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OXFORD INSIGHT HISTORY FOR NSW STAGE 4

SECOND EDITION

BRUCE DENNETT
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BERNIE HOWITT
STEPHEN DIXON



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CONTENTS

Using *Oxford Insight History* vi

NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History Stage 4 – Scope and sequence x

THE ANCIENT WORLD

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS 2

PART A INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST: AN OVERVIEW 20

DEPTH STUDY 1: INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

CHAPTER 1 INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST 32

1A How do historians and archaeologists investigate history? 34
1B What types of sources are used in historical investigations? 44
1C How do historians and archaeologists investigate historical mysteries? 52
1D What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past? 56
1E Why is it important to conserve the remains of the ancient past? 66

PART B THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW 74

DEPTH STUDY 2: THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

CHAPTER 2 ANCIENT EGYPT 80

Ancient Egypt – a timeline 82
2A How did geography influence the development of ancient Egypt? 84
2B How was ancient Egyptian society organised and governed? 90
2C What did ancient Egyptians believe? 108
2D How did contacts and conflicts change Egypt and other ancient societies? 117

CHAPTER 3 ANCIENT GREECE 124

obook-only chapter

Ancient Greece – a timeline
3A How did geography influence the development of ancient Greece?
3B What did the ancient Greeks believe?
3C How was society organised and governed in ancient Greece?
3D How did contacts and conflicts change Greece and other ancient societies?



CHAPTER 4 ANCIENT ROME 126

Ancient Rome – a timeline 128

4A How did geography influence the development of ancient Rome? 130

4B How was ancient Roman society organised and governed? 134

4C What did the ancient Romans believe? 157

4D How did contacts and conflicts change Rome and other ancient societies? 162

PART C THE ASIAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW 176

DEPTH STUDY 3: THE ASIAN WORLD

CHAPTER 5 ANCIENT INDIA 182

obook-only chapter

Ancient India – a timeline

5A How did geography influence the development of ancient India?

5B What did people in ancient India believe?

5C How was society organised in ancient India?

5D How did contacts and conflicts change India and other ancient societies?

CHAPTER 6 ANCIENT CHINA 184

Ancient China – a timeline 186

6A How did geography influence the development of ancient China? 188

6B What did people in ancient China believe? 194

6C How was society organised and governed in ancient China? 198

6D How did contacts and conflicts change China and other ancient societies? 216

THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD

PART D THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLDS: AN OVERVIEW 226

DEPTH STUDY 4: THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLDS

CHAPTER 7 THE VIKINGS 248

The Vikings – a timeline 250

7A What were the key features of Viking society and way of life? 252

7B What developments and achievements led to Viking expansion? 264

7C Which societies did the Vikings conquer and how were the people there affected? 277

CHAPTER 8 MEDIEVAL EUROPE 284

Medieval Europe – a timeline 286

8A What were the key features of societies across medieval Europe? 288

8B What was daily life like in medieval Europe? 307

8C What significant developments and achievements took place in medieval Europe? 320

CHAPTER 9 THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE 332

obook-only chapter

The Ottoman Empire – a timeline

9A How was society organised during the Ottoman Empire and what was daily life like?

9B What were the most significant developments and achievements of the Ottoman Empire?

CHAPTER 10 RENAISSANCE ITALY 334

obook-only chapter

Renaissance Italy – a timeline

10A How was society in Italy organised during the Renaissance and what was daily life like?

10B What were the most significant developments and achievements of Renaissance Italy?

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PART E THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW 336

DEPTH STUDY 5: THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD

CHAPTER 11 THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE 342

obook-only chapter

The Angkor/Khmer Empire – a timeline

11A How was society organised during the Angkor/Khmer Empire and what was daily life like?

11B What were the greatest achievements of the Angkor/Khmer Empire and why did it decline?

CHAPTER 12 JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS 344

Japan under the shoguns – a timeline 346

12A How was Japanese society organised during the rule of the shoguns and what was daily life like? 348

12B How was Japan ruled under the Tokugawa shoguns? 362

CHAPTER 13 THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC 372

The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific – a timeline 374

13A How did Polynesian societies spread across the Pacific and where did they settle? 376

13B How was Māori society organised and what was daily life like? 389

PART F EXPANDING CONTACTS: AN OVERVIEW 398

DEPTH STUDY 6: EXPANDING CONTACTS

CHAPTER 14 MONGOL EXPANSION 406

obook-only chapter

Mongol expansion – a timeline

14A How was Mongol society organised and what was daily life like?

14B What were the consequences of Mongol expansion?

CHAPTER 15 THE BLACK DEATH IN ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA 408

The Black Death – a timeline 410

15A What was life like in the fourteenth century and what did people believe? 412

15B What were the causes of the Black Death and how did it spread? 426

15C What were the effects of the Black Death? 436

CHAPTER 16 THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS 444

The Spanish conquest of the Americas – a timeline 446

16A What were the key features of societies in the Americas before the arrival of the Spanish? 448

16B What impact did the Spanish conquest have on the Americas? 460

CHAPTER 17 ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY 472

Aboriginal and Indigenous peoples, colonisation and contact history – a timeline 474

17A What were the reasons for the colonisation of North America and what effects did this have? 476

17B What were the reasons for Britain's colonisation of Australia and what effects did this have? 490

Index 509

Acknowledgements 519

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 the required outcomes.

KEY FEATURES OF THE STUDENT BOOK

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.

Each topic covered in the Student Book is supported by primary and secondary source materials designed to engage and challenge a range of students. Source materials such as artefacts, historical illustrations, photographs, text extracts, timelines and maps provide rich learning opportunities and encourage students to develop deep understandings and transferable skills.

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



Each chapter features a **Case study**.

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

Chapter content is organised into numbered topics to support teaching and learning.

Syllabus content dot points are clearly indicated for each topic.

Spotlight features highlight historical skills and concepts relevant to the text.

Visible thinking prompts encourage students to develop their critical thinking and analysis skills.

Source study activities expose students to a range of primary and secondary sources designed to bring the past to life. **Interpret** questions challenge students to develop their historical skills while engaging with the sources.

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

On-page glossary definitions occur at the point of learning.

Questions and tasks for each topic are grouped together in a numbered **Check Your Learning** panel at the end of each topic. A range of activities suit different abilities and learning styles, and include a combination of **Review and understand**, **Apply and analyse**, **Evaluate and create** or **Go deeper** questions.

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

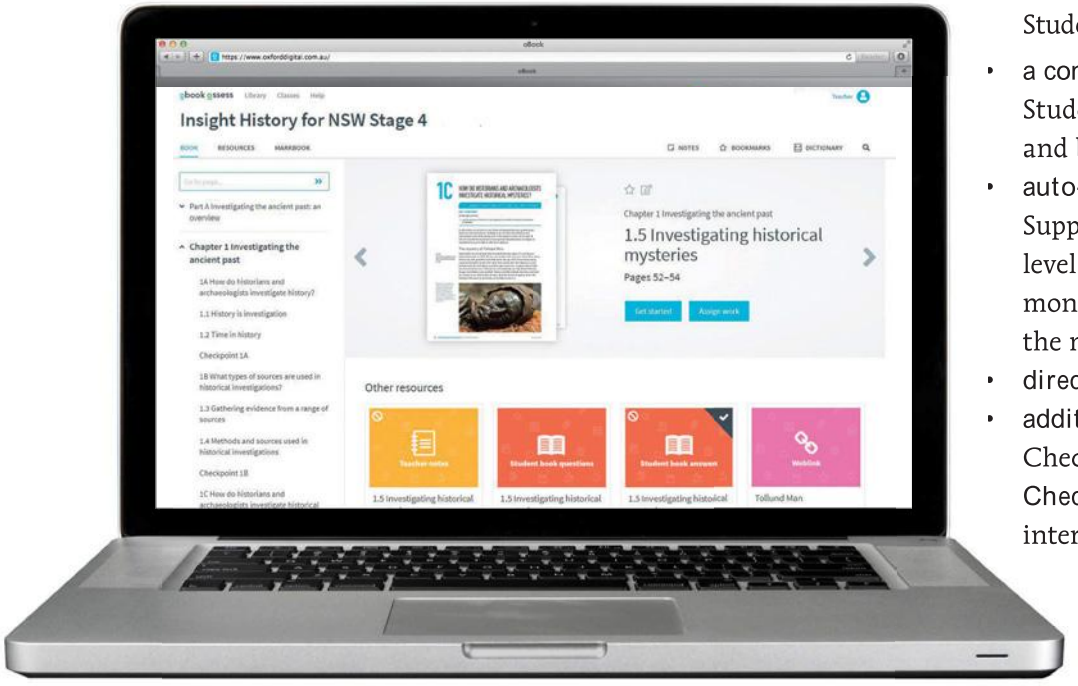
Each **Checkpoint** is supported by a set of three separate student worksheets (available digitally as part of the Teacher obook). These worksheets are graded to **support**, **consolidate** or **extend** students of differing abilities, allowing you to personalise learning in your class. Like the Checkpoint questions, the worksheets are linked to content dot points and skills from the syllabus, with the goal of providing tailored support to ensure better results.

INTEGRATED TEACHING AND LEARNING SUPPORT

Oxford Insight History for NSW is supported by a range of engaging and relevant digital resources provided via obook assess – Oxford's award-winning digital platform.

STUDENT OBOOK ASSESS

Student obook assess provides a fully interactive digital experience for students that is compatible with laptops, iPads, tablets and IWBs. Access to content is available online and offline.



Students receive:

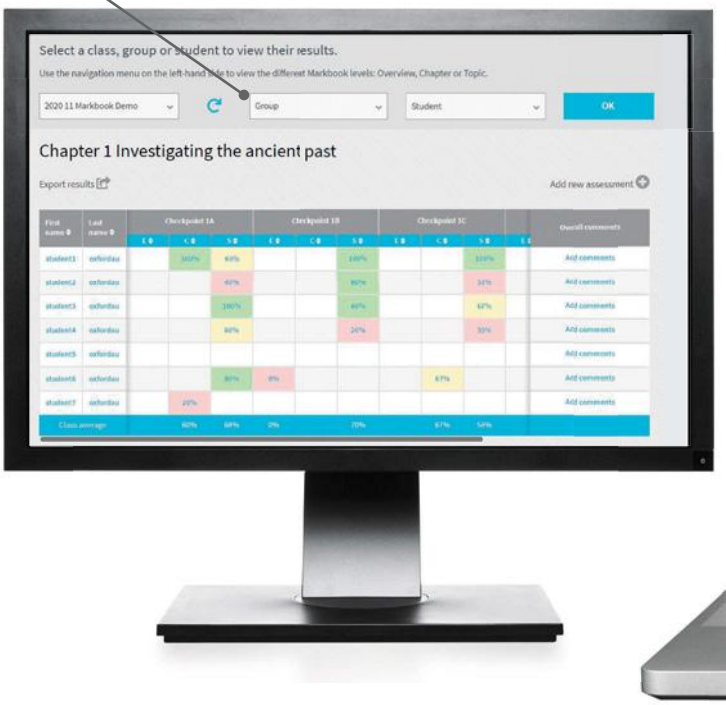
- a complete digital version of the Student book with notetaking and bookmarking functionality
- auto-correcting quizzes at Support, Consolidate and Extend levels to assess understanding, monitor progress and feed into the markbook
- direct access to Quizlet
- additional resources such as Check Your Learning and Checkpoint question worksheets, interactives and weblinks.

TEACHER OBOOK ASSESS

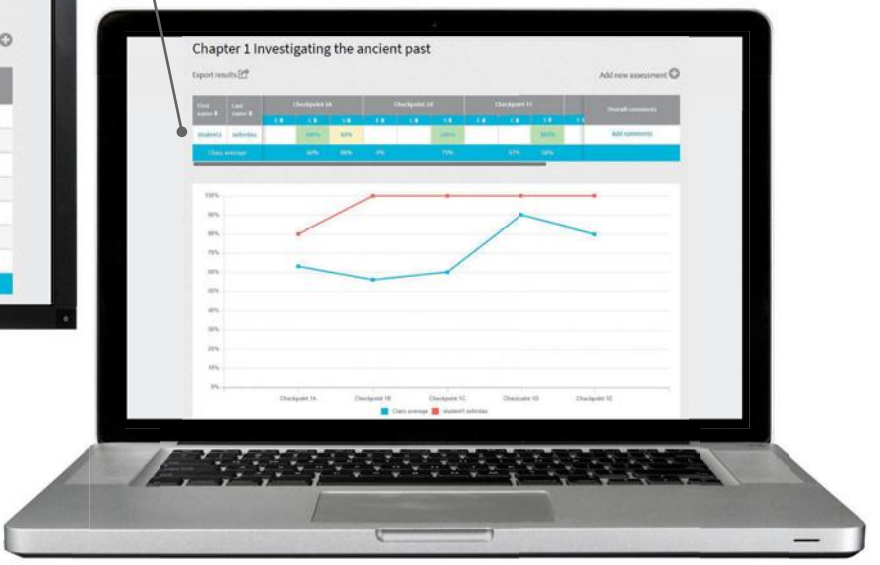
Teacher obook assess supports teachers with a range of additional resources and functionality, including:

- access to all student resources
- detailed course planners, teaching programs and teacher notes
- answers to every question in the Student book
- access to markbook, where they can:
  - filter online quiz results by class or group
  - add custom results from self-administered assessments
  - view student progress reports in HTML or PDF
  - export class reports as .cvs files
- direct access to Quizlet
- additional resources such as answers to every Student book question, differentiated Checkpoint worksheets and rich tasks.

Markbook enables teachers to view student results by class



Markbook enables teachers to view individual student results and track them against the class average



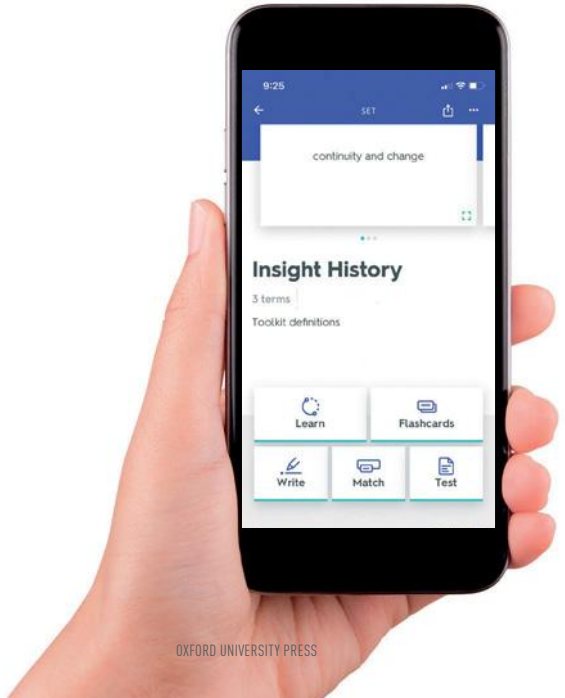
Quizlet

Each chapter of *Oxford Insight History for NSW* is supported by expert-authored content on Quizlet. By accessing Quizlet via a web browser or the Quizlet app, students have access to different interactive learning tools, including:

- interactive flashcards to help students learn key terminology
- multiple-choice questions to test students on their knowledge

Quizlet also provides students with fun revision games to support their learning, including:

- Quizlet Live, where students battle in teams or individually against other members of their class
- 'Match' card game, where students match the correct term to its definition
- 'Gravity' timed test, where students test their knowledge against the clock



Instructions for teachers launching a game of Quizlet Live

1 When prompted in the Student book, log onto Oxford Digital and launch the Quizlet website.
2 Follow the prompts to set up a game to host for your students, including how you would like them to compete:
   - individually
   - in teams.
3 Your game is now set up and ready for students to join. They can join by opening Quizlet on a web browser or the app and either:
   - entering the six-digit code that appears on your screen
   - scanning the QR code that appears on your screen.
4 Once all students are ready, click the large 'Create game' button and a summary of the students playing will appear. Click 'Start game'.
5 As the teacher, your screen will display a leader board that updates in live time as students answer questions.

NSW SYLLABUS FOR THE AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM: HISTORY STAGE 4 – SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

STAGE 4: THE ANCIENT WORLD TO THE MODERN WORLD

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

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

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

- 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?

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

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

- 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).

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DEPTH STUDIES

DEPTH STUDY 1
Investigating the Ancient Past (including ancient Australia).

Core study – mandatory for all students

DEPTH STUDY 2
The Mediterranean World. ONE of the following to be studied:

Topic 2a › Egypt

Topic 2b › Greece

Topic 2c › Rome

DEPTH STUDY 3
The Asian World. ONE of the following to be studied:

Topic 3a › India

Topic 3b › China

DEPTH STUDY 4
The Western and Islamic World. ONE of the following to be studied:

Topic 4a › The Vikings

Topic 4b › Medieval Europe

Topic 4c › The Ottoman Empire

Topic 4d › Renaissance Italy

DEPTH STUDY 5
The Asia-Pacific World. ONE of the following to be studied:

Topic 5a › Angkor/Khmer Empire

Topic 5b › Japan under the Shoguns

Topic 5c › The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific

DEPTH STUDY 6
Expanding Contacts. ONE of the following to be studied:

Topic 6a › Mongol expansion

Topic 6b › The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa

Topic 6c › The Spanish Conquest of the Americas

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)



THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

As you investigate the past, you will be required to learn and apply the same 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 historical concepts and skills that you will learn about during your study of history.



HISTORICAL CONCEPTS YOU WILL LEARN ABOUT IN STAGE 4

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 YOU WILL LEARN ABOUT IN STAGE 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

- Read and understand historical texts.
- Sequence historical events and periods.
- Use historical terms and concepts.

Analysis and use of sources

- Identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources.
- Locate, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence.
- Draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources.

Perspectives and interpretations

- Identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context.

Empathetic understanding

- Interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past.

Research

- Ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry.
- Identify and locate a range of relevant sources, using ICT and other methods.
- 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.
- Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written and digital) to communicate effectively about the past.

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT

Studying history is similar to investigating a mystery. Just like a detective who needs a toolkit to help them investigate, historians use a range of tools to discover the past. They choose their tools depending on what they are investigating and what they want to learn. These tools are the historical concepts and skills you will learn about in this chapter and throughout this course.

The word 'history' comes from the Greek word *historia*, which means 'inquiry'. In other words, historians are involved in inquiry or investigation. History is a problem-solving discipline and is therefore all about asking questions. We use **evidence** to try to discover the truth about people and events in the past. As a new historian, think of yourself as a researcher, looking for evidence and clues to find the best and fairest explanation of the past. Your study will provide you with the skills to go beyond the simple question 'What do we know?' to answer the more important questions 'How do we know?' and 'Whom do we trust?'

evidence
the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

While history will give you the opportunity to learn interesting things about people and stories from the past, it can also teach you to think critically and creatively. This is vital in a world where we are swamped by different versions of the so-called truth in mainstream and social media.

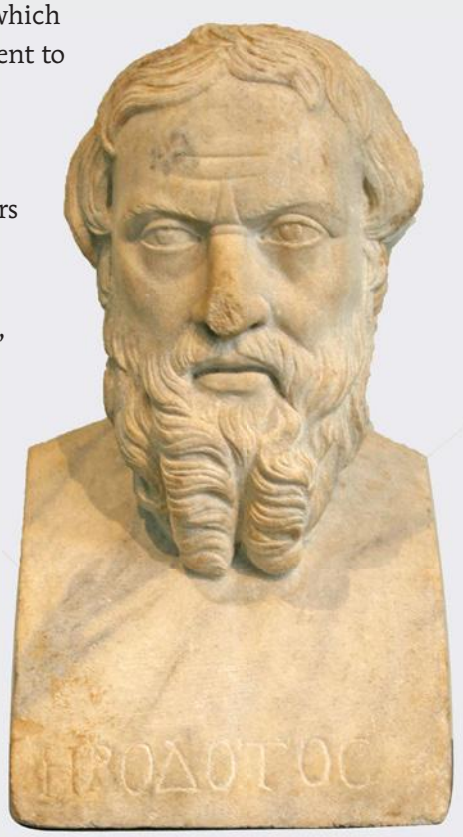
Getting started

Start with a small historical investigation of your own. Ask the older people at home what they remember about studying history at school. Was it useful? Was it interesting? Was it boring? These questions aim to discover their experience of the subject at school. Then ask them why they felt that way. This is where you start to go deeper and consider possible **causes**. You are engaging in research. The people you interview are **sources** of evidence about the recent past and the ways in which history was taught. Now ask them where they went to school (in Australia or another country, in New South Wales or another state, in the city or the country) and when they were at school. Who taught them? How were they taught? The answers to these questions will tell you about the perspectives of all the people you interviewed.

cause
why things happen; a cause has to be directly linked to an event – it is the reason the event occurs

source
evidence that historians use when investigating the past

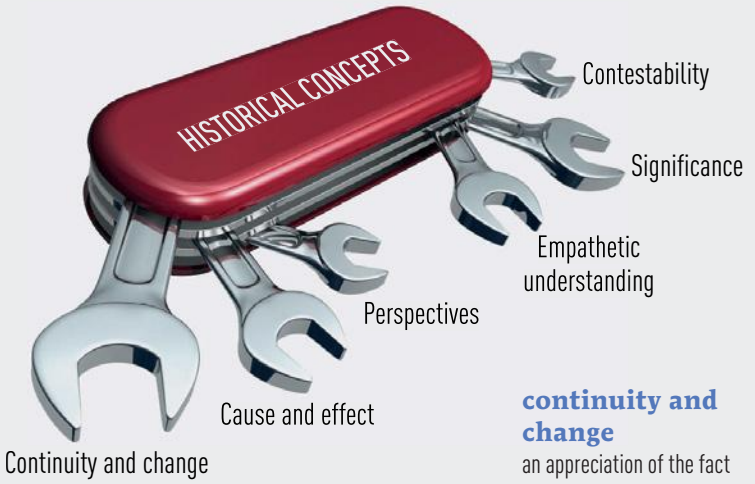
In asking and thinking about these questions, you are using some of the concepts and skills from the historian's toolkit.



Source 1 A bust of Herodotus, a Greek historian who is known as the 'father of history'; much of what we know about the ancient world comes from his writing. He was among the first to record what he read, saw and heard in a planned and ordered manner.

HT.1 HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

Six key historical concepts are shown in Source 2. 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 2 Historical concepts

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things change, while others stay the same. This applies not just to the physical world, but also to the way people think. This concept is known 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 aspects of everyday life that have continued across **centuries**, or in changes in government, technology or religious beliefs that have affected an entire society's culture.

As you study different societies across different **time periods**, you will have the chance to identify those aspects of life and thinking that stayed the same and those that changed. Go beyond learning the stories and think about the patterns of history, especially continuity and change. The same patterns can also be seen in the world today. This is especially true when we look at the shifts back and forth between **nationalism** and **globalisation**. The **Silk Roads** are an important example of how change occurs as a result of globalisation through trade and sharing new ideas and inventions.

Example of continuity and change

Every generation within a society has tried to make a better and safer world for their children. Some generations found this easier to do and made better decisions than others. This idea of wanting to improve is an example of continuity – something shared and continuous across societies and time periods. Change was sometimes needed to make a better and safer world. Things had to be done differently and old ideas and practices had to change.

Two major patterns of change can be seen as generations sought to make a better and safer world:

- moving to better lands, colonising and expanding trade
- staying in place but transforming society with new ideas, new inventions and new ways of doing things.

In the twenty-first century, both of these patterns might become clear as part of our response to climate change. Some people might be forced to move due to increasing levels of drought or a rise in sea levels. Another response will have to involve changes in the way we organise and power the economy, developing more effective renewable energy.

continuity and change
an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

civilisation
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

century
1 a period of 100 years; **2** a military unit in the army of ancient Rome made up of between 80 and 100 soldiers

time period
a block of time in history

nationalism
a shared identity of a group of people, often sharing a common culture, language and racial identity, who form a single nation state and put the interests of that state above all others

globalisation
political, economic and social links between individual nation states and communities; often focuses on shared interests

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Cause and effect

cause and effect
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

The concept of **cause and effect** is used by historians to identify the reasons for an event or changes in history, and the results of those events or developments. 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, in investigating the past, links are often less obvious and more complicated. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event. There can also be many effects or outcomes. Sometimes the effects are easy to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even be observed until long after the event.

Historians identify causes and effects as 'primary' or 'secondary'. A primary cause is one that is essential to the event – without that particular cause the event would not have occurred. A secondary cause plays a role in the event, but it is not essential to its occurrence. A secondary cause might influence the timing of an event or how long it lasts.

Example of cause and effect

The primary cause of a flood would be heavy rain. Without an abundance of rain there would be no flood. A secondary cause of the flood could be poor drainage in the flood area or a lack of flood prevention measures, such as the building of dams, canals or levee banks to make it less likely that a river will overflow. The New South Wales town of Maitland was once well known for severe floods. The primary cause of those floods was always heavy rain. Today, however, even with heavy rain, flooding is less severe because of improved secondary flood prevention and stronger and higher levee banks near the Hunter River.



