistadors* had lost control of the city. Montezuma is thought to have been killed by the crowds at this time. In July, the Spaniards tried to quietly withdraw from Tenochtitlan in the middle of the night. However, they were discovered and their withdrawal became a desperate fight to escape. Cortés escaped unharmed, but hundreds of Spaniards and Tlaxcalans were killed.

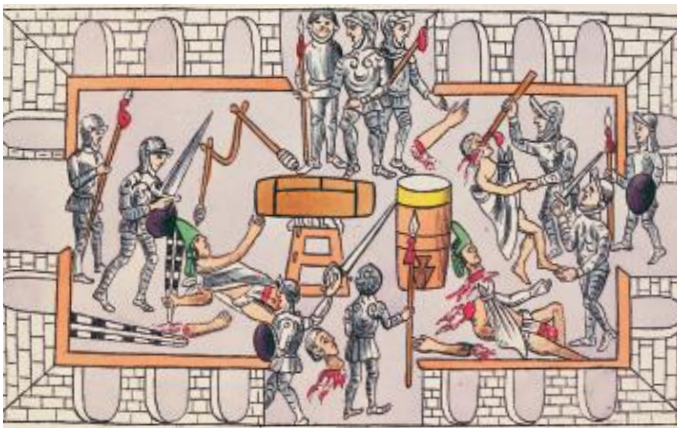
The Aztecs believed the Spanish threat was over. Soon after they had driven the invaders out, however, smallpox swept through the population. Smallpox and other diseases were introduced to the Americas by European explorers and settlers. Many European diseases were deadly to the native population who had no natural immunity to them. The smallpox epidemic of 1520 had a devastating affecting on the Aztecs, quickly killing around a quarter of the population. One of the casualties was Montezuma's successor as Aztec ruler, Cuitláhuac.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

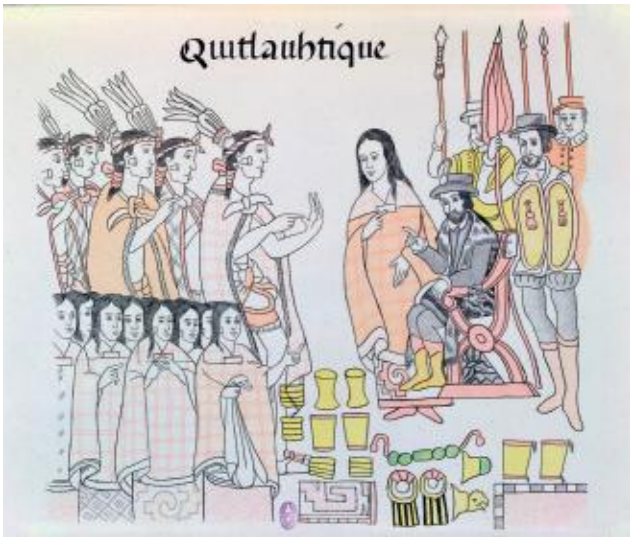
In one account of Montezuma's death, amidst the fighting he went to the palace rooftop to appeal for peace on the urging of Cortés. They responded with a shower of stones, several of which hit Montezuma, and he died from his wounds.

The conquistadors in Tenochtitlan

SOURCE STUDY



Source 16.30 An illustration of the massacre of Aztec nobles during a festival from the Codex Ixtlilxochitl



Source 16.32 A 19th-century illustration depicts a meeting between Cortés and Montezuma. The woman acting as an interpreter is Doña Marina, known as La Malinche.

Source 16.31

> On the second day [of the festival] they began to sing again, but without warning they were all put to death. The dancers and singers were completely unarmed. They brought only their embroidered cloaks ... their necklaces, their clusters of heron feathers, their trinkets made of deer hooves ... The Spaniards attacked the musicians first, slashing at their hands and faces until they had killed all of them. The singers – and even the spectators – were also killed. This slaughter in the Sacred Patio went on for three hours ... The king Motecuhzoma [Montezuma]... protested: 'Our lords, that is enough! What are you doing? These people are not carrying shields or macanas [wooden clubs]. Our lords, they are completely unarmed!'... [the massacre took place]on the twentieth day after the captain [Cortés] left for the coast. We allowed the Captain to return to the city in peace. But on the following day we attacked him with all our might, and that was the beginning of the war.
>
> An Aztec account of the slaughter of warriors during a festival

INTERPRET 16.3

1. Describe the scene shown in Source 16.32 and suggest what the women and items at the bottom of the illustration are. What does this source tell us about the first contact experience between Spanish and Aztec leaders at Tenochtitlan?
2. Describe the scene shown in Source 16.30.
3. Read Source 16.31. Does this account support the evidence provided in Source 16.30?

EXTEND 16.5

1. La Malinche was a noblewoman from a native tribe who was given to the Spaniards as a slave. She acted as an interpreter between Cortés and Montezuma at their first meeting, and became the mistress of Cortés. Conduct research to write a brief biography of La Malinche. Include sources that show different perspectives about her role in the Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire.

Source 16.33 A 16th-century illustration of an Aztec warrior from the *Historia de las cosas de Nueva Espana*. The warrior carries a wooden club and a shield made from feathers, agave paper, leather and reed.

The defeat of the Aztecs and destruction of Tenochtitlan

After escaping from the city, the Spaniards retreated to the territory of their Tlaxcalan allies. Cortés rested his army for 20 days, then set off on a campaign to conquer Aztec allies in the surrounding regions. This was the most brutal campaign conducted by Cortés. He won over half of the Aztecs territories, with the native peoples supporting the *conquistadors* through fear. An estimated 15 000 to 20 000 people died in battle; women and children were enslaved and some captives were given to the Tlaxcalans for human sacrifice and to cannibalise. Other tribes joined the Spaniards willingly, to help throw off the rule of their Aztec overlords.

In May 1521, Cortés returned to Tenochtitlan and laid siege to the city with a force of 550 Spaniards and 10 000 Tlaxcalan. As well as executing daily attacks, he used boats to cut off the city from supplies of food, and destroyed the aqueduct that brought fresh water into the city.

The Aztecs, who were already vulnerable after the smallpox epidemic, were finally overcome after a three-month siege. Cortés had originally intended to preserve Tenochtitlan and offer it to the Spanish king as a prize. However, after months of bombardment by Spanish cannons, the once-great city lay in ruins. Stones from the temples, pyramids and palaces were used to build churches and government buildings. The canals that criss-crossed the city were filled in.

Reasons for Spanish success

Historians estimate that around 100 000 Aztecs and about 100 Spaniards were killed during the three months when Cortés laid siege to Tenochtitlan. Tens of thousands of Aztecs and other peoples had also being killed in his campaigns. In contrast, the Spanish lost less than 1000 of the 1800 *conquistadors* who came to Mexico between 1519 and 1521. The success of the Spanish in battle and widely differing casualties were a consequence of the superior technology and weapons of the Spaniards, the fierceness of their tribal allies who were enemies of the Aztecs, and the different fighting methods of the Aztec and Spanish.

Source 16.34 Spanish advantages over the Aztecs

	Spanish	Aztec
Weapons	• The Spaniards used steel for their armour and weapons. • The Spaniards used gunpowder with powerful cannons and firearms. • The use of horses gave the conquistadors some advantage – before the Spanish came the Aztecs had never seen horses and were initially frightened of them.	• The Aztecs fought with wooden clubs and swords made of obsidian, a hard but brittle form of volcanic rock which broke against the armour and swords of the conquistadors.
Battle tactics	• The conquistadors were well trained in disciplined military manoeuvres. • A smaller Spanish force could defeat a larger Aztec force as long as they could maintain their energy.	• The Aztecs had a tradition of running at their enemies head on. This meant that only the front ranks could fight, to be replaced by rear ranks as they were cut down.
Fighting traditions	• The Spanish killed enemies from a distance with cannons and guns, retreated when battles were being lost, and attacked villages at night when the inhabitants were asleep.	• To Aztec warriors, killing from a distance was not honourable. Battles were highly organised and fought hand-to-hand. • The Aztecs were also used to wounding their opponents rather than killing (to capture them for sacrifice). This would often give the Spaniards a chance to escape from battle and fight another day.

The defeat of the Aztecs

SOURCE STUDY

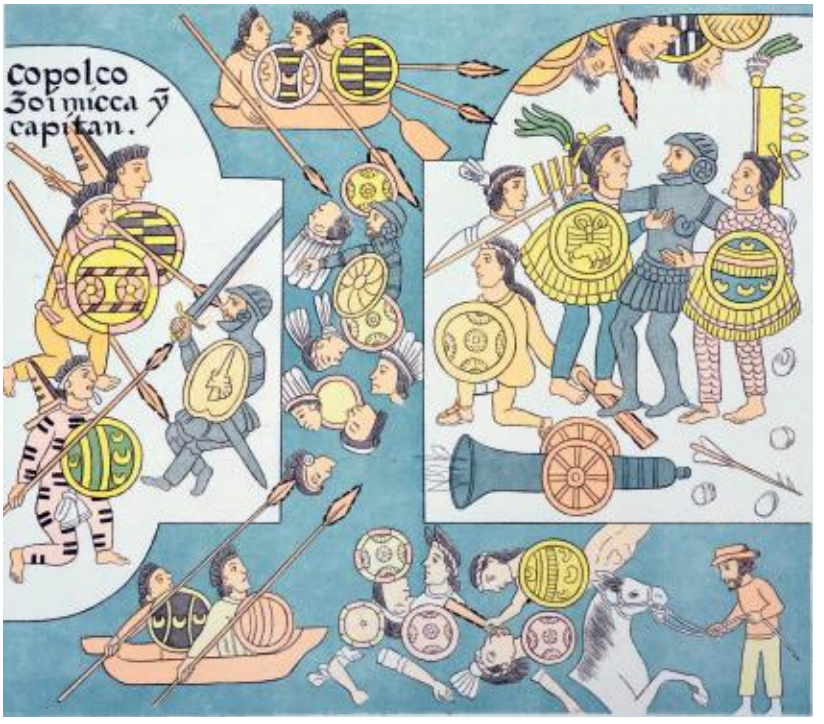
Source 16.35

> [the Aztec ruler Cuauhtemoc] would prefer to die where he was rather than on any account appear before me ... The people of the city had to walk upon their dead while others swam or drowned in the waters of that wide lake where they had their canoes; indeed, so great was their suffering that it was beyond our understanding how they could endure it. Countless numbers of men, women and children came out toward us, and in their eagerness to escape many were pushed into the water where they drowned amid that multitude of corpses; and it seemed that more than fifty thousand had perished from the salt water they had drunk, their hunger and the vile stench. So that we should not discover the plight which they were in, they dared neither throw these bodies into the water ... nor throw them [out of the city] where the soldiers might see them; and so in those streets where they were, they came across such piles of the dead that we were forced to walk upon them ...

Extract from a letter by Hernan Cortés, describing the end of the siege of Tenochtitlan, in *Letters from Mexico*, Anthony Pagden (ed.), Anthony Pagden (trans.), Yale University Press, 1986, pp. 263–264.

INTERPRET 16.4

1. Examine Source 16.36 and identify the advantages that the Spanish had in fighting the Aztecs depicted in the illustration.
2. In Source 16.35, what was Cortés referring to that was beyond understanding?
3. According to Cortés, what were the causes of death of the besieged Aztecs? What Spanish actions were these a consequence of?
4. Write an account of the end of the siege of Tenochtitlan from the perspective of an Aztec survivor, then from the perspective of one of a Spanish soldier.



Source 16.36 A 19th-century illustration of the final battle between Cortés and Aztec ruler Cuauhtémoc at Tenochtitlan in August 1521

REVIEW 16.6

1. Which tribes were allies of the Spanish?
2. Why did Montezuma greet Cortés in peace when the Spaniards arrived in Tenochtitlan?
3. Describe the incident that caused the Aztecs in Tenochtitlan to rise against the Spaniards in 1520.
4. Outline the tactics used by Cortés in his successful siege of Tenochtitlan.

THE IMPACT OF SPANISH CONQUEST AND COLONISATION IN THE AMERICAS

The impact of the Spanish conquest of the Americas cannot be underestimated. The arrival of Europeans would lead to the downfall of Indigenous groups throughout the region.

The Spanish settlement of Mexico

The destruction of Tenochtitlan by Cortés marked the beginning of 300 years of Spanish rule in the former Aztec Empire. From Tenochtitlan, Cortés sent expeditions out in all directions to expand Spanish settlement. Territories were divided up and ruled by Cortés, his Spanish companions and even a few Aztecs who had become Christians, such as the son and daughter of Montezuma. Each town was governed by a *conquistador,* who was meant to ensure that the Indigenous peoples under his protection became Christians and good subjects of the Spanish king. In return, he required their payment of a tribute and their services.

A remarkable characteristic of Spanish settlement was the part played by Indigenous peoples, including Tlaxcalans and Aztecs. Their leaders were permitted to ride horses and dress as the Spanish did, and they played an important role in bringing outlying tribes under the rule of New Spain. In two to three generations, their descendants became indistinguishable in habits and speech from the grandchildren of *conquistadors*.

Spanish treatment of the conquered Aztecs

In contrast to the way some native leaders were treated once they had conquered the Aztec Empire, the Spanish treated the ordinary people very badly. Under the Spanish, the Aztecs lost their land and independence. The Spanish saw the new territory as a source of great potential wealth. That wealth could only be created through the labour of the population. Natives were given to soldiers, officers and other important Spaniards under a system called the *encomienda*. In theory, the Spaniards were supposed to protect the Native Americans, teach them Spanish and convert them to Christianity. In practice, the Native Americans were usually just treated as slaves. The Spanish were greedy for gold and silver to ship back to Spain. In addition to looting the society, the Spanish forced Indigenous peoples to work in the gold and silver mines of the Americas, where they were brutally treated and sometimes worked to death.

The expansion of the Spanish Empire

The defeat of the Aztecs by Cortés encouraged other *conquistadors* in their dreams of conquest and wealth. In the 1530s and 1540s, the Indigenous peoples in the regions formerly controlled by the Inca Empire and the Maya were treated as brutally as the Aztecs. The Spanish Empire became one of the greatest trading empires of the early modern world, which lasted until the end of the 19th century.

Source 16.37

> By 1550, Spain dominated the lands and peoples around the Caribbean, and deep into both North and South America: a domain more than ten times larger than Spain itself. The approximately twenty million or more Indians they encountered dwarfed the seven million Spaniards at home. In extent and population, and cultural diversity, the Spanish empire in the Americas exceeded even the ancient Roman, previously the standard of imperial power.
>
> Extract from Michael Mcdonnell, 'The "conquest" of the Americas: The Aztecs', at *American History for Australian Schools* website

The wider impact of Spanish conquest in the Americas

European diseases

Source 16.38 A drawing from the Florentine Codex depicts Indigenous people infected with smallpox. The drawing was made by Bernardino de Sahagún, a 16th-century Spanish missionary.

Before the arrival of the Spanish, civilisations in the Americas had never been exposed to people from beyond their region. This meant that they had no immunity to diseases that were common in Europe. The Spanish, in contrast, came from a continent that had been ravaged by epidemics (widespread contagious diseases) for hundreds of years. Most Europeans had some immunity to diseases such as smallpox, measles and influenza. When these diseases accompanied the *conquistadors* to the Americas, outbreaks among Indigenous peoples severely reduced their populations. There were major outbreaks of smallpox in the 1520s, measles from 1531 to 1532, influenza in 1545 and 1576, as well as the spread of plague, whooping cough and mumps. It has been estimated that the Indigenous populations in Spanish colonies dropped from 8 million in 1518 to 2.6 million in the 1560s. Some have argued that the effect of these diseases in the Caribbean and South America was worse than that of the Black Death in Europe in the 14th century. It has been claimed that 90 per cent of the inhabitants of the Inca Empire died from introduced diseases.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

While the effect of European diseases cannot be underestimated, recent research has suggested that a major disease that dramatically affected the population may have been a home-grown variety. The Aztec name for this disease was *Cocoliztli*, and modern scientists have identified it as a form of Ebola, spread by rats.

Forced labour and slavery

As early as 1493, the Indigenous peoples in the America learned what it was to lose their freedom. In the settlement of Hispaniola, the hard work was done by the native Taino people. The *conquistadors* raped women, enslaved men, imposed unjust punishments and insisted on being provided with gold. When Taino chiefs protested, they were overthrown, transported or killed. The Indigenous population in the Caribbean was reduced to almost nothing in two generations. Traditional agriculture was destroyed and the local people were worked to death in the search for gold. In smaller, 'useless' islands the natives were enslaved and moved to the larger colonies as labour. Perhaps 200 000 died in the four largest Caribbean islands in a quarter of a century. As we have seen, people from the conquered Aztec and Inca societies were also treated as slaves by their Spanish 'protectors'.

The spread of Christianity

After conquest, priests came to set up the Catholic Church in Mexico and other colonies, and carried out thousands of conversions. The rapid conversion to Christianity was remarkable, with hundreds of thousands of Native Americans becoming Catholics. Spanish colonies were soon covered in a network of monasteries, churches, shrines and parishes. Out of sight of the priests, many Indigenous peoples continued to worship the old gods, but without the element of human sacrifice.

Agriculture and food

From 1522, Cortés brought in European domestic animals – such as cattle, pigs, sheep, goats and mules – from the West Indies to the mainland of the America. Native Americans were introduced to the horse by the Spanish. Cortés also imported sugar cane, mulberry trees for silkworms, vines, olives and wheat.

European learning and technologies

The conquered peoples adapted fast to the new European ways, learning Latin script, the use of the wheel and pulley, employing wax candles for illumination, and working with mules and oxen. They also found out about the advantages of working with metal nails and screws.

APPLY 16.7

1 Conduct research and write a short report about one of the wider impacts of Spanish conquest on the Indigenous peoples of the Americas. Include relevant sources.