Source 3 The 1955 Maitland floods

One of the short-term effects of flooding can be damage to property and loss of life. There are also long-term effects, and these might be more important and not necessarily negative. In the case of Maitland, the floods do cause damage, but they also leave behind deposits of fresh and fertile soil that result in better crops and more food.

Historians often argue about whether causes and effects are primary or secondary. These debates are influenced by perspective and the assessment of sources, and they are examples of contestability.

Perspectives

perspective
a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their culture, knowledge and beliefs

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, nationality, 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. In the words of the Australian historian Inga Clendinnen, there are always at least two sides to every story from the past. Writers and historians also have perspectives that can influence their interpretation of the past.

Example of perspectives

Slavery was a common feature of life throughout the ancient and medieval worlds. Many people today would share the belief that slavery is wrong and they might disapprove of the fact that about one-quarter of the population of ancient Rome were slaves. However, slavery was accepted by people in ancient Rome and many other ancient societies. Some people today might assume that all slaves led lives of misery because of their position in society. This was not always the case in the ancient world. Some masters took great care of those slaves whom they valued for their skills. Some slaves became tutors in wealthy households, or had positions of influence with emperors. Some were valued for their strength and physical appearance.

Empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding is the ability to understand and appreciate 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. This concept encourages us to put ourselves in someone else's shoes – to try to think how they may have thought and feel how 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.

empathetic understanding
the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their circumstances and values into consideration

Example of empathetic understanding

The ancient Chinese custom of foot binding can be better understood by putting yourself in the position of the young girls and their families who went through a process that caused pain and lifelong discomfort. Their society considered tiny feet to be beautiful, and they indicated a higher status. Girls who underwent foot binding improved their chances of a 'good' marriage that would provide security and social status.



Source 4 The bound feet of Chinese women were distorted to produce a 'delicate' look and way of walking.

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.

What is seen as significant has changed over time. The Greek historian Herodotus wrote so that 'great deeds not be forgotten'. Therefore, significant events for Herodotus involved wars and famous leaders. Another Greek historian, Thucydides, who lived in Greece after Herodotus and therefore wrote from a different perspective, wrote about the causes of wars and the lessons that he hoped might be learnt to avoid wars in the future.

significance
the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

A great deal of the history that was taught in schools in New South Wales during the twentieth century was about English history, including kings and queens, politicians, national leaders and war. In the late twentieth century there were some important changes, including revised perspectives on Indigenous history. Over the past 20 years historians have started to focus more on the role of women in society and on the lives of ordinary people. This has seen historians regard women's history, social history, family history and the stories of working people as significant.

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 5 Ancient Egyptian stone carving reliefs depicting women

Example of significance

The establishment and spread of the Roman Empire is significant because it affected large areas of Europe and the Mediterranean world. It had significant impacts on many societies across the ancient world, and its legacies are still important today.

contestability
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

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. New technologies can provide new evidence, which helps historians in their search for a more complete understanding of the past.

Example of contestability

Archaeologists and historians over the centuries have debated just how the Great Pyramid, located just outside modern-day Cairo, was built. For example, Herodotus visited Egypt in 450 BC and wrote the following account of how it was constructed:

Source 6

> [Then] Cheops [the pharaoh] succeeded to the throne ... he closed the temples and forbade the Egyptians to offer sacrifice, compelling them instead to labour in his service. A hundred thousand men ... ten years oppression of the people to make the causeway for the conveyance of the stones [a ramp to move the stones] ... the pyramid itself took twenty years ... built in steps.
>
> *Translated extract from* The Histories, Book II, *by Herodotus, a Greek historian (c. 450 BC)*

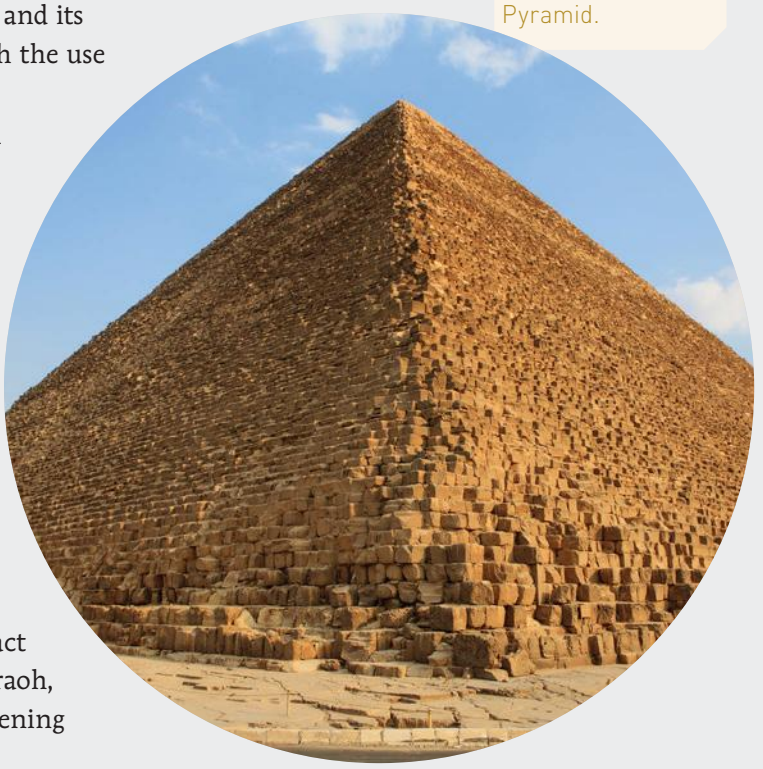
For many years this account was believed to be true, along with Herodotus' claim that over 100 000 slaves had been forced to build the pyramid. Historians now know that Herodotus' account is incorrect. At the time of his visit, the pyramid had been standing for over 2000 years and its construction was almost certainly not achieved with the use of slave labour as he described.

Modern historians have excavated skeletons and believe that the pyramid was built by Egyptian labourers who worked on it during flood time, when they were unable to farm. They lived in specially constructed villages near the worksite. Graffiti etched into stonework indicates that at least some of the workers took pride in their labours, calling themselves 'Friends of Khufu' ('Khufu' was the birth name of Cheops).

Why might Herodotus have written his account in this way? Was it deliberate or an honest mistake? As a citizen of Athens, a city-state famous for its democracy, Herodotus' view of the world was shaped by his context. He resented the fact that so much power was held by one man, the pharaoh, and may have been trying to discredit him by blackening his name.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Since Herodotus, theories about the building of the Great Pyramid have ranged from the use of a huge ramp, to a system of levers, rollers and steps, to one that claimed that visitors from outer space had provided the Egyptians with the skills and perhaps even the equipment needed to build the Great Pyramid.



Source 7 The Great Pyramid at Giza, Egypt

HT.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

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 an event, discovery or individual of your choice.

HT.2 HISTORICAL SKILLS

To conduct any historical inquiry, historians need to apply a range of different skills (see Source 8). Each skill area has a number of specific skills that you will learn during your study of history.



Source 8 Historical skills

Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

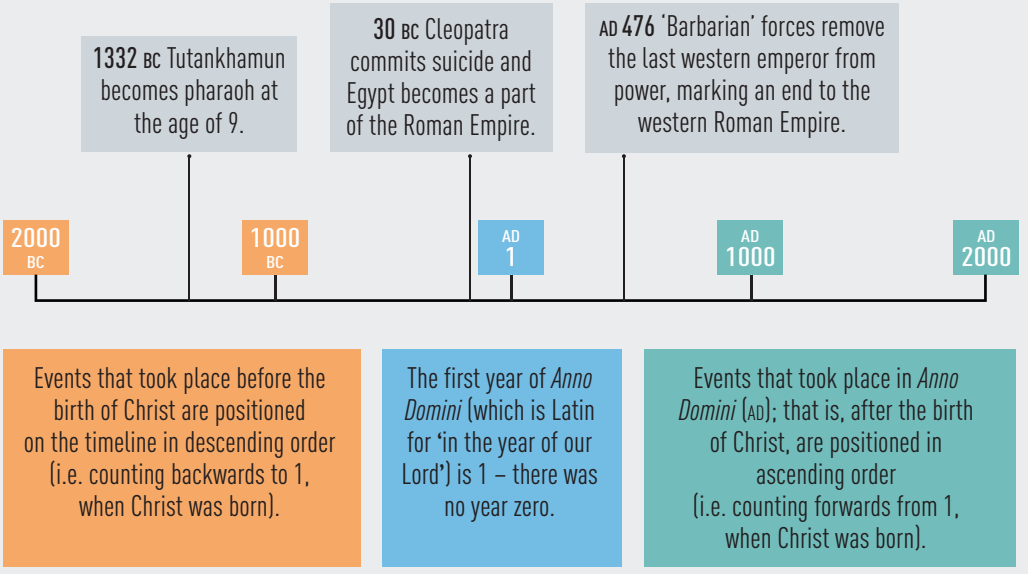
Chronology

chronology
a record of events in the order they took place

timeline
a graphical representation of events over a set period of time, arranged in the order in which they occurred

Historians organise events in the order they happened. This is known as **chronology**, and it helps to provide an overview of the past. 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 placed in chronological order, historians can use a range of historical concepts to analyse them. These include cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change.



Source 9 A simple timeline, with some key points to be aware of when ordering events

Chronological terms and concepts

You should be familiar with the terms used to describe historical time periods before you begin your depth studies. Reference tables for time periods BC and AD, divided into centuries, are provided below.

Source 10 More than 2000 years 'before Christ', divided into centuries; when ordering time measured with BC, remember to count backwards to 1.

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 11 More than 2000 years *Anno Domini* ('in the year of our Lord') divided into centuries; when ordering time measured with AD, remember to count forwards 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

Analysis and use of 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.

primary source
a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

secondary source
a source created after the time being studied

Assessing the value and limitations of sources

Both primary and secondary sources are valuable or useful, even though they almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. It is important for historians to understand the context of the source and consider this before determining the value and limitations of the evidence. This includes examining:

- the origin: where the source came from
- the purpose: why the source was created.

bias
prejudice for or against a person, group or thing (especially in a way considered to be unfair)

The best historians always assume that the creator of a source has some kind of **bias** or preference. Even with bias, sources can have great value because historians can learn about the preferences of particular groups or individuals, or gain insight into what some people thought or felt. With written sources, the author might have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is still valuable because it tells historians that a particular viewpoint was desired or preferred by the people commissioning the source.

However, it is important to remember that all sources have limitations. This could relate to bias, as only one perspective is addressed, but could also relate to limitations regarding content. For example, a photograph of the Colosseum has value for telling historians the size of the arena and some of the building materials. The same photograph is limited because it doesn't tell historians when the Colosseum was built, how much it cost to attend events and what types of entertainment took place. Therefore, it is important for historians to consult a range of sources to build a comprehensive understanding.

Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when', 'how', where' and 'why' questions will help you to identify the origin and purpose of the sources, which in turn will assist in determining the value and limitations. Questions historians ask to identify the origin and purpose of sources include the following:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source? (context)
  - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source? Are they trying to be fair?
  - 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? (primary or secondary source)
- When was the source written, produced or made? (context)
  - How old is the source? (context)
  - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date? (primary or secondary source)
  - Is the version of the past in the source confirmed (supported) by other sources? (reliable)
- Is the source complete? What is it missing? (limitations)
- Why was it written or produced? (context and possible motive)
  - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view? (motive)
  - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source? (context and motive)
  - What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source? (context)

Locate, compare, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence

hypothesis
a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

After initial research into a topic, 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 valuable, relevant and reliable evidence. Organisation charts are very helpful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. An example is a decision-making chart (see Source 13).

HT.2 SOURCE STUDY

When starting research, it can be helpful to start with a general search. If looking up the Viking god Thor, you'll come across images like the ones in Source 12. It's important to analyse the sources to understand their origin and purpose.

INTERPRET

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





Source 12 The origin and purpose of these primary and secondary sources are very different, even though they are both related to Viking mythology: (left) A northern Icelandic bronze statue of the Viking god Thor holding his hammer (known as Mjolnir) dating back to around AD 1000; (right) Actor Chris Hemsworth as Thor holding Mjolnir in the 2011 Marvel Studios production of *Thor*.

RESEARCH TOPIC: The Viking god Thor — how important was he?
HYPOTHESIS: 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. • The entry provides detailed information about Thor's importance to Viking society in general. Cons: • The entry gives 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 17 April 2020)
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 and value: 1 2 3 4 5			

Source 13 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might compare and select sources

Draw conclusions about the value of sources

A valuable 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 detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
  - Does the information support and reinforce evidence from other sources?
- Does it appear to be fair?
- 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 value to your investigation. 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 such as '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.

Perspectives and interpretations

Source 14 The detailed wood carvings on the prow (front end) of the Oseberg ship provide evidence of the skill and craftsmanship of Viking ship builders.



Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different points of view, attitudes and values. These may include biases: 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 twelfth century, provides the following description of the Vikings:

Source 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 twelfth-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 fairer and more accurate picture of who the Vikings were as a people. Each of these sources has value, but each also has its limitations.

Empathetic understanding

The concept of empathetic understanding was discussed in the 'Historical concepts' topic. In your study of the ancient world and the medieval to early modern world, you will apply this concept by interpreting why people in the ancient past acted or behaved in particular ways. To do this with empathetic understanding, you will need to keep in mind the values and attitudes of the society they lived in.

Research

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking questions. From these questions, they 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 type of evidence that needs to be collected.

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

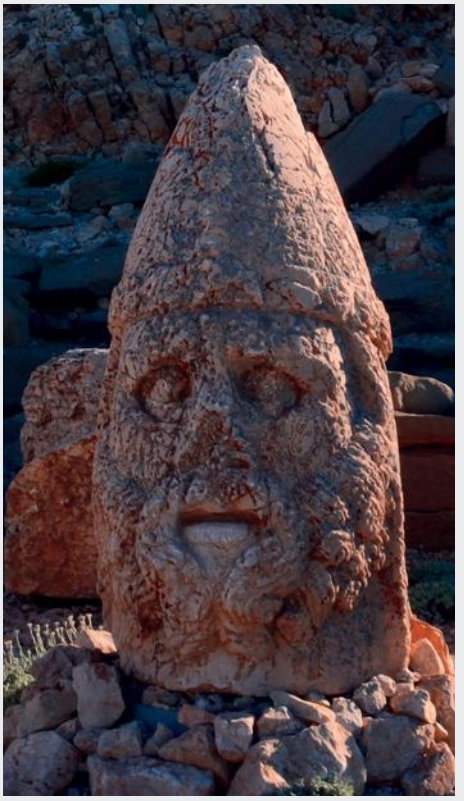
Look closely at one of the stone heads of Nemrut at the site of the tomb of King Antiochus I (Source 16), who ruled a territory north of Syria after the break-up of Alexander the Great's empire in the first century BC. The statues, including the heads that have been detached, would have been 7 metres high. As well as figures representing gods, there are eagles and lions, all with their heads detached and scattered over the site.

A historian investigating the stone heads of Nemrut would start by asking questions ('who', 'what', 'when', 'how', 'where' and 'why'). A good question will help to open up an exciting area to explore, such as 'Who do the statues represent?'

Identify and locate relevant sources

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries. Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill that usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues and databases 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, or digital archives such as the National Archives of Australia
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing family members about the past, and examining family keepsakes.



Source 16 One of the stone heads at the World Heritage–listed site of Mount Nemrut in Turkey

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 are useful research tools, but much of the material online is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information, or material that is out of date. When searching online, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools also have guidelines about how to develop effective research skills.

Sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums and universities are usually reliable. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (see Source 17).

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. Historians rarely, if ever, rely on a single source and always seek confirmation from other sources.

Never cut and paste information from the internet straight 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 17 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	The site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to buy 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	The 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	The site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be bought 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 in Source 18.

Source 18 Citation of sources in a bibliography

	Details to include (in this order) if available	Example
Citing a book	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).	Dennett, B., Howitt, B., Shanahan, E. & Dixon, S., 2021, *Oxford Insight History 7*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.
Citing online sources	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 <...>.	British Museum, 14 July 2017, `Everything you ever wanted to know about the Rosetta Stone', accessed 30 July 2020, <https://blog.britishmuseum.org/everything-you-ever-wanted-to-know-about-the-rosetta-stone/>.

Explanation and communication

Historical writing in the modern context requires you to produce an account of the past using evidence from a range of sources. The best historical writing is based on:

1 a rigorous interrogation of evidence; this means collecting evidence you can trust that is relevant to your investigation
2 drawing logical conclusions based on the evidence
3 presenting your argument clearly.

This approach was developed in the nineteenth century by the famous German historian Leopold von Ranke and is referred to as 'the Rankean paradigm'.

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 fair view and is supported by reliable evidence and a logical argument. The two most common text types you will be expected to use are descriptions and explanations.

Writing historical 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 19 or instructions from your teacher.

Source 19 A guideline for writing a description

Structure of a description	
Introduction	• Introduce the subject. • State the name of the person, place or event. • Outline why the topic is important.
Body	• Provide details about the person, place or event (including dates and important facts). • Organise the information in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. • Use quotations and descriptive words where relevant.
Conclusion	• Revisit the most important details and provide a concluding statement.

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 earlier in this chapter.

Source 20 A guideline for writing an explanation

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	• Clearly state the main idea or aim. • Briefly outline the reason/s and effect/s.
Body	• Support each idea with evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance and importance. • Organise the information in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. • Ensure that language is precise and does not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g. 'I think … ' or 'my opinion … ') are not appropriate.
Conclusion (optional)	• Provide a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body. • State 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 communicate your findings and add colour and life to the presentation. For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews, podcasts, vlogs and role plays
- graphic – posters, cartoons, infographics and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – multimedia presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps.

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create a multimedia presentation. To prepare and present a successful multimedia presentation, there are several steps to follow, as shown in Source 21.

STEP 1: Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found in your quest to find answers to your questions. 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 PowerPoint, Keynote, Google Slides 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 are 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 and clearly – 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!

Source 21 Steps required to create your presentation

HT.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Arrange the following dates in chronological order.

AD 4 500 BC 499 BC AD 2021 2012 BC

2 In which centuries were the following years?

a 2022 BC **c** AD 1914 **e** 522 BC

b AD 7 **d** AD 2000 **f** 81 BC

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 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.

4 Based on what you have read and what you have seen in Source 13, generate four questions that would lead to an interesting area for a historical inquiry.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Present a brief description and explanation of a historical event that interests you. Use whichever presentation method you prefer.

GO DEEPER

6 Choose a person of interest to you and create a timeline of their life. The person can be an important historical figure, a person who has made an important discovery or invention that changed history, or even your favourite actor or musician.

a Your timeline should include at least six significant events. Each entry must include a date and brief description of that event.

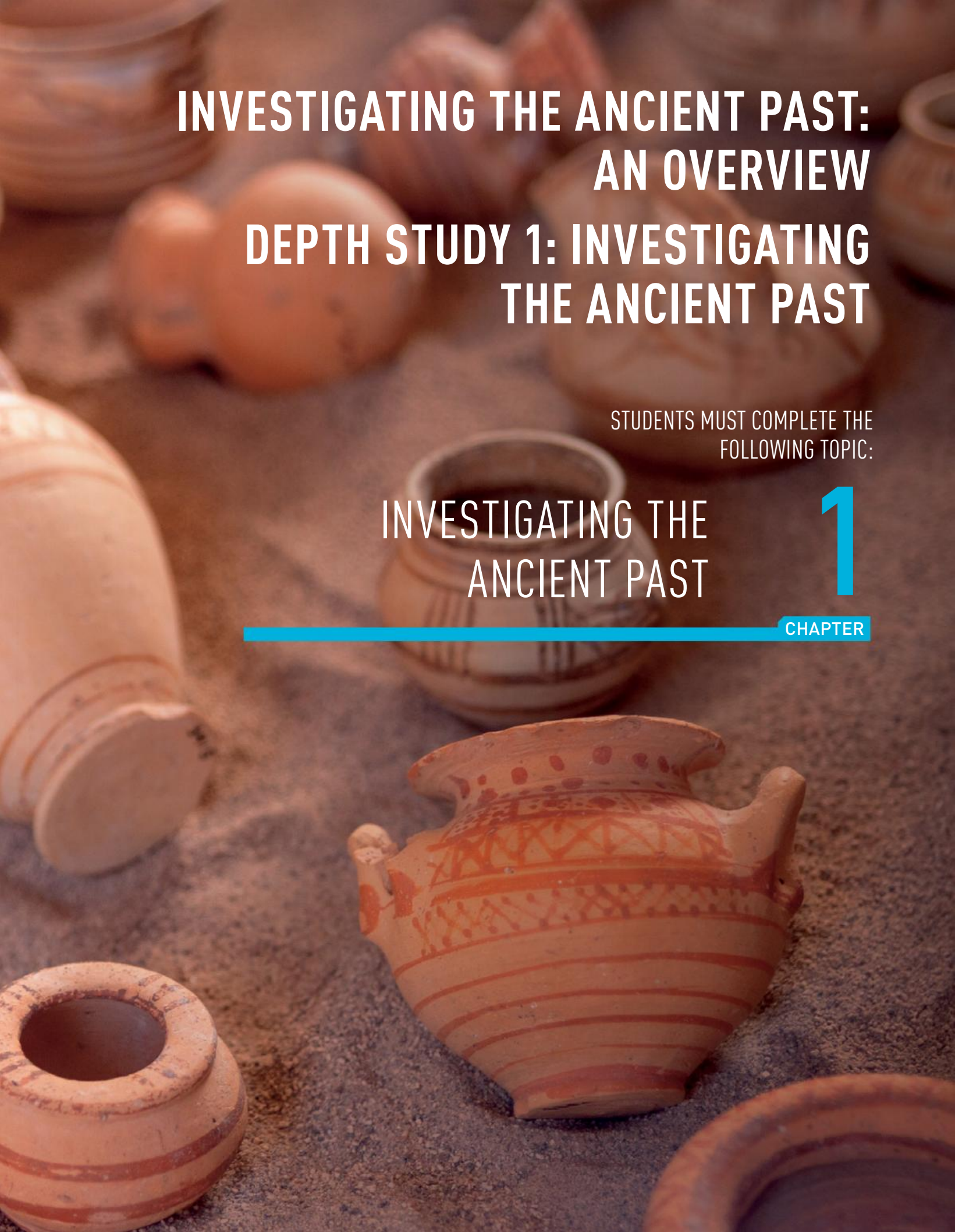
b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.

c Present your timeline digitally or as a poster.

PART A



Ancient clay pots found in Greece



INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 1: INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

STUDENTS MUST COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING TOPIC:

INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

1

CHAPTER

OVERVIEW OF THE ANCIENT WORLD 60 000 BC–AD 650

0.1 OUT OF AFRICA?

Modern humans have lived on Earth for about 200 000 years. Over time and across the globe there have been two major changes in human history:

- the move from hunting and gathering for food (foraging) to the earliest stages of conventional farming
- the move from farming or agriculture to manufacturing or industry.

These critical changes in human history took place between 60 000 BC and AD 650. During this time, people began to live in villages, and then towns, and then cities. The people of the ancient world developed cultural practices and organised societies that influence how we live today.

There is still argument among the experts about when modern humans first appeared and then spread to different parts of the world. Since the 1990s, most historians have favoured an explanation known as the **'Out of Africa' theory**. This theory states that early humans originally appeared in Africa about 200 000 years ago. Then about 100 000 years ago, migrating groups left Africa in waves, initially arriving in the Middle East. These waves of **migration** continued until around 12 000 years ago. Source 1 shows the spread of humans from their beginnings in East Africa to other parts of the world.

In the past, some scholars believed that early humans developed at the same time in different parts of the world. However, **fossil** and genetic evidence strongly supports the 'Out of Africa' theory. This is an example of the difference between knowledge and belief. In this case, knowledge is understanding how and why beliefs about the 'Out of Africa' theory have been formed, and being willing to change beliefs or opinions in light of new evidence.

'Out of Africa' theory
the most widely accepted theory explaining the origin and early migration patterns of modern humans (*Homo sapiens*); based on the idea that humans evolved in Africa then spread to other places

migration
the movement of people from one place to another

fossil
the preserved remains (or impressions) of a plant or animal that lived long ago



Source 1 This satellite image of Earth shows the likely migration routes and settlement patterns of modern humans (*Homo sapiens*) according to the 'Out of Africa' theory.