The longer-term effects of Spanish colonisation

The colonisation of the New World

Explorers from other countries were motivated by Spain's success in finding wealth and new land in the Americas. The initial voyage of Christopher Columbus started a wave of exploration in North and South America by the British, French and Dutch. Spain's great rival, Portugal, also set up colonies in the Americas. Eventually the entire continent came under the control of colonial powers.

Population change, language and religion

Spanish colonisation dramatically changed the ethnic make-up of the Americas. First, many of the Indigenous populations were killed by disease. Then, many Spaniards migrated to the Americas after colonisation had begun. Approximately 240 000 moved to the Americas in the 16th century, and another 500 000 in the following century.

One of the legacies of the *conquistadors* was the spread of the Spanish language, which is by far the most common language in Latin America now. In fact, it is the second-most widely spoken language in the world, after Mandarin. Brazil's main language, however, is Portuguese. This can be traced back to the Treaty of Tordesillas of 1494, which stated that all lands discovered west of a line drawn down the Atlantic Ocean should belong to Spain and all to the east to Portugal.

The Catholic Church also expanded its worldwide influence after Spanish conquest, spreading to distant regions of South America, Africa and the Philippines.

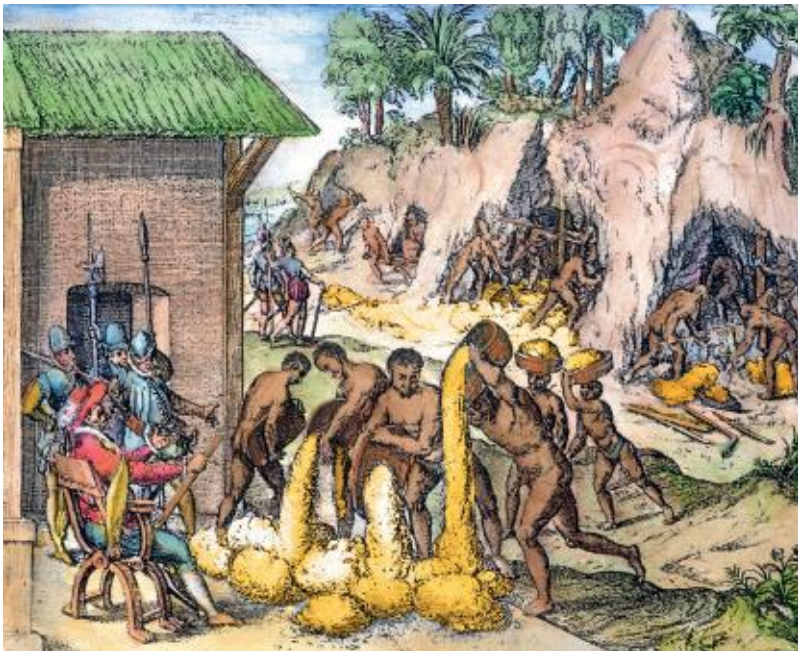
STRANGE BUT TRUE

Because he was convinced that he had reached the coastline of Asia, Columbus never realised – nor was it recognised by anyone during his lifetime – that he had found a new continent. This honour went to the Italian navigator Amerigo Vespucci who made three voyages to the New World and wrote about his discovery. 'America' (both North and South) was named for him in 1507.

Source 16.39 Today, Spanish is the official language of many nations in the Americas, such as Mexico.

African slave trade

In the Caribbean, the brutal treatment of the local populations meant that most of them died or were not fit to work on the plantations established by the Spanish. To solve this problem, the Spanish brought shiploads of African slaves to work in the Caribbean, and to other parts of the Americas. One impact was the changed ethnic make-up of the population, so that the majority were no longer Indigenous but European and African. A wider impact was the growth of the African slave trade, which became the reason behind one of the great movements of people during the 18th and 19th centuries. It is estimated that around 12 million Africans were captured and brought to the Caribbean, South America and Britain's North American colonies before the trade in humans was finally abolished in the 19th century.



Source 16.40 African slaves at work in the mines of Hispaniola. Africans were first brought to the Caribbean as slaves to replace the native Taino people, many of whom had died from disease and overwork.

The Columbian Exchange

The Columbian Exchange is a term used for the transfer of crops, livestock, people and disease between the Americas and the rest of the world after the arrival of Columbus in the New World. We have already discussed the effect of the introduction of diseases, and new livestock (such as horses and other large domestic animals) that transformed traditional farming practices in the Americas. The most significant changes in other parts of the world resulting from Spanish colonisation were the introduction of new crops to Europe and Asia. Imagine Ireland without potatoes, Italy without tomatoes, Switzerland without chocolate, Thailand without chillies. All these crops were unknown outside the Americas before the Spanish arrived but became very important to the diets of these countries. The foods that were brought from the Americas became important sources of nutrition for European populations. Crops such as potatoes and peanuts allowed more efficient farming. These crops could yield more calories per acre than in the past. In addition, foods such as tomatoes and chilli peppers were a rich source of vitamins. In the Mediterranean, these foods enriched diets and improved the health of the population. These improvements in food helped to trigger population growth in Europe and other regions.

Source 16.41 Maize (corn) and chillies are two examples of foods that were unknown outside the Americas before the travels of Columbus

REVIEW 16.7

1. How did the Spanish control the former Aztec Empire after the fall of Tenochtitlan?
2. Explain the term *encomienda*.
3. How large was the population of Spain's colonies in the Americas compared to the population of Spain itself?
4. How much of the Indigenous population is estimated to have died from European diseases?
5. List the foods that were brought to Europe from the Americas.

16.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS?

» Explain the reasons for Spanish conquest and settlement in the Americas

1 Why did Spain and other European countries send expeditions to the Americas? (5 marks)

2 What motivated Spanish conquistadors to join expeditions in the Americas? (2 marks)

» Identify the societies that the Spanish conquered in the Americas

3 On a blank map of the Americas, add labels to identify five Indigenous societies or locations that were conquered by the Spanish, including significant individuals and dates of key events. (10 marks)

» Describe how geographic features influenced Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire

4 Describe the geographic features on the overland route taken by Cortés to Tenochtitlan. How did they affect the conquistadors' journey? (5 marks)

» Describe different perspectives on the first-contact experiences between the Spanish and Aztec society

5 How did Montezuma react to news of the arrival of Cortés on Aztec territory? Explain this response from the Aztec perspective, then explain how it would have been viewed from the Spanish perspective. (5 marks)

6 Describe conflicts between the Spanish and Indigenous peoples on the journey to Tenochtitlan. What were the consequences of these conflicts? (5 marks)

7 Refer to Source 16.43 to respond to the following questions.

- **a** Describe the first meeting of Cortés and Montezuma at Tenochtitlan in 1519.
- **b** Explain the Spanish and Aztec perspectives on the way Montezuma greeted Cortés to his capital.
- **c** How does the artist show the Spanish threat to the Aztecs despite the peaceful nature of this meeting? (10 marks)

» Explain how the Spanish conquered and controlled Aztec society

8 Explain the tactics used by Cortés to defeat the Aztecs at the siege of Tenochtitlan in 1521. What were the consequences for the city and its inhabitants, and for the Spanish? (5 marks)

9 How did Cortés conquer Aztec territories after the fall of Tenochtitlan? (3 marks)

10 Explain how the Spanish governed the former Aztec territories. (5 marks)

Source 16.42 A 16th century artist's impression of the meeting of Cortés and Montezuma

» Explain how the Aztecs were affected by the Spanish conquests

11 Explain the Spanish treatment of Indigenous peoples and other changes introduced to the Americas as a result of Spanish conquest. How did this affect their culture and way of life? (5 marks)

» Investigate the wider impact of the Spanish conquests of the Americas

12 Explain the wider impact of one of the following aspects of Spanish conquest in the Americas:

- the introduction of European diseases
- forced labour and slavery in the service of Spanish colonisers
- the spread of Christianity
- the introduction of European crops and livestock
- the introduction of European culture and technologies. (5 marks)

» Assess the long-term effects and legacy of colonisation by the Spanish in the Americas

13 Identify and describe the long-term effects of Spanish colonisation in the Americas. Explain how each has influenced the Americas and the modern world. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/75]

RICH TASK

Perspectives on the Spanish conquests of the Americas

1 Read the following statements and select one. Write an extended response that discusses whether you agree or disagree with your chosen statement.

- 'In the end, the people of the Americas gained more than they lost by the Spanish conquests.'
- 'While we may weep for the poor Aztec killed on the battlefield or conscripted into slavery we might also give two cheers for the conquistadors for having purged [rid] the Earth of a vile culture.' (Extract from Tim Stanley, 'Two cheers for the conquistors' at *HistoryToday* website)

2 Examine Source 16.43 and describe the activities presented in the painting.

a What do you think the artist is saying about the Spanish conquest of the Americas?

b Create a photo montage or artwork that represents your own depiction of the events and impact of Spanish conquest of the Americas.

Source 16.43 This 1951 mural by Mexican painter Diego Rivera, titled *The Conquest or Arrival of Hernán Cortés in Veracruz*, shows details of Spain's colonial domination of the Indigenous peoples of Mexico.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- Analysis and use of sources
- Perspectives and interpretations
- Research
- Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

17

Source 17.1 Before North America was colonised by Europeans, huge herds of wild bison roamed free. Today, bison are still the largest land animals in North America, but during the age of European colonisation they were hunted until they were almost made extinct.

ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY

In the 17th and 18th centuries, European powers established new colonies in North America, Asia, Africa and the Pacific region. In North America and Australia, European settlement meant that Indigenous peoples were increasingly forced from lands that had been their home for thousands of years. Dispossession did not just mean losing traditional hunting grounds and sources of food; in both places, Indigenous people experienced a loss of culture and way of life.

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

17.1 SECTION

In this section you will:

» define the concepts of invasion, occupation, colonisation and settlement

» explain how and why North America was colonised

» describe the main features of Native American culture prior to colonisation

» describe key aspects of contact between the Native Americans and the colonisers

» describe differing experiences of contact between Native American and European peoples

» describe and assess the life of one Native American in contact with the colonisers

» explain the results of colonisation for settlers and for Native Americans

CHECKPOINT 17.1

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

17.2 SECTION

In this section you will:

» recall the nature of early British contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

» describe the differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal relationships to Land and Country

» describe some of the differing experiences of contact between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples

» outline developments in government policies towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to 1900

» describe and assess the life of one Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander individual in contact with the British colonisers

» explain the results of colonisation for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and for non-Aboriginal peoples to 1900

» compare the experiences of colonisation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and Native Americans

CHECKPOINT 17.2

ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY – A TIMELINE

Source 17.2
A portrait of Colebee of the Éora people, who lived in the area of Sydney Cove

TIMELINE

1607–1608
The British and French establish their first colonies in North America.

1770
James Cook claims possession of the east coast of Australia on behalf of Britain, on his voyage on the *Endeavour*.

1788
Governor Phillip and the First Fleet establish a settlement at Sydney Cove in New South Wales.

1789
An outbreak of smallpox in the Sydney region kills an estimated 50–70% of the Indigenous population who were living there.

1797
The Aboriginal Australian warrior leader Pemulwuy lends resistance against British occupation of the Parramatta area west of Sydney in New South Wales.

1600 1770 1780 1790 1800

Source 17.3
A 1793 illustration shows Governor Phillip and officers of the First Fleet visiting a victim of smallpox.

Source 17.5 Detail from a 19th century painting depicting General George Custer at the Battle of Little Big Horn.

1804
The Lewis and Clark expedition explored the Great Plains of North America until 1806, and paved the way for European settlement of the lands west of the Mississippi river.

1830
The Indian Removal Act is passed by the US government.

1837
The first government-sponsored protectorate is established in Port Phillip.

1838
The Myall Creek Massacre, near Bingara in northern NSW. Thirty Aborigines, including women and children, were killed.

1840
The concept of Manifest Destiny became was widely accepted in the USA.

1868
The Fort Laramie Treaty brought a temporary halt to the Sioux Wars.

1876
The Battle of Little Big Horn, at which a large force of Sioux led by chief Crazy Horse won a victory over US 7th Cavalry led by General Custer.

1890
The Wounded Knee Massacre, the last major event of the Sioux Wars, when 150 to 300 unarmed men, women and children were shot by US troops.

1928
The Coniston Massacre in the Northern Territory, a series of attacks on Indigenous camps by police and pastoralists, was the last incidence of this kind in Australia.

1830 1840 1870 1890 1930

Source 17.4 A 19th-century painting of a female figure as a symbol of Manifest Destiny

REVIEW 17.1

1 Put the following events in correct chronological order, from oldest to most recent.
- The Battle of Little Big Horn is fought
- James Cook claims the east coast of Australia for Britain
- Lewis and Clark explore the Great Plains in the United States
- An outbreak of smallpox occurs in Sydney Cove

17.1 WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

SECTION

In this section you will be introduced to the study of contact and colonisation history. You will explore some key terms and learn about the experiences of native peoples and settlers during the colonisation of North America by Europeans from the 15th century through the 19th century. We will also look closely at important aspects of Native American cultures from the early 17th century to the Plains Wars of the mid-19th century.

COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY

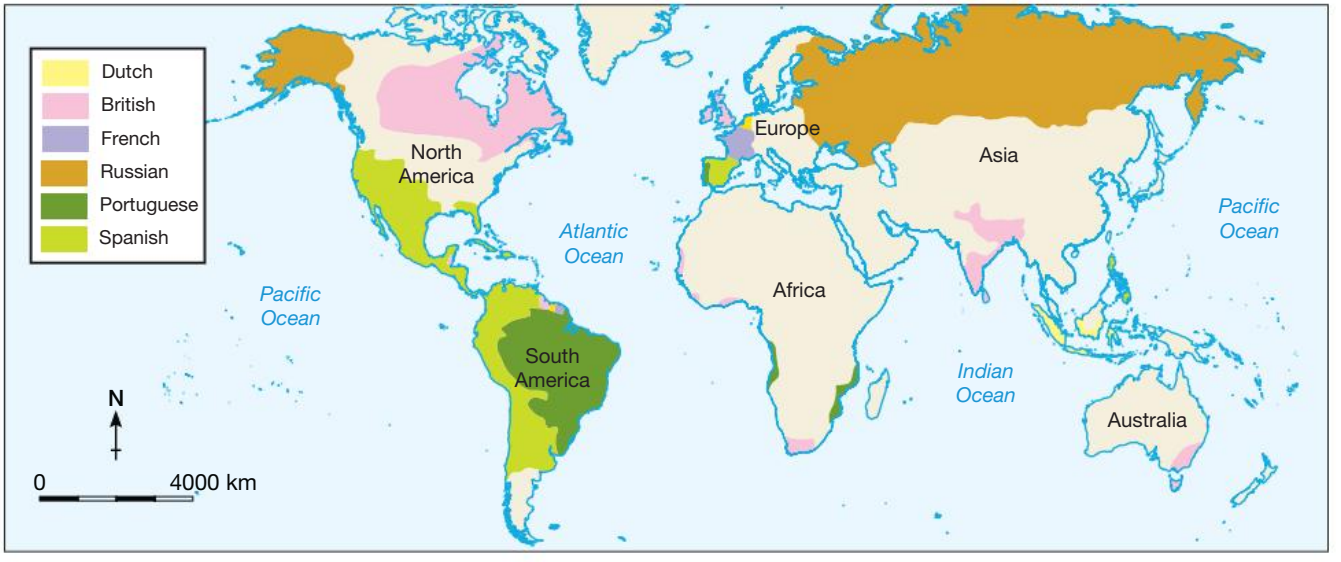
World history from 1750 to 1918 was dominated by the expansion of European empires. European powers such as Britain, France, Spain and Portugal established new settlements, or communities, in the Americas, Africa, Asia and the Pacific region. In sending their settlers to these territories outside Europe, the intention of European powers was to **colonise** new lands. In other words, they meant to take control of the land and its inhabitants, imposing their culture, economy and system of government. Extending power by colonising is known as **imperialism**.

To the Indigenous peoples who had inhabited these areas for tens of thousands of years, European settlements represented an **invasion**. From their point of view, the newcomers' **occupation** of traditional lands was done without their agreement. When conflicts erupted, settlers had the advantage because their weapons were far more advanced than those of Indigenous peoples. Also, settlers were often accompanied by armed soldiers or a ship's crew. A key to understanding colonisation and contact history is to examine events from both sides of the story. In recent decades, for example, historians have referred to the arrival of the British in Australia as both invasion and settlement.

APPLY 17.1

1 Write definitions for the words 'invasion', 'occupation', 'colonisation' and 'settlement' in your own words. Compare your definitions with those of a partner and discuss any differences.

2 With reference to Source 17.6, list the continents where Britain, France and Spain had colonies.



Source 17.6 Colonial empires in 1815

European imperialism had its origins in the Industrial Revolution, which began in Britain around 1750. This was a time when new ways of manufacturing, using factories and machinery, were being developed. Europe's colonies provided a source of raw materials – such as cotton, wool and timber – that were needed to supply the new industries. The colonies themselves provided new markets for goods that were now being produced in great quantities. This created great wealth for Europe's merchants and industrialists.

The race to seize and settle new territories was also about competing for global power and influence. Europeans felt justified in imposing their culture and values on Indigenous peoples, as they believed their customs were more evolved and civilised than those of Indigenous peoples. They had a right to 'civilise' native peoples and make them behave and think like Europeans, and have Christian beliefs.

Colonisation patterns of supplanting societies

The Australian historian David Day has described the European colonies of this period as **supplanting societies**. This means that Europeans took over the lands of other societies and supplanted, or replaced, the groups that had previously lived there. Day says that Europeans created a new version of the history of the lands they colonised by telling their own stories and legends about explorers and pioneers. For example, in North America, the Wild West and the figure of the cowboy are now key aspects of US history and folklore. Similarly, Australia has stories about the outback, drovers and the explorers.

There were also common ways in which Europeans established their claims to new lands:

- using maps drawn by European explorers to claim the land on the basis that they were the first to discover it
- raising a flag or putting up some kind of marker
- naming places with links to their own country, often using the word 'new'. For example, New South Wales was named by James Cook because the coastline reminded him of Wales in Britain. The city of New York was first called New Amsterdam by the Dutch until the British took control and named it after York in England.

Source 17.7 A French map of Australia, then known as New Holland (*Nouvelle Hollande* in French), from before 1770

REVIEW 17.2

1 Explain why European powers competed to establish colonies around the world.
2 What was one European justification for taking control of land already occupied by Indigenous peoples?
3 How did Europeans claim ownership of lands?
4 What does David Day mean by the term 'supplanting society'?

APPLY 17.2

1 Source 17.7 is an early map of Australia, then called New Holland. It dates from before Cook's first voyage to the Pacific, from 1768 to 1771. Find a map of Australia that was created after this voyage, and compare the maps. Suggest how Cook's map helped Britain to colonise Australia.
2 Discuss whether it is fair to claim ownership of land based on the first mapping, or the first raising of a flag.

Source 17.8 An artist's impression of the moment when Governor Arthur Phillip raised the British flag to claim all of the east coast of Australia

NATIVE AMERICAN CULTURES

There is still debate about when the original inhabitants of the Americas first settled the region. There is now general acceptance, however, that people reached North America from Asia by travelling across a narrow land bridge between the continents. During the Ice Age, between 40 000 and 10 000 BC, there were lower sea levels, which allowed people to move to new land that was unoccupied by humans. When the **Ice Age** was over, the water filled in, forming the Bering Strait.

APPLY 17.3

1 Use an atlas to locate the Bering Strait. A strait is a narrow passage of water that connects two oceans or bodies of water. Which oceans are on either side of the Bering Strait? Which countries are on either side of the strait? Estimate the distance across the Bering Strait today.

SOURCE STUDY

Native American cultures

Source 17.9 A traditional Iroquois longhouse, made from saplings and bark. Some villages were built on the tops of steep-sided hills that provided natural defence from attack; they would be surrounded by palisades (fences).

Source 17.10 A reconstruction of a Sioux tepee, a conical tent made from bison hides

Source 17.11 Native American cultures across North America

Native American culture regions

North America is a large continent, with mountains, deserts, wide plains, many rivers and deep forests. In the north, there are dense forests, open tundras and plains, hundreds of lakes and rivers, and icy landscapes. In the south, there are marshes, swamps and hot deserts. The Indigenous peoples of the Americas settled across the continent, and in doing so adapted to very different climates and conditions. The result is that there were many different Indigenous cultures and ways of living. Some groups were farmers and lived in large settled communities, much like Europeans, while others were nomadic. Some groups relied primarily on fishing for their food, while others lived by hunting and gathering. Source 17.11 shows the Native American culture regions, and the various nations and tribes within those regions. Sources 17.9, 17.10, 17.12, 17.13, 17.14 and 17.15, show the variety of Native American dwellings and ways of life.

Source 17.12 Traditional dwellings of the Pueblo Indians, constructed from adobe bricks made of earth, clay, and straw

Source 17.14 A 16th-century illustration of Native Americans fishing in the north-east region

Source 17.15 A 16th-century illustration of Native Americans of the south-east region planting maize (corn)

Source 17.13 A 19th-century artist's impression of a bison hunt on the Great Plains

INTERPRET 17.1

1. Describe the dwellings shown in Sources 17.9, 17.10 and 17.12, including your observations about building materials used and methods of construction. What does each dwelling tell you about the environment of the people who built it, and their way of life?
2. Use Source 17.11 to identify the culture region where each of these dwellings is located.
3. Describe the different activities shown in Sources 17.13 to 17.15.
4. Using Sources 17.9 to 17.15, write a statement that summarises the nature of Native American culture before the arrival of Europeans.

Spiritual beliefs

The many tribal groups in the Native American cultural regions meant there was a variety of spiritual beliefs and rituals practised. But in all Native American cultures, spirituality held a central place in daily life, as did beliefs based on people's relationship with the land. Native Americans did not have the same sense of ownership of land as the European colonisers, who viewed land as a commodity to be traded or exploited. Native Americans believed a Great Spirit created the Earth and continued to exist in natural things, so elements of nature were respected, including plants, animals, the earth and sky, and the wind and rain.

Source 17.16

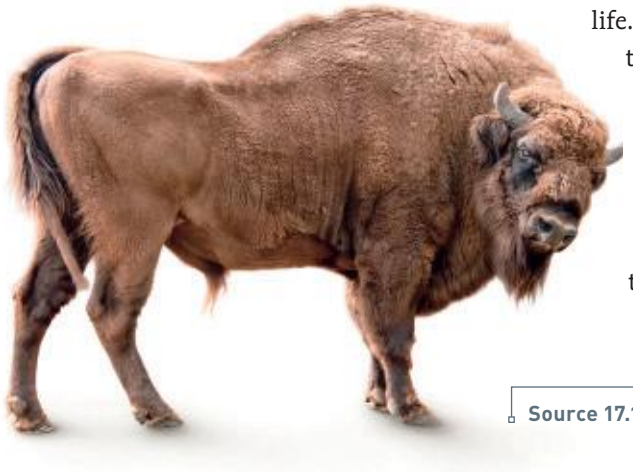
> Every seed is awakened and so is all animal life. It is through this mysterious power that we too have our being and we therefore yield to our animal neighbours the same right as ourselves, to inhabit this land.
>
> Sitting Bull, a chief of the Sioux Nation

Peoples of the Great Plains

There have been many books and films about the Plains Wars of the late 19th century. They depict conflicts between Native Americans and settlers, as well as famous battles against the US army during the last stage of European expansion across North America.

The Sioux Nation were a Great Plains group of about 20 000 people from a number of tribes. They roamed across the Great Plains, following the large bison (buffalo) herds. They lived mainly by hunting, making use of the horses that had been introduced to the Americas by the Spanish in the early 16th century.

Bison provided the food and materials the Sioux used in everyday life. The hide was used for clothes and the construction of tepees. Bones were used for tools. Sinews (tendons connecting muscle to bone) were made into rope and thread. Dried bison dung was used to fuel campfires. Even a bison's tongue was dried and used as a hairbrush. The central place of the bison in the Sioux way of life meant it was honoured, and part of the people's spiritual connection with the land and all of nature.



Source 17.16 A fully grown bison bull weighs around 900 kilograms.

SOURCE STUDY

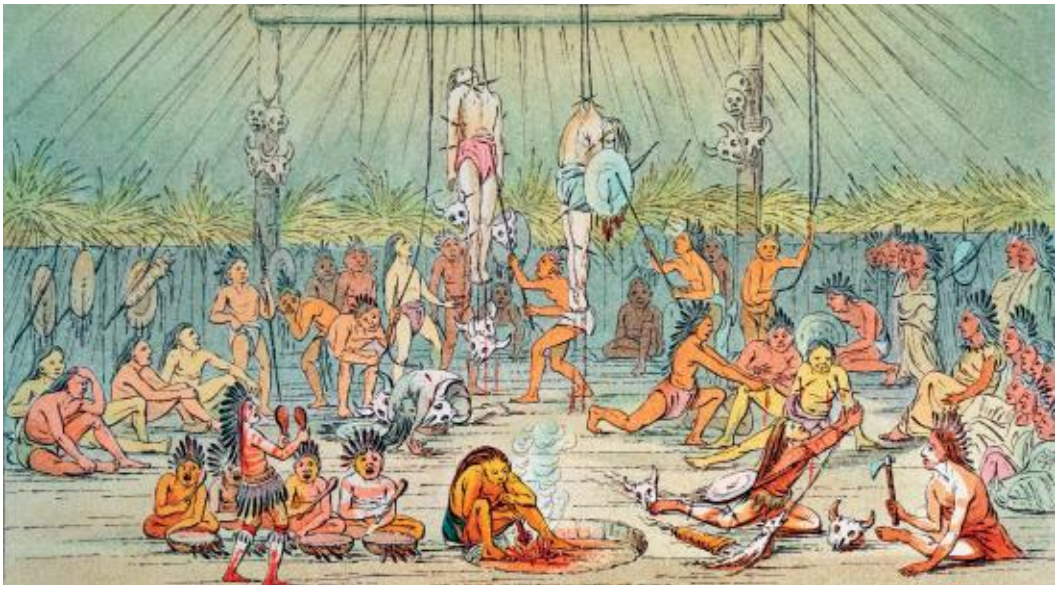
Sioux Sun Dance

The Sioux Sun Dance was part of ceremonial rituals performed once a year, between the end of the hunting season in June or July, and the start of preparations for winter. After days of dancing in worship of the sun god, the Sun Dance was performed as a final ceremony. Dancers who took part in the Sun Dance endured piercings that caused great pain. They believed that in return for their suffering the spiritual powers would grant their people's welfare and protection. Other Native American tribes had similar ceremonies but the sacrificial acts involved fasting (not eating for a length of time) or intense dancing rather than piercing.

Source 17.17

> Two men having taken their positions near the middle of the lodge ... one with the scalping-knife, and the other with a bunch of splints [thin pieces of wood] ... the young fellows, already emaciated with fasting, and thirsting, and waking, for nearly four days and nights, advanced from the side of the lodge.
>
> An inch or more of the flesh on each breast was taken up between the thumb and the finger by the man who held the knife ... the knife, which had been ground sharp on both edges, and then hacked and notched ... to make it produce as much pain as possible, was forced through the flesh below the fingers ... followed with a splint or skewer, from the other, who held a bunch of such ... and was ready to force them through the wound. There were two cords lowered down ... which were fastened to these splints or skewers, and they instantly began to haul him up; he was raised thus until his body was suspended from the ground.

Extract from G. Catlin, *North American Indians*, Penguin, New York, 1989, p. 167



Source 17.18 A 19th-century illustration of a Sioux Sun dance

INTERPRET 17.2

1 Examine Source 7.18 and describe what different groups are doing during the Sun Dance ceremony.
2 Using Source 7.18 and the eye witness account in Source 7.17, write a brief narrative that describes the Sioux Sun Dance.

APPLY 17.4

1 In groups, investigate one of the Native American tribes or nations. Discuss:
   - the region where they lived; the natural features and climate of their traditional lands
   - how their society was organised and governed
   - their significant beliefs and values, and how these influenced their lives (for example, consider initiation and burial rituals, and actions in warfare)
   - the everyday life of men, women and children, including their dwellings, food sources and daily tasks
   - their peaceful contacts or conflicts with other nations or tribes.

REVIEW 17.3

1 Explain why there is a diverse range of Native American cultures.
2 What was the attitude of all Native American tribes to the land, and how did this differ from European values about land?
3 Describe the way of life of Native Americans who lived on the Great Plains.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Apache boys were trained from childhood to be physically fit and mentally tough. One test was a 5-kilometre run in the heat of the day – with a mouth full of water that could not be swallowed. After the run the boy had to spit out the water.

THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA

The Dutch, the French and the British first came to North America for trade, then in search of new land and homes. The tribes of the north-east were the first to experience the impact of a European invasion. In 1607, the British first settled in Virginia, expanding their settlements from 1620. In 1608, the French first established a colony at Quebec, in what became Canada. From that point, the *coureurs du bois* (which is French for 'runners of the woods') travelled in search of valuable furs to take back to Europe. These French trappers travelled further west through the Great Lakes and south along the Mississippi to trap beavers, lynx and other woodland animals, or to buy them from the native people.

Source 17.19 A 19th-century painting showing Sacagawea with Lewis and Clark during their expedition of 1804–1806

Settlements spread across the eastern parts of North America. By 1800, the tribes living on the eastern coast had had more than a century of contact with European settlers. There was peaceful contact through trading, but many tribes had been systematically dispossessed – forced from their land and made to abandon their way of life. Many tribes were drastically reduced by diseases brought to the New World by traders and settlers. Survivors of these tribes moved west, into and over the Appalachian Mountains further inland.

Other tribes further west had not yet felt the full impact of colonisation. This changed after Meriwether Lewis and William Clark led an expedition west of the Mississippi River, in 1804–1806. Their information helped establish the 'Oregon trail'. Based on their reports of good land suitable for farming and grazing, more and more settlers moved into traditional Native American homelands. In 1825, the opening of a canal that linked the Hudson River in New York State with the Great Lakes in the mid-west made travelling west even faster and easier.

These developments encouraged tens of thousands of settlers to move west. Among the first were mountain men, who travelled west to the Rockies, opening up trails for future settlers. Then came bison hunters, and next cattlemen, who moved on to the grasslands with their herds. The cattlemen were followed by homesteaders who chose farm and grazing land to settle on. Gold was discovered in California on the west coast in 1848, and then silver and more gold in Nevada and Dakota. Railway lines were built across the plains. Telegraph lines were built and small towns established. Fences appeared, and the ground was ploughed for new crops and farms.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

One of the most famous mountain men was Jedediah Smith. According to one story, Smith was attacked by a grizzly bear, and had an ear ripped off in one swipe of the bear's claw. He was able to escape, and returned to find the severed ear. With the help of friends, the ear was stitched back on using a sewing kit – without painkillers. Despite the best efforts of his friends, Smith later complained that they had sewn it on crooked.

APPLY 17.5

1 In a group, use an atlas to identify the locations of these places. Then mark them on a blank map of the USA.

- Virginia
- Appalachian Mountains
- Mississippi River
- New York
- Great Lakes
- Rocky Mountains
- Nevada, Dakota
- Montana, Oklahoma
- California

Native American reservations

Native American tribes had been forcibly removed from their homelands in what would become the USA from the early days of settlement. Then in 1830, the US government passed the *Indian Removal Act*, which made it official policy to remove tribes to **reservations** (areas where they were forced to live). The reservations were often far away from traditional lands, in areas that were not well suited for farming. Native Americans living on them were isolated, away from non-Indigenous settlements, trails and transport routes.

On the reservations, Native Americans found life difficult. They could not lead the lives they were accustomed to. Much of the land was unsuitable for agriculture and they had to rely on government rations for food. Authorities founded boarding schools for Native American children. At boarding schools children attended church, studied standard European subjects, and were forbidden to speak in their native languages.

Source 17.20 A 19th-century painting depicting the 'Trail of Tears' of 1838. This was the forced journey of 15000 Cherokee from their homelands in the south-east to 'Indian Territory' in what is now Oklahoma.

EXTEND 17.1

1 Conduct research to prepare a short report on the 'Trail of Tears'. Explain the events leading to this forced removal of the Cherokee people from their homelands and describe the journey.

APPLY 17.6

1 Discuss how reliance on government rations for food would have affected the culture of Native American tribes.

Key aspects of contact and colonisation

Experiences of European colonisation, which began in the north-east, were repeated right across the frontier. Key aspects of these experiences were:

1 *Native Americans were forced to leave their lands*. In some cases, treaties were made with settlers or government authorities to share or buy land. In others, the US army enforced their removal. The end result was always for settlers to gain more land, and always in the most fertile and liveable areas. Traditional lands were fenced off, and Native Americans who entered them were made to feel like trespassers.

2 *Violence and open warfare erupted.* Sometimes fighting broke out due to misunderstanding between Native Americans and settlers. Sometimes it was a result of the settlers' belief in their right to take whatever they wanted, by any means.

3 *European diseases wiped out Native Americans in huge numbers.* Native Americans had never previously been affected by diseases such as smallpox, measles, cholera and the plague; their lack of immunity made them highly susceptible to diseases introduced by the Europeans. Even the common cold, first brought to the Americas by Europeans, could be fatal to Native Americans.

This pattern did not end until the USA fulfilled what it saw as its 'manifest destiny' to control the entire northern continent of the Americas, and create a single nation that stretched from the Atlantic Ocean in the east to the Pacific Ocean in the west, from Canada in the north to Panama in the south.

Source 17.21 A 19th-century painting, *Ration Day at the Reservation*

SOURCE STUDY

Introduction of European diseases

Source 17.22

> For thousands of years, the people of Eurasia [Europe and Asia] lived in close proximity to the largest variety of domesticated mammals in the world – eating, drinking, and breathing in the germs these animals bore. Over time, animal infections crossed species, evolving into new strains which became deadly to man. Diseases like smallpox, influenza and measles were in fact the deadly inheritance of the Eurasian farming tradition ... they wreaked devastation throughout Eurasian history – and in the era before antibiotics, thousands died.
>
> With each epidemic eruption, some people survived, acquiring antibodies and immunities which they passed on to the next generation. Over time, the population of Europe gained increased immunity, and the devastating impact of traditional infections decreased.
>
> Yet the people of the New World had no history of prior exposure to these germs ... They had never experienced smallpox, measles or flu before, and the viruses tore through the continent, killing an estimated 90% of Native Americans.

From *The Story of Smallpox – and Other Deadly Eurasian Germs*, PBS (USA), Lion Television, 2005

Source 17.23

> The Indians in those parts had newly, even about year or two before, been visited with such a prodigious pestilence, as carried away not a tenth but nine parts of ten (yea, 'tis said nineteen of twenty) among them: so that the woods were almost cleared of those pernicious [evil, harmful] creatures, to make room for a better growth.

Cotton Mather (1663–1728) quoted in R. H. Shyrock, *Medicine in America: Historical Essays*, Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, p. 2

INTERPRET 17.3

1. Are Sources 17.22 and 17.23 primary or secondary sources?
2. According to Source 17.22, what were the origins of diseases such as smallpox, influenza and measles?
3. Why did European settlers have some immunity to these diseases, while Native Americans had none?
4. What proportion of the Native American population died from diseases introduced by European colonisers, according to both sources?
5. In Source 17.23, what does Cotton Mathew mean by 'a better growth'?