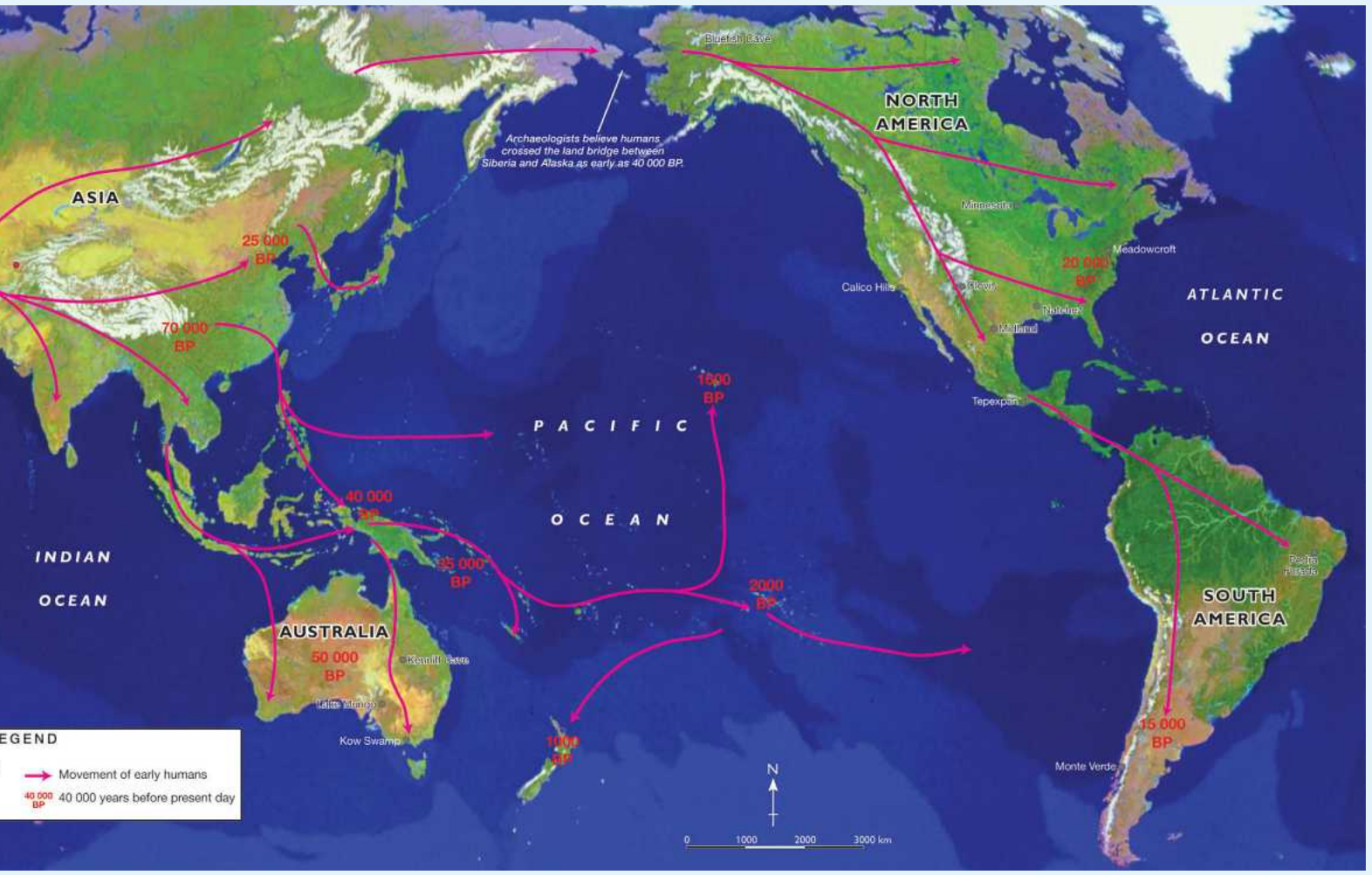


Source 2 This *Homo sapiens* skull, dated at around 100 000 years ago, was found in the Qafzeh cave in Israel. Nearby were burned flakes of stone and a horse tooth.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

As science continues to develop, historians must remain open to new interpretations. For example, teeth found in the Luna Cave in China in 2014 question the validity of the 'Out of Africa' theory, as the teeth are older than the suggested time of migration from Africa.



Indigenous peoples in Australia

Some Indigenous Australians have traditionally claimed that their ancestors originated in Australia rather than migrating from elsewhere. By contrast, other Indigenous groups, especially in northern Australia, have stories about their ancient ancestors making journeys by sea. What we do know, however, is that the famous Australian Mungo Man skeleton is the oldest ritually buried human found anywhere in the world, and dates back around 42 000 years. Furthermore, in 2018, with the cooperation of Indigenous Australian elders, **DNA** tests were completed that indicated that Australia's first peoples are the oldest continuous civilisation and cultures on Earth.

DNA
the abbreviation of deoxyribonucleic acid; DNA is found in the cells of all known living organisms; it is the unique genetic code of each living thing

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. In your own words, outline the 'Out of Africa' theory.
2. What does archaeological evidence such as Source 2 reveal about this theory?
3. What are the problems or limitations with this theory?
4. What are the different views of Indigenous Australians about their origins?

0.2 FROM FORAGING TO FARMING

hunter-gatherer
a member of an ancient group of people who survived by hunting animals and gathering (foraging) plants in the wild

prehistory
the period of time before written records

nomad
a person who lives by moving from place to place rather than staying in a fixed place; people who are nomads are said to be 'nomadic'

Neolithic Revolution
the period in human history when people stopped hunting and gathering for food, instead choosing to settle and farm the land; this change resulted in a huge increase in human populations and many cultural advances

Our ideas about **hunter-gatherers** in the distant past have been put together by experts who have observed modern hunter-gatherers living in Africa, Australia and South America. They have assumed that the distant ancestors of these people lived in similar ways. Based on these observations, and the few archaeological finds from this period of **prehistory**, experts have concluded that the lives of these communities would have been very difficult. Every day would have been a struggle to find enough food. It is likely that people lived in small, **nomadic** groups, walking long distances each day to hunt and find food.

Gradually, some hunter-gatherer communities developed techniques that allowed them to grow food and locate more resources from the land around them. As a result, these communities started to become more settled. The shift in human behaviour – from hunting and gathering to farming – took place in many societies at different times. It was such a significant development that it is often called a revolution: the **Neolithic Revolution**. These changes took place around 15 000 years ago in Mesopotamia, near the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in modern Turkey and Iraq, and along the Nile Valley. In recent years, Australian writers such as Bill Gammage and Bruce Pascoe have revealed that settled agriculture may have been taking place in Australia well before this. Early accounts by European explorers of Australia included observations of permanent housing and crop management. However, this was largely overlooked as British colonisers sought to ignore Indigenous achievements to justify the occupation of an 'empty land'.

Source 3 Paintings found in the Lascaux caves in France were painted by hunter-gatherers who lived in Europe between about 20 000 and 9000 years ago.



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Source 4 When early farming communities worked together to produce enough food, they had more time to spend on learning and cultural activities.

Settled farming communities began to appear in a number of fertile regions between 8000 and 7000 BC. Communities growing crops and keeping domesticated animals could produce a surplus of food. This allowed time for building, studying, creating art and sharing knowledge. These in turn led to the development of more organised trade, government, the rule of law and religion. Some of these early farming communities developed into the first great **civilisations** of the ancient world:

- the ancient Egyptian civilisation, which grew from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile banks of the Nile River
- the ancient Chinese civilisation, which grew initially from the farming communities that sprang up in valleys along the Huang He (Yellow River)
- the ancient Indian civilisation, which emerged from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile valley of the Indus River.

New research is under way, using **radiocarbon dating**, to find which was the oldest of these river-based civilisations. The findings suggest that the earliest of these might have been in the Indus Valley in the area of modern-day India and Pakistan.

civilisation
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

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

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What evidence does Source 3 tell us about early hunter-gatherers in Europe?
2 Why did some hunter-gatherers become more settled?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 What do the origins of the ancient Egyptian, Chinese and Indian civilisations have in common?

0.3 EVIDENCE OF ANCIENT SOCIETIES

society
a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

culture
the customs and traditions that a community, society or civilisation develops over time that are passed down from generation to generation

As early farming communities developed into **societies**, interaction between people increased, and they had more opportunities to think about and discuss matters that puzzled or frightened them. These might have included birth and death, day and night, the seasons, fertility, natural disasters, eclipses and so on. Beliefs and behaviours evolved to explain such events, and **cultures** began to take shape. Some ways in which ancient people expressed their cultures are evident in their tools and utensils, art, writings, rituals, sacred sites and monuments.

Tools and utensils

Archaeological evidence indicates there was a significant increase in the creation of **artefacts**, such as pottery, from around 5000 years ago. They include tools and utensils to hold water, oil or grain.

artefact
any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)



Source 5 Ancient Greek *amphorae* (pottery containers) for holding oil

Art

archaeologist
a person who uncovers and interprets sources from the past, such as the remains of people, buildings and artefacts

Archaeologists think early rock art, such as the example shown in Source 3, may have been a 'magical' ritual to ensure success in an important activity, such as a hunt. Later, as Source 6 shows, ancient art often became more elaborate and symbolic. For many societies, it became an important part of funeral and religious rituals.



Source 6 Detail from a decorated panel found in a royal tomb at Ur, a city in ancient Sumer



Source 7 A clay tablet displaying a cuneiform script used by the ancient Sumerians

Writing

Scholars think that writing began as an attempt by people to keep visible records of trading. These might be notches made on bones, or arrangements of pebbles or sticks. The ancient Sumerians produced the first script around 3500 BC. Other scripts developed in Egypt, China, India and Mesoamerica (the area from modern-day central Mexico to northern Costa Rica). As scripts developed, inscriptions might have been made on the tombs of the more privileged people in different societies. These inscriptions, as well as tomb paintings and figurines, have provided historians with a wealth of information about the beliefs and everyday lives of ancient peoples.

Rituals and ceremonies

As thinking evolved to explain the mysteries of life, people began to share those ideas through myths, legends and stories. Rituals and ceremonies helped to reinforce these ideas. These ceremonies could involve:

- the making of talismans (small objects like lucky charms) that people hoped would protect them from things they could not control
- sacrifices
- singing, chanting or dancing
- certain places being treated as shrines where people could reflect on the spirits or gods
- the building of monuments or temples in or near people's sacred sites to support their beliefs
- the observation of laws and taboos to ensure certain behaviours (such as a punishment for killing an animal regarded as sacred)
- particular funeral practices (such as preparing the dead for an afterlife).



Source 8 The traditional smoking ceremony performed by Indigenous Australians involves burning plants to produce smoke believed to have cleansing properties.



Source 10 Stonehenge is a prehistoric monument in southern Britain. Experts believe it was a holy place, and that its pattern of stones has astronomical significance. The precise placement of the huge stones suggests an ancient society with advanced engineering skills that chose to spend an enormous amount of time and energy to construct the monument.



Source 9 The outer coffin of Henettaway, identified as 'mistress of the house and chantress of Amun-Re' (Egypt's main god). The symbols all have religious significance and panels of hieroglyphs (ancient Egyptian writing) divide the illustrations.

0.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How did ancient peoples respond to events in their lives that seemed mysterious or frightening?
2 What is meant by the term 'culture'?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why is a culture more likely to evolve when small communities develop into societies?
4 Choose two of the examples of evidence from ancient societies. What evidence do they provide about the ancient peoples who created, performed or used them?

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0.4 FEATURES OF ANCIENT SOCIETIES

Social classes

As societies flourished, distinct social groups began to form. A group's rank or class reflected the value that society placed on their roles. This way of organising people from most to least important is known as a **hierarchy**. Rulers came from social groups with the most wealth and prestige, often from landowners, warriors or religious leaders. There were also administrative groups (such as tax collectors and law makers), traders and merchants, soldiers, artisan groups (such as potters, weavers and tool makers) and farmers. Many ancient societies had slaves, the lowest social class, whose role was to provide a vital source of labour.

hierarchy
a way of organising things (or people) from the top down in order of importance or significance; ancient societies had strict hierarchies with a ruler at the top and peasants at the bottom

The growth of farming

Farmers in different parts of the world farmed crops and animals that were best suited to their environment. The earliest evidence of farming comes from the Fertile Crescent, an area from the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf, which includes Mesopotamia, an area of rich soil between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Iraq (*mesopotamia* means 'between rivers'). Farmers there adapted native grasses and other plants to create crops that could be harvested. Barley and einkorn, a type of wheat, were among the first crops to be grown. Sheep and goats were among the first animals to be domesticated.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The art form we know as drama evolved from an ancient Greek festival to celebrate the god Dionysus. This happened when dialogue – an innovation at the time – was added to the songs and dances that told the myths and legends of the god.

Trade

Growing villages and towns began to exchange their surplus crops and manufactured goods for other goods that they needed. Grain and stone, which was useful for making tools, were among the earliest goods traded. Trade introduced settlements not only to new goods, but also to new ways of conducting business and new ways of thinking. Trading towns became prosperous, and the first economies took shape.

SPOTLIGHT

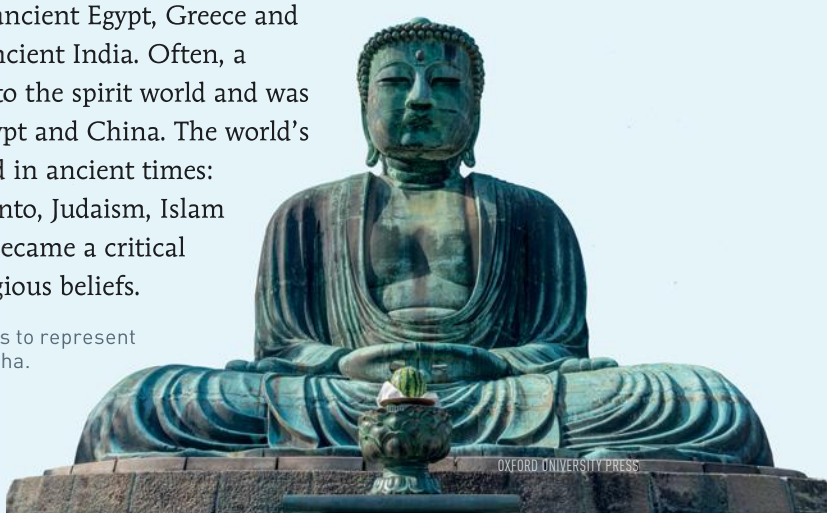
PERSPECTIVES

Religion is a great example of how different views shape experiences. Frequently throughout history, people of all classes have made decisions based on their religious perspective.

Religion

Belief systems explained the many things that frightened or mystified ancient peoples. The idea that spirits or forces were responsible gave people comfort that 'someone' was in control. Societies created images to represent these spirits or gods, and behaviours such as prayer and rituals emerged. In many societies, a social group developed whose role was to provide a link between ordinary people and these beings or spirits. These were the priests and priestesses of ancient Egypt, Greece and Rome, and the Brahmin caste in ancient India. Often, a ruler was seen to be closely linked to the spirit world and was regarded as a god, as in ancient Egypt and China. The world's major religions emerged and spread in ancient times: Hinduism, Buddhism, Daoism, Shinto, Judaism, Islam and Christianity. The **Silk Roads** became a critical pathway for this movement of religious beliefs.

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West



Source 11 Ancient societies created images to represent spirits or gods, such as this statue of Buddha.

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The rule of law

As societies developed and became more complex, people's day-to-day customs became 'rules' about how people should behave. The first written laws were recorded about 4000 years ago by a king of Ur, in ancient Sumer. About 300 years later, Hammurabi, the king of Babylon, recorded a detailed set of 282 laws known as the Code of Hammurabi. The laws dealt with a range of issues including theft, treatment of slaves and maintenance of property. The law codes of some ancient societies were framed around religious practices; for example, Judaism has the law of Moses (which includes the Ten Commandments), and Muslims have the law of the Five Pillars, based on the teachings of the Prophet Muhammad.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Many laws from the Code of Hammurabi are still relevant today, demonstrating continuity with legal systems. However, many laws are updated and changed depending on the needs and culture of a society.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Some of Hammurabi's laws were very harsh. For example, law 195 states, 'If a son hits his father, his hands shall be cut off'.

0.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create a concept map to summarise the key features of ancient societies.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 In groups, choose one key feature of societies and investigate this in relation to one or more ancient societies. Share the results of your investigation with the class, making sure you include interesting facts and relevant images.

GO DEEPER

3 Locate a map of the region where farming is thought to have first begun. Conduct some research to find out why this region was called the Fertile Crescent.

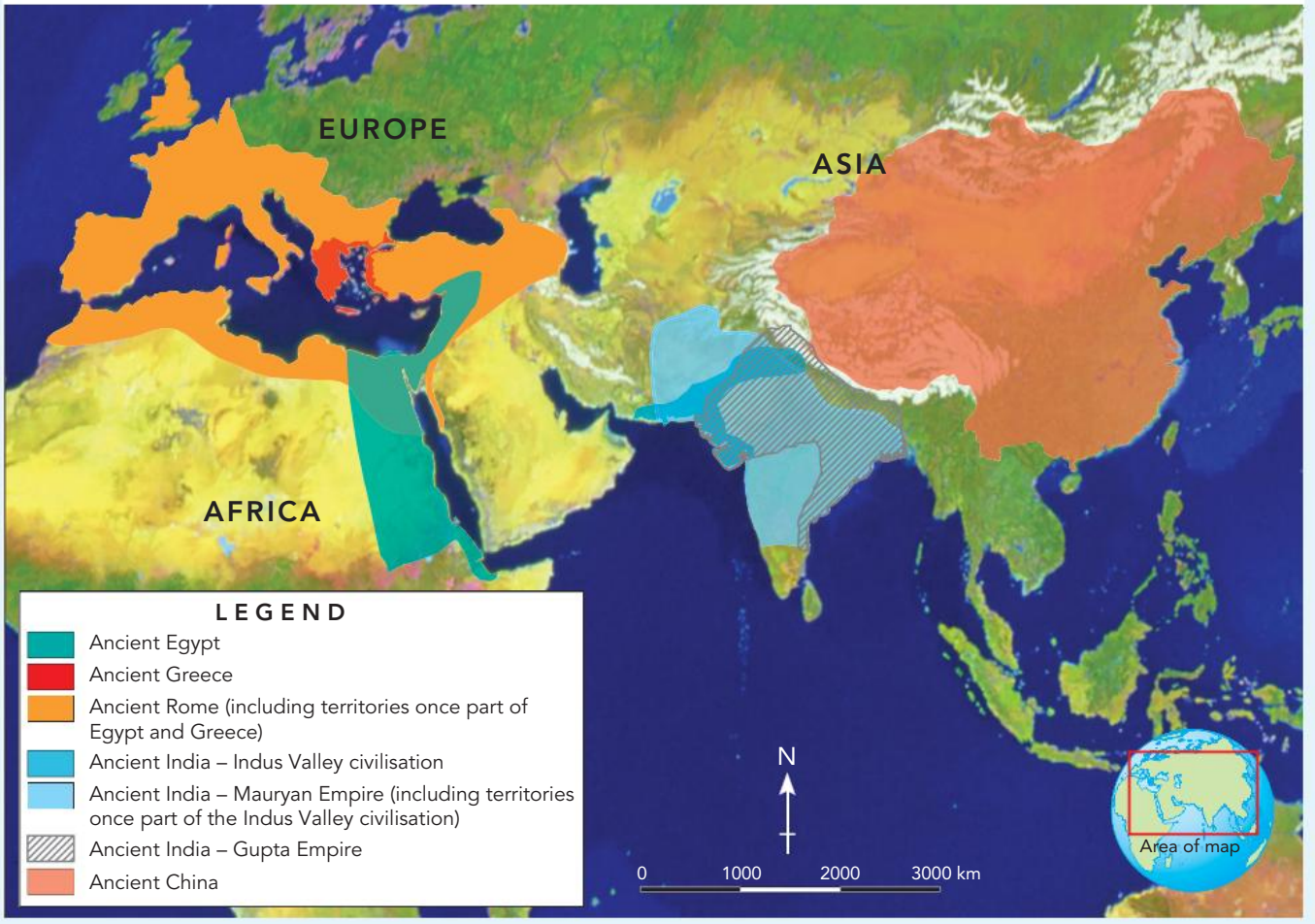


Source 12 Part of the Silk Roads, the trading route between China and India

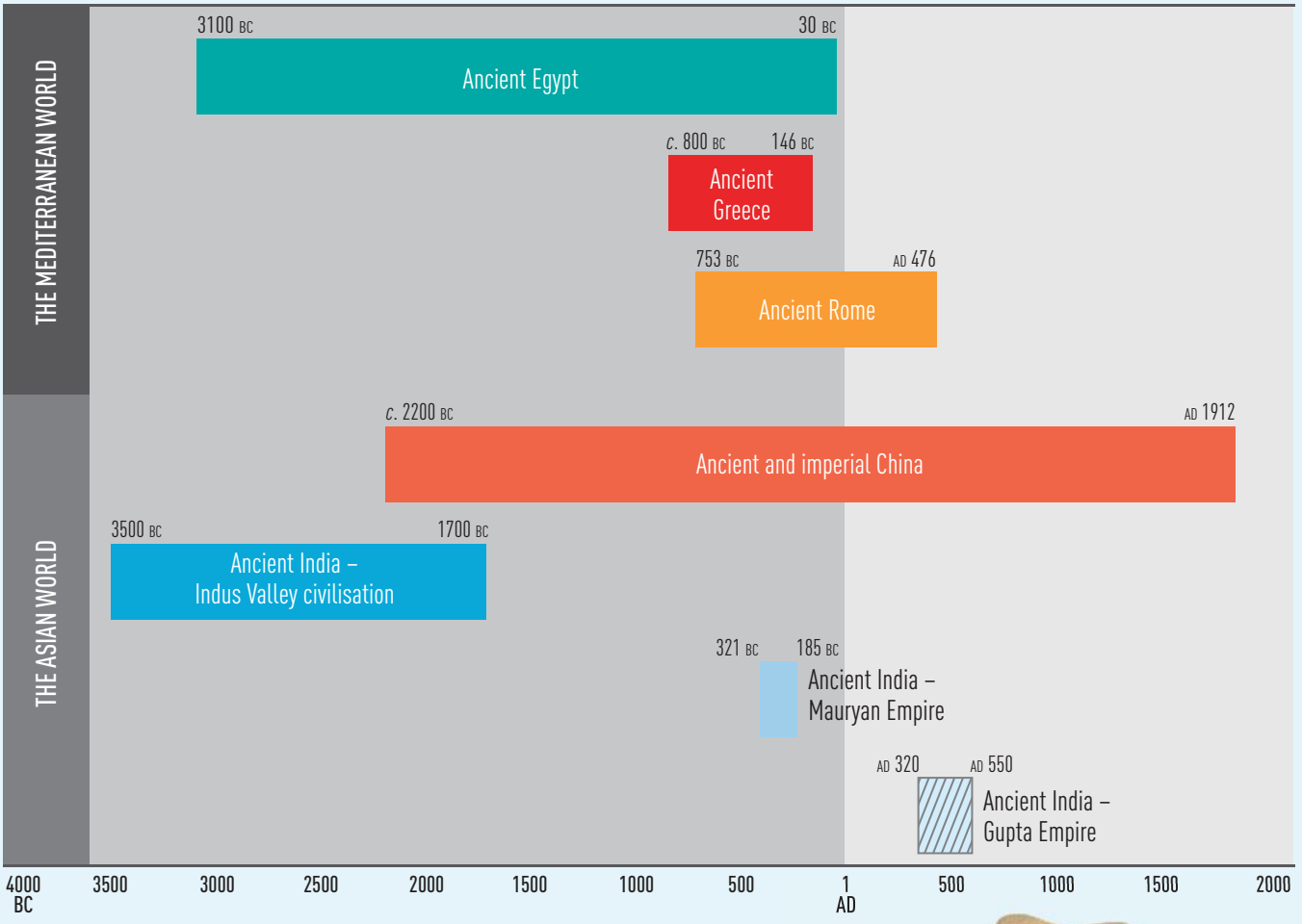
0.5 ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS

Some of the world's most significant ancient civilisations developed on the continents we know as Africa, Europe and Asia. Source 13 shows the location, size and key information about these ancient civilisations. Source 14 shows the dates of their rise and fall. Note that not all of these ancient civilisations existed in the same time periods.

Ancient Egypt (c. 3100–30 BC)	Ancient Greece (c. 800–146 BC)	Ancient Rome (753 BC–AD 476)	Ancient India (3500 BC–AD 550)	Ancient and imperial China (c. 2200 BC–AD 1912)
Ancient Egypt was a civilisation based around the Nile River in northern Africa. It was one of the world's first civilisations. For much of its history, ancient Egypt was ruled by one government, with a pharaoh as the ultimate authority. Between 3100 BC and 30 BC, when the last pharaoh died, there were 31 dynasties (ruling families) and 70 pharaohs.	Ancient Greece covered all of modern-day Greece as well as parts of Turkey and other settlements around the Mediterranean and Black seas. The civilisation lasted only about 650 years, before becoming part of the empires of Alexander the Great and then Rome, but its legacy (including democracy) influences the Western world to this day.	The civilisation of ancient Rome lasted approximately 1300 years. It was centred on the city of Rome, in modern-day Italy. The Romans conquered the ancient Egyptians and Greeks, as well as many other peoples. During its history, Rome was ruled as a monarchy, a republic and an empire. It was a powerful civilisation with a strong military and an advanced culture.	Civilisation in India began in the Indus Valley in 3500 BC. For much of its history, ancient India was a collection of separate regions and kingdoms, some of which were at war with one another. At different times, some of these were ruled as part of dynasties or empires; these included the Mauryan Empire, whose authority rose and fell in just 135 years, and the Gupta Empire.	Imperial China was ruled for 3600 years by dynasties. The Han Dynasty ended in AD 220, and the last dynasty – the Qing – ended in 1912. Chinese society was one of the earliest in the world to establish towns and cities. It also contributed important technological developments to the rest of the world, such as gunpowder and printing.



Source 13 The location and size of key ancient civilisations when they were at their peak



Source 14 A timeline showing the rise and fall of key ancient civilisations

0.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Use the map and timeline to order the ancient civilisations by:
- **a** size
- **b** length of time they existed.

2 Suggest how these ancient civilisations may have influenced each other. Explain your reasoning.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Consider the ancient civilisations mentioned above.
- **a** Use bullet points to list five things you know about each civilisation. Share this in a class discussion.
- **b** Which civilisation is best and least known among your classmates? Propose why this might be the case.



Source 15 This terracotta warrior was created in ancient China in the third century BC to honour Qin Shi Huang, the first emperor of China.



Source 1 Ancient Aboriginal rock art, Queensland

1

INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

History is the investigation of the past. Studying the past allows us to appreciate what has been left to us by our ancestors. It helps us to understand how they have shaped and changed the world in which we live. A better understanding and appreciation of ourselves and our world can also help us to shape our future.

Historians are time detectives, always asking questions. They investigate historical mysteries and piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns, to understand what has remained the same, what has changed, and why. In their investigations, historians follow a process of historical inquiry – they ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse sources, and use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past. As a student of history, it's now your turn to do the same.



HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY? 1A

In this section you will:

» outline the main features of history and archaeology
» outline the role of historians and archaeologists
» describe the different approaches to historical investigations taken by archaeologists and historians
» define the terms and concepts relating to historical time.

CHECKPOINT 1A

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS? 1B

In this section you will:

» list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations.

CHECKPOINT 1B

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES? 1C

In this section you will:

» use the process of historical investigation to examine a historical controversy or mystery.

CHECKPOINT 1C

WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST? 1D

In this section you will:

» locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
» investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past.

CHECKPOINT 1D

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONSERVE THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST? 1E

In this section you will:

» identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected and preserved
» identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains
» describe an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples
» examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important for an ancient site to be preserved and conserved.

CASE STUDY: CONSERVING ANCIENT SITES

CHECKPOINT 1E

1A HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

1.1 HISTORY IS INVESTIGATION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of history and archaeology
- outline the role of historians and archaeologists
- describe and explain the different approaches to historical investigation taken by archaeologists and historians.

A note on ethical approaches to studying history

When studying the past, historians and archaeologists encounter not only **artefacts**, but also human remains. These remains can provide great insight into how people lived, what they ate, their health and how they died. In this chapter there are images of ancient human remains. Different cultures have different views on such images; for example, Indigenous Australians have rules about who is allowed to look at these kinds of images. It is essential that these views and images are treated with respect.

artefact
any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)

Historians use a process of historical inquiry to investigate the past. This section will introduce the process of historical inquiry and familiarise you with the key skills and concepts that historians use. We also look at the work of archaeologists and other experts.

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means 'investigation'. Understanding that history is an ongoing investigation (or inquiry) is the key to the subject. History is not about memorising a list of dates or facts; it is about thinking, understanding and developing research and other skills that are useful in life.

Historians use an inquiry approach when they investigate controversies and mysteries of the ancient past. They:

- develop an inquiry question to clearly identify the problem or issue they want to investigate
- form theories known as **hypotheses** (by stating what they think the likely answer might be)
- conduct research to gather **evidence** from a range of **sources**
- assess the value of the sources and analyse the evidence they gather from them
- confirm or modify their hypotheses on the basis of this evidence.

In many cases, when investigating the ancient past, some of the evidence is missing. For this reason, historians need to piece together the past – kind of like putting together a giant jigsaw puzzle that is missing some of its pieces.

hypothesis
a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven ('hypotheses' is the plural form)

evidence
the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

source
evidence that historians use when investigating the past

Investigating the mysteries of the Sphinx

The Great Sphinx is an ancient monument located near the pyramids at Giza in Egypt. It has the body of a lion and the head of a man, and was carved from large blocks of limestone. It is the largest sculpture made in ancient times that still survives today. It measures 73 metres long and 20 metres high.

Historians who have studied the Sphinx have gathered a lot information about it and developed a number of hypotheses about why it was created, including:

- its age and the materials it is made from
- who built it and why
- an understanding of the creature it represents
- how it was damaged and why
- its social and religious importance to ancient Egyptians.

Despite these investigations, certain facts about the Sphinx remain a mystery. Uncovering the secrets of the past is not always easy, and historians do not always agree. This is referred to as **contestability**.

When was the Sphinx built?

The Sphinx has been buried in sand many times, and was last dug out in 1905. Between its front paws are a number of stones that are covered with **hieroglyphs**. These carved pictures, which relate a dream of the ancient Egyptian king Thutmose IV, say the Sphinx was made 'in the days of Khafre, when the world was young'. Not all historians agree that the Sphinx was built around 2500 BC on the orders of the **pharaoh** Khafre. Some say it was built much earlier – around 10 000 years ago. They base their opinion on the different erosion patterns visible on the Sphinx. Others say there were different erosion patterns because the limestone blocks had both hard and soft layers in them. More recently, it has been discovered that environmental pollution, in particular acid rain, is eroding the surface of the Sphinx.

contestability
a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of sources, events or issues put forward by other historians

hieroglyphs
picture-like symbols used in the original writing system of the ancient Egyptians

pharaoh
the leader of ancient Egypt who was believed to be a god; the pharaoh had absolute power and total control



Source 1 The Great Sphinx of Giza

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Bill Gates, the founder of Microsoft and one of the richest people in the world, has often employed history graduates. Gates has preferred history graduates because of the way historians learn to think and because they are able to consider many different factors at once.

Whose face is on the Sphinx?

Many historians say the Sphinx's face is the face of the pharaoh Khafre himself. Others disagree: they say it does not look anything like the face on Khafre's statue. Is this proof?

Are there secret chambers and tunnels under the Sphinx?

Three short passageways have been found under the Sphinx, but they lead nowhere. They may have been dug by robbers. The Roman historian Pliny wrote that local people believed the Sphinx was a king's tomb. Recent technical investigations suggest there is good reason to believe there may be chambers well below the Sphinx yet to be discovered.

Where have the Sphinx's nose and beard gone?

A common view is that the face was damaged when troops of the French general Napoleon used it for target practice in 1798. But a sketch by a French architect in 1737 clearly shows a missing nose. The historian Muhammad al-Husayni Taqi al-Din al-Maqrizi, writing in the early 1400s, said the face was vandalised in AD 1378 to fix up some 'religious errors'. But he said both the nose and ears were knocked off – however, we can see the ears quite clearly on photographs of the Sphinx today. Can his report be trusted if the ears are still there? Marks on the face do suggest that the nose was hacked off. Most experts think that the beard fell off. An archaeologist named Caviglia found what he thought were pieces of it in 1816. Some of these are now in the British Museum.

The role of archaeologists and other experts

Historians use all the tools of science, maths, literature, economics, geography and a range of the humanities to help solve the riddles of the past. They also rely on the work of many other experts. These include:

- archaeologists – experts who uncover and interpret sources from the past, including the remains of people, buildings and artefacts
- anthropologists – experts who study the behaviours and customs of human societies
- biologists – scientists who study living things
- linguists and cryptographers – experts in languages and symbols who are able to read some of the ancient languages or decode unknown or secret writing
- forensic pathologists – specialists in the causes of death, who are called upon when historians are investigating ancient bodies
- geophysical surveyors – experts who use tools and techniques to locate something underground or underwater
- geneticists – scientists who study a living thing's unique genes
- palaeontologists – scientists who study the fossilised remains of plants and animals.

Archaeologists locate and uncover sources of evidence of past peoples, including:

- their skeletal remains
- places where they lived or travelled
- the ruins of their temples, towns and tombs
- artefacts they made, such as pottery, weapons, tools and coins
- inscriptions and stone reliefs they carved
- rubbish dumps (referred to by historians as **middens**) and fire sites.

Some archaeologists work underwater, scouring the sea bottoms for sources on or beneath the sea bed, such as ancient shipwrecks.

midden
a rubbish heap made up of food scraps, broken pottery and shells found near ancient sites; archaeologists use these to learn more about the people who lived at these sites

Excavating archaeological sites

Most sources found on land are buried. They might be covered by the silt of past floods, by sand blown by the wind or by dense jungle that has grown over them. Some lie beneath the ruins of other settlements built over time on the site. Archaeologists work to locate and then **excavate** artefacts and other sources of evidence.

Once archaeologists have located a historical site that they think may contain important artefacts, it is roped off from the public. These sites are referred to as archaeological digs. The area is then divided up and marked off in grid sections so that the precise location of items found can be recorded and catalogued. After surveying the site, archaeologists remove overlying rocks and dirt with great care, sometimes using teaspoons, small brushes, dental tools, sieves – even toothpicks. Once a source is fully exposed and excavated, the archaeologist photographs and numbers it, and records details of its description and the exact location where it was found.

excavate
to dig up

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Across time, people have investigated the past to find out about other societies, and they continue to do so. However, while people used to investigate because they were looking for treasures, now they excavate to learn, understand and educate.

1.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why are archaeological sites often buried underground?

2 Look at Source 2. Explain what the archaeologist is likely to do with any artefacts they bring to the surface.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Develop three inquiry questions about any aspects of the Sphinx that especially interest you. Before you write down your questions:
- think about what you already know about the Sphinx, 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.

GO DEEPER

4 Use the process of historical inquiry to investigate the question 'What issues are most important to people today?'

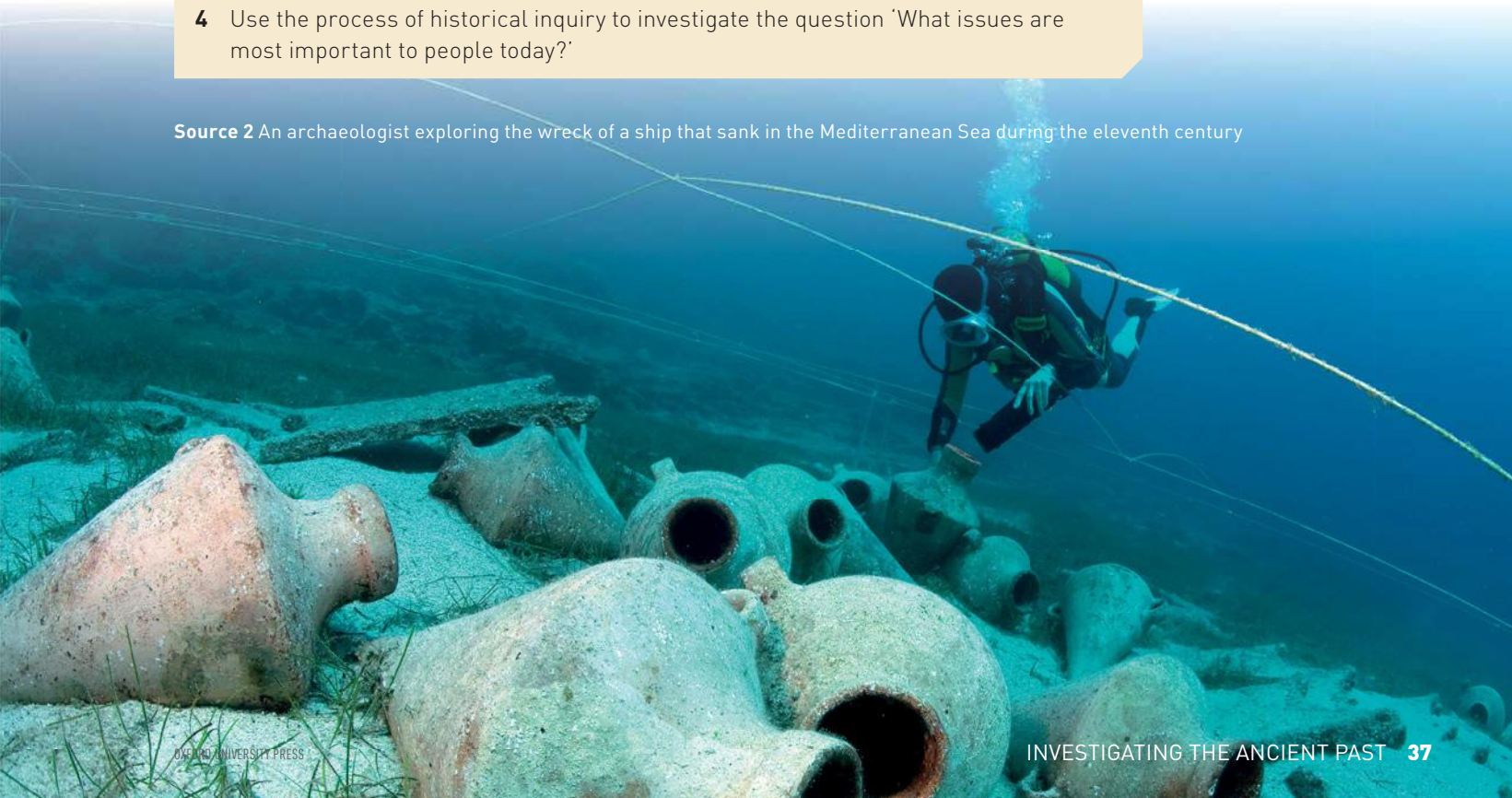
I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the work of historians and archaeologists and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?



Source 2 An archaeologist exploring the wreck of a ship that sank in the Mediterranean Sea during the eleventh century

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1.2 TIME IN HISTORY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- define the terms and concepts relating to historical time.

chronology
a record of events in the order they took place

To help us understand the past, it is useful to know when, and in what order, events happened. Arranging events in the order that they happened is known as **chronology**.

Time terms and concepts

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION: CHRONOLOGY, TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Historians use specific terms to communicate about the past. This helps them sequence events in the order in which they happened.

It is important to understand the terms and abbreviations that historians use when they are talking about historical time. These are terms and abbreviations that you will encounter in every history text you read, so it is important to know them and understand how they work.

Representing time: BC and AD, BCE and CE

In the ancient world, time was measured with the rise and fall of the sun. Over generations, different societies devised their own ways of measuring time, such as the sundial shown in Source 3, which was used by the ancient Maya Empire of Mesoamerica (Central America).

As societies became more advanced they developed systems – such as calendars – to plan and record time, not only in days, but also in weeks, months and years. Today, the most commonly used calendar is the Gregorian calendar. Despite the popularity of the Gregorian calendar, it is not the only way we record time. There are a number of other calendars used around the world, including the Jewish, Islamic and Lunar calendars.



Source 3 A sundial used to measure time by the Maya



Source 4 Most countries around the world today use the Gregorian calendar, which was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582.

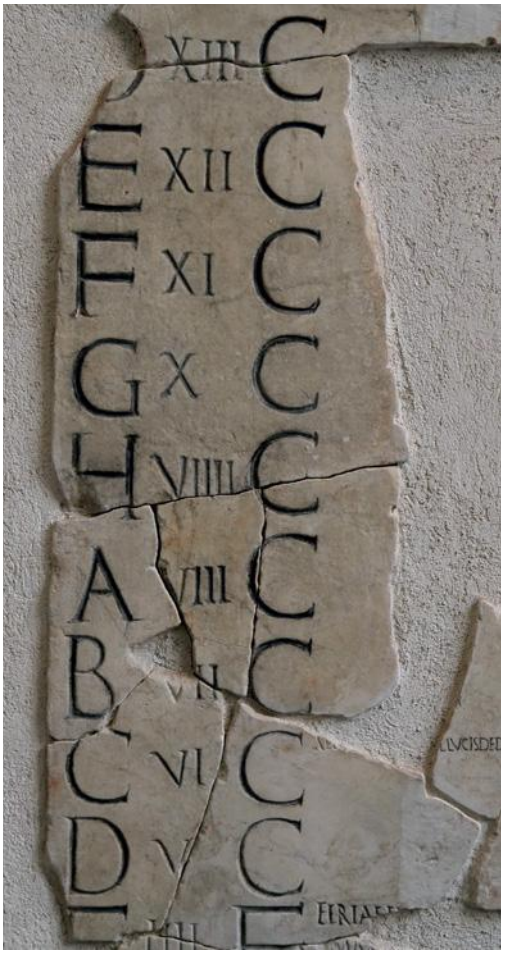
The Gregorian calendar is a Christian-based calendar. It is broadly broken into two eras (specific periods of time):

- time before the birth of Christ – **BC** (Before Christ)
- time since the birth of Christ – **AD** (from the Latin expression *Anno Domini*, which means 'in the year of our Lord').

The abbreviation BC is placed after the date (for example, 1025 BC), and the abbreviation AD is placed before the date (for example, AD 1678).

You may also come across texts and references that use the alternative terms **BCE** (Before the Common Era) instead of BC, and **CE** (Common Era) instead of AD. Both of these terms are placed after the date (for example, 1025 BCE and 1678 CE).

Sometimes we are not able to discover the exact date that an event took place. When this happens, historians use the symbol *c.* before a date, for example *c.* 1450 BC. The *c.* is an abbreviation of the Latin word ***circa***, which means 'about' or 'around'.



Source 5 Detail of the Fasti Praenestini calendar from ancient Rome, AD 20–23

BC
the abbreviation of Before Christ, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ

AD
the abbreviation of *Anno Domini* (in the year of our Lord), used to indicate any time after the birth of Christ

BCE
the abbreviation of Before the Common Era, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ

CE
the abbreviation of Common Era, which refers to any time after the birth of Christ

circa
a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately'

Measures of time: decades, centuries and millennia

There are 10 years in a **decade**, 100 years in a **century** and 1000 years in a **millennium**. Source 6 shows examples of the start and end dates of centuries, using the terms BC and AD. The first century BC ends with 1 BC and we count further back to the past. The first century AD begins with AD 1 and we count forward to the present.

Much larger (though less exact) chunks of time are often described as eras, epochs or ages.

decade
a period of 10 years

century
a period of 100 years

millennium
a period of 1000 years

Source 6 Examples of the start and end dates of centuries

Century	Year it started	Year it ended
1st century BC	100 BC	1 BC
7th century BC	700 BC	601 BC
16th century BC	1600 BC	1501 BC
1st century AD	AD 1	AD 100
7th century AD	AD 601	AD 700
16th century AD	AD 1501	AD 1600

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

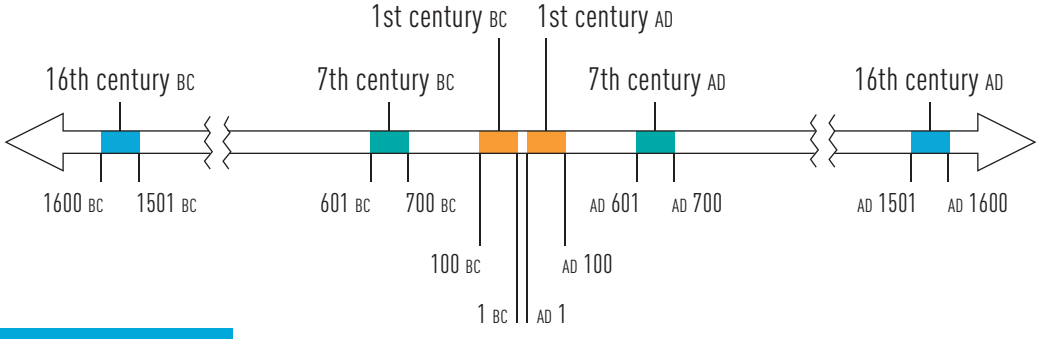
The birth of Jesus Christ is enormously significant – even for non-Christians – because the majority of the world measures time against this event.

Timelines

timeline
a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

Timelines are a useful way to visually represent the scope of a time period, and to show the sequence of events. Source 7 gives a more immediate idea of the scope of time than the same dates presented in the table format of Source 6.

Source 8 gives a step-by-step guide to constructing timelines, including common timeline features. (A further example can be found in 'The historian's toolkit'.)



Source 7 A timeline can give an immediate idea of the scope of time periods. Note that the year before AD 1 is 1 BC; there is no Year 0.

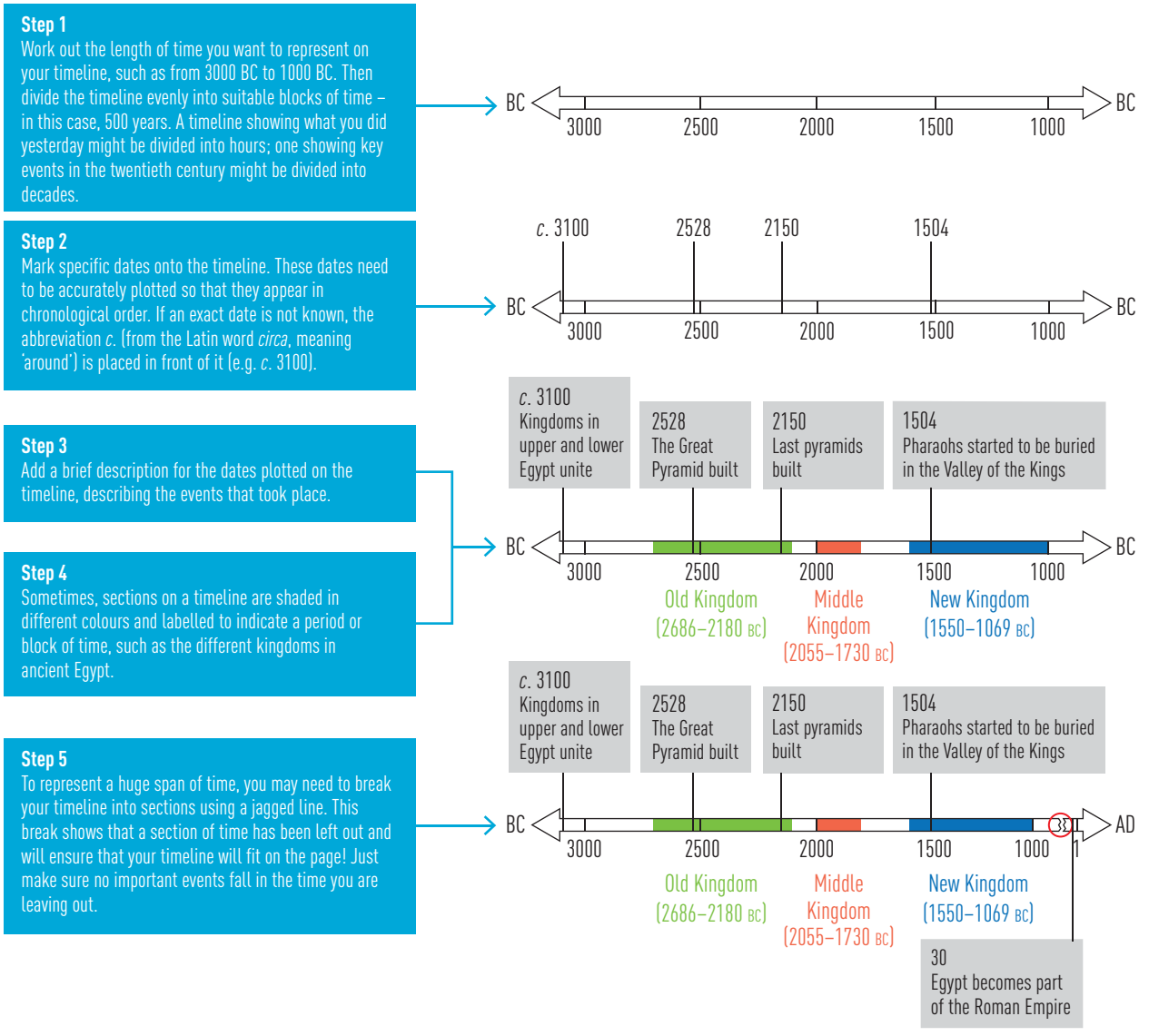
Step 1
Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, such as from 3000 BC to 1000 BC. Then divide the timeline evenly into suitable blocks of time – in this case, 500 years. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the twentieth century might be divided into decades.

Step 2
Mark specific dates onto the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order. If an exact date is not known, the abbreviation *c.* (from the Latin word *circa*, meaning 'around') is placed in front of it (e.g. *c.* 3100).

Step 3
Add a brief description for the dates plotted on the timeline, describing the events that took place.