REVIEW 17.4

1. Describe the pattern of experiences in the colonisation of North America. What were the consequences for Native Americans?
2. What was the concept of 'manifest destiny', and what did it justify?
3. Explain the effect of European diseases on the Native American population and the consequences for European settlers.

EXPERIENCES OF CONTACT – THE PLAINS WARS

By the 1860s, the only areas of the USA not under the control of settlers were the Great Plains (home of the Sioux and Cheyenne peoples) and parts of the south-west (home of the Apache tribes). Between 1862 and 1877, the Sioux fought the US Army in the Plains Wars. This is one of the best known examples of Indigenous resistance to invasion by settlers.

The Sioux Nation was made up of many tribes. The group that played a key role in the Plains Wars were the Teton Sioux, also known as the Lakota. Three of their most famous leaders were Red Cloud, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse. Before the 1860s, the Lakota had been able to successfully defend their land. Guns used by the US army up to this time had a short range, and only fired one shot at a time before requiring reloading. But by the 1860s, improved weapons turned the war to the army's favour.

Source 17.24 A mountain of bison skulls from the herds killed by settlers

The Sioux had always been free to roam the plains and follow the bison. But the newcomers brought with them fences and railway lines. These limited the Sioux's free movement. The settlers also used their new and improved rifles on the bison. The great herds were cut down, almost to extinction. Some historians suggest the extermination of the bison was a deliberate policy to threaten the Sioux way of life and reduce their ability to fight (see Source 17.25). But sources also indicate other reasons for killing the bison. Shooters could make money from selling bison hides, and shooting bison was enjoyed for the sport. It was also said to provide target practice for soldiers in the US army, giving them experience of shooting on horseback.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Early explorers to the Great Plains reported there were so many bison that 'the plains were black and appeared as if in motion'. It is estimated that. 7.5 million bison were killed between 1872 and 1874.

Source 17.25

> The buffalo are disappearing rapidly, but not faster than I desire. I regard the destruction of such game as Indians subsist [live] upon as facilitating [making easier] the policy of the Government, of destroying their hunting habits, coercing them on reservations, and compelling them to begin to adopt the habits of civilization.
>
> A statement by Columbus Delano, US Secretary of the Interior, 1874

Red Cloud's War

In 1865, the US government tried to set up a regular trail across Sioux land (the Indian Territories) to make travel easier from the eastern states to the states of California and Oregon on the Pacific west coast. The Sioux fought back, under their leader Red Cloud, and they were able to force a temporary halt to the invasion. In 1868, the US Government signed a treaty with the Sioux at Fort Laramie, promising them lands in what is now South Dakota and around the Black Hills, which were sacred lands to the Sioux.

Source 17.26 A portrait of Red Cloud (1822–1909), taken in 1880

APPLY 17.7

1 Conduct research to prepare a presentation on the life of a significant Native American, such as one of the Sioux leaders Red Cloud, Sitting Bull or Crazy Horse. Include discussion of key events in their life and the impact of their achievements.

Source 17.28 A portrait of Sitting Bull (1831–90), taken in 1885

APPLY 17.8

1 Conduct further research on the Native American tribe or nation you investigated in Apply 17.4. What were the consequences of colonisation for this group up to 1900? If possible, find out where and how the descendants of the tribe are living today.

The Treaty of Laramie, like so many of the agreements made between the Native Americans and US authorities, was quickly broken. When gold was discovered in the Black Hills in 1874, prospectors flooded onto Sioux land. The government did little to stop the trespass on what was Sioux property, according to the treaty. Instead, the army was sent in to protect settlers.

Source 17.27 A photo of negotiations between General William T. Sherman and Red Cloud in April 1868

Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse

Two great Sioux leaders, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse, now led the Sioux in a final defence of their homelands. The US army, recognising the danger, began to move troops in to round up the 'hostiles'. The army was led by General Crook, General Terry and the famous Lt. Colonel George Armstrong Custer. In June 1876, Crazy Horse staged a successful attack on Crook's forces, which stopped their advance and allowed Crazy Horse to turn and meet the next threat posed by the forces of Terry and Custer. Just over a week later, on 25 to 26 June, Crazy Horse fought to defend a Sioux and Cheyenne village on the Little Big Horn River. Custer was killed, as well as 225 men of the 7th Cavalry. It was perhaps the single most famous Native American victory in the wars with the invaders.

News of Custer's defeat shocked the American public and put even more pressure on the government to deal with the Sioux. In the end, the Sioux were no match for the US Army's superior numbers and weapons. Near starvation, Crazy Horse and his forces were forced to surrender in 1877. Crazy Horse was killed after the surrender, stabbed in the back with a bayonet by a soldier, when he refused to step into a cell. Sitting Bull had taken his people further north into Canada, but he too surrendered in 1881.

The Wounded Knee Massacre, 1890

The last tragic event in the Plains Wars took place in 1890 near Wounded Knee Creek on the Pine Ridge Reservation, in South Dakota. At Pine Ridge, Sioux people were forced to farm land that settlers considered too remote and infertile. They had little to live on. They had also been made to give up their old lifestyles, and were taught the language and religion of the non-Native people. Many Sioux on the reservation started performing a traditional 'Ghost Dance', which had been banned by the US Army, in the belief it would bring back the old ways.

On 28 December 1890, the Sioux Chief Big Foot and his followers travelled to what they thought was the safety of Red Cloud's camp. After years of conflict, the group had been reduced to about 350 people, mainly women and children. They were stopped by soldiers of the 7th Calvary who were armed with rifles and four Hotchkiss guns, an early kind of machine gun (see Source 17.29). Their camp was surrounded. Some accounts suggest that shooting started after a rifle was discharged accidentally. It is thought that between 150 to 300 unarmed Sioux men, women and children were killed in the massacre that followed, but no accurate tally of the dead was kept.

Source 17.29 Soldiers of the 7th Calvary pose with some of the Hotchkiss guns fired against Big Foot's followers at Wounded Knee

Perspectives on the Wounded Knee Massacre

SOURCE STUDY

Source 17.30

> ... our only safety depends upon the total extermination of the Indians. Having wronged them for centuries, we had better, in order to protect our civilization, follow it up by one more wrong and wipe these untamed and untameable creatures from the face of the earth. In this lies future safety for our settlers and the soldiers who are under incompetent commands.

Extract from a newspaper editorial by Lyman Frank Baum, 3 January 1891

Source 17.31

> I look back now from this high hill of my old age. I can still see the butchered women and children lying heaped and scattered all along the crooked gulch as plain as when I saw them with eyes still young. And I can see that something else died there in the bloody mud, and was buried in the blizzard. A people's dream died there. It was a beautiful dream.

Black Elk, a survivor of the Wounded Knee massacre

INTERPRET 17.4

1 In Source 17.30, what action does Baum call for? What is his reasoning?
2 In Source 17.30, what do you think the phrase 'under incompetent commands' refers to?
3 In Source 17.31, what is meant by the 'beautiful dream'? What does this quote reveal about Native American resistance at the time of the Wounded Knee Massacre?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

After stints as a store owner and newspaper editor, Lyman Frank Baum later wrote the children's book *The Wizard of Oz*. Another frontier figure was General Lew Wallace, a Civil War veteran who was Governor of New Mexico. He was also the author of the novel *Ben Hur*, upon which the film was based.

REVIEW 17.5

1 What was the significance of the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1804–1806?
2 Explain how European settlers threatened the traditional Sioux way of life.
3 What did the Treaty of Fort Laramie promise, and why was it broken?
4 What is Crazy Horse famous for?

17.1

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

» Define the concepts of invasion, occupation, colonisation and settlement

1 What is the meaning of the term *colonisation*? Give examples of countries that established colonies from the 16th century onwards. Where were their colonies? (10 marks)

2 Explain the meaning of the term *occupation*, as it relates to colonisation. (1 mark)

3 Write definitions for the words *invasion* and *settlement*. Explain why both words can be used to describe one event. (4 marks)

» Explain how and why North America was colonised

4 What motivated European powers to establish colonies? (5 marks)

5 Outline how and why settlement expanded across the North American continent. (5 marks)

» Describe the main features of Native American culture prior to colonisation

6 Describe the nature of Native American culture before the arrival of Europeans. (5 marks)

7 For one Native American tribe or group, describe:

- the location and natural features of their homelands
- their way of life, including type of dwellings and the way they obtained food and other resources
- their spiritual beliefs and rituals (10 marks)

» Describe key aspects of contact between the Native Americans and the colonisers

8 Describe experiences of contact between Native Americans and European colonisers. Consider the period of the early settlements in the 17th century through to the Plains Wars in the 19th century. (10 marks)

9 Draw a timeline of key developments and events related to the contact between Sioux people, settlers and the US army. (10 marks)

» Describe differing experiences of contact between Native American and European peoples

10 In your notebook, complete the table below to show the different contact experiences between settlers and Native Americans, as well as the impact of these experiences from both perspectives. (10 marks)

Contact experience	Description of contact experience	Impact on Native Americans	Impact on settlers
disease			
conflict			
dispossession			

» Describe and assess the life of one Native American in contact with the colonisers

11 Describe the life of Native Americans who had contact with colonisers. What were their contact experiences? How were they affected by them? (10 marks)

» Explain the results of colonisation for settlers and for Native Americans

12 What consequences did the colonisation of North America have for settlers and Native Americans? Refer to a range of sources in your response. Use sources from your own research, as well as from the text, such as Source 17.31. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

Source 17.32 Maps of the USA, showing the loss of Native American tribal lands between 1784 and 1880. Tribal lands are coloured green.

RICH TASK

Unwelcome visitors

Historical empathy is a valuable way to gain a deeper understanding of the past. It involves using our knowledge of the past from the facts and sources of evidence, and then imagining how you would feel if you were put in the same position as someone from the past. The following activity may help you to gain an understanding of the position of Indigenous peoples who were faced with the arrival of colonisers from foreign lands.

1. Imagine if a group of aliens from outer space appeared. Source 17.33 describes them and their attitudes. Read the description and imagine how you would feel.
2. Discuss the scenario involving the aliens in class and at home. Then write a 150-word narrative about how you might feel and react in the imaginary situation.

Source 17.33

The aliens:

- have odd coloured skin and strange clothes
- have weapons and technology far superior to ours
- speak a strange language and kidnap some people to try and learn our Earth languages.
- think that Earth people are primitive and child-like.
- intend to make more efficient use of the Earth's resources but in doing so they will destroy many of the places that we think are special, such as the Great Barrier Reef
- want to ban all our religions and expect us to worship their religion
- decide that the older Earth people, like your teachers and your parents, are a bad influence on the young. They bring in their own teachers and take many of you away from your homes and families so that you can learn to be just like the aliens.

Source 17.34

> [The alien] Captain Smek himself appeared on television for an official speech to humankind … 'Noble Savages of Earth,' he said. 'Long time we have tried to live together in peace … With sad hearts I now concede that Boov and humans will never exist as one. And so now I generously grant you Human Preserves – gifts of land that will be for humans forever, never to be taken away again, now.'
>
> … So that's when we Americans were given Florida. One state for three hundred million people. There were going to be some serious lines for the bathrooms.

Extract from a novel about an alien invasion, *The True Meaning of Smekday* by Adam Rex

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- Empathetic understanding
- Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

17.2 SECTION

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

In this section, you will read about what happened when Britain established its first colony at Sydney Cove in Australia in 1788. Over the next century, colonies were established around the continent by convicts and settlers. They changed the Australian landscape and the way of life of Australia's original inhabitants, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Many Indigenous people were killed by European diseases and in violent conflicts. Many were forced from their lands, and made to live on reservations and missions.

EXTEND 17.2

1 Conduct research to create a timeline of significant expeditions by European explorers who reached Australia's coastlines in the 17th century. Include notes on areas mapped and contacts made with Indigenous peoples.

CONTACT AND COLONISATION IN AUSTRALIA

Over the course of the 17th century, Dutch and British explorers visited and mapped parts of Australia's coastline. However, the shape of the east coast was largely unknown to Europeans (as Source 17.7 shows). In the late 18th century, the British government looked at the 'great south land', then known as New Holland, with interest. They appointed James Cook as the commander of a ship named the *Endeavour*. Cook was a highly capable navigator. He was instructed to sail to New Holland and investigate the plants, animals and available natural resources. He also had orders to befriend the Indigenous people and take possession of the land for Britain. His expedition left England in 1768.

In 1770, the *Endeavour* reached Australia. Cook went ashore and spent a short time exploring a place he named Botany Bay. On his journey home, he stopped on an island in the Torres Strait, to claim the east coast of Australia in the name of Britain (see Sources 17.35 and 17.36). He named the island Possession Island. Cook returned to Britain with favourable reports of the soil and climate of New Holland. His reports about the Indigenous people were sympathetic, but did not acknowledge they had any claim to the land.

Source 17.35

> As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, which I am confident no European had ever seen before, I hoisted English colours and took possession of the whole eastern coast in right of His Majesty King George the Third, by the name of New South Wales.

Cook's account of his stop at Possession Island, near Cape York, 22 August 1770

Source 17.36 A painting depicting the moment when Captain James Cook claimed the east coast of Australia for Britain

Terra nullius

When the British established their settlements in Australia, they applied the idea of *terra nullius*. The Latin phrase means 'land belonging to no-one' or 'empty land'. In fact, Australia had been occupied by Aboriginal Australians for at least 60 000 years before the arrival of the first Europeans. The idea that Australia was an 'empty land' reflected the Europeans' lack of understanding about Aboriginal culture. They did not see any farms, fences or buildings, which to them indicated possession, or ownership, of land. The view that the country was *terra nullius* meant the British felt justified in taking possession of land without purchasing it, or without making treaties with Indigenous people. (The exception was grazier John Batman's treaty with Indigenous people in the Melbourne area, which was not officially accepted by colonial authorities.)

By contrast, in North America, European settlers accepted that the land they wanted belonged to someone else. Land was purchased and treaties were made with individual nations and tribes, although some treaties had to be enforced by the US army. In Australia, it wasn't until 1992, and the famous Mabo Decision of the High Court, that the myth of *terra nullius* was overturned. The Australian government then legally accepted that Aboriginal people were the original owners of their land.

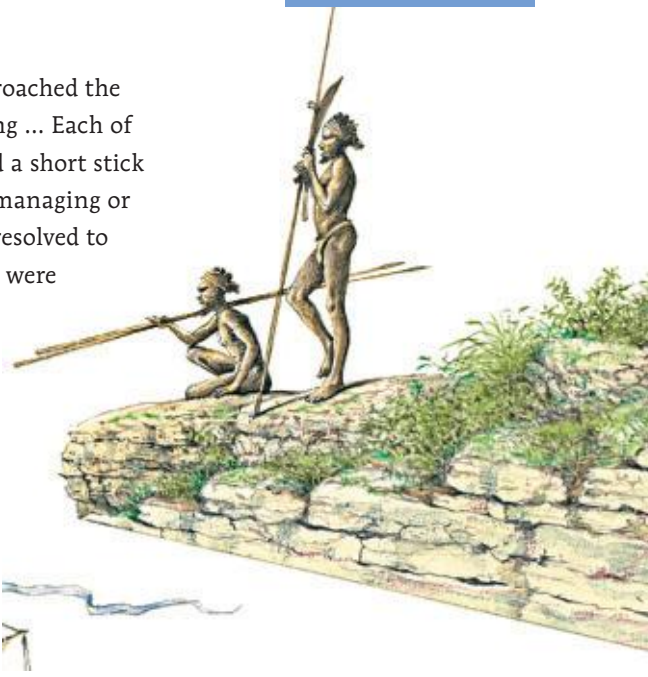
Early contact experiences at Botany Bay

SOURCE STUDY

Source 17.37

We intended to land where we saw the people ... as soon as we approached the rocks, two of the men came down upon them to dispute our landing ... Each of the two champions was armed with a lance about ten feet long and a short stick which he seemed to handle as if it was a machine to assist him in managing or throwing the lance ... They brandished their weapons and seemed resolved to defend their coast to the utmost, though they were but two and we were forty ... A stone was then thrown at us, upon which I ordered a musket [gun with a long barrel] to be fired with small shot [lead pellets], which struck the eldest upon the legs and he immediately ran to one of the houses ... I hoped now that our contest was over ... then perceived that he had left the rock only to fetch a shield ... As soon as he came up, he threw a lance at us ... but happily hurt nobody. A third musket with small shot was then fired upon them, upon which one of them threw another lance and both immediately ran away.

James Cook's account of his landing at Botany Bay, 29 April 1770



INTERPRET 17.5

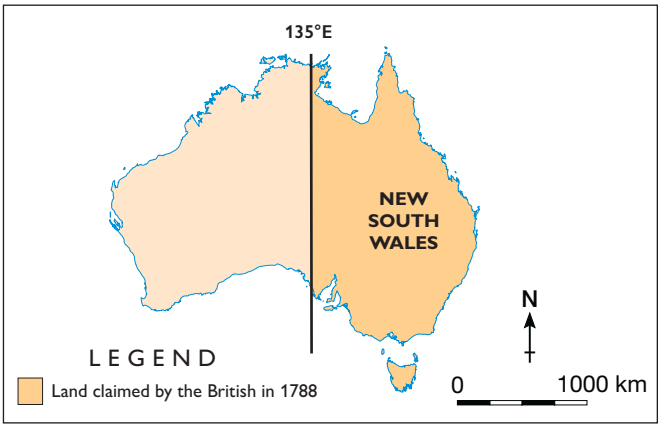
1 According to Cook's account, in Source 17.37, what weapons were used at Botany Bay in the first encounter of the British with Indigenous people?
2 Write a sentence to summarise this early contact between Europeans and Indigenous people.
3 Explain why Europeans believed that land in Australia 'belonged to no-one' despite this type of response to early contact with Europeans from people living there.

EXTEND 17.3

1 Conduct research to find out the name of the 'short stick' described in Source 17.37. Explain how it was used.

Colonising Australia

Not long after Cook's voyage, Britain established its first settlement in Australia at a place later named Sydney Cove, in New South Wales. The decision to start the colony was a response to changes in British society brought about by the Industrial Revolution. Many factories were being built in British towns and cities, and people flocked to them from rural villages in search of work. This led to a rise in crime as people struggled to get by on low wages and in poor living conditions. Britain's prisons soon became overcrowded, and some convicts (prisoners) were transported to Britain's American colonies. But after the USA declared its independence in 1776 this was no longer possible. Authorities then discovered another solution: New South Wales.



Source 17.38 The extent of New South Wales in 1788. The only reason that Britain did not claim the entire continent at this time was because it was not completely certain the east and west coast were part of the same continent.

The First Fleet landed in Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. Its 11 ships carried over 700 convicts, as well as marines (naval troops), the ships' crews and their families. The commander of the Fleet, Arthur Phillip, became the first governor of the new colony. Other colonies were established across Australia: in Tasmania and Victoria in 1803; in Queensland in 1825; in Western Australia in 1829, and in South Australia in 1838.

Indigenous Australia at the time of colonisation

When Governor Phillip established the settlement at Sydney Cove on the basis of *terra nullius*, he did not know the area was home to the Eora. This group of Aboriginals had lived there for generations. There was no understanding among Europeans that there was a diverse range of around 300 Indigenous language groups across the continent.

Indigenous people in Australia did not think of themselves as belonging to a nation. They lived in groups made up of several families, in defined territories, which could overlap with the territories of other groups. Their relationship with the land was completely different from the European concept of land ownership. The British saw the land as something that could be owned, bought and sold. Indigenous Australian, however, felt they belonged to the land rather than owned it, and identified with their country (the land of their traditional territories) in much the same way that non-Indigenous people identify with family.

SOURCE STUDY

Indigenous Australia

Source 17.39

> At the time of colonisation ... Indigenous Australians lived in small family groups and were semi-nomadic, with each family group living in a defined territory, systematically moving across a defined area following seasonal changes. Groups had their own distinct history and culture. At certain times family groups would come together for social, ceremonial and trade purposes. It is estimated that up to 500 people gathered at the one time ...
>
> Concepts of Indigenous land ownership were and are different from European legal systems. Boundaries were fixed and validated [established] by the Dreaming creation stories. Each individual belonged to certain territories within the family group and had spiritual connections and obligations to particular country. Hence land was not owned; one belonged to the land.

Extract from Pat Dudgeon *et al.*, *The Social, Cultural and Historical Context of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians, Working Together*, Commonwealth of Australia, 2010, p. 26

Source 17.40

Our stories and histories tell of how the land was formed; how animals and people were created; how to care for the land and all living creatures through respect and by living in harmony with our environment. These traditions have been passed down through the generations for thousands upon thousands of years. This is the basis of our spirituality.

Our stories gave us the laws by which to live. These laws were strict and covered all parts of life: marriage, totems and ceremonies, what animals can be killed for food and when and where they can be hunted.

Mission Voices, ABC

Source 17.41

People talk about country in the same way that they would talk about a person: they speak to country, sing to country, visit country, worry about country, feel sorry for country, and long for country ... Country ... consists of people, animals, plants, Dreamings; underground, earth, soils, minerals and waters, surface water, and air.

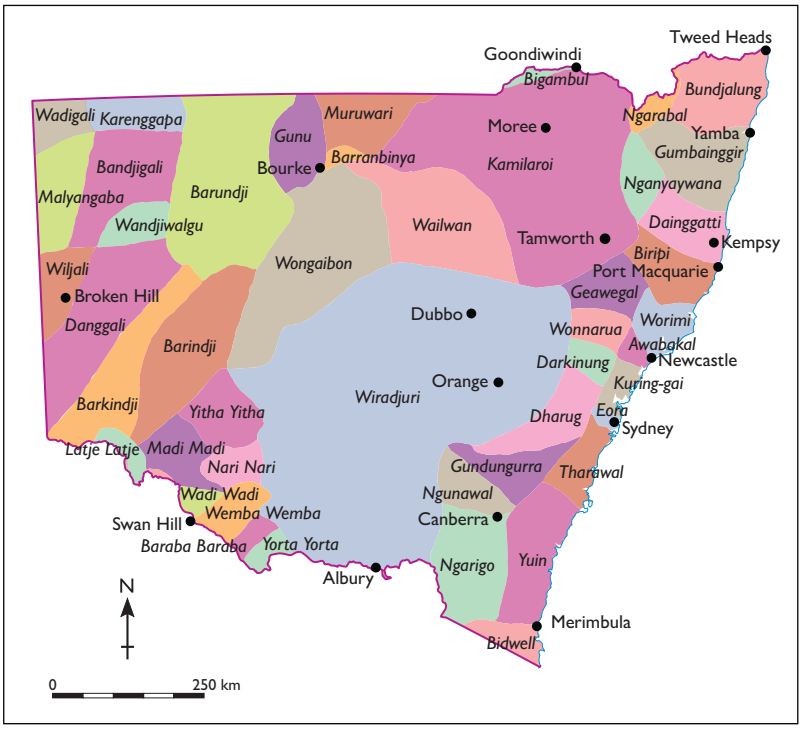
Extract from *Nourishing terrains: Australian Aboriginal views of landscape and wilderness*, Australian Heritage Commission, 1996, pp. 7–9

INTERPRET 17.7

1 Examine Source 17.42. Which language groups have traditional territories in the Sydney area?

INTERPRET 17.7

1 Read Source 17.39. Explain the difference between the territorial boundaries of Indigenous groups, and the boundaries set by Europeans (such as our modern-day state boundaries).
2 Read Source 17.40. Explain what the spiritual beliefs of Indigenous Australians relate to. How do these beliefs affect everyday lives of Indigenous people?
3 Read Source 17.41. In your own words, explain the difference between the European and Indigenous Australian meanings of the word 'country'.



Source 17.42 A map of Aboriginal language groups in New South Wales, showing boundaries of the territories where different languages were spoken

REVIEW 17.6

1 What does *terra nullius* mean, and what was the consequence of this idea for Indigenous peoples in Australia?
2 Why did Britain set up a colony in New South Wales in 1788?

EXPERIENCES OF CONTACT AND COLONISATION

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The suburb of Manly was named by Governor Phillip. On an expedition to that part of Sydney harbour, two Indigenous men waded from the beach to examine the British boats. Phillips wrote: 'their confidence and manly behaviour made me give the name Manly Cove to this place'.

Many experiences of contact and **colonisation** in Australia mirrored experiences in North America. New settlers supplanted Aboriginal Australians as the group in control of the land. Curiosity, fear, suspicion, cautious trust and open hostility – these were all part of the differing experiences of contact and colonisation.

The early years in Sydney Cove

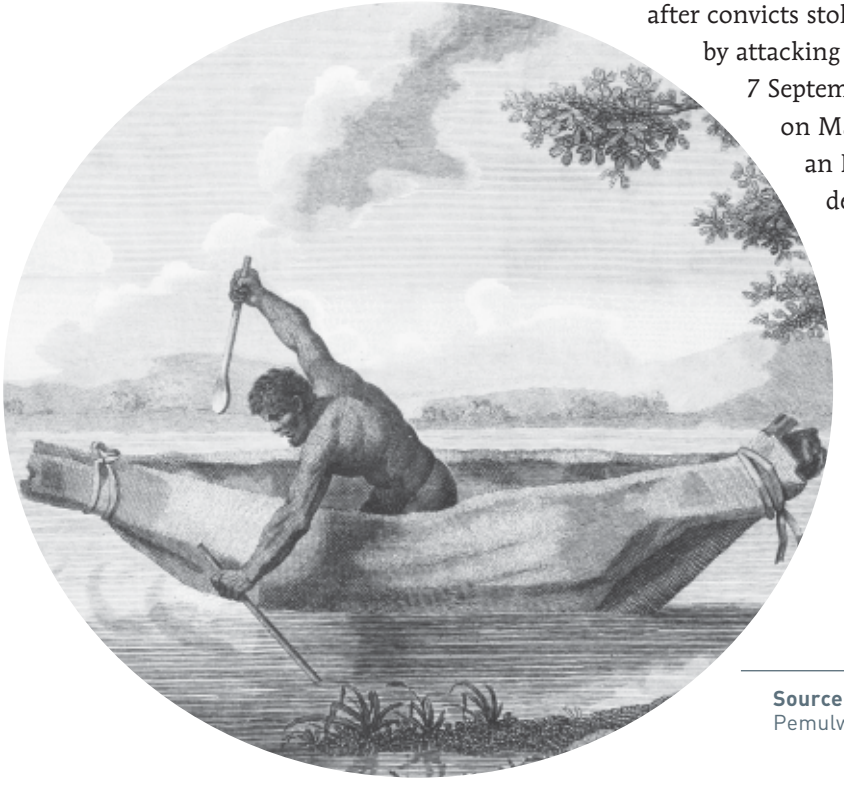
Governor Phillips had instructions from Britain to treat Indigenous Australians kindly. His officers tried to establish friendly relations with Aboriginals, but also 'convince them of the superiority we possessed'. Initial contacts were friendly, as both sides were curious about each other. However, this soon changed as it became clear the newcomers were there to stay. The settlers also soon stripped the local area of food sources. Indigenous peoples had maintained a balance of natural resources for thousands of years until then. But now, fish became scarce and kangaroos were shot or scared away.

European diseases

As in the Americas, Indigenous people in Australia had no immunity to European diseases. In the early days of the colony, disease did more to advance the cause of the settlers than guns. Smallpox, a highly contagious and deadly disease, killed 90 per cent of the Aboriginal Australians in the Greater Sydney area. Illnesses such as influenza, measles and chicken pox were also more fatal for Indigenous people. European diseases spread inland quickly. Often, by the time settlers arrived in a region the Indigenous population had already been greatly reduced.

Violent resistance

In Sydney Cove, conflicts between the newcomers and the Eora arose after convicts stole fishing tools and weapons. The Eora retaliated by attacking convicts they found working alone. On 7 September 1990, Governor Phillip himself was speared on Manly Beach. He recovered. However, weeks later an Indigenous man known as Pemulwuy speared to death the Governor's gamekeeper, John McIntyre. Source 17.47 depicts an expedition by officers to Botany Bay following this attack. After the killing of McIntyre, Pemulwuy led a ten-year guerrilla war, using hit-and-run tactics to raid settlers' and government farms around Sydney and Parramatta.



Source 17.43 Detail from the only known illustration of Pemulwuy, by Samuel Neele

Contact experiences at Sydney Cove

SOURCE STUDY

Source 17.44

> The Aborigines] saw less and less of anything that made sense to them ... they saw men mindlessly attacking trees, including many useless for canoes or spears, and bringing them to the ground ... digging in the ground where no yams grew while women sat idle, men dragging metal chains, carrying rocks, piling them up, while other men shouted at them; men decked [dressed] in bright garments [clothes] but quite unpainted, strutting and turning in the dullest dance ever seen. Meanwhile these peculiar people were feeding themselves on smelly dry stuff they tugged out of barrels and with fish and greens they pilfered [stole] from their rightful owners ... while marvellously edible animals were left to wander about on their own four legs, free to run away on a whim ... They also watched the strangers spread their dark airless habitations ... by the stream where the kangaroos came to graze and then frighten them away ...

Historian Inga Clendinnen imagines how the Aboriginal Australian might have viewed the settler's activities in *Dancing with Strangers,* Text Publishing, Melbourne, 2003, p. 89

Source 17.45 A painting, *c.* 1799, depicting the settlement of Sydney Cove

INTERPRET 17.8

1 In Source 17.44:
   - **a** What do you think the 'dullest dance ever seen' might have been?
   - **b** What was happening when Aboriginal Australians saw men 'attacking trees'?
   - **c** Why might Aboriginal Australians have found it hard to understand why the newcomers ate 'smelly dry stuff'?

Smallpox outbreak in Sydney Cove

Source 17.46

> An extraordinary calamity was now observed among the natives. Repeated accounts, brought by our boats, of finding bodies of the Indians in all the coves and inlets of the harbour ... On inspection, it appeared that all the parties had died a natural death. Pustules, similar to those occasioned by the smallpox, were thickly spread on the bodies ... The governor ... and a surgeon went in a boat immediately to the spot [where an Indigenous family lay sick]. Here they found an old man ... and a boy of nine or ten pouring water on his head from a shell ... Near them lay a female child dead, and a little farther off, its unfortunate mother. The body of the woman showed that famine, superadded to the disease, had occasioned her death.

Extract describing the colony at Sydney Cove in April and May 1789; from *A Complete Account of the Settlement at Port Jackson* by Watkin Tench, an officer of the First Fleet

INTERPRET 17.9

1 Refer to Source 17.46:
   - **a** How long did it take after the arrival of the First Fleet for the Eora people to suffer from smallpox?
   - **b** What two factors, related to the arrival of the British, contributed to the death of the mother in this account?

SOURCE STUDY

Indigenous resistance

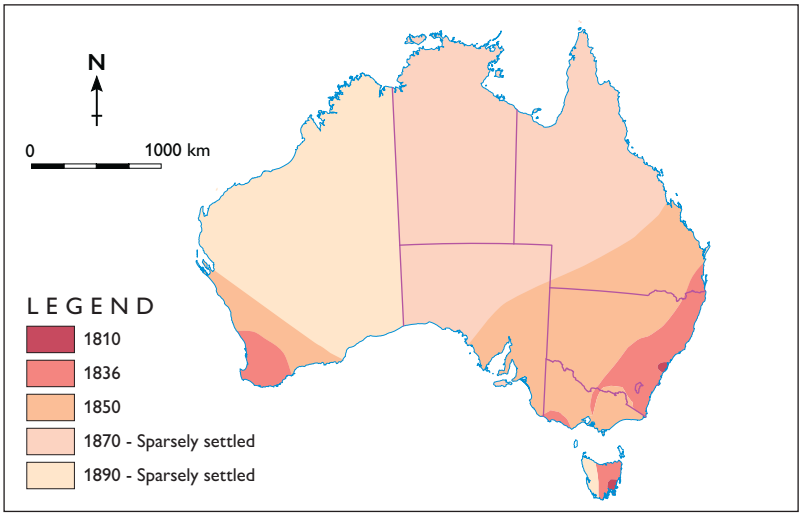
Source 17.47 A painting, *c*.1790, that shows officers and soldiers on an expedition to Botany Bay, after the spearing death of the Governor's gamekeeper

INTERPRET 17.10

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 17.47. Include comment on the actions of the officer standing near the woman and child.
2 Based on this source, do you think the purpose of the expedition it depicts was to investigate the murder of John McIntyre or to punish? Explain your reasoning.
3 What does Source 17.47 reveal about the relationship of Indigenous peoples and the British in 1790?

Extending the frontiers

Aboriginal Australians who survived outbreaks of disease began to adapt to their new circumstances. Some found ways to stay in touch with their land by working with the newcomers. They acted as trackers and guides for European explorers and **pastoralists**, as settlements began to spread further inland and around the coast (see Source 17.48).



Source 17.48 The extension of European frontiers from 1810 to 1890.

Squatters were often the first Europeans in contact with Indigenous peoples. They were settlers who occupied frontier lands with their sheep and cattle without permission from government authorities. Indigenous people who had been living on the land they occupied were expected to simply move on to the territories of other groups. They responded in different ways. Some accepted their fate, living off rations on what was now a settler's land, and working as stockmen or domestic servants. Others strongly resisted dispossession by attacking settlers' huts and killing their cattle and sheep.

Violence on the frontiers

In the 19th century, conflicts between Indigenous peoples and settlers were commonly reported in the newspapers of the Australian colonies. But for the much of the 20th century, this aspect of Australian history was not widely discussed or taught in schools. In recent decades, historians have opened up discussion about the 'black war', although they disagree on how widespread violence and massacres actually were. Estimates differ on the numbers of Indigenous people killed in attacks, as they were often not reported. Two well-known and documented massacres of Indigenous peoples took place at Myall Creek, in New South Wales, in 1838, and near Coniston station, in the Northern Territory, in 1928.

The Myall Creek Massacre

The Myall Creek **massacre** occurred after a series of attacks and counter-attacks in the Liverpool Plains area of New South Wales. In the months leading up to June 1838, stockmen had been killed and Aborigines had been attacked in their camps. Government troops had led attacks that had killed an unknown number of Aborigines. On 10 June, near a station hut at Myall Creek, a group of 12 stockmen on a 'hunting party' came across an Indigenous camp of men, women and children. The stockmen tied the Aboriginals up and killed them with swords and guns. They returned the next day to burn the bodies.

The Myall Creek Massacre is significant, as it is the only case where settlers were found guilty of violence against Indigenous people and consequently punished. The killings were reported to authorities. The new Governor, George Gipps, ordered an investigation that led to the arrest and conviction of the stockmen. Seven were executed by hanging.

APPLY 17.9

1 The site of the Myall Creek Massacre has been placed on the national and state heritage lists. Every year a memorial ceremony is held at the site. Discuss why it is important to commemorate this event, and for whom the ceremony would be significant.

The Coniston Massacre

The Coniston Massacre is the name given to a series of attacks on Aboriginal camps around Coniston station, in the Northern Territory. The attacks took place between August and October 1928, following the killing of a dingo trapper, Fred Brooks. His killer was known to be a Walpiri man named Kamalyarrpa Japanangka, commonly known as Bullfrog. The attacks on Aboriginals camps were led by Mounted Constable George Murray, and involved police, station-workers and Aboriginal trackers. It is believed that in total 60 to 100 Aboriginal men, women and children were killed. Bullfrog was not among them.