Step 4
Sometimes, sections on a timeline are shaded in different colours and labelled to indicate a period or block of time, such as the different kingdoms in ancient Egypt.

Step 5
To represent a huge span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall in the time you are leaving out.



Source 8 A step-by-step guide to drawing timelines

Dating in history

Historians use various methods to date past events. For the recent past and where there are written sources dating is fairly easy, but it can be more difficult the further back we go. When there is no written record, archaeologists, palaeontologists and other scientists use a range of techniques to date ancient remains. (We examine these methods in more detail in section 1B 'What types of sources are used in historical investigations?') Many of these techniques determine whether an artefact or fossil is older or younger than other objects. This is known as **relative dating**. Some scientific techniques can provide an **absolute dating**. They can determine the age of an object in years, as precisely as current technologies allow.

relative dating
the process of determining the age of different objects or artefacts by comparing them with each other

absolute dating
the process of determining the age of an object or artefact in years based on its physical or chemical properties

Relative dating can also involve the historian working out the logical relationship between two events to decide which one came first. The two examples below show how the order of two events could be logically arranged.

Example 1: Which came first?

- the use of chariots by the ancient Egyptians
- the invention of the wheel.

Logically, the wheel came before the chariot, because you could not have built a chariot before the invention of the wheel.

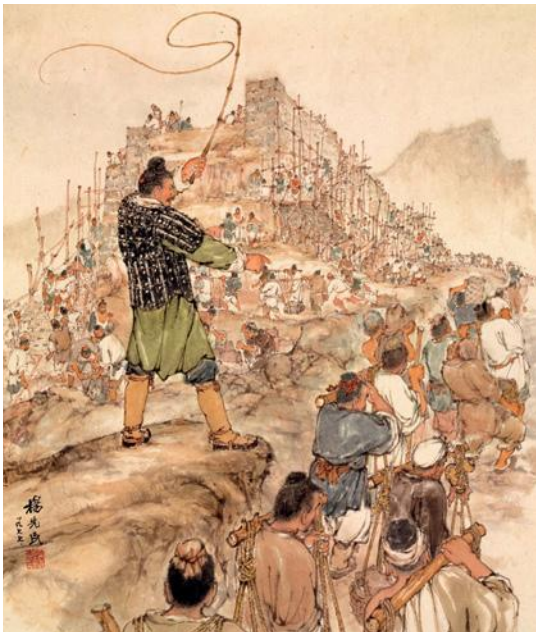
Example 2: Which came first?

- the construction of the Great Wall of China
- the beginning of agriculture in China.

Logically, the appearance of agriculture in China was followed by the construction of the Great Wall of China. It is reasonable to assume that the construction of the wall would require much labour and time, which would not have been available to hunter-gatherers who had to spend most of their time and energy finding food.



Source 9 A relief from ancient Egypt showing a battle using horse-drawn chariots



Source 10 An artist's impression of the building of the Great Wall of China

1.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is the Gregorian calendar?
2 Identify the two alternative ways of listing dates, based on the two eras of the Gregorian calendar.
3 What are the start and end dates of the following centuries?
   a third century BC
   b twentieth century AD
4 In which centuries were the following dates?
   a AD 2020
   b AD 1066
   c AD 33
   d 753 BC
5 Why are timelines useful for studying history?
6 Draw a timeline to show a decade, a century and a millennium.
7 Explain the difference between relative and absolute dating.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

8 The list below includes pairs of related events. Match the pairs correctly and then order the events in each pair. Write a sentence or two explaining the reasons for your decision on each pair.
   - the beginning of agriculture around the Nile delta in Egypt
   - the first space flight
   - the discovery of electricity
   - horses are tamed and used for transport and labour
   - construction of the first Egyptian pyramids
   - the first Moon landing
   - discovery of the atom
   - permanent settlement by the British in Australia
   - the appearance of horse shoes
   - electric fans
   - the explosion of the first atomic bomb
   - the opening of your school

9 Use the step-by-step guide in Source 8 to construct a timeline that shows these key discoveries and inventions. Then, add three more events from your own knowledge or research.
   - wheel – 3500 BC
   - silk – 2700 BC
   - alphabet – 1100 BC
   - paper – AD 900
   - rocket – AD 1232
   - car – AD 1885
   - personal computer – AD 1964
   - DVD – AD 1998

10 Investigate and report on the number of different calendars used in the world, such as the Jewish calendar, the Islamic calendar and the Lunar calendar.
11 During the French Revolution, beginning in 1789, the revolutionaries attempted to create new calendar months. What names did they choose, and why?

GO DEEPER

12 Locate an artefact, document or other source of evidence that interests you, either at home or in your local area. Conduct a mini historical investigation to find out more about it, following the process of historical inquiry outlined in this section.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

This is a great opportunity to conduct your first historical investigation.

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1A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

» Outline the main features of history and archaeology

1 Explain the purpose and importance of the study of history. (3 marks)

2 What is the difference between the study of history and the study of archaeology? (3 marks)

» Outline the role of historians and archaeologists

3 What are the responsibilities and tasks performed by historians? In your answer, be sure to include some information about:

- what historians investigate
- why historians are important for us today. (5 marks)

4 What are the responsibilities and tasks performed by archaeologists? In your answer, be sure to include some information about:

- what archaeologists investigate
- why archaeologists are important for us today. (5 marks)

» Describe and explain the different approaches to historical investigation taken by archaeologists and historians

5 Which two experts should an archaeologist employ to assist after finding an unopened coffin covered in writing in an ancient language? Give reasons for your answer. (5 marks)

6 Outline the skills and technologies employed by historians and archaeologists during a historical investigation. (10 marks)

» Define the terms and concepts relating to historical time

7 Define the following terms:

a chronology (1 mark)

b BC and AD (2 marks)

c BCE and CE (2 marks)

d *circa* (1 mark)

e decade, century and millennium (3 marks)

f timeline (1 mark)

g relative dating and absolute dating. (4 marks)

8 Explain why some people use BC/AD and others use BCE/CE. Give examples to support your response. (5 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

1B WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

1.3 GATHERING EVIDENCE FROM A RANGE OF SOURCES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations.**

SPOTLIGHT

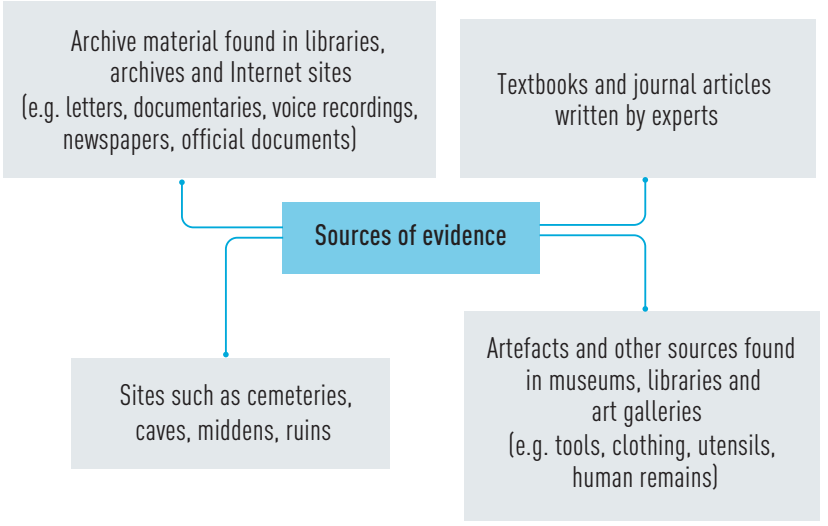
PERSPECTIVES

Historians must consider a variety of perspectives to inform their understanding. They do this by examining different sources of information.

A historian is constantly looking for and checking clues. This means looking for evidence, the information gathered from historical sources. Historians do not always agree on what the evidence is telling them, even when it is gathered from the same source. This is why historians are always searching for new sources of evidence, checking and re-checking the evidence they already have. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.

Types of sources

The types of sources that historians might use to gather evidence are summarised in Source 1. These can include the written evidence of eyewitnesses who observed an event. Evidence can also come in the form of artefacts and objects – tools, weapons and household items – or in the form of buildings and other physical remains from the past. Evidence from the more recent past can be found in photographs, films and sound recordings.



Source 1 Some sources of evidence for a historical inquiry

Evaluating sources

Historians evaluate a source by asking questions such as:

- How old is the source?
- Who made or created it, or where did it come from?
- Is it from a trustworthy source?
- What motives might have been behind its creation?
- Are there any gaps and silences in the evidence it presents? (Is there anything missing, has it been damaged, has the creator deliberately left something out - if so, what and why?)

They also consider whether the source is a primary source or a secondary source.

Primary and secondary sources

Historians classify sources of evidence into two categories:

- **Primary sources** are objects created or written at the time being investigated, such as during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; and stone carvings and other artefacts. **Oral history** is also considered a primary source, even if it is being told many years later. This is because the memory was created at the time.
- **Secondary sources** are written accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated, or objects that were created after the event. They often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks and websites.

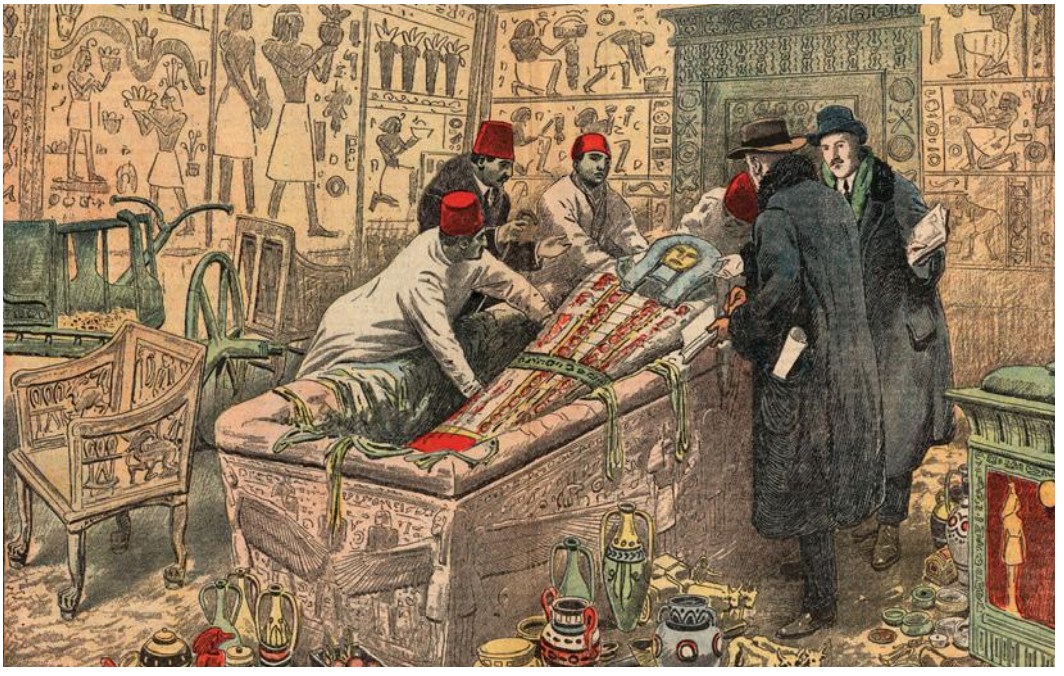
primary source
a source that was created during the time being studied

oral history
the collection of historical information through interviews or recordings of people telling their story or memory of the past

secondary source
a source that was created after the time being studied



Source 2 A photograph taken in 1922 shows British archaeologist Howard Carter leaving the tomb of Tutankhamun. The artefacts shown in the photograph and the photograph itself are primary sources because the artefacts were made during the rule of the ancient Egyptians and the photograph was taken at the time of the discovery of the tomb.



Source 3 An illustration shows Howard Carter inside the tomb of Tutankhamun. The illustration is a secondary source because it was drawn by an artist long after the discovery of the tomb in 1922. It is only a representation of the inside of Tutankhamun's tomb, even though it is based on a photograph taken at the time of its discovery. If the artist had been present inside the tomb, then the illustration could be considered a primary source.

Oral history

Some cultures have oral cultures. This means that their records were not written but were preserved in other forms. With no form of writing, their records were preserved in the paintings they left, as well as the ceremonies, rituals, stories, laws and traditions that they have passed on. Historians and anthropologists rely on sources such as these when searching for evidence of their history.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

It can be difficult to determine which sources are accurate and which are problematic. Reading widely helps uncover the most accurate information.

Digital sources

An internet search can provide a huge amount of possible source material for historians and researchers. However, as anyone can post material online, the reliability of the material needs to be evaluated, in the same way that any historical source would be evaluated and checked against other sources. More reliable sources may be found at websites of government organisations (.gov), academic institutions (.edu), museums and libraries. These websites have material that has been written, edited and reviewed by experts.

1.3 SOURCE STUDY

Evaluating sources

In the digital age, where so much information is available, it is even more important to gather information from a variety of reliable historical sources when seeking an answer to a question. Look carefully at the following sources related to the Colossus of Rhodes, reportedly the tallest statue built in ancient times and one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world. It was built on the Greek island of Rhodes.

Source 4

> The project was commissioned by the Rhodian sculptor Chares of Lindos. To build the statue, his workers cast the outer bronze skin parts. The base was made of white marble, and the feet and ankle of the statue were first fixed. The structure was gradually erected as the bronze form was fortified with an iron and stone framework. To reach the higher parts, an earth ramp was built around the statue and was later removed. When the colossus was finished, it stood about 33 m (110 ft) high ... The construction of the Colossus took 12 years and was finished in 282 BC. For years, the statue stood at the harbor entrance, until a strong earthquake hit Rhodes about 226 BC.
>
> *Rhodos travel service, www.rodos.com/index.htm*

Source 5

> Even as it lies it excites our wonder and admiration. Few men can clasp the thumb in their arms, and its fingers are larger than most statues. Where the limbs are broken asunder, vast caverns are seen yawning in the interior. Within it, too, are to be seen large masses of rock, by the weight of which the artist steadied it while erecting it.
>
> *Pliny the Elder, Roman author (AD 23–79)*



Source 6 A modern artist's interpretation of the Colossus of Rhodes

Source 7

As fate would have it, however, an untimely end was destined for the Colossus. In 224 BC, only sixty-five years after its completion, the statue was toppled by a strong earthquake, crushing many houses as it fell. King Ptolemy III immediately offered to pay for it to be rebuilt, but the Rhodians had been warned by an oracle to let it lie and so declined his generous offer. The statue lay where it fell for over 875 years until Arab invaders pillaged its remains and sent the scrap metal to Syria, where it was carried off on the backs of 900 camels to be melted down – probably into bronze lamps. Nothing of the Colossus remains today, and the site upon which it once stood has not been securely identified.

www.amazeingart.com/seven-wonders/colossus.html

Source 8

Colossus of Rhodes (Gk. *kolossos*, 'a more than life-size statue'), a bronze statue of the Greek sun-god Helios, one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world. Erected to commemorate the successful defence of the city against a siege in 305–304 BCE, it stood at the entrance of the harbour (the tradition that it stood astride the entrance is discredited), and was 70 cubits high (30–35 m, 100–115 ft). It was completed *c.* 280 BCE and overthrown by an earthquake *c.* 224 BCE.

Oxford Companion to Classical Literature, *Oxford University Press*

INTERPRET

1 Create a table with headings as shown below. Rank the sources from most (1) to the least (5) reliable or trustworthy (think about who created them, and why). Justify your choices.

Source number	Creator	Date created (if known)	Primary/Secondary	Rank

2 Form small groups to answer the following questions, based on your evaluation of the sources' reliability.
   a When was the statue built? **b** How tall was it? **c** When did the statue fall and why?
3 Which is the primary source? At what point in the history of the statue was it written?
4 What are the limitations of the sources? Consider what historians still don't know.

1.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 List some of the types of sources used by historians.
2 What is the difference between a primary source and a secondary source?
3 Classify each of the sources below as either a primary source or secondary source. Explain the reasons for your answers.
   a program from the opening of the Sydney Harbour Bridge in 1932
   b an interview in 1982 on the 50th anniversary of the Sydney Harbour Bridge's opening with one of the people who was there in 1932
   c a newsreel film taken at the time Dawn Fraser won the 100-metre freestyle at the Melbourne Olympics in 1956
   d scenes from the film *Dawn* made in 1978 about the life of Dawn Fraser
   e the film *Marco Polo* made in 2000
   f an interview in 2009 with the actor Harrison Ford about the making of the film *Raiders of the Lost Ark* in 1981
   g the Sydney Harbour Bridge
   h a painting of the Sydney Harbour Bridge created by a 20-year-old artist in 2018
   i a television debate in 2007 between historians about the Japanese midget submarine attack on Sydney Harbour in 1942
   j a DVD of a silent film taken in 1927 of the opening of Parliament House in Canberra in 1927.
4 What methods and sources do you think historians and other scholars would use when investigating the history of a people with an oral culture?
5 Explain why material on the internet needs to be carefully evaluated.

1.4 METHODS AND SOURCES USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations.

Sometimes historians (or just ordinary people) accidentally find something of historical importance. For example, they might notice something unusual about the landscape that suggests that something intriguing lies beneath the surface of the earth, or they may stumble across an interesting and unexpected artefact that leads them to investigate a site more closely. Other times, historians know exactly what they are looking for, but they have to use a variety of methods to uncover and correctly identify the historical treasures they are seeking.

Locating archaeological sites

Earlier, we looked at the approach taken by archaeologists when excavating archaeological sites underwater and underground. Sometimes these sites are located during a search, with help from aerial photographers, geophysical surveyors, sonar technologists and other specialists. One site that is easy to locate from the air is the Serpent Mound of Ohio in the United States (see Source 10). Historians believe it may have been built by the Native American Adena people who are thought to have lived in the area for a millennium from about 800 BC.



Source 9 The remains of Ötzi the Iceman

Archaeological sites are sometimes found by accident, when a field is being ploughed or when the foundations of a building are being dug. Sometimes artefacts are revealed after they are uncovered by floods, landslides or erosion. The 5000-year-old remains of Ötzi the Iceman (see Source 9) were found by hikers in 1991, after an unusually warm summer melted ice high up in the Ötztal Alps on the border between Austria and Italy.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at Source 10.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 10 The Serpent Mound

Dating methods

Many of the experts called on to help historians and archaeologists with their investigations use the latest technologies to work out the likely age of sources. Some techniques are absolute dating techniques, which assess the age of the source as precisely as possible. Others are relative dating techniques, assessing whether sources are older or younger than other sources.

Stratigraphy

Stratigraphy is a relative dating technique. It involves looking at the different layers of earth (known as strata) where an artefact or fossil is found. The assumption is that – like at the local rubbish tip or in an untidy bedroom – the oldest objects are at the bottom of the pile and the most recent objects are closer to the top (see Source 11). Note that a thicker layer (or stratum) would indicate a longer time period than a very thin layer.

Stratigraphy is not an exact science, however, because natural disasters such as earthquakes and landslips can change the way strata are arranged.

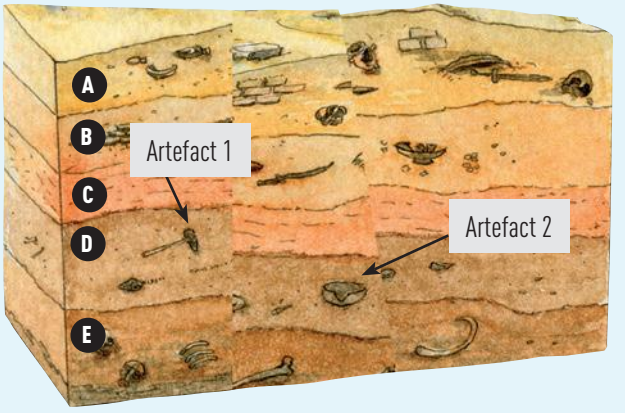
stratigraphy
a method used to determine the approximate (or likely) age of remains from the past based on the strata (or layers) of earth or rock in which they were found

1.4 SOURCE STUDY

Stratigraphy



Source 11 A diagram showing how different artefacts can be found in different strata, generally arranged according to their age



Source 12 A diagram showing how strata can be disrupted as a result of an earthquake

INTERPRET

Look carefully at Source 11.

1. Which layer is likely to provide the oldest sources?
2. Which layer do you think is likely to have the more recent sources: D or B?
3. Why do you think layer C contains no historical sources?
4. Imagine there was an earthquake. It affected the middle section of this part of earth. Look carefully at Source 12. Explain why it would be misleading for an archaeologist to say that Artefact 2 was older than Artefact 1.

Radiocarbon dating

Radiocarbon dating is an absolute dating technique. It uses complex instruments to work out how much Carbon-14, a particular form of carbon, is still present in once-living remains. All objects that were once living things – plants, wood, human remains, parts of animals – contain Carbon-14. The Carbon-14 drops at a constant rate after the object dies. Scientists can determine when an organism died and therefore how old it is by measuring the amount of Carbon-14 left in the organism's remains.

Dendrochronology

dendrochronology
a method used to estimate the age of trees by counting the rings in the cross-section of tree trunks once they have been cut down

Dendrochronology dates a tree by counting the rings in a cross-section of its trunk. For each year in a tree's life, a new ring forms. The rings vary in shape and width depending on climate and weather conditions. Sometimes experts can calculate the relative age of wooden artefacts, such as bowls or floorboards, by matching the ring patterns with the same species of locally growing trees.

Thermoluminescence dating

thermoluminescence dating
a scientific method used to estimate the age of objects; it involves heating an object to help experts measure how much radiation the object can store and therefore judge how old it is

Thermoluminescence dating is used to date objects that contain particles of crystal, such as clay pots and stone objects. Scientists heat the objects to very high temperatures and measure the light that is released. They can then use these measurements to work out the relative age of the material.

Fluorine dating

fluorine dating
a scientific method used to estimate the age of objects by measuring the amount of fluorine they contain

Bones can be dated using **fluorine dating**. Bones absorb fluorine from the surrounding soil and groundwater (water that lies below the surface of the ground). The longer they are immersed, the more fluorine they absorb, allowing scientists to assess their relative age.

DNA analysis

DNA
the abbreviation of deoxyribonucleic acid; DNA is found in the cells of all known living organisms; it is the unique genetic code of each living thing

Historians often rely on **DNA** analysis to explore genetic links between ancient remains. For example, DNA analysis has been used as evidence to support theories about early human migration or family links when investigating the remains of bodies such as Egyptian mummies. More recently, new methods of DNA testing have identified plant DNA from the *amphorae* (ancient storage jars) found in ancient shipwrecks. This new evidence has enabled archaeologists to change their theories about the types of goods carried by traders in ancient Greece.



Source 13
A cross-section of a tree trunk, showing the new rings that grow each year

1.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Identify the experts whose skills can be used to locate an archaeological site.
2 Identify dating methods that determine:
   a an absolute dating
   b a relative dating.
3 Identify the techniques that would be useful in analysing:
   a the ancient human remains found in Source 9
   b *amphorae* found in ancient shipwrecks.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Draw a concept map to summarise your knowledge about techniques used by archaeologists and scientists to analyse sources of evidence. Include sketches and information about the types of sources relevant to each method and the evidence that can be gained.
5 With a partner, study the cross-section of the tree trunk shown in Source 13. Estimate how old this tree is and share your findings with your partner. Discuss any differences.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6 Draw and label a diagram to show your understanding of what radiocarbon dating involves.

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

» List a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations

1 List the different types of sources used by archaeologists and historians in their investigations, including examples of tools and techniques used to identify and classify these sources. (10 marks)

2 What are three benefits of artefacts for historians studying an ancient society? (3 marks)

3 What are three limitations of artefacts when studying history? (3 marks)

4 What are three questions historians might ask to evaluate a source? (3 marks)

5 What does it mean if a site is found by accident? Give an example to support your answer. (4 marks)

6 How does technology help historians and archaeologists to study the past? (3 marks)

7 How can written and archaeological sources work together to enhance our understanding of history? (4 marks)

8 Explain the value and limitations of oral histories. (10 marks)

9 Identify whether the following statements are true or false. (10 marks)

- **a** All sources are useful, even if they only tell one part of the story.
- **b** Secondary sources have more value to historians than primary sources.
- **c** Oral histories are usually unreliable.
- **d** Indigenous rock paintings are primary sources.
- **e** Oral histories are primary sources.
- **f** Stratigraphy can be useful for studying chronology.
- **g** *The Diary of Anne Frank* is a secondary source.
- **h** Good historians study a range of sources.
- **i** Egyptian mummies are an example of a secondary source.
- **j** Primary and secondary sources have limitations.

Total marks [/50]

1B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 3 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

1C HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

1.5 INVESTIGATING HISTORICAL MYSTERIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- use the process of historical investigation to examine a historical controversy or mystery.

In this topic we will look at some historical mysteries that have puzzled modern historians and archaeologists. In doing so, we can learn how historians and archaeologists went about solving some of the mysteries of the ancient past. We will also consider the key historical concepts that helped historians investigate and understand the past in order to solve these mysteries.