A federal government inquiry into the killings commenced in 1929, after pressure mounted in the media. This included criticism in British newspapers of Australia's treatment of Aborigines. In the end, the inquiry found that Constable Murray had killed 31 people, but all in self-defence. No-one was punished for the killings.

The Coniston Massacre

SOURCE STUDY

Source 17.49

> The Aboriginal people were angry as they watched their waterholes being destroyed by cattle, fences being erected and white men taking their women as wives or servants. Their law, customs and traditions were being violated.
>
> The new pastoralists became increasingly agitated by the 'cheeky' Aborigines. In these parts, not only had they had become a nuisance, but they were competing with their cattle for the precious water, as well as killing cattle.

Extract from the website 'Coniston', PAW media

Source 17.50

'That policeman came along. He lifted up that rifle – shot my father. He fell down. My big brother was crying. He threw himself on my father's body, where the blood was coming out.

That policeman [here George made the action of reloading a rifle] he lifted his rifle up again. Bang! My big brother been finish.

I was just a little kid, standing there crying. That policeman [and again George made the rifle-loading action] he lifted up his rifle again. He pointed it at me. That another man, he lifted that rifle. [George made the hand action of the other member of the patrol, and recalled his words]. 'Don't shoot him, he's only a little wee-ai.'

The words of a survivor of the Coniston Massacre, as quoted in 'Real true history: the Coniston Massacre', by Dick Kimber, *Alice Spring News*, 10 September 2003

Source 17.51

... Morton swears he warned the natives repeatedly, on each occasion, to sit down and put their weapons on the ground; that they refused; and that on each occasion when Constable Murray dismounted to ... affect an arrest, the natives attacked him with boomerangs, spears, nulla nullas and a tomahawk and it was necessary, in order to save their own lives, that the blacks should be shot ...

Extract from the transcript of the findings of the 'Board of Enquiry concerning the killing of natives in Central Australia by police parties and others, and concerning other matters', Commonwealth of Australia, 18 January 1929

INTERPRET 17.11

1 Source 17.49 describes some of the 'tensions of contact' at the time of the Coniston Massacre. Based on this source, write a dialogue between an Indigenous person and a pastoralist that shows both their perspectives.
2 What are the differences between the account of the Coniston Massacre given by the survivor in Source 17.50, and by pastoralist William Morton in Source 17.51?

APPLY 17.10

Indigenous Australians did not have the tribal organisation of Native Americans and there was no equivalent of the Plains Wars in Australia. However, famous Aboriginal leaders such as Pemulwuy and Yagan resisted European invaders in their own way. Other Aboriginals were kidnapped and lived with settlers for a time, including Colebee and Bennelong. Some acted as trackers or guides for explorers and settlers, including John Piper and Wylie.

1 Conduct research to choose one of these individuals or an Aboriginal Australian who features in the history of your local area. Prepare a report that describes the individual's life and experiences of contact with Europeans. What impact did this individual have on their own people and on the settlers?

REVIEW 17.7

1 What were the main differences in the ways Aboriginal Australians and the British viewed the land?
2 List the different responses of Indigenous Australians to contact with settlers.
3 In how many cases have non-Indigenous Australians been convicted of violent attacks towards Indigenous Australians?

GOVERNMENT POLICIES FOR ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLES

By 1901, Australia had a non-Indigenous population of 3 788 123. Europeans and others who had made new lives in Australia had been enriched in the gold rush years of the 1850s, and by a thriving agricultural industry – making profit especially in wool. The Indigenous peoples of Australia did not share in the general prosperity. By 1900, the majority of Australians of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent were living on **reserves** or **missions**. Some were able to maintain links to their traditional lands and ways of life by working on sheep and cattle stations or by living in camps on the outskirts of towns.

Historians estimate that the Indigenous population of Australia before the arrival of Europeans was around 750 000. By 1900, it is estimated the Indigenous population had been reduced to around 90 000. Disease, frontier violence and the effects of removal from traditional lands had led to this dramatic decline. During the 19th century, many Europeans believed – perhaps even hoped – that the Australian Aboriginal population would die out. Survivors were expected to assimilate, or become like Europeans. That meant giving up their traditional way of life, language, customs and beliefs.

Protectorates, reserves and missions

During the 19th century, government policies based on the idea of **assimilation** were put in place. In the 1830s, the government established a system of protectorates. Areas of land were set aside where Indigenous people could escape frontier violence, and live a 'stable life'. The system was well-meaning, but did not last long. Settlers successfully pressured the government to release the land set aside for Aboriginals.

Source 17.52 Flour being distributed to an Indigenous boy at Barambah Aboriginal Reserve, in 1911

Governments and church organisations also set up over 200 reserves and missions around Australia. Groups of Indigenous people were moved to reserves in often remote places, where they lived away from non-Indigenous society. Indigenous people were sometimes purposely moved to reserves far away from their traditional lands. Although it was not official government policy at this time, Indigenous children were taken from their families. They were sent out to work for non-Indigenous families, or were adopted by them.

On reserves and missions, Indigenous people were given food and provided with medical services. But their lives were strictly controlled. They were expected to attend church, and their children were educated in European ways, rather than in their Indigenous culture and language.

REVIEW 17.8

1 What is meant by the term *assimilation*?
2 Why do you think Indigenous children were removed from their families and taken to live with non-Indigenous families?
3 What were the positive and negative aspects of living on reserves or missions for Indigenous peoples?

APPLY 17.11

1 What is the percentage decline in the estimated Indigenous population of Australia, between first settlement and 1900?
2 The exact figure for Australia's non-Indigenous population is known from the 1901 census. In small groups, discuss why Indigenous peoples were not counted in this census.

17.2 CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECT DID IT HAVE?

» Recall the nature of early British contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

1 Give five examples of contacts between Aboriginal people and British officers or authorities before or during the establishment of the first British settlement at Sydney Cove. (5 marks)

2 What does each of these incidents reveal about the attitudes of Indigenous people and the British towards each other in this period? (5 marks)

» Describe the differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal relationships to Land and Country

3 Explain the value that land had to European settlers in Australia and how they used it. (5 marks)

4 Explain the view of Indigenous peoples about their traditional lands. How does this relate to their spiritual beliefs? (5 marks)

5 What are the differing meanings of the term 'country' for Europeans and for Indigenous Australians? (5 marks)

» Describe some of the differing experiences of contact between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples

6 In your notebook, complete the table below. In the second column, provide information about the different experiences of contact between settlers and Indigenous Australians. In the third and fourth columns, provide information about the impact of these experiences from both perspectives. (10 marks)

Contact experience	Description of contact experience	Impact on Indigenous peoples	Impact on settlers
disease			
conflict			
dispossession			

Source 17.53 The Aboriginal community that lived on the mission at Lake Tyers, in Victoria

» Outline developments in government policies towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to 1900

7 Describe the image shown in Source 17.53. How could historians use this source as evidence of government policies for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the 19th century? (10 marks)

» Describe and assess the life of one Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander individual in contact with the British colonisers

8 Describe the life of an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander who had contact with British colonisers. What was the nature of their contact experiences? How did these experiences affect their life? (10 marks)

» Explain the results of colonisation for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples to 1900

9 How many non-Indigenous people lived in Australia around the year 1900? What was the extent of settlement in Australia around 1900? (5 marks)

10 What was the impact of colonisation on the Indigenous population of Australia by 1900? (2 marks)

11 Where did most Indigenous people live around the year 1900? Compare their way of life at this time to their way of life before colonisation. Include sources in your response. (8 marks)

» Compare the experiences of colonisation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and Native Americans

12 Create a table or Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences in the cultures of Native Americans and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples before the arrival of Europeans. Consider, for instance:

- diversity within their cultures
- ways of life
- spiritual beliefs
- use of weapons and technology.

(10 marks)

13 Identify a key difference in the way British governments viewed the original inhabitants of North America and of Australia. Explain what this meant for Indigenous peoples in North America and Australia. (10 marks)

14 In your notebook, copy your responses to previous Checkpoint questions into a table such as the one below. Then complete the last column of the table, comparing the experiences of contact and colonisation in North America with those in Australia. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

Contact experience	Experience in North America (Checkpoint 17.1, Question 10)	Experience in Australia (Checkpoint 17.2, Question 6)	Similarities and differences between experience in North America and in Australia
disease			
conflict			
dispossession			

RICH TASK

Indigenous revival?

1 Conduct research about Native Americans or Indigenous Australians today. Create a presentation, including relevant sources, that discusses:

- their status compared with that of the non-Indigenous population (life expectancy, population, health, education and income)
- how they have preserved their culture, such as spiritual beliefs, languages and traditional ceremonies
- government policies that affect them, including recognition of their Indigenous rights.

2 Stories of how Native Americans, led by their tribal chiefs, resisted colonisation are a part of American popular culture, and are well known around the world. Why have aspects of North American colonisation become the source of legends, while stories of frontier violence and resistance by Aboriginals and Torres Strait Islanders were hardly discussed in Australian society for much of the 20th century? Share your views in a class discussion.

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

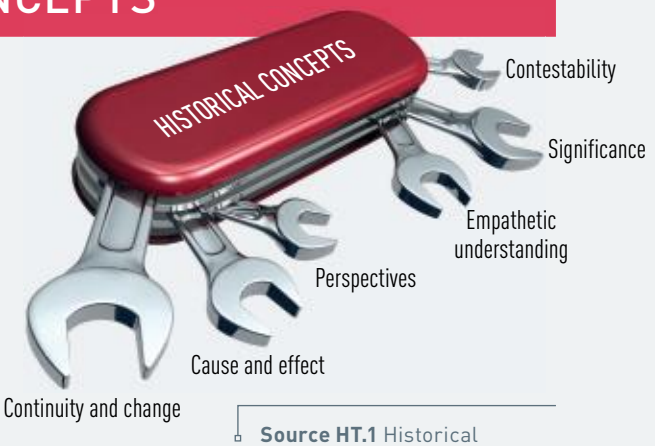
For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

As you investigate the medieval and early modern world, you will continue to learn and apply the historical concepts and skills that historians and archaeologists use in their investigations. These concepts and skills are a historian's 'tools of the trade'. This toolkit describes the range of historical concepts and skills that you will learn about during your study of history.

HT.1 HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

Six key historical concepts are shown in Source HT.1. At times you might focus on just one of the concepts; at other times you will use several at once. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian.



Source HT.1 Historical concepts

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things change, while others stay the same. This concept is referred to as **continuity and change**. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every **civilisation** and any given period of time. They can be seen in some aspect of everyday life that has continued across **centuries**, or a change in religious beliefs that has affected an entire society's culture.

Source HT.2 Modern-day barbers still offer one of the services provided by barber-surgeons in the Middle Ages, but they no longer offer blood-letting services.

Examples of continuity and change

Continuity: Barbers and barber shops are common today as they were during medieval times. This is an example of historical continuity.

Change: In the middle ages, hair was not the only thing that barbers cut. As well as cutting hair, they also extracted teeth, performed surgery and the common medical procedure of **blood-letting** – all without any formal training. Blood-letting involved cutting a person's veins and collecting a particular amount of blood in a dish. This process was believed to cure illness and prevent diseases such as the bubonic plague. No barber today would be legally permitted to perform such a procedure, nor would you want him to. This is an example of a historical change.

Source HT.3 A 15th-century illustration of a barber-surgeon performing a blood-letting procedure on a woman.

APPLY HT.1

1 Find examples of continuity and change related to activities you do, or objects that you use every day. Think about things you do or use that have stayed the same for many years, and others that have changed. Why might this be the case? Share your thoughts with the class.

Cause and effect

The concept of **cause and effect** is used by historians to identify the events or developments that have led to particular actions or results. Sometimes the link between cause and effect is clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, this link is often less obvious or more complicated. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or result. There can also be many effects or outcomes. Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even be observed until long after the event.

Source HT.4 A medieval illustration of a couple afflicted with the plague.

Examples of cause and effect

During the 14th century, a terrible plague known as the Black Death swept across Europe, Asia and parts of Africa. Historians estimate that at least 75 million people across Asia, North Africa and Europe died as a result. In Europe, this represented between 30 and 40 per cent of the population.

There were a number of factors that led to the rise and spread of the Black Death. Bubonic plague, long considered to be the most common form of the disease, was spread by fleas infected with a bacterium known as *Yersinia pestis* (cause). These fleas lived on black rats that were commonly found in all medieval towns and cities because of poor hygiene and sanitation (cause). Bites from the infected fleas spread the disease to humans (cause). Another form of the disease, pneumonic plague, was spread from person to person through the air, infecting bodily fluids such as mucus and blood (cause).

The Black Death resulted in a range of short- and long-term effects. Some of these are listed below.

Short term effects:

- a massive drop in population resulting in shortages of farm labourers and skilled craftspeople
- abandoned houses were left dirty and unattended, and rubbish and raw sewage in towns and cities was left to rot
- large numbers of deaths meant that mass burials of plague victims in large pits were necessary
- some priests refused to bury victims of the plague for fear of contracting the disease
- the persecution of some people in society (such as Jews) who were accused of causing the plague.

Long-term effects:

- the breakdown of **feudalism** across Europe because labourers and tradespeople could now demand better conditions and higher wages instead of working in return for the protection of feudal lords
- a reduction in the power and influence of the Church on people's lives due to the belief that the Church (including priests and clergy) had not been able to prevent the plague
- workers demanding recognition of their rights through a number of uprisings
- improvements in hygiene and medical knowledge due to new regulations and laws introduced to prevent further infections.

APPLY HT.2

1 Create a flow chart to show the causes and effects (both short-term and long-term) of the Black Death.

Perspectives

The concept of **perspectives** is an important part of historical inquiry. A person's perspective is their point of view – the position from which they see and understand events. People will have different perspectives about an event, person, even a society, depending on factors such as their age, gender, social position, and beliefs and values. Historians must try to understand the different values, beliefs and experiences that shaped or affected the lives of people who lived in the past, despite their own perspectives.

People from the past will have had different perspectives about the same event. For example, an invasion would be viewed very differently by the conquering forces and the defeated peoples.

Writers and historians also have perspectives that can influence their interpretation of the past.

Examples of perspectives

The Spanish conquest of the Americas in the 16th century provides an example of how a clash between very different cultures, societies and religions resulted in the near-destruction of the native civilisations in the Americas.

Spanish conquistadors such as Hernán Cortés came to the Americas in 1519 driven by a desire to convert the native people to Christianity, to expand Spanish territory and to increase Spanish wealth. The Spanish believed it was their duty to convert to Christianity a race of people that they saw as uncivilised. From a Spanish perspective at the time, their actions were lawful and blessed by their Christian god. They also believed they were entitled to enslave the population and send the wealth and treasures of the Americas back to Spain in the name of the king.

Source HT.5 This Spanish artist's impression shows the conquistador Hernán Cortés meeting the Aztec ruler Moctezuma II in the capital of Tenochtitlan in 1519.

Within 100 years, the Inca, Aztec and Maya civilisations and cultures had been largely destroyed. From a modern perspective, the actions of the Spanish during this time are seen as brutal, cruel and unjustifiable. However, regardless of what you may think personally about the way in which the Spanish acted, the concept of perspectives encourages us to view the actions of the Spanish as typical of the way Indigenous populations around the world were treated by European colonisers.

APPLY HT.3

1 Examine Source HT.5 showing the Spanish conquistador Hernán Cortés meeting the Aztec ruler Moctezuma II in the city of Tenochtitlan in 1519.
   - **a** Use evidence from the illustration to determine the main differences between the two cultures.
   - **b** Cortés and the Spanish viewed the Aztecs as uncivilised 'barbarians'. From the evidence presented in the illustration would you agree or disagree with this point of view? Give reasons to support your answer.

Empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding is the ability to understand and appreciate particular events or actions from someone else's point of view. In the study of history, empathetic understanding is about trying to understand and appreciate the thoughts and views of people who have lived at different times, and in different cultures from your own. In short, this concept encourages us to put ourselves in someone else's shoes – to think the way they may have thought and feel the things they may have felt. Empathetic understanding helps us to understand the impact of past events on an individual or group. It also helps us to understand what has motivated an individual or group to act in a particular way.

Examples of empathetic understanding

In medieval Japan a type of feudal system was developed in which there were rigid social classes. The warrior class, which included samurai, lived under a strict code of behaviour known as ***bushido*** (meaning 'the way of the warrior'). This code was based on honour, loyalty and discipline. A samurai's first duty was to honour and obey his master. If a samurai was defeated in battle, captured by the enemy or dishonoured in any way, the code required him to commit ritual suicide – an act known as ***seppuku*** (meaning 'stomach cutting'). A special knife or short sword was used to stab deep into the abdomen and cut across the body from left to right. Only by taking his own life in this way would the samurai and his family be spared shame and disgrace.

Source HT.6 A Japanese woodblock print of a samurai warrior about to perform *seppuku* – ritual suicide.

It is difficult to imagine the agony of committing *seppuku*, and for many people today this act might seem barbaric. However, by applying the concept of empathy, we are able to appreciate how young men trained in the warrior code would have believed that their honour and loyalty was worth more than their life, and that no other option was acceptable. An appreciation of the type of disgrace brought upon the families of samurai who did not commit *seppuku* also helps us to understand their actions.

APPLY HT.4

1. Another example of a practice that may be difficult to understand from your own perspective was the practice of *devșirme*. During the 15th to the 17th centuries, officials of the Ottoman Empire travelled to Christian villages in the territories under Ottoman rule in south-eastern Europe. Their purpose was to 'gather' boys with the most potential to be educated and trained as the Empire's elite soldiers and administrators. The boys were forced to convert to Islam, and many were sent to Istanbul, the capital of the Ottoman Empire and would never return home.
2. Read the section '*Devșirme*' in Chapter 9 The Ottoman Empire and complete the activities in Interpret 9.2.

Significance

The concept of **significance** relates to the importance that historians assign to aspects of the past, such as:

- events
- developments and movements
- individuals or groups
- discoveries and historical sites.

Historians make decisions about what is historically significant and worth studying. They do so by asking questions about the type of impacts particular events, discoveries, movements, individuals and sites have had on the world, both in their own time and in later periods.

Source HT.7 This statue of Genghis Khan near the Mongolian capital of Ulan Bator is over 40 metres high.

Example of significance

The changes introduced by Genghis Khan during his time as ruler of the Mongol Empire are considered significant because they affected enormous numbers of people over the vast territories of the empire. Although Genghis Khan ruled the Mongol Empire for a relatively short period of time, many of his actions continue to influence the lives of people all over the world. Some of these legacies include:

- the unification of many nomadic tribes and the establishment of a vast empire, with a disciplined and well-organised army
- the establishment of a legal system that governed over 100 million people
- the development of a system that respected and accepted people of different religious beliefs
- the establishment of **dynasties** in several parts of the world, including Korea, China and southern Russia.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Genetic research has indicated that Genghis Khan's DNA is now found in around 0.5 per cent of the world's population, which suggests that he and his sons fathered an enormous number of children. One out of every 12 Asians is now thought to be descended from Genghis Khan.

APPLY HT.5

1 Listed below are the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant:

- How important was this to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected?
- To what degree were people's lives affected?
- How widespread and long-lasting were the effects?
- Can the effects still be felt today?

Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of

a Genghis Khan

b an event, discovery or individual of your choice, from any topic that you have completed in your study of history.

Contestability

The concept of **contestability** is about interpretations of the past that are the subject of debate among historians. Historians around the world often have access to different sources, or they may study the same sources but come to different conclusions. Often there is no right answer. The development of new technologies can provide new evidence, which helps historians in their search for a more complete understanding of the past.

Examples of contestability

Historians generally agree that early Polynesians migrated to various islands across the Pacific Ocean from one point of origin. However, historians have argued about how stone-age people could have crossed immense stretches of oceans to settle on these remote islands. They have also disagreed about whether Polynesians originally travelled from South America or from South-East Asia before they settled on the islands.

One theory suggests that Polynesians originated from modern-day Peru, floating across the ocean on rafts made of balsa wood, which is common in South America. The people who support this theory argue that the regular wind patterns and ocean currents would allow this type of travel, while travelling in the opposite direction would be much more difficult. They also sometimes suggest that there are similarities between Aztec, Incan and Mayan stone buildings and the stone statues of Polynesia such as the *moai* on Rapa Nui (Easter Island).

Another theory suggests that Polynesians originated in Asia and travelled eastwards across the Pacific Ocean. People who support this theory point to archaeological evidence found in islands to the east of Polynesia, as well as DNA testing.

Source HT.8 In 1947, a Norwegian adventurer named Thor Heyerdahl carried out a daring voyage in an attempt to prove the theory that the Polynesians originally travelled from South America. He constructed a raft, which he called *Kon-Tiki*, and sailed it from South America into the Pacific.

APPLY HT.6

1 Read the section 'Theories about Polynesian expansion' in Chapter 13 Polynesian expansion across the Pacific. Then add marks and labels on a blank map of the Pacific region to explain the opposing theories about the origins of the Polynesian people. Include details about the arguments and evidence from both sides.

2 Using images and text, create a poster that illustrates and briefly explains the six historical concepts discussed in this section.

HT.2 HISTORICAL SKILLS

To conduct any historical inquiry, historians need to apply a range of different skills (see Source HT.9). Each skill area has a number of specific skills that you will learn and practice during your study of history. Some activities in your depth study topics will focus on one skill. Other activities, such as the Rich Tasks, are more complex and open-ended activities, requiring you to apply a number of skills to complete them.

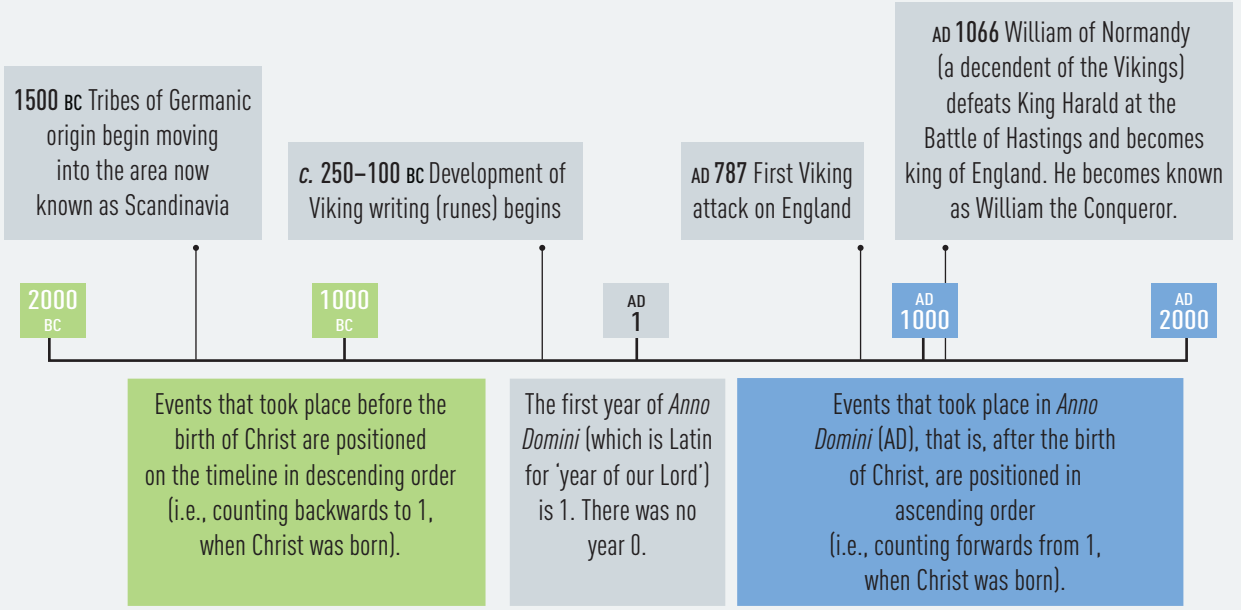
Source HT.9 Historical skills

Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

Chronology

To get a better understanding of the past, historians organise events in the order they happened. This is known as chronology. Drawing a **timeline** is a useful way to visually represent the scope of the **time period**, as well as the order of events. We can use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Once events have been place in chronological order, historians can use a range of historical concepts to analyse them in detail. These include cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change (for more information, see HT.1 Historical concepts).



Terms and concepts

Terms and concepts related to historical time are covered in detail in *Depth Study 1: Investigating the ancient past.* These include terms and concepts such as **BC/BCE** and **AD/CE**.

A reference table for time periods BC and AD, divided into centuries, is provided below. You should be familiar with the terms used to describe historical time periods before you begin your depth studies.

Century BC	Time period	Century BC	Time period	Century BC	Time period
21st century BC	2100 to 2001	14th century BC	1400 to 1301	7th century BC	700 to 601
20th century BC	2000 to 1901	13th century BC	1300 to 1201	6th century BC	600 to 501
19th century BC	1900 to 1801	12th century BC	1200 to 1101	5th century BC	500 to 401
18th century BC	1800 to 1701	11th century BC	1100 to 1001	4th century BC	400 to 301
17th century BC	1700 to 1601	10th century BC	1000 to 901	3rd century BC	300 to 201
16th century BC	1600 to 1501	9th century BC	900 to 801	2nd century BC	200 to 101
15th century BC	1500 to 1401	8th century BC	800 to 701	1st century BC	100 to 1

Source HT.11 More than 2000 years 'before Christ', divided into centuries. When ordering time BC, remember to count backwards from 1.

Century AD	Time period	Century AD	Time period	Century AD	Time period
1st century AD	1 to 100	8th century AD	701 to 800	15th century AD	1401 to 1500
2nd century AD	101 to 200	9th century AD	801 to 900	16th century AD	1501 to 1600
3rd century AD	201 to 300	10th century AD	901 to 1000	17th century AD	1601 to 1700
4th century AD	301 to 400	11th century AD	1001 to 1100	18th century AD	1701 to 1800
5th century AD	401 to 500	12th century AD	1101 to 1200	19th century AD	1801 to 1900
6th century AD	501 to 600	13th century AD	1201 to 1300	20th century AD	1901 to 2000
7th century AD	601 to 700	14th century AD	1301 to 1400	21st century AD	2001 to 2100

Source HT.12 More than 2000 years *Anno Domini* ('in the year of the Lord) divided into centuries. When ordering time AD, remember to count forwards from 1.

In Depth Study 1: 'Investigating the ancient past' you learned historical terms and concepts such as:

- **primary sources** and **secondary sources**
- **hypotheses**
- **prehistory**.

During your study of the depth studies in 'The ancient to the modern world' you will come across specific terms related to your topics, such as:

- **Danelaw**
- **feudalism**
- ***devş***
- **patron**
- ***yasa***
- **shogun**
- ***tapu***
- **dispossession**

APPLY HT.7

1 Arrange the following dates in chronological order.
AD 1 400 BC 399 BC AD 2013 2012 BC

2 Which centuries were the following years in?
   a 2012 BC
   b AD 1
   c AD 1921
   d AD 2000
   e 902 BC
   f 81 BC

3 Choose a person of interest to you and create a timeline of their life. The person can be an important historical figure (such as Genghis Khan or Leif Ericson), a person who has made an important discovery or invention that changed history (such as Christopher Columbus or Johannes Gutenberg), or even your favourite actor or singer.
   a Your timeline should include at least six significant events. Each entry must include a date and brief description of that event.
   b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.
   c Present your timeline electronically or as a poster.

Analysis and use of sources

Identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Historians use two types of **sources** to gather **evidence** about the past:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and that often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but they will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. So it is important for historians to understand:

- their origin – where they came from
- their purpose – why they were created.

In some cases the author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is referred to as **bias**, which is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources.

Evaluating sources

Questions historians ask to identify the origin and purpose of sources include the following:

Who wrote, produced or made the source?

- Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
- Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?

What type of source is it?

- Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards?

When was the source written, produced or made?

- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Why was it written or produced?

- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?

Source HT.13 The origin and purpose of these primary (A) and secondary (B) sources are very different, even though they are both related to Viking mythology: (A) A northern Icelandic bronze statue of the Viking god Thor holding his hammer (known as Mjolnir) dating back to around AD 1000 (B) Actor Chris Hemsworth as Thor holding his hammer (known as Mjolnir) in the 2011 Marvel Studios production of *Thor*.

APPLY HT.8

1 Which of the following is an example of a primary source: a bronze statue of the Viking god Thor created in AD 1000; the film *Thor* released in 2011.

Locate, compare, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have located and collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now it is time to compare and select the most relevant information that you will use as evidence to support your hypothesis. There are a number of different ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most useful, relevant and reliable evidence. Organisation charts are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart can help you do this.

RESEARCH TOPIC: The Viking god Thor — how important was he?

HYPOTHESIS: That Thor played a central role in Viking society and warrior culture.

Source 1: 'Thor' Encyclopaedia Britannica	Pros: • The entry is current and based on reliable evidence • The entry is written by a reputable organisation – Encyclopaedia Britannica • Detailed information about Thor's importance to Viking society in general Cons: • No specific information about Thor's importance for Viking warriors	Category of source: Secondary source – Encyclopaedia entry	Reference information: http://kids.britannica.com/comptons/article-9313835/Thor (Accessed 24 February 2013)
Source 2:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 3:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 4:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 5:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness: 1 2 3 4 5			

Source HT.14 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might compare and select sources

Draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources

A useful source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to the topic or question asked and must also be reliable. Ask yourself the following questions to determine the usefulness of a source:

- Is it a reliable source?
- Is there enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
- Does the information support and reinforce evidence from other sources?
- Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (bias)?
- Is it based on fact or opinion?
- Is the information current?

Separating fact from opinion

The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their usefulness. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion. A fact is something that can be proved: when an event took place, what happened and who was involved. An opinion is based on what a person, or persons, may believe to be true. A simple way to detect whether a statement is fact or opinion is to look closely at the language used. The use of words like 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed. For example:

- Fact: The inhabitants of Easter Island, the Rapa Nui, carved and transported huge stone statues known as *moai*.
- Opinion: Many historians believe these statues represent the ancestors of the Rapa Nui.

APPLY HT.9

1 Review your understanding of the difference between a fact and an opinion by writing definitions for these terms in your own words. Share your definitions with a partner and discuss any differences.

Perspectives and interpretations

Identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different points of view, attitudes and values. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, an extract translated from the *Historica Regum*, written by an English monk, Simeon of Durham in the 12th century, provides the following description of the Vikings:

Source HT.15

> [The Vikings] ... came to the church of Lindisfarne [in north-eastern England], laid everything to waste with grievous plundering, trampled the holy places with polluted steps, dug up the altars and seized all the treasures of the holy church. They killed some of the brothers [monks], took some away with them in chains, many they drove out naked and loaded with insults, some they drowned in the sea ...
>
> Translated extract from *Historia Regum* by the 12th-century English monk Simeon of Durham. It was said to be a careful copy of a lost version of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

This account is one of many that form an image of the Vikings as fierce and merciless warriors who attacked vulnerable villages and monasteries. Although many of these accounts are accurate, they do not always present a complete picture of events. It is also important to take into account the fact that many written sources from the time were recorded only by the people who could write – Christian monks. These monks were often the direct victims of Viking attacks that targeted monasteries for their gold. Other sources have shown that the Vikings were also skilled silversmiths, carpenters, poets, wood and ivory carvers, jewellery makers, weavers and musicians.

It is only when we consider a range of different perspectives revealed through all of the available sources that we can begin to form a realistic picture of who the Vikings were as a people.

Source HT.16 The detailed wood carvings on the prow (front end) of the Oseberg ship provide evidence of the skill and craftsmanship of Viking ship builders.

APPLY HT.10

1 Why is empathetic understanding an important skill for a historian to have?

Empathetic understanding

Interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past

The concept of empathetic understanding was discussed in the 'Historical concepts' section. In your study of the 'Ancient to the modern world', you will apply this concept by interpreting why people in the ancient past acted or behaved in particular way. To do this with empathetic understanding, you will need to keep in mind the values and attitudes of the society they lived in.

Research

Ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking questions. From these questions, historians develop a hypothesis (a theory) about who, what, when, how, where and why certain events took place. These questions help to frame the process of inquiry, and act as a guide for the types of evidence that needs to be collected.

Generating questions in inform a historical inquiry

A well-preserved Viking ship was discovered in a large burial mound at the Oseberg farm in Norway (just south of the capital Oslo). It was excavated by a team of Norwegian and Swedish archaeologists in 1904–1905.

A historian investigating the ship would start by asking questions. You can learn to do this to by asking questions beginning with 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when' and 'why'. A good question will help open up an exciting area to explore, such as 'What does the design and construction of the ship tell us about the skills of Viking craftsmen?'.

APPLY HT.11

1 Generate four inquiry questions of your own about the Oseberg ship.
2 Identify the information you will need to answer these questions and where you might be able to locate it.
3 Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or answers? What reasons might there be for this?

Source HT.17 A Viking ship found at Oseberg, Norway, is displayed at the Viking Ship Museum in Oslo, Sweden

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records. Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill which usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family keepsakes.

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed.

Search engines such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on sites may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information, or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Ask your librarian for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.

A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums and educational institutions. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (Internet address). The most common domain names are listed in Source HT.18 along with some information about their reliability. Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source. Never cut and paste information from the Internet into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can result in very serious consequences.

Source HT.18 Some domain names and their characteristics

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	This site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to purchase this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	This site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not for profit (e.g., Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, this generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g., particular religious, commercial or political interests), as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	This site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be purchased by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography. A summary of the details to include when citing (mentioning) a book or online source in a bibliography is shown below.

Citing a book in bibliography

Include the following details, in this order, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s)
2 year of publication
3 title of book (in italics)
4 edition (if relevant)
5 publisher
6 place of publication
7 page number(s).

Example:

Dennett, B & Dixon S, 201, *Oxford Insight History 7,* Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

Citing online sources in a bibliography

Include the following information, if available:

1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name
2 year of publication or date of web page (last update)
3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks
4 date of posting
5 organisation name (if different from above)
6 date you accessed the site
7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <... > .

Examples:

British Museum, 'Papyrus from the Book of the Dead of Ani', accessed 6 September 2012, <www.britishmuseum.org/explore/highlights/highlight_objects/aes/p/book_of_the_dead_of_ani.aspx>.

Williams, AR, 2005, 'King Tut Revealed: Modern forensics and high-tech imaging offer new insights into his life – and death', June, National Geographic, accessed 17 July 2012, <http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com/2005/06/king-tut/williams-text>.

Explanation and communication

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain using evidence from a range of sources. You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence. Different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence. The two most common and useful text types you will be expected to use this year are descriptions and explanations.

Writing descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. Descriptions focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things. They 'paint a picture' in words for readers to increase their understanding.

Descriptions must be well planned, with events organised in a chronological order. Use a set structure such as the outline in Source HT.19 or a template from your teacher.

Source HT.19 A guideline for writing a description

Structure of a description	
Introduction	• Introduces the subject • States the name of the person or event • Outlines why the topic is important
Body	• Provides details about the person or event (including dates and important facts) • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail • Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant
Conclusion (optional)	• Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. • States a conclusion drawn from the evidence.

Writing historical explanations and historical arguments

The purpose of an explanation is to tell how or why something happened. In a historical argument you are presenting a hypothesis that you can support with primary and secondary sources. Your writing in explanations and historical arguments must be clear and factual.