The mystery of Tollund Man

peat
decomposed vegetable matter that can be dried and burned as fuel

Tollund Man was found more than 2 metres below the surface of a **peat** bog near the village of Tollund, Denmark, in 1950. The eyes and mouth of the man were closed. He was about 150 centimetres tall, and appeared to have died around the age of 40. He was found wearing a pointed sheepskin cap and a belt made from animal hide. His body was in a foetal position (with his knees drawn up and his arms tucked in). A narrow strip of leather was tied around his neck. Historians are not completely sure why Tollund Man died, though most think he was sacrificed. Various scientific methods have been used to test the remains in an effort to find out more about this historical mystery. Some of the findings of this research and testing are detailed in Source 2.



Source 1 Tollund Man's remains were so well preserved by the peat that the people who found him thought he was a recent murder victim. What is left of his remains is displayed in the Silkeborg Museum in Denmark.

1.5 SOURCE STUDY

Investigating Tollund Man

Source 2 Some of the findings about Tollund Man

Source of evidence	Findings based on historical investigations and dating methods
His remains	Radiocarbon dating confirmed he died about 350 BC.
Vegetable soup containing barley, weeds and seeds in his stomach	The food was in the large intestine, suggesting it was eaten less than 24 hours before death. Some of the seeds appear in the region only in spring.
Position of the body	The body was placed in a foetal position, with eyes and mouth closed after death – such care and respect is unlikely for a murder victim or an executed criminal.
Text of Roman writer Tacitus (AD 56–117) – he said of Germanic people 'to the north': 'They hang traitors and renegades in trees; cowards, evaders and unnaturally immoral people they lower into filthy swamps and cover them with branches'	Further research has confirmed that these same Germanic people worshipped a goddess of spring during ceremonies at which slaves were sacrificed.
Peat around the body	Radiocarbon dating confirmed this to be about 2000 years old.
Scars on the soles of his feet	He sometimes went barefoot.
Location of the body	Ancient Germanic people regarded watery marshes as places where they could talk to their gods and goddesses.

INTERPRET

Read the information in Source 2 to answer the following questions.

1 Tollund Man appears to have been strangled.
   - **a** What evidence is there that Germanic people hanged traitors?
   - **b** Does the treatment of the body after death suggest Tollund Man was a traitor? Explain why or why not.

2 It is believed that Tollund Man died in the spring.
   - **a** How did researchers determine that he died in the spring?
   - **b** Why was that timing significant when trying to understand why this man might have died?

Key concepts for historical inquiry

Historians use six concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. These are very useful when they are developing their inquiry questions, analysing sources of evidence, and forming their opinions and hypotheses.

Sometimes you will use one of these concepts to help with your historical inquiry, while at other times you may use several at once. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The six historical concepts are:

- continuity and change: aspects of the past that have remained the same or have changed over time
- cause and effect: the reasons for a historical event or development, and the effects or outcomes of the event as a result
- perspectives: the points of view of historians analysing historical events or issues, which may lead to differing interpretations of the same event; historians also take into account the perspectives of people who wrote or created the source material they are analysing

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historical inquiry can only be effective if historians learn to develop an argument, supporting it with evidence from a range of sources.

- empathetic understanding: the ability to understand the points of view of others, which allows historians to enter into the world of the past and appreciate motivations and values that may be different from their own
- significance: the importance of an aspect of the past, such as an archaeological site or a past event
- contestability: different interpretations of the past.

These historical concepts are explained in more detail in 'The historian's toolkit' chapter, which you can refer to throughout the year to help you with your study and understanding of historical inquiries.

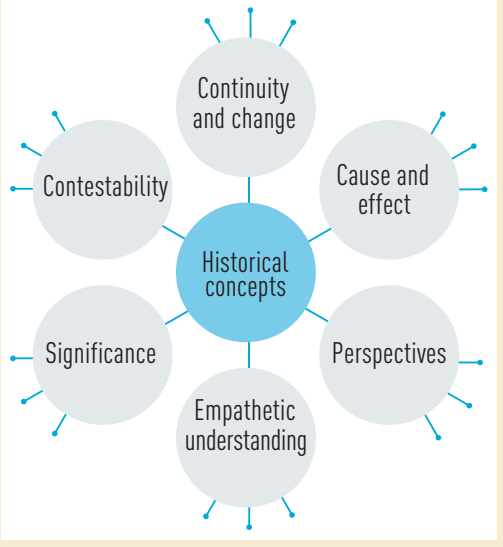


Source 3 Archaeologists carefully remove dirt to uncover buried artefacts.

1.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Copy the graphic organiser in Source 4 and provide at least one example that relates to each of the historical concepts. Examples could come from investigations and material from this chapter. Add to your organiser as you progress through your depth study topics this year.



Source 4 Key historical concepts

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Understanding perspectives: write two or three paragraphs about what you remember happening in the classroom during your previous history class. Share what you have written with others in a small group. Then discuss what this exercise taught you about the situation historians face when presented with different recounts.

GO DEEPER

3 Conduct research to find out how historians and archaeologists have investigated other ancient human remains and write a 200-word report that summarises:

- how they were discovered
- theories about how they died
- sources used in the investigation.

Suggestions include Lindow Man, Juanita the Ice Maiden, the Chimú Children of Huanchaco Peru, Windeby Girl and Narrabeen Man.

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

» Use the process of historical investigation to examine a historical controversy or mystery.

1 Identify two issues about Tollund Man that remain a mystery to historians. (2 marks)

2 What are four questions historians might have asked when first examining the remains of Tollund Man? (4 marks)

3 What evidence is there that Tollund Man's society used animals for resources? (4 marks)

4 Explain why historians suggest that Tollund Man's death is connected to religious practices. (5 marks)

5 Explain why historians think it is unlikely that Tollund Man was a traitor. (5 marks)

6 Earlier in this chapter you developed three inquiry questions about aspects of the Sphinx that particularly interested you.

- **a** Choose one of the questions and write a hypothesis stating the most likely explanation in answer to it.
- **b** Use the internet or library to locate and select sources that will be useful in providing evidence that will test your hypothesis.
- **c** Classify your sources as either primary or secondary sources.
- **d** Summarise the key points of any evidence that your sources provide.
- **e** Confirm or modify your hypothesis, and present your findings and conclusions in the form required by your teacher. This may be an essay, oral presentation, PowerPoint display, multimedia presentation or some other form. (10 marks)

7 Select one historical mystery of your choice and find out how the historians and archaeologists who have studied it so far have gone about conducting their investigations. Suggestions include the Pharos Lighthouse, Angkor Wat, Teotihuacan and Atlantis. Consider:

- their hypotheses
- the tools and methods they used
- the sources of evidence they used. (20 marks)

Total marks [/50]

1C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

1D WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

1.6 SOURCES FROM ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past.

The study of ancient Australia includes the stories and artefacts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, who have the world's oldest continuous cultures. There are two types of sources that can be used to investigate Australia's ancient past: oral accounts and archaeological evidence.

Oral accounts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

Oral accounts are the collected stories that Indigenous peoples used to tell their story and record their customs, rituals and laws. This oral tradition does not operate on a timeline from the oldest to the most recent; rather the history of Indigenous peoples centres on the importance of home, place and Country. It tells stories about places rather than times or historical periods. For example, **Dreaming** stories explain the origins of life and are passed on from generation to generation (see Source 1).

Dreaming
the time of creation and the origin of all things, according to the beliefs of Aboriginal peoples

Source 1

> The story I am telling is about my fathers in the Dreamtime who made the stars travel across the sky ... They were not made randomly, but by the Japaljarri-Jungarrayi Dreaming who created the Milky Way and carried stars and witi poles [logs, set on fire at one end to provide light] as he travelled ... We were taught about these Dreamings by our grandfathers, fathers and elder brothers. The [people to the north and west of Alice Springs] instructed us in the Warlpiri law and told us not to forget what we had been taught ... I am now telling the Dreaming of the Milky Way, all of those millions of stars up above us, as I was told it by our old men.

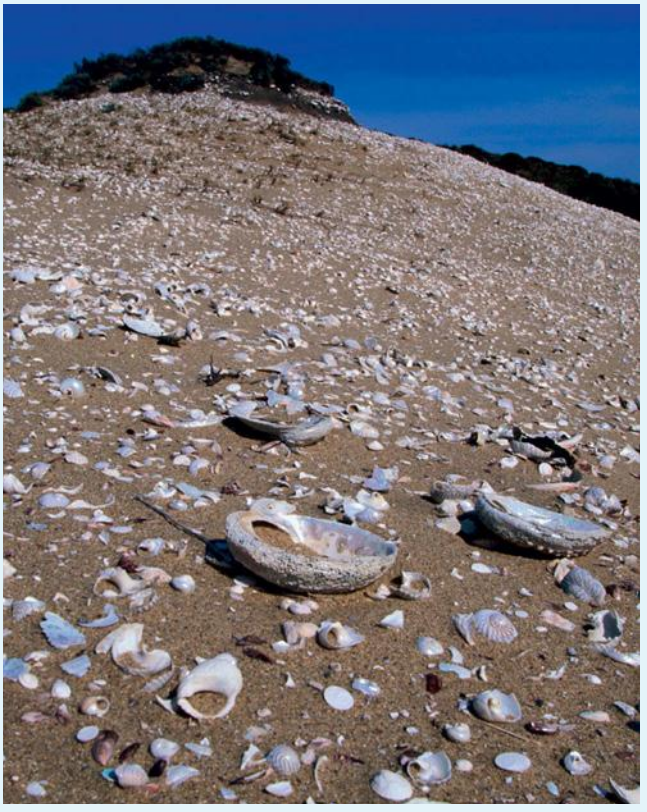
Paddy Japaljarri Sims, 'Yiwarrakurlu/Milky Way' in Warlukurlangu Artists, Kuruwarri/Yuendumu Doors, *Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies, Canberra, 1987, Door 29, p. 127*

Archaeological evidence

Because there is no written evidence in the traditional Western understanding, archaeologists also rely on archaeological evidence. Sources of evidence include burial sites and middens, rock engravings and rock paintings, and artefacts such as tools and fossils. Sources 2 and 3 are examples of these archaeological sources. (Examples of ancient paintings can be seen in Source 8.)

1.6 SOURCE STUDY

Archaeological evidence of ancient Australia



Source 2 Middens, such as this one at Boulder Point in Tasmania, are places where people have left the remains of their meals, such as shells and bones. The charcoal remains of fireplaces and artefacts such as tools can also be found at these sites.



Source 3 Rock engravings at West Head near Sydney's northern beaches. This engraving depicts fish and an eel.

INTERPRET

Study Sources 2 and 3.

1. Describe each source in your own words.
2. Which scientific dating techniques could be useful in analysing each of these sources?
3. What is the value of these sources for educating historians about life in ancient Australia?
4. What aspects of society aren't represented in these sources?
5. Use the sources and question starters such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* to develop three inquiry questions about ancient Australia.

1.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What are the two types of sources used to investigate the history of Australia's Indigenous people?
2. What are Dreaming stories?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. How is the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tradition of recording history different from the Western/European tradition?

1.7 MYSTERIES OF ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past.

Human occupation in ancient Australia

It is important to note that some Indigenous Australians believe that their ancestors originated here, rather than that they arrived from elsewhere. Non-Indigenous Australian experts now agree that Australia has been occupied for at least 60 000 years. This theory is based on the idea that Indigenous peoples came to Australia from South-East Asia during one of the last ice ages. During the ice age, sea levels were lower and it would have been easier for people to move from islands around what is now Indonesia into northern Australia.

Archaeological evidence of humans in Australia

In the 1960s, experts suggested that Indigenous peoples had lived in Australia for 9000 years. By 1980, that figure had extended to between 35 000 and 40 000 years, and since then archaeologists have continued to revise this estimate. As noted above, archaeologists today generally agree that the evidence for human occupation in Australia dates back to around 60 000 years ago. However, thermoluminescence dating in the Northern Territory suggests that it could even be up to 120 000 years ago. Rising sea levels have covered what would have been the earliest occupation sites, meaning that we may never know for sure. New technologies or discoveries could provide further evidence in the future. Without written records, historians must rely on archaeological evidence to reconstruct the past.

Important sources of evidence about ancient Australia are human remains found at Lake Mungo in New South Wales and Kow Swamp in Victoria, as well as the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw paintings located in Western Australia's Kimberley region.



Source 4 The Willandra Lakes, including the ancient lake bed called Lake Mungo, is one of Australia's World Heritage-listed sites. Archaeologists have uncovered ancient burial and cremation sites and the fossils of giant marsupials at Lake Mungo.

Lake Mungo

In 1969, some burned bones were spotted by chance by a motorcyclist in the Willandra Lakes World Heritage Area in far western New South Wales. As the motorcyclist was also a scientist, he decided to investigate. The remains, later called Mungo Woman, were scientifically dated to about 25 000 years ago. The woman had been cremated and her bones buried, with evidence of ceremony. Five years later, another skeleton was found, this time intact. It was called Mungo Man. The man had been buried ritually after his remains were first smeared with red ochre. At first it was thought that Mungo Man lived 28 000 to 32 000 years ago, but new technologies in 1999 estimated that he lived up to 62 000 years ago. This was considered impossible by many scientists who accept the 'Out of Africa' theory, so a panel of experts met in 2003 to examine the evidence. They used optically stimulated luminescence dating methods across four different laboratories and determined that both Mungo Man and Mungo Woman lived 40 000 to 42 000 years ago.



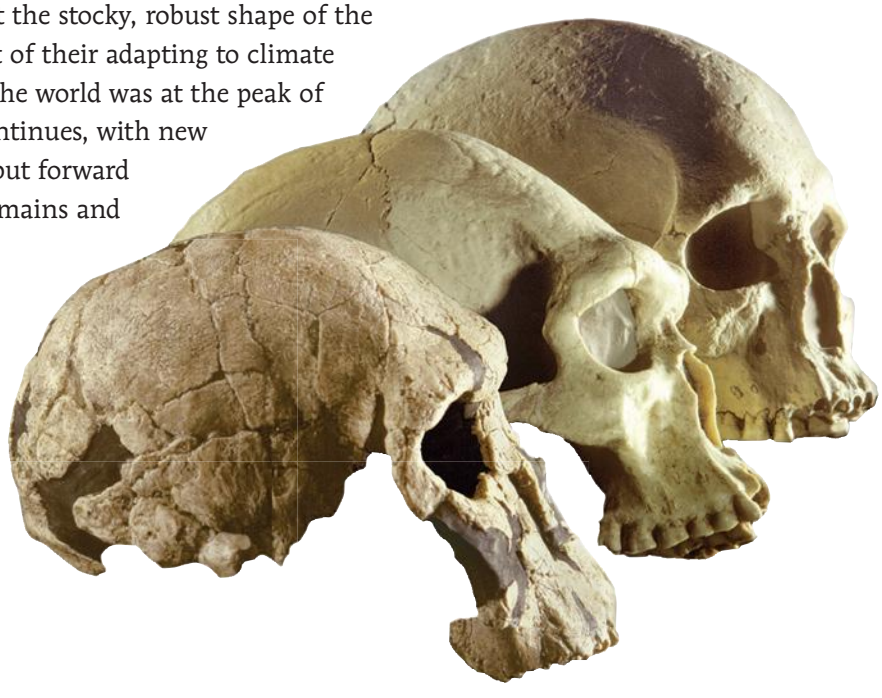
Source 5 Mungo Man

Kow Swamp

Kow Swamp is the location of the biggest ancient burial site found in Australia so far. Optically stimulated luminescence has found that the remains are around 20 000 years old, which is older than previously thought. About 10 000 to 12 000 years ago, Kow Swamp was a large lake. The grave site was located on its then south-eastern edge. The first of the remains (a partial skeleton) was found in 1968. Within four years, archaeologists had uncovered the remains of about 40 people.

The physical appearance of the Kow Swamp skulls puzzled scholars. They had wide faces, prominent jaws and teeth, flat and receding foreheads, and heavy brow ridges. In fact, they more resembled the distant human ancestor scientists call *Homo erectus*. The reality is that they are much younger than the remains found at Willandra Lakes. One recent theory is that the stocky, robust shape of the Kow Swamp people was a result of their adapting to climate stress. Some 20 000 years ago, the world was at the peak of its last **glacial**. The research continues, with new tests applied and new theories put forward to find out more about these remains and their place in Australia's past.

glacial
a period of extreme cold during an ice age



Source 6 Three skulls – front: *Homo habilis*, 1.88 million years old, from Kenya; centre: *Homo erectus*, 13 000 years old, from Kow Swamp, Victoria, Australia; back: *Homo sapiens*, 13 000 years old, from Keilor, Victoria

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings have been interpreted in different ways by historians, even though they are examining the same evidence.

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings are located in Western Australia's Kimberley region. Gwion Gwion is the name local Aboriginal people use for the area. A European cattleman, Joseph Bradshaw, spotted the paintings in 1891 while looking for land for his animals. He noticed that they were quite different from other Indigenous art he had seen. In fact, he said, '[l]ooking at some of the groups, one might think himself viewing the painted walls of an Egyptian temple'.

Thermoluminescence dating indicates some of the paintings could have been made 17 000 years or more ago. Some experts think they are three times as old. They are dispersed over what scientists think could be up to 100 000 sites. Scholars contest who created these paintings. Many insist they were painted by ancient Indigenous people. Some argue that they reveal evidence of a farming culture, perhaps an ancient Asian culture pre-dating the last glacial.

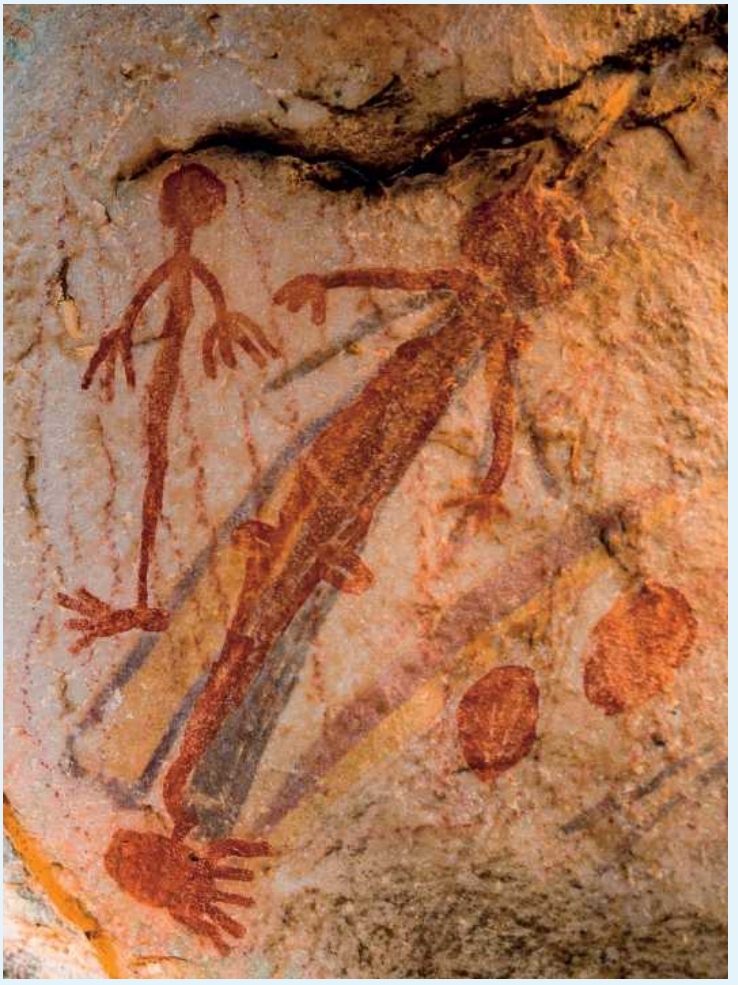
The amateur archaeologist Grahame Walsh, who has studied these paintings in detail over a long period, holds this latter view. Some argue that his position is racist. His claims have upset some Indigenous groups and are strongly contested by some academic scholars.

1.7 SOURCE STUDY

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings

Source 7

> ... And the first site, I actually went to with a traditional owner. I knew it was a deeply religious ... experience to go there. As he approached the site he'd stop and he'd talk to stones – just boulders. Then I heard him mention my name ... He was giving my background to the Wandjinas [creator spirits of some Indigenous groups, which were believed to bring rain], as it turned out. Wandjina art ... [is] relative to living cultures of today, so it's the art that was practised at the time of European contact ... the Bradshaw art represents a culture of an unknown, vastly different time and different resources.
>
> *Grahame Walsh, www.abc.net.au/austory/transcripts/s696261.htm*



Source 8 This is an example of the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings. Some depict people with hair decorations, tassels and perhaps clothing. Some depict boats with rudders.

Source 9

'No', they said 'no'. That was human long, long time before our time. But we can't tell the truth because we don't know they said. Not any Aborigines in the Kimberley know about Bradshaw painting.

Billy King, Ngarinyin Elder, www.abc.net.au.austory/transcripts/s696261.htm

Source 10

... I, as an academic, would certainly say that we have two distinct groups of styles of art. I wouldn't doubt that both were painted by Aboriginal people ... Grahame does certainly genuinely believe that he's recording the art and he's interested in its conservation, preservation, and all else is outside it. But living in Australia in these years, that's just about impossible. In an area where there are land claims, where there are traditional Aborigines still living, I think to say that nothing else impinges [has an impact] is an impossibility. And a bit naive, and a totally different world to, say, [the one] we were both living in when I met him in the 1960s.

John Mulvaney, http://www.abc.net.au.austory/transcripts/s696261.htm

Source 11

Well, this, they call them Bradshaws, but by right it's Gwion Gwion. That's the figure – that word now people used to call them before white man came. Gwion Gwion. The people put it up there – our great, great ancestors, before you know. Through the past generation that picture was there before any European people came, and then they pass them from generation to generation. And now it's with us, in the 20th century.

Donny Woolagoodja, a Warwa man from Mowanjum, in the far north-west of the Kimberley, http://www.abc.net.au/dimensions/dimensions_in_time/Transcripts/s578480.htm

Source 12

An indication of the types of boats that were used by Aboriginal people during the peak of the ice age can be gained from the ancient Kimberley rock paintings known as Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion art ... The Bradshaw paintings include graceful images of people, often with bent knees, long head-dresses, and decorative adornments, and commonly holding boomerangs or other objects ... The dancers in a corroboree photographed at Pago (in the north Kimberley, near Kalumburu) during the 1930s are strikingly similar to those shown in Bradshaw paintings ... It therefore seems reasonable to conclude that the Bradshaw people were among the ancestors of modern Aborigines ...

Dr Phillip E. Playford,
Aboriginal Art and Culture in the Kimberley and Adjoining Areas: A Historical Perspective,
http://www.kimberleysociety.org/past08.html, 2 April 2008

INTERPRET

1. What is Grahame Walsh's view about the origins of these paintings? Why does he have this opinion?
2. Donny Woolagoodja contests Walsh's view. What is his perspective on the paintings?
3. What evidence does Dr Phillip Playford use to support a view that the people in the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw paintings were the ancestors of Aboriginal people?
4. Source 10 is a quote from John Mulvaney.
   - **a** What is his perspective on this issue?
   - **b** As a class, discuss why he might say that Walsh is being a 'bit naive'.
5. What is Billy King's perspective?
6. Discuss the value of each perspective presented in this source study.

SPOTLIGHT

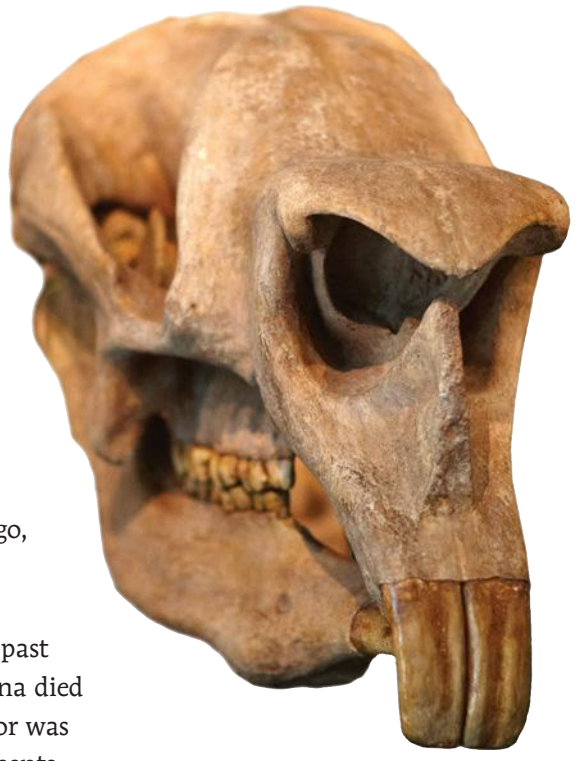
SIGNIFICANCE

Although there is dispute about the cause of the megafauna's extinction, the effect is the same. Either human behaviour or climate change caused the eradication of Australia's megafauna.

The fate of Australia's megafauna

The Australian megafauna were giant marsupials – wombats, emus and kangaroos – that once lived in Australia but became extinct about the same time as the appearance of Indigenous peoples. Source 13 shows an example of megafauna – the diprotodon (di-PRO-toe-don). Its name means 'two forward teeth'. The diprotodon was a herbivore measuring 3 metres long and 2 metres high. It is believed to have been widespread in Australia 1.8 million years ago, disappearing about 40 000 years ago.

In recent years, one of the most intense debates associated with Australia's ancient past has been the question of how the megafauna died out: were Indigenous hunters responsible, or was it caused by climate change? Source 15 presents the arguments for both sides of the debate.



Source 13 A diprodoton fossil, discovered at Lake Callabonna, South Australia



Source 14 An artist's impression of Australian megafauna, with a diprotodon shown centre rear

Source 15 Arguments for and against the view that human activity was responsible for the extinction of megafauna in ancient Australia

The case for human activity	The case for climate change
We have clear proof that human activity in the form of hunting led to the extinction of megafauna in other parts of the world, especially in North America. Even if the Indigenous peoples in Australia didn't hunt and kill off the megafauna, their practice of fire-stick farming (burning off large areas of bush) changed the environment to one less favourable for large animals. There is an archaeological site at Cuddie Springs in New South Wales that seems to offer evidence that Indigenous people cut up megafauna for food. We have bones with cut marks on them.	Drastic climate change during the last ice age resulted in extremely dry and windy conditions. It was a very cold drought. The megafauna had to stay close to the remaining limited supplies of water in order to survive. The result was that they ate all the food available near the water. This led directly to their extinction. Humans arrived in numbers around 50 000 to 60 000 years ago, but the megafauna only died out 25 000 years ago. That meant that megafauna and humans had lived together for 25 000 to 30 000 years before the megafauna became extinct. We need to look at something other than the arrival of human hunters to explain the extinction. All that the site at Cuddie Springs proves is that megafauna died there. It does not mean that they were killed by hunters. The animals could have died near the springs due to lack of food.

1.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 According to the archaeological evidence, what is the earliest agreed-upon date of Indigenous occupation of the Australian continent? How is this different from the version offered by the oral tradition of Indigenous peoples?

2 Outline three instances where archaeologists, historians or Indigenous peoples have differing perspectives or interpretations about ancient sources in Australia.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 How has technology enhanced our understanding of the human remains at Lake Mungo?

4 Conduct research on Australian megafauna.

- **a** What are megafauna?
- **b** Find out about three different megafauna that lived in ancient Australia.
- **c** Review the arguments set out in Source 15 that offer key parts of the case for both sides of the argument on how Australian megafauna died out. Identify the strongest and weakest argument for each side, giving reasons for your answer.
- **d** Write a 100- to 200-word informative and persuasive text answering the question 'What caused the extinction of the Australian megafauna?'

GO DEEPER

5 The Willandra Lakes Region is one of Australia's World Heritage–listed sites. On UNESCO's World Heritage website, find the description and video for the Willandra Lakes Region and then complete the following activities.

- **a** List the types of archaeological evidence found in this region.
- **b** What does this evidence tell archaeologists about the lives and beliefs of Australia's earliest inhabitants?

SITE STUDY: ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

With your class or family, visit a historical Aboriginal site to see firsthand a source of evidence such as the rock engraving shown in Source 16. Write a report to describe the site and source, including sketches or photos, and develop some inquiry questions that could lead to further investigations.

To find a site, you can search online for appropriate places to visit. Try using search terms such as 'Aboriginal historical sites New South Wales', 'Aboriginal culture New South Wales' or similar. The New South Wales government site Environment and Heritage has excellent resources, such as the 'NSW Atlas of Aboriginal Places'. This interactive map shows a large number of Aboriginal places of interest that will be a good start to your site study.

Source 16 This Aboriginal rock engraving located north of Sydney depicts an ancestral hero wearing a headdress and carrying a club or woomera at his waist.



Source 17 Kow Swamp, Victoria

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WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

1D CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 to 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia

1 Describe the archaeological evidence of humans in ancient Australia. (5 marks)

2 How has technology changed our understanding of ancient Australia at the following sites?

- **a** Lake Mungo (5 marks)
- **b** Kow Swamp (5 marks)
- **c** Gwion Gwion (5 marks)

3 Explain why climate change might have been responsible for the extinction of megafauna in ancient Australia. (5 marks)

» Investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past

4 Choose one specific source of evidence from ancient Australia and develop a series of inquiry questions. Create a table, such as the one below, and use the question starters in the left-hand column to focus your thinking. (10 marks)

Question starters	Inquiry questions
Who	
What	
Where	
When	
Why	
How	

5 Explain what evidence reveals about ancient Australia. In your response, refer to Lake Mungo, Kow Swamp and the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings. (15 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

assess quiz
Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension

1E WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONSERVE THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST?

1.8 CONSERVING THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected and preserved
- identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains
- describe an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples
- examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important for an ancient site to be preserved and conserved.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have a unique connection with the past, which is why caution must be taken when investigating the land. In some ways, most of Australia is a rich archaeological site for learning about Indigenous cultures.

When people are affected by natural disasters such as fires, floods or earthquakes, they are often most upset by the loss of old family photos and other mementos. These items are part of every family's heritage and cannot be replaced. In a similar way, remains and sources from the ancient past are part of our world heritage. They reflect the hopes and dreams of past generations. They remind us where we have come from, and what has shaped our societies and cultures. They give us a sense of who we are as a people. Conserving these remnants of the past ensures that future generations will also be able to enjoy the same appreciation of their heritage.

Preserving the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

In the case of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, their links to the remains of the past are perhaps even deeper and more spiritual. Indigenous Australians have a special connection with Country and places. They associate these places with the spirits of all of their ancestors. The physical remains of the ancient past are, for them, forever linked to family, no matter how distant in time.

UNESCO
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

World Heritage site
a natural or built site, structure or feature deemed to be of international importance and worthy of special protection

The World Heritage List

UNESCO identifies **World Heritage sites** around the world to help safeguard them for future generations. Sites are nominated by countries that have signed an international agreement on the protection of the world's cultural and natural heritage. Currently, there are more than 1100 sites on the World Heritage List, including 20 sites in Australia that have been identified as cultural, natural or mixed sites. The Sydney Opera House and convict sites around Australia are cultural sites on the World Heritage List.



Source 1 The Budj Bim Cultural Landscape, in south-eastern Australia

Natural sites in Australia include the Greater Blue Mountains, the Great Barrier Reef and Kakadu National Park. The Willandra Lakes Region is on the list to protect both the natural environment and archaeological remains.

In 2019, a new Australian site was added to the list: the Budj Bim Cultural Landscape in south-eastern Australia. This site provides evidence that the Gunditjmara people used a system of waterways to trap, store and harvest eels, making it one of the world's oldest and most extensive aquaculture systems. This evidence supports the argument by authors such as Bill Gammage in *The Biggest Estate on Earth* and Bruce Pascoe in *Dark Emu* that Indigenous peoples in Australia created settled agricultural societies that managed the Australian landscape in a sustainable way.

Protected sites

Threats to World Heritage sites have been successfully averted. A proposed highway near the Giza Pyramids was not built after negotiations between UNESCO and the Egyptian government in 1995. Similarly, a planned aluminium plant near the archaeological site of Delphi in Greece in 1987 was moved elsewhere.

Angkor Wat is an example of a successful restoration that has saved one of the most important sites in South-East Asia from problems such as unauthorised excavations, theft and landmines. Other restoration projects have been international, multimillion-dollar campaigns, such as the Abu Simbel project in the 1960s (see Source 2). The UNESCO-led campaign relocated the entire temple and monuments to save them from being submerged after the construction of a dam on the Nile River. It remains one of Egypt's most popular tourist destinations and is a significant part of Egypt's, and the world's, archaeological heritage.



Source 2 The temple of Rameses II at Abu Simbel in southern Egypt

Ancient sites under threat

Historical sources can be very fragile. Pollution and humidity (water vapour in the air) can cause them to deteriorate over time. Artefacts and archaeological sites can also be lost or damaged for other reasons, from theft and careless handling, to natural disasters and climate change. The number of tourists visiting popular sites, such as Egyptian tombs and the ruins of Pompeii, can also be a threat to their conservation.

In recent times, important sites in Iraq and Syria have been lost or irreparably damaged by warfare and looting. In Iraq, the site of the once-great city of Babylon has been used as a military base. Relics and archaeological fragments have been damaged or destroyed as areas were levelled for parking lots; heavy vehicles crushed relics buried near the surface; and sandbags were filled with soil that included archaeological fragments. A reproduction of the Ishtar Gate has also suffered damaged since the Iraq War.

One of the greatest examples of destruction in recent times is Palmyra, a city on the Silk Roads that had some of the best-preserved ruins of antiquity until the militant group ISIS occupied and destroyed important parts of the site. In August 2015, the Temple of Baal Shamin and the Temple of Bel were blown up, followed by the destruction of the Arch of Triumph in October 2015. ISIS lost control of the city in 2016 and archaeologists were able to salvage some artefacts and move them to safety in Damascus. However, ISIS reclaimed Palmyra and destroyed both the Tetrapylon and the Roman Theatre in January 2017. In times of war, the focus is on establishing safety and security for civilians, meaning that archaeological sites become vulnerable.



Source 3 Satellite images of Palmyra before and after destruction by ISIS

How are sources conserved?

Many important sources are stored in museums, galleries and libraries around the world. For example, the Mitchell Library in the State Library of New South Wales houses a huge collection of Australian historical sources. These venues provide security and proper storage conditions. For example, paper records can rot or deteriorate unless they are stored at the right temperature and humidity, and away from pests and ultraviolet light. Conservators working at museums and libraries can also restore and repair damaged items.

The following case study describes how archaeologists and conservators have worked to preserve sources from the ancient past in Iraq and Egypt.



Source 4 Conservators can restore fragile items, or ensure that they don't deteriorate further.

CASE STUDY

Conserving ancient sites

THE RUINS OF ANCIENT BABYLON

Reconstruction is one way of conserving the remains of the past. This has happened in the case of the Ishtar Gate, a double gateway to the ancient walled city of Babylon. Babylon was the busy hub of the neo-Babylonian and Persian empires, and its ruins are a vital part of Iraq's heritage.

The Ishtar Gate was built around 2500 years ago. The gate's foundations were excavated in the twentieth century. The front gate was reconstructed in Berlin's Pergamon Museum, using the glazed bricks that could be found on the site. These glazed bricks recreated a blue wall with rows of bulls and dragons – symbols of two Babylonian gods. Because not all bricks were recovered, the Berlin reconstruction is shorter than the original front gate. A smaller reproduction of the front gate was also built in Iraq by the former leader Saddam Hussein.

Computer scans have identified that the original gate foundations that remain are under threat. Salts in groundwater are eroding the brick reliefs at the base of the mud-brick gate. Under a conservation plan developed by the World Monument Fund and Iraq's State Board of Antiquities and Heritage, water is being diverted away from these ruins. In the longer term, they hope to generate wide-scale interest in the conservation of the ancient area of Mesopotamia and attract scholars and tourists.



Source 5 The paved Processional Way that ran through the Ishtar Gate was lined with glazed-brick reliefs of animals, including this lion. Some of these reliefs are now housed in various museums around the world.



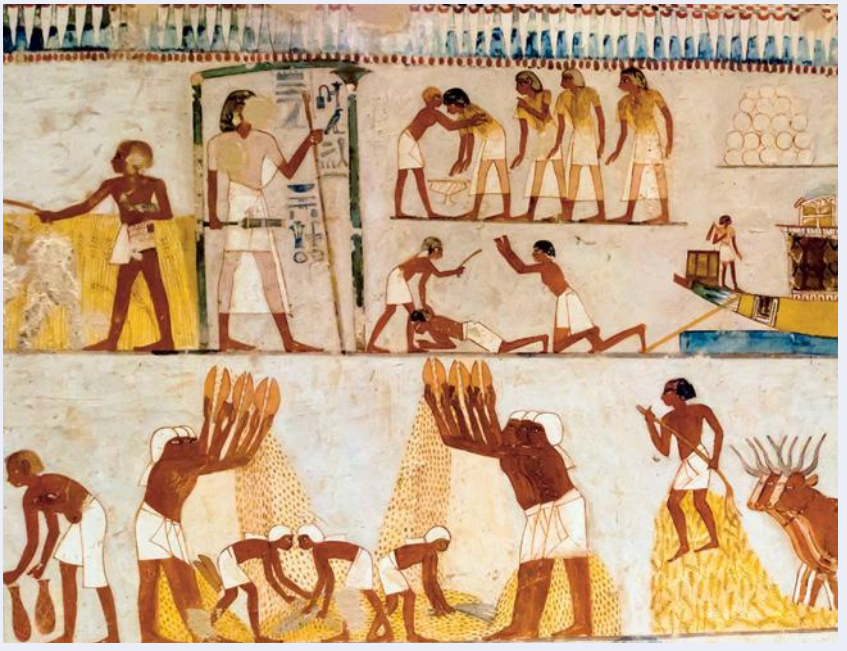
Source 6 The reconstructed front gate of the Ishtar Gate in the Pergamon Museum, Berlin

THE TOMB OF MENNA, EGYPT

The Tomb of Menna is one of 146 tombs dug into a hill on Egypt's West Bank at Luxor (formerly the ancient city of Thebes). They are the tombs of nobles and officials. Menna died about 3400 years ago, during ancient Egypt's eighteenth dynasty. As a scribe, he had high social status and probably a great deal of wealth. This conclusion is supported by the evidence found in his tomb, which is beautifully painted. Scenes throughout the tomb feature detailed depictions of members of his family. There are also many farming and riverside scenes that provide information about agricultural practices and about life along the river at that time.

The Tomb of Menna has proved to be very popular with tourists. Over time, the continual stream of visitors and changing environmental conditions have begun to damage the precious wall paintings. The Tomb of Menna Project began in 2006. It aimed to document, and so help to preserve, the tomb's art. A number of universities and conservation agencies were involved. Using advanced scientific methods, the conservators' strategy included:

- cleaning parts of the paintings
- analysing the properties of the paint used on the wall
- taking high-resolution digital photos and joining them to create an exact visual record of the tomb's art; conservators are able to compare this photographic record with the paintings to quickly detect any deterioration
- building a new wooden floor and rails to stop people getting too close to the paintings
- installing low-impact lighting.



Source 7 One of the paintings from the wall of the Tomb of Menna



Source 8 Restoration work on the Tomb of Menna

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 What are the benefits of reconstructing the front gate of the Ishtar Gate?
2 How has technology assisted with conservation of the Tomb of Menna?

1.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why are the remains of the ancient past important?
2. What is the World Heritage List?
3. Identify Australian sites on the World Heritage List.
4. Identify methods used by archaeologists and conservators to preserve the remains of the ancient past.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Explain why the physical remains from ancient Australia are significant for all Australians.
6. What roles do museums, galleries and libraries play in conserving the remains of the past?

GO DEEPER

7. To be included on the World Heritage List, sites must be of 'outstanding universal value' and meet at least one out of the 10 selection criteria.
   - **a** Go to the UNESCO website and look for the selection criteria for inclusion on the World Heritage List.
   - **b** Select three examples of ancient sites, either from the text or your own research. Use the World Heritage criteria to propose why they should or should not be selected as World Heritage sites.
8. Conduct research using digital sources to identify ancient sites that have disappeared or are in danger of being lost through decay and deterioration.
9. On the UNESCO website, go to the current World Heritage List and find the interactive map of the sites. Select an ancient site and conduct research to find out why it is significant to world heritage. Present your findings as a written, digital or oral presentation.

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONSERVE THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST?

» Identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected and preserved

1 Identify three ways that sites have been threatened. (3 marks)

2 Select and give a brief report about three ancient sites that are of interest to you. For each site, provide information about its location and current status (what condition it is in and why).

- **a** one that has disappeared (4 marks)
- **b** one that is threatened (4 marks)
- **c** one that has been protected (4 marks)

» Identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains

3 Outline how archaeological sites can be preserved. (5 marks)

4 Outline how historical records and artefacts can be preserved. (5 marks)

» Describe an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

5 Identify a site that has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples (refer to section 1D 'What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past?'). Include:

- **a** its location
- **b** a brief description of the sources found there
- **c** what it reveals about life in ancient Australia. (10 marks)

» Examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important for an ancient site to be preserved and conserved

6 Select one ancient site and explain why and for whom it is important to preserve and conserve it. (10 marks)

7 Outline the criteria for a site to be included on the World Heritage List. (5 marks)

Total marks [/50]

1E

CHECKPOINT

MARKING GUIDE

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

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PART B



The remains of the Roman Forum, which was the site of important political, religious and social activities in the centre of ancient Rome



THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 2: THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

ANCIENT EGYPT

2 CHAPTER

obook-only chapter

ANCIENT GREECE

3 CHAPTER

ANCIENT ROME

4 CHAPTER

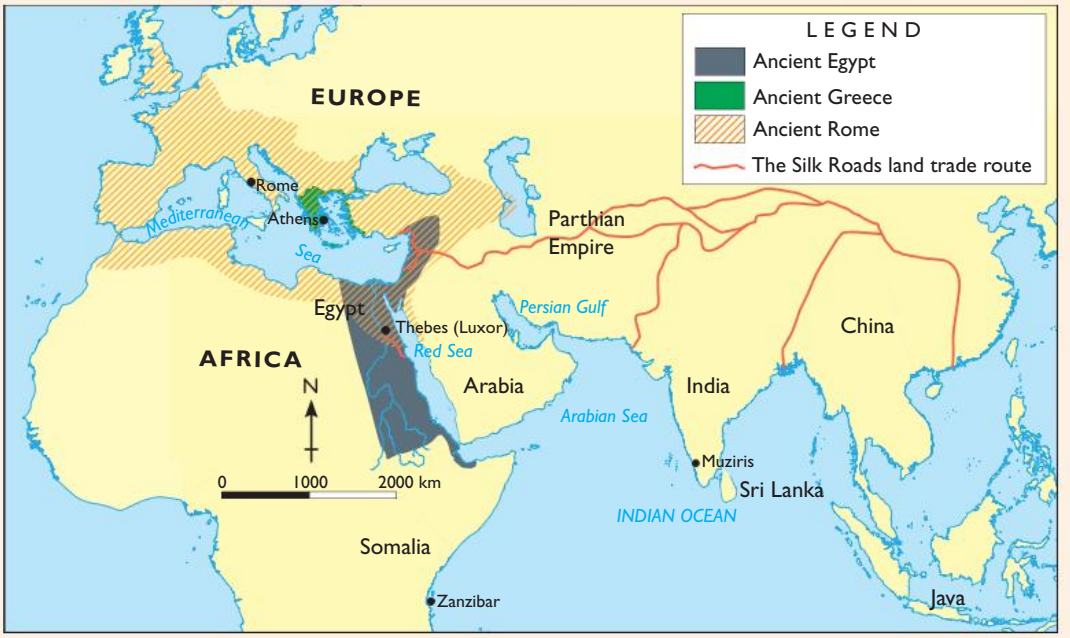
OVERVIEW OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

society
a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

civilisation
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

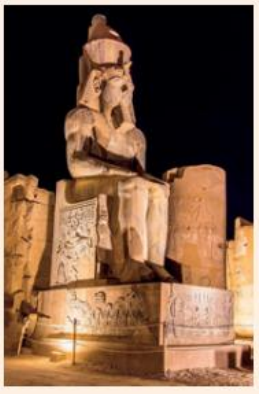
The Mediterranean Sea has been called 'The Great Sea' by Professor David Abulafia, not because of its size, but because of the central role it played in the **societies** and **civilisations** that developed around it. The Mediterranean world, as the region became known, and the **Silk Roads** influenced the course of history. The Mediterranean was the location of three significant and influential civilisations: ancient Egypt, ancient Greece and ancient Rome.



Source 1 Egypt, Greece and Rome were three of the great civilisations of the Mediterranean world. They were linked to civilisations further east by the Silk Roads.

In the Mediterranean world, goods, ideas and customs were exchanged. The people of ancient Rome borrowed many ideas, and even the names and characteristics of gods, from the Greeks. Both the Greeks and Romans had extensive contact with Egypt. The people of ancient Egypt traded to the west with the Minoans on the island of Crete. To the east, the Egyptians had contact with the great civilisations of the Fertile Crescent via the Silk Roads. The Mediterranean was near the end of the Silk Roads and was literally a place where East met West – a hub through which products and ideas imported from Asia reached Europe. In this course, you will study one of the Mediterranean civilisations in depth, learning about its:

- geography
- social structure and government
- religious beliefs
- everyday life
- contacts and conflicts within its society, and with other societies.



Source 2 A sitting colossus at Luxor Temple (ancient Egypt)



Source 3 A marble relief from the Parthenon (ancient Greece)



Source 4 A tile mosaic from the ancient city of Herculaneum, Italy (ancient Rome)

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0.1 KEY FEATURES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN CIVILISATIONS

Geographical features

The geographical features of the Mediterranean region were critical in influencing how early societies developed there.

Source 5 The geographical setting and natural features of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
The Nile River in northern Africa was the lifeblood of this civilisation. Without it, Egypt would never have developed as a great civilisation. It provided the water critical for irrigating crops that fed the early Egyptians. The deserts to the west and the seas to the north and east provided protection from enemy invaders. Egyptians lived in a hot, dry climate.	The ancient Greek civilisation sprang up in an area known as the Peloponnese, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. The fertile coastal plain allowed agriculture, but much of the land is mountainous. The mountains and many islands separated early settlements, which meant that they developed and formed separate city-states, each with its own ruler and customs – unlike Egypt and Rome, which each had one ruler.	Ancient Rome was settled on the Italian Peninsula. Its landscape was varied, with mountains and fertile plains. A rugged mountain range that ran down the peninsula's centre made inland expansion difficult. However, Rome had easy access to coastal settlements and other foreign territories around the Mediterranean, which the Romans gradually conquered with their strong navy and army.

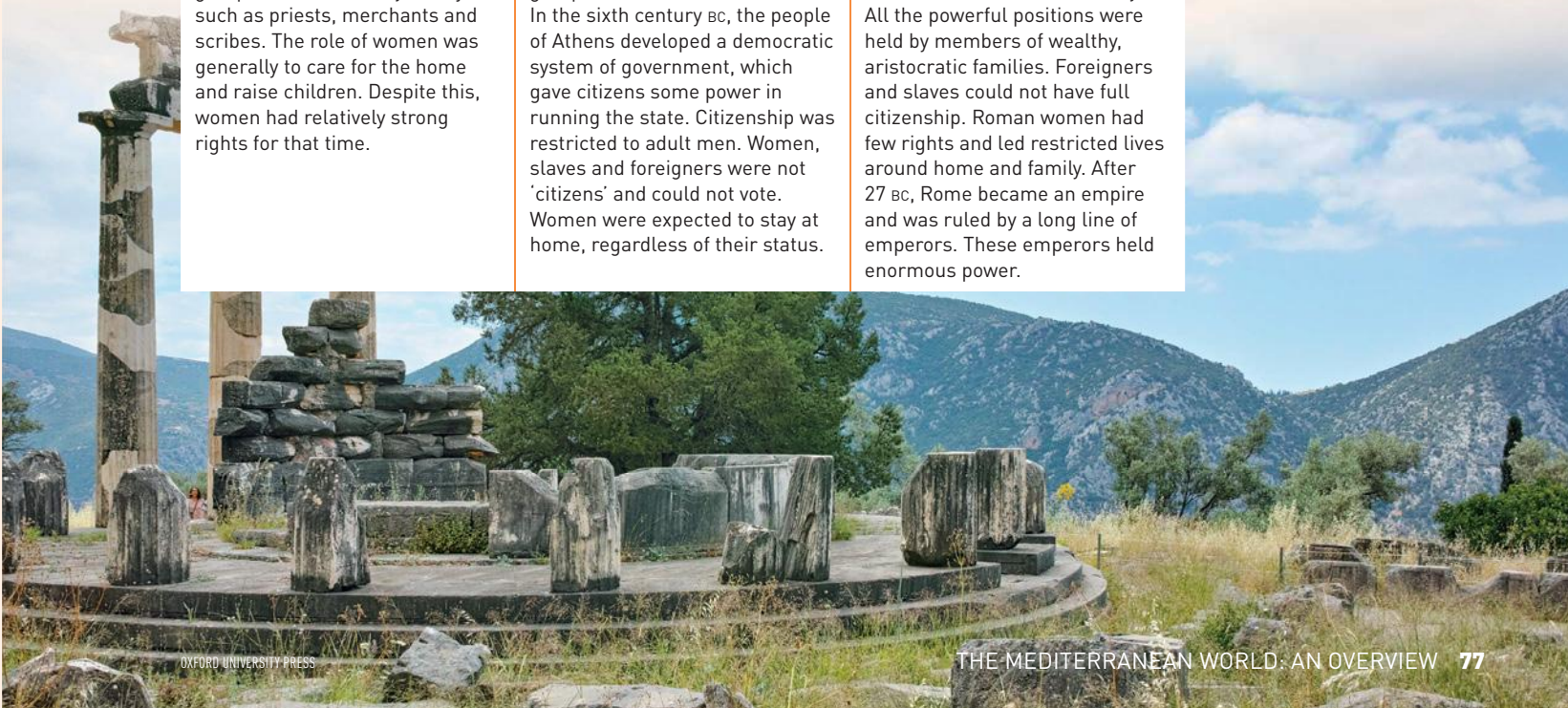
Social organisation and government

Ancient Egypt, Greece and Rome all had very clear social structures (known as **hierarchies**), with strict social classes. Despite this similarity, all three societies had very different social customs and forms of government that developed and changed over time.

hierarchy
a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance; ancient societies had strict hierarchies with a ruler at the top and peasants at the bottom

Source 6 The social organisation and government of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
Ancient Egypt was ruled by a pharaoh who owned all the land and its resources. His power was passed on to his son. Other social groups were defined by their jobs, such as priests, merchants and scribes. The role of women was generally to care for the home and raise children. Despite this, women had relatively strong rights for that time.	In the early days of Greece's history, most city-states were ruled by kings. Over time, power passed from these kings to small groups of aristocrats (noblemen). In the sixth century BC, the people of Athens developed a democratic system of government, which gave citizens some power in running the state. Citizenship was restricted to adult men. Women, slaves and foreigners were not 'citizens' and could not vote. Women were expected to stay at home, regardless of their status.	For much of its history, Rome was a republic, which meant that political decisions were made by a small group of people in the Senate and Citizens' Assembly. All the powerful positions were held by members of wealthy, aristocratic families. Foreigners and slaves could not have full citizenship. Roman women had few rights and led restricted lives around home and family. After 27 BC, Rome became an empire and was ruled by a long line of emperors. These emperors held enormous power.