In both types of writing you must provide supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. All sources should be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format, as outlined in the skill 'Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods', which was covered earlier.

Source HT.20 A guideline for writing an explanation

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	• Clearly states the main idea or aim • Briefly outlines the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s
Body	• Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance and importance. • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. • Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. • Personal opinions (e.g., 'I think...' or 'my opinion...') should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	• Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. • States a conclusion drawn from the evidence.

Select and use a range of communication forms and digital technologies

The final stage of any historical inquiry is the presentation of your findings. This is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation. There are a number of ways to effectively and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews and role plays
- graphic – posters, cartoons, graphic organisers and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – audiovisual presentations, websites, fi lms, blogs, wikis and apps.

These communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation, there are several steps to follow.

Source HT.21 Steps in creating an audiovisual presentation

STEP 1:
Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs. If you have been working in a group, this may involve collating your research with other members of your class.

STEP 2:
Plan and create your presentation

Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi.

Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class.

How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

STEP 3:
Deliver your presentation

Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout is as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!

APPLY HT.12

1 Copy the table below into your notebook, and give two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

Search methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Using the library catalogue		
Google search		
Interviewing older family members		

2 Examine the following sites. Explain whether you think they are reliable and give reasons for your opinion.

- **a** Australian National Museum: www.nma.gov.au
- **b** Apple: www.apple.com.au
- **c** Macquarie University: http://mq.edu.au/
- **d** Answers.com: http://wiki.answers.com/Q/Why_were_the_vikings_feared

3 What is the purpose of a description? How is this different from an explanation?

4 Your teacher has asked you to provide a written piece about the significance of the ship at Oseberg in Viking society. Would it be more appropriate to write a description or an explanation? Explain your choice.

5 Your fellow class members have presented an audiovisual presentation on Viking gods. Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to complete a peer evaluation by creating five assessment criteria. Present your five assessment criteria in order of importance.

GLOSSARY

A

AD the abbreviation of *Anno Domini* (year of our Lord), used to indicate any time after the birth of Christ (*see also* CE)

Age of Exploration, the a period starting in the early 15th **century** and continuing to the 17th century during which Europeans explored Africa, the Americas, Asia and Oceania

Anglo-Saxon a Germanic people who settled in Great Britain in the 5th century AD, forcing the local Celtic people to the far west of the region

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, the a collection of stories and poems that tells the history of the **Anglo-Saxon** people

anthropologist a person who specialises in the study of human behaviour and the physical, social and cultural developments of humans

artisan a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metal worker)

assimilation the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s, assimilation of Indigenous Australians into white society became official government policy in Australia

B

Balkans, the a region in south-eastern Europe lying south of the Balkan Mountains

baray a reservoir of water (such as a pool or artificial lake)

barbarian a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders

barter an exchange of goods or services between people (typical of trade before the use of money) in which both parties agree that what is exchanged is of roughly equal value

bazaar a type of market selling spices, food, books, clothes and crafts in the Ottoman Empire

BC the abbreviation of Before Christ, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (*see also* BCE)

BCE the abbreviation of Before the Common Era, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (*see also* BC)

bias prejudice for or against a person, group or thing (especially in a way considered to be unfair

Black Death, the a deadly outbreak of plague that spread across Asia, Europe and Africa during the 14th **century**, killing millions of people

blood-letting the deliberate cutting of someone to cause bleeding; this medieval practice, often performed by barbers, was seen as a treatment and cure for illness

brideprice a sum of money or quantity of goods that, in some societies, is paid to a bride's family by the groom or his family upon marriage

buboes the blackened, swollen, pus-filled lymph nodes on the body of someone with the bubonic plague

Buddhism a widespread Asian religion or philosophy, founded by Siddartha Gautama in north-east India in the 5th **century BC**

***bushido* (pronounced boo•SHEE•doh)** the code of behaviour of the Japanese **samurai** warrior that required honour, loyalty (even to death), good living, thrift and martial arts skill

Byzantine Empire, the the eastern portion of the Roman Empire that continued after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire in **AD** 476; named after its capital Byzantium (modern-day Istanbul)

C

caste system a social system in which people are born into a social group (called a caste); the caste system is generally associated with the Hindu religion in India and is still used today

cause and effect a key concept in history: the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short-term and long-term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

cavalry soldiers who fight on horseback

CE the abbreviation of Common Era, which refers to any time after the birth of Christ (*see also* AD)

census a 'head count' or audit of the number of people living in a particular place at a particular time; information collected during a census can often include age, occupation, income, etc.

century a period of one hundred years

chain mail a form of armour made up of hundreds of interlinking metal rings

chiaroscuro (in art) the treatment of light and shade in drawing and painting

chivalry the code of practice for a medieval **knight**; he was expected to be honest, moral, courteous, brave, dignified, help others in distress, be generous to those less fortunate and uphold a lady's reputation.

city–state an independent settlement made up of an inner fortified city, surrounded by houses; this built centre was surrounded by farmland that supported the urban centre with food and other necessities

civilisation a **society** with large-scale urban settlements, defined systems of government, social organisation, religion and technologies

clan a group of people linked and united in their aims and behaviours by the knowledge (or a belief) that they share common ancestors

colony an outpost set up by a country, kingdom or empire, often for social, financial or strategic (military) reasons

concubine a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor (e.g. during the Ottoman Empire)

Confucianism a code of behaviour founded by the Chinese thinker K'ung Ch'iu (known as Confucius) in the early 5th **century** BC; Confucius believed his ideas would help maintain order and respect within families, relationships and the society itself

***conquistador* (pronounced con•KEES•ta•dor)** a Spanish word for soldier; a conqueror, especially one of the Spanish conquerors of the Americas in the 16th century

contestability a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical **sources**, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

continuity and change a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a **society** stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

Crusades, the a series of eight wars fought by Christian and Muslims between **AD** 1096 and 1291 over control of the **Holy Land**

D

***daimyo* (pronounced DIME•yo)** a Japanese warlord

Danegeld a land tax charged in England during the rule of King Ethelred to raise funds for protection against Viking invaders

Danelaw an area in north-east England (which includes the city of York) that King Alfred of the Kingdom of Wessex gave to the Vikings in exchange for stopping their raids of the region

demesne (pronounced de•MAIN) a piece of land attached to a **manor** and kept by the lord for his own use

devșirme the practice of taking boys from non-Muslim families and converting them to Islam with the primary objective of selecting and training the brightest children for the military or civil service of the Ottoman Empire

dispossession to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property; when the British colonised Australia in the 18th **century** large numbers of Indigenous Australians were dispossessed of their ancestral lands, their hunting grounds and water resources; they were also cut off from their spiritual and cultural heritage as a result dispossession

divan the council of officials and administrative officers during the Ottoman Empire

DNA the abbreviation of deoxyribonucleic acid; DNA is found in the cells of all living organisms; it is the unique genetic code of each living thing

DNA testing the examination of **DNA** used to explore links between ancient remains in order to support historical theories

Domesday Book, the a detailed record of the extent, value, ownership, and liabilities of land in England, made in 1086 by order of William I

dowry an amount of property or money given by a bride to her husband on their marriage

Dreaming, the the time of creation and the origin of all things, according to the beliefs of Indigenous Australians

dynasty a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other (e.g. the Han Dynasty in China); power is often passed from father to son

E

empathetic understanding a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

Enlightenment, the a school of French-inspired thinking that spread across Europe in the 18th **century**; its view was that reason, tolerance and equality should replace superstition, cruelty and injustice

epidemic a widespread outbreak of an infectious disease in a community at a particular time

evidence the information or clues gathered from a historical **source**; evidence can be used to support a **hypothesis** (theory) or prove it wrong

excommunicate to officially exclude a person from being part of the church community and all that this entailed from a spiritual point of view (e.g. being able to participate in communion, confession)

F

feudalism a set of legal and military customs that served to organise the society of medieval Europe; under feudalism, a **lord** gave a **fief** to a **vassal** in exchange for loyalty and support

fief (pronounced FEEF) under **feudalism**, usually a plot of land granted to a **vassal** by a **lord** in return for the vassal's loyal support

flagellants a group of radical Christians during the Black Death who whipped themselves to gain God's forgiveness for their sins

Franks a group of Germanic tribes occupying lands in what is now Germany during the 3rd **century AD**

fratricide the killing of one's own brothers or sisters; a strategy used by sultans during the Ottoman Empire to hang on to power

G

Gaul an ancient region of Europe, now parts of modern-day France, Belgium, the south Netherlands, south-west Germany, and northern Italy

geisha a Japanese hostess trained to entertain men with conversation, dance, and song

genealogy the study of family history and lineage over time

Gothic a style of architecture common in western Europe from the 12th to the 16th **centuries** characterised by features such as pointed arches, vaults, and flying buttresses

grand vizier the chief minister and highest official under the **sultan** during the Ottoman Empire

guild group of people all working in the same trade (e.g. butchers, tailors, cobblers) who band together for their common interests

H

haka a ceremonial Māori dance involving chanting and vigorous movement

harem during the Ottoman Empire; the separate part of a Muslim household reserved for wives, **concubines**, and female servants

heresy doing or saying something that is in serious conflict with the teachings of an established religion, particularly the medieval Catholic Church

hierarchy a way of organising people or groups of things so that the most important is at the top, with the others ranked underneath in decreasing order of importance

hieroglyph a picture-like symbol, such as was used in the original writing system of the ancient Egyptians

Holy Land, the the territory in today's Middle East now mostly made up of Israel and parts of Palestine

humanism a system or way of thinking in which human values, reason and interests are given priority over competing systems (such as religion)

hypothesis a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and **evidence**, about something that has not been proven (hypotheses is the plural form)

I

Ice Age, the a period in history when ice sheets were unusually widespread across the surface of the Earth

illuminated manuscript in the medieval sense, a document written by hand (usually by **monks**) decorated with gold, silver or colourful designs

imperialism the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons

Indianisation the spread of culture, traditions and spiritual beliefs beyond their traditional home in India to other countries around the world

infantry soldiers who fight on foot

invasion an instance of invading a country or region with an armed force

J

Janissary a member of a sultan's elite military guard during the Ottoman Empire

joust a medieval sporting contest in which two opponents on horseback(often **knights**) fought with wooden poles known as lances

K

kava a drink made from the crushed roots of the kava plant (a relative of pepper family) important in many Polynesian cultures

khan (pronounced CARN) the title given to a leader of a Mongol tribe; and (during the 13th **century**) to the ruler of the entire Mongol Empire

knight a medieval warrior of Europe, who typically pledged his services to a **lord** (sometimes the king) in exchange for a **fief**

L

longhouse a Viking house, characterised by its long shape; often built into mounds of earth (for insulation); it sheltered the extended family and their animals.

longship a type of ship used by the Vikings to transport warriors on attack-and-raid missions; longships had shallow hulls, making them speedy and easy to manoeuvre; they were often decorated with mythical creatures

M

manor a unit of land for a feudal lord, consisting of a lord's **demesne** and lands rented to tenants

manuscript in the medieval sense, a document written by hand (usually by **monks**)

massacre an indiscriminate and brutal slaughter of many people

Middle Ages, the the period in European history between antiquity and the Renaissance (also known as the Medieval period), often dated from **AD** 476 to 1453

mission (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th century (usually by Christian missionaries) to accommodate, educate and convert Indigenous Australians Christianity by teaching them European culture and beliefs

moa carved stone statues representing human figures found on Easter Island (also known as *Rapa Nui*)

monastery a place where monks live, worship and work

monk a man dedicated to the religious life who lives in a **monastery**

N

Naturalism (in art and literature) a style and theory of representation based on the accurate depiction of details in nature

New World, the a term that started being used by Europeans in the late 1400s to describe the new lands (the Americas) being discovered

nomads a society of people who do not live in a set place but wander around, usually in search of food and shelter and good pasture for their animals (adjective: nomadic)

Normans a people of Viking origin who settled in what is now France from about **AD** 912 and became a dominant military power in Western Europe and the Mediterranean in the 11th century

O

occupation the action, state, or period of occupying or being occupied by military force

P

page a boy in the personal service of a **knight**

pandemic the spread of an infectious disease across an entire country, a large region, or even worldwide; an **epidemic** on a much larger scale

pastoralist a farmer of sheep or cattle, usually on a large-scale farm

patron a person who gives financial or other support to a person, organisation, or cause

Peasant's Revolt, the a widespread rebellion in 1381 against taxes and other inequities that oppressed the poorer people in England

perspective (in art) the representation of three-dimensional objects on a two-dimensional surface so as to give the right impression of their height, width, depth, and position in relation to each other

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, culture or beliefs

pilgrim a person who takes part in a **pilgrimage**

pilgrimage a journey made by a person (**pilgrim**) who travels to a place of religious significance in the hope this will see prayers answered or sins forgiven

Polynesian Triangle, the a region of the Pacific Ocean with three island groups at its corners: Hawaii, Easter Island (also known as *Rapa Nui*) and New Zealand

polytheism a belief in many gods

pre-Columbian a term used to describe all periods of history in the Americas before the arrival of Europeans (since Christopher Columbus)

primary source a **source** that existed or was made at the time being studied

protectorate (in Australian history) a district under the protection of a protector (a government official responsible for the Indigenous population)

R

radiocarbon dating a method used to estimate the age of something that was once alive; the amount of radioactive carbon in the remains of the object is tested and gives a good indication of age because carbon breaks down over time at a known rate

Reformation, the a movement that began in Europe in the 16th **century** when the scholar–**monk** Martin Luther publicly challenged the Catholic Church; it shifted the balance of power in Europe away from dominant control by the Church

Renaissance, the a period in Europe's history between the late 12th and 16th **centuries** that saw a revival of culture and learning

reservation (in United States history) an area of land set aside as a place to live for the Indigenous people who had been dispossessed of their own lands

reserve (in Australian history) a settlement established during the 19th **century** in Australia (usually by **colonial** powers) to accommodate, educate and 'civilise' Indigenous Australians by teaching them European culture and beliefs

S

saga a long story (sometimes mixed with poetry) about heroes (mainly from today's Scandinavia and central Europe) who achieved great things and fought noble battles. Most were written soon after the Viking Age, in the language of Old Norse. They are often a mix of real events, legends and myths.

sakoku (pronounced sa•KO•koo) the name given to Japan's foreign policy during the Tokugawa **Shogunate** (1633–1853) that forbade any Japanese person to leave Japan, or any foreigner to enter it; the penalty for disobeying was death

samurai a Japanese medieval warrior

Sanskrit an ancient language of India and the language used in documenting the holy books of Hinduism

Saxons a people that inhabited parts of central and northern Germany from Roman times, many of whom conquered and settled in much of southern England in the 5th and 6th **centuries**

Scientific Revolution, the a change in thinking among 16th- and 17th-**century** European scholars that placed a new focus on the laws of the natural world (rather than on a world dominated by religious belief)

secondary source a **source** created after the time being studied

***seppuku* (pronounced SEP•oo•koo)** a ritual suicide common among Japanese **samurai** who felt they had been dishonoured; this involved self-disembowelling (cutting open the belly)

serf a medieval peasant who worked on the **manor** of a **feudal lord**

shaman (pronounced SHAR•man) a person regarded as having access to the spirit world, especially among some peoples of northern Asia such as the Mongols; typically such people enter a trance-like state during rituals to foretell the future

Shinto a Japanese religion dating from the early 8th **century** and incorporating the worship of ancestors and nature spirits and a belief in sacred power (*kami*) in both living and non-living things

***shogun* (pronounced SHOW•gun)** a title given to Japan's top military rulers between the 12th and 19th **centuries** AD

shogunate the office, rule or **dynasty** of a **shogun** in medieval Japan

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

Silk Road, the a network of land and sea trading routes stretching from China in the east to the Mediterranean Sea in the west; it was the main means by which silk was introduced to the West

source an item that provides historical **evidence** of any sort

squatter (in colonial Australian history) a person who occupied a section of Crown land (land legally owned by the monarch of Britain) for cattle and sheep grazing without purchase or lease; squatters often came into conflict with selectors who were granted access to the land by law

steppe (pronounced STEP) an expansive stretch of grassland (without trees) typically found in places such as Siberia and Mongolia

sub-tenant a person who leased property from a **tenant-in chief**

sultan the ultimate ruler during the Ottoman Empire, who exercised complete political, military, religious, judicial and social authority and control

supplanting society a society (or cultural group) that invades a country or region and replaces existing traditions and cultural practices (like language and beliefs) with its own

T

tapu a Māori spiritual and social code central to traditional society, related to respect for people, natural resources and the environment

Tartar (pronounced TAH•ta) a member of an ethnic group whose members can be found today in countries such as Turkey, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Ukraine and Azerbaijan

tenant-in-chief a person who holds land directly under the king

time period a block of time in history

timeline a graphical representation of events over a set period of time, arranged in the order in which they occurred

tithe a tax paid to support of the Church and clergy (equivalent to one-tenth of a person's annual produce or earnings)

treason the act of betraying one's own country or ruler

trencher a thick slice of bread used as a plate or platter

V

vassal under **feudalism**, a person who offered his loyalty and service to a **lord** in return for his protection and the granting of a **fief**

Y

***Yasa*, the** a written code of law created by Genghis Khan that applied across all regions of the Mongol Empire

yurt a Mongolian circular tent, with a wooden frame and felt walls (also known as a *ger*)

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This photograph taken in 2010 during the Tough Guy Challenge (an endurance race held in Staffordshire, England) shows a competitor wearing a 'ridge helmet'. This type of helmet was common in ancient Mediterranean societies such as Greece and Rome. During medieval times in Western Europe, it evolved into the 'nasal helmet'. The nasal helmet was characterised by a nose guard that extended from the tip of the helmet to provide protection to the face. The helmet appeared throughout Western Europe late in the 9th century and became one of the most popular forms of head protection worn during combat.

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