Source 7 A depiction of the Egyptian goddess Baste; many Egyptian gods were represented as animals or as humans with animal parts.

Religious beliefs

Religion played a central role in all three civilisations across the Mediterranean world. The ancient Egyptians, Greeks and Romans all had complex religious belief systems. They worshipped multiple gods whom they believed were responsible for things such as the weather, love, health, the harvest, natural disasters and the outcomes of wars.

Source 8 Religious beliefs of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
Religion dominated society and the pharaoh was seen as a deity (god). Priests and priestesses were at the top of the social hierarchy. Deities were used to explain the forces of nature. Many of the most famous features of ancient Egypt, such as pyramids and mummies, were the result of religious practices connected with death.	Ancient Greek religion involved many deities. Myths and legends about the gods and goddesses were used to explain the world. Religion was important but, unlike Egyptian pharaohs, the head of the government was not a religious figure. Religious beliefs influenced many aspects of Greek culture, including architecture and even the Olympic Games.	The Romans worshipped many gods, and most were adapted from Greek deities. Romans also incorporated deities from civilisations they conquered, such as the Persian god Mithras and the Egyptian goddess Isis. Christianity spread to Rome and, despite 300 years of brutal persecution, by 394 BC Christianity had become its official religion.



Source 9 The Egyptian pharaoh Rameses II fighting his enemies, carved into a wall at Abu Simbel

Conflicts

Wars with other societies and conflicts within their own societies had consequences for all the Mediterranean civilisations.

Source 10 Conflicts involving the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
In its early years, Egypt was a peaceful society, but by 1550 BC it had built up a very powerful army, which included foot soldiers and charioteers. The pharaoh used the army to protect Egypt from attack, and various pharaohs also used the military to expand Egypt's territory and influence events in the region.	Greek city-states often fought against one another. A long period of wars between Greek states ruined much of Greece's farmland and weakened the city-states. Eventually, the king of Macedon, Philip II, conquered all of Greece's city-states. His son, Alexander the Great, maintained control of the region and also conquered Egypt in 332 BC.	Rome controlled a powerful army. Military service was an important part of life for most citizens and was crucial to expanding and defending the empire. Through wars with neighbouring societies, Rome expanded its empire around the Mediterranean Sea. It conquered both Greece and Egypt, making these lands part of the Roman Empire.

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Identify three features common to all Mediterranean societies in the ancient world.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Use a Venn diagram to show some of the similarities and differences between the form of government in Athens in the sixth century BC and the form of government in Rome before its rule by emperors.

3 Use a concept map to summarise the ways religious beliefs have influenced behaviours and practices in ancient Mediterranean civilisations.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Create a mind map of conflicts and conquests in the ancient Mediterranean world.

0.2 LEGACIES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

Ancient societies across the Mediterranean world have heavily influenced the development of modern-day societies. Many of these influences were brutal and immediate (such as war and invasion), while others were took place over generations (such as the adoption of language and beliefs). Today, the **legacies** of ancient Mediterranean civilisations can be seen in almost all aspects of our daily life.

legacy
something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, a way of doing something)

Belief systems

A number of the world's largest and most influential religions and belief systems – including Judaism, Christianity and Islam – have links to the Mediterranean world. Christianity, for example, had its beginnings in the Middle East, and then became an official religion in Rome. The Roman Empire was also central to the spread of Christianity. Today, the Pope, who is the head of the Catholic Church, is still based in Rome.

Government

A major legacy of the ancient world is **democracy**, which developed in ancient Greece. Many countries (including Australia) have adopted democracy as their system of government. Some things have changed about the way it works, but its central ideas continue.

democracy
a political system based on the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed

Science, mathematics, medicine and philosophy

Many ideas from ancient Greece and Rome are still influential today. We still use Archimedes' mathematical formulas, and the writing of Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle continue to influence our thinking. The ancient Egyptians employed complex mathematics in their architecture, and understood decimals, fractions and geometry. They also had relatively advanced medicine. The ancient Greeks learned a lot about medicine from the Egyptians, such as the use of hot knives during surgery to seal blood vessels.

Sports and the arts

Many forms of modern entertainment also originated in the ancient Mediterranean world, such as sport and theatre. Western drama has its origins in ancient Greece, and its auditoriums were a model for modern concert halls and movie theatres. Our modern Olympic Games had their beginnings in ancient Greece nearly 3000 years ago. The massive sports stadiums of today are designed using the same planning concepts that inspired the Colosseum in ancient Rome.



Source 11 The Colosseum in Rome

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Which legacy of the Mediterranean world do you think is the most important? Write a persuasive text giving reasons for your view.



Source 1 The pyramids and the Sphinx, built by the ancient Egyptians, are among the most famous sights in the world.

2

ANCIENT EGYPT

The history of ancient Egypt has long fascinated people all over the world. As a result, most people know something about it, whether it is knowledge about the Nile, the pyramids, the Sphinx, mummification or the pharaohs.

Ancient Egypt was one of the world's oldest civilisations, lasting for thousands of years. Egyptologists (archaeologists who specialise in the study of ancient Egypt) divide its history into a series of time periods, allowing for an understanding of chronology. Evidence of continuity exists when strong, central governments controlled Egypt; at other times, change took place when society broke down and went into decline. Ancient Egypt finally became part of Alexander the Great's empire, and later an important province of the Roman Empire. The magnificent monuments and temples that remain are a part of our world's heritage. The legacy and significance of ancient Egypt also lives on in the ideas that influenced other ancient societies.



HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT? 2A

In this section you will:

» describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt

» explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society.

CHECKPOINT 2A

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED? 2B

In this section you will:

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt

» outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

» describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves.

CHECKPOINT 2B

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE? 2C

In this section you will:

» explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

CASE STUDY: CONSTRUCTION OF THE GREAT PYRAMID

CHECKPOINT 2C

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES? 2D

In this section you will:

» assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt

» identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world

» describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

» explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies

» explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians.

CHECKPOINT 2D

ANCIENT EGYPT – A TIMELINE



Source 2 The Djoser pyramid is the oldest building in the world made from cut blocks.

TIMELINE

c. 8000 BC
The earliest settlements appear along the Nile.

c. 5200 BC
Evidence exists of first farming communities.

c. 3200 BC
Evidence exists of first hieroglyphs (an ancient form of writing).

c. 3100 BC
Upper and Lower Egypt are unified.

c. 2650 BC
The first stone pyramid is built by the pharaoh Djoser.

c. 2550 BC
The Great Pyramid is built over a 20-year period at Giza.

c. 2180 BC
The Old Kingdom falls for environmental and political reasons.

c. 2100 BC
The Book of the Dead begins to be used in funeral ceremonies.

8000 | 5000 | 3500 | 3000 | 2500 | 20

Predynastic Period 8000–2700

Old Kingdom 2686–2180

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Use the timeline to place the following events in chronological order.
- Alexander the Great occupies Egypt.
- The Hyksos kings rule.
- Mentuhotep II rules.
- The first pyramid is built.
- Rameses II claims victory over the Hittites at the Battle of Kadesh.

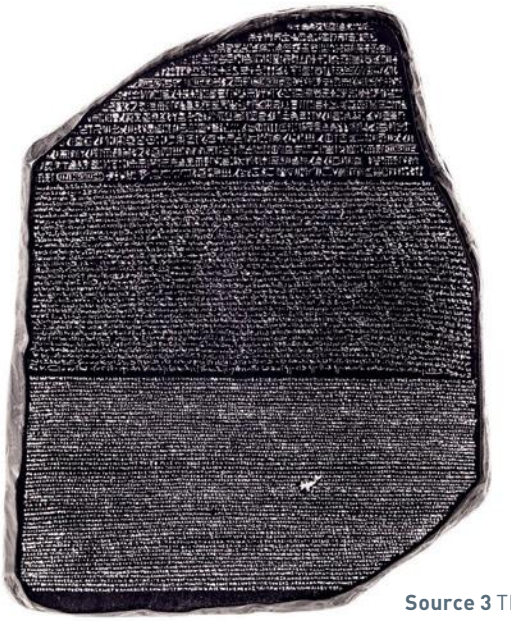
APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Use the timeline to identify three examples of religious practice in ancient Egypt.

3 Look at the events in *c.* 1473 BC and *c.* 1352 BC. What conclusions can be made about political life in the New Kingdom?

4 Use the timeline to identify evidence of expansion or contact with other cultures.

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Source 3 The Rosetta Stone

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

This timeline shows that there are many different layers of history within ancient Egypt. It is important to understand the unique features within the different kingdoms.

c. 2055 BC
Egypt is ruled from separate capitals in the south and the north. Egypt is restored as a single kingdom under Mentuhotep II.

c. 1730 BC
The Middle Kingdom ends.

c. 1630–1523 BC
The Hyksos kings rule in the north, during a period when Egypt is again split into separate kingdoms.

c. 1550 BC
Egypt is reunified as a single kingdom under Thutmose III.

c. 1473 BC
A woman, Hatshepsut, becomes pharaoh.

c. 1352 BC
The reign of Akhenaten begins; his main wife and possible successor was Nefertiti.

c. 1333 BC
Tutankhamun becomes pharaoh, aged 8 or 9.

c. 1290–1279 BC
Seti I reigns.

c. 1279 BC
Rameses II (also known as Rameses the Great) becomes pharaoh.

c. 1275 BC
Battle of Kadesh; pharaoh Rameses II claims a great victory over the neighbouring Hittites, a rival empire to the north of Egypt.

c. 1213 BC
Pharaoh Rameses II dies.

c. 716 BC
Egypt is invaded by the Nubians (a rival civilisation to the south).

c. 404 BC
A brief period of Egyptian independence starts.

c. 332 BC
Egypt is made part of the empire of Alexander the Great.

c. 196 BC
The Rosetta Stone is created.

c. 30 BC
Cleopatra, the last pharaoh of Egypt, commits suicide and Egypt becomes a province of the Roman Empire.

1500 1000 500 BC AD

Middle Kingdom 2055–1730
New Kingdom 1550–1069
Late Dynastic Period 750–332
Greco-Roman Period 332–30



Source 4 A sculpture of Akhenaten and Nefertiti



Source 5 A stone relief in the Abu Simbel temple, showing Rameses II on the attack at the Battle of Kadesh

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2A HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

2.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society.

delta
a fertile area of land that forms at the mouth of a river

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

society
a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

Egypt is located in north-east Africa, in an area surrounded by deserts and with coastlines on the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. Egypt is famous for its Nile River, which runs through its entire length, draining to the north into the Mediterranean Sea. The Greek historian Herodotus visited Egypt around 450 BC and described it as 'the gift of the Nile'. The Nile River's fertile **delta** provided the food and other resources needed for the Egyptian people to survive and prosper. The Mediterranean Sea gave Egypt access to Europe and profitable trade markets. Egypt also had access to land routes in what became known as the **Silk Roads**, so they were influenced by cultures from the east.

In 1959, the German scholar Karl Wittfogel developed a theory that explained the origins of Egypt and other ancient **societies**. In each case, the ancient societies owed their existence to a river.

- Egyptian society developed along the Nile River.
- Chinese society began in the valley of the Huang He (Yellow) River.
- Early communities in India appeared along the Indus River.
- Early civilisations in the Middle East were centred on the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

Source 1 The city of Aswan, in modern-day Egypt, is located on the banks of the Nile River. The boats and houses are modern, but this Nile scene is much as it would have been in ancient times.



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According to this theory (called the **hydraulic theory**), the river ensured a reliable supply of water, fertile soil, and a means of transport at a time when it was quicker and easier to travel by boat. An interesting perspective provided by Professor Peter Frankopan at Oxford University is that none of these civilisations emerged in complete isolation but were connected through trade, ideas and religion via the Silk Roads.

hydraulic theory
a theory that tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of their closeness to sources of water (e.g. rivers)



Source 2 Faiyum, the site of Egypt's earliest known farming settlement, is largely desert today.

In 2008, a team of archaeologists uncovered **evidence** of domesticated animals and crops in the Faiyum region, 80 kilometres from Cairo. **Radiocarbon dating** carried out on grain found in ancient storage pits indicated that there was farming activity as far back as 5200 BC. This exciting find provided evidence of the earliest known farming settlement in ancient Egypt. The Faiyum discovery means that the origins of ancient Egypt were part of the **Neolithic Revolution**. During this period, humans started to settle on farms, rather than move around in search of food, and populations began to rise.

evidence
the information or clues gathered from a historical source; can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

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

Neolithic Revolution
describes the period when people stopped hunting and gathering food, instead choosing to settle and farm the land; this change resulted in a huge increase in human populations and many cultural advances

The importance of the Nile

The desert environment made the Nile a critical geographical feature of ancient Egypt. It was so essential for the society's survival that the people worshipped it as a god (see Source 3).

Source 3

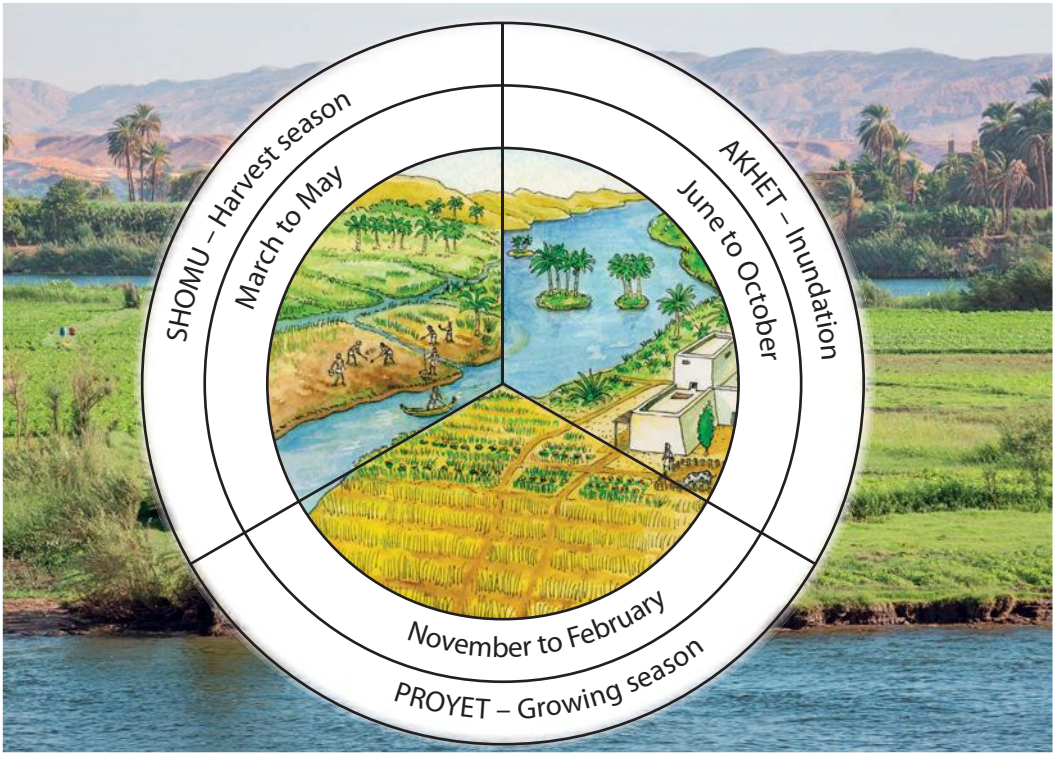
> He [the Nile, seen as the god Hapi] is the creator of all good things, as master of energy, full of sweetness in his choice. If offerings are made it is thanks to Him. He brings forth the herbage [grass] for the flocks, and sees that each god receives his sacrifices ... He spreads himself over Egypt, filling the granaries [grain storehouses] ... watching over the goods of the unhappy.
>
> *From an ancient hymn to the Nile*

tributary
a river or stream that flows into a larger river or lake

Two of the Nile River's main **tributaries**, the Blue Nile and the Atbara River, begin in the highlands of central Africa. Every summer, melting snow and torrential rains from these tributaries gush into the Nile, carrying a load of dark mountain silt that is rich in nutrients. Today, dams (such as the Aswan Dam) catch much of this overflow. In the days of ancient Egypt, the swollen river flowed freely over the river's flood plain.

Inundation, the
the yearly great flooding of the Nile River in Egypt; an inundation is a flood

Each year the Nile River floods in August and September, a time known as the **Inundation**. When the flood waters drop, thick new layers of rich soil are left behind, ensuring good crops in the growing season. Source 4 shows the farming cycle in ancient Egypt, with growing and harvesting seasons that rely on the Inundation. During the period of the Old Kingdom (*c.* 2649–2130 BC), Egypt was known as *kemet* or 'black land', referring to the rich black soil that was renewed each year by the Nile floods.



Source 4 The ancient Egyptian seasons, based on the flooding of the Nile in August and September each year

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with their hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)

scribe
a highly educated person in ancient Egypt who was able to read and write

pyramid
a geometrical shape with triangular sides that slope up to a single point from a square base; in ancient Egypt, stone pyramids were built as royal tombs for pharaohs

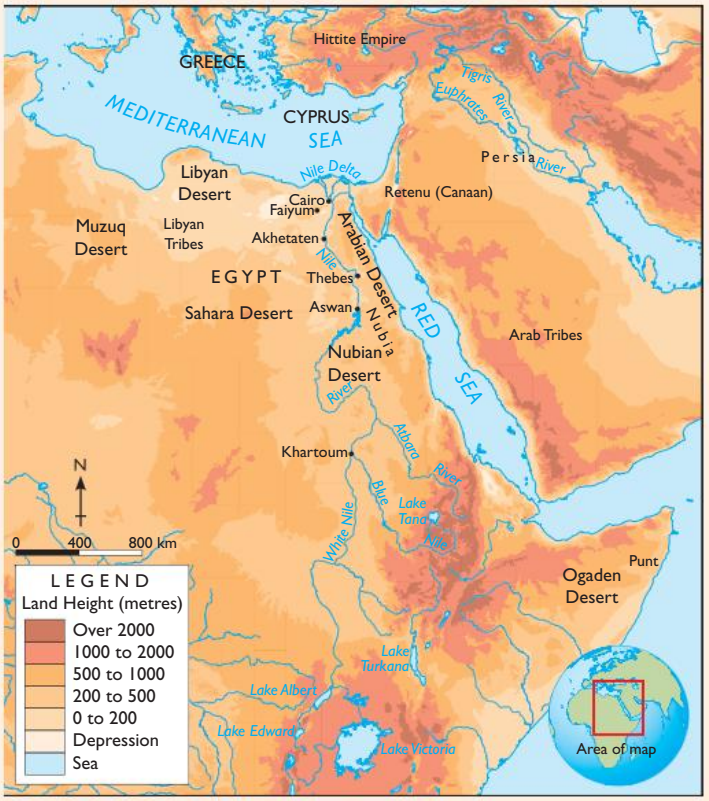
The Nile River was important for ancient Egypt's wealth and power. The rich soil and good crops meant that more people could be spared from the tasks of producing food. New skills could be developed, leading to the emergence of **artisans** and **scribes**. This class of people produced ancient Egypt's scientists, doctors, artists, priests, architects and engineers. The Inundation also meant that farmers, who were unable to work in flooded fields, were freed up for part of the year to fight in the army or work on major projects such as the building of the **pyramids**. They provided the labour force that helped to expand Egypt's wealth and territories, and built the pyramids and monuments that are part of Egypt's heritage today.

The expanses of desert on either side of the Nile, known as *deshret* or 'red land', also meant that early Egyptians lived mostly along the banks of the river. This concentrated population made it easier to organise the people, and was a factor in the creation of the Egyptian state.

Egypt's geographical setting and natural features



Source 5 This satellite view shows the Nile River flowing northwards towards the Mediterranean Sea, through the fertile, fan-shaped Nile Delta.



Source 6 Ancient Egypt with location map

INTERPRET

1 Study Sources 5 and 6. On each, find and identify:
   - **a** the Nile River and its delta
   - **b** the Mediterranean Sea and Red Sea
   - **c** the deserts that surround ancient Egypt.
2 On Source 6, locate the three main tributaries that run into the Nile: the White Nile River, Blue Nile River and Atbara River.
3 What is the height of the land through which the Nile River or its tributaries flows:
   - **a** at Khartoum
   - **b** at Cairo
   - **c** near Lake Tana?
4 What other ancient societies were geographically close to Egypt?
5 Use an atlas to identify the current names of countries in the territories that were once ancient Egypt and its neighbouring civilisations.

Egypt's natural defences

The Nile delta, which is the part of the Nile that splits into a series of smaller rivers before flowing into the Mediterranean Sea, proved to be a natural barrier against invaders from the north. To the east and west, the desert was Egypt's first line of defence against possible enemies.

Egypt's natural resources

Egypt's desert environment was a source of metals and minerals. Copper, gold and iron were extracted from desert mines for use in jewellery, utensils and furniture. Rocks such as granite, sandstone and alabaster were quarried for use in the building of pyramids, statues and temples.

papyrus
a type of paper that the ancient Egyptians made from the crushed pulp of a riverside plant; the plant itself is also known as papyrus

Resources produced in the Nile's fertile 'black lands' included grain, **papyrus** and linen cloth. These resources were used in everyday life and could also be traded for luxury goods such as spices, cedar wood, incense and semi-precious stones. Farmers produced a wide variety of food crops around the Nile, and wildlife around the river was also a plentiful source of food. Desert animals such as gazelles, hares and foxes were hunted for food.

Egypt's access to such resources had an impact on its trade and wealth. It also influenced the materials used to construct its buildings and monuments, and the materials used to make jewellery, utensils, furniture and other artefacts.

Desert animals influenced aspects of Egyptian beliefs as well. Feared desert creatures, such as snakes and scorpions, found their way into magic spells. Some Egyptian gods and goddesses are depicted with characteristics of desert animals. For example, the Egyptian god of death, Anubis, is depicted with a jackal's head. (Jackals feed on dead flesh, and are attracted to places of burial.)

2.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What was the significance of the archaeological find at Faiyum?
2. What is the hydraulic theory and how does it explain the origins of ancient societies?
3. How did Egypt's geographical setting protect it from possible enemies?
4. Explain how Egypt's natural resources influenced:
   - **a** the everyday life of ancient Egyptians
   - **b** ancient Egyptian beliefs.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Conduct research to find out more about the discoveries at Faiyum. Write a short report (200 words) that includes the types of artefacts that have been unearthed, and the methods and techniques used by archaeologists to locate and date these sources of evidence. Make sure you identify the strengths of the discoveries, indicating what they reveal about society, but also the limitations. What information is still missing?
6. If you were living in ancient Egypt, what season would it be now and what activities would farmers be engaged in?

GO DEEPER

7. Ancient Egyptians built structures known as nilometers to help them understand features of the Nile. Conduct research to find out about nilometers. Write a paragraph explaining how they were used and why they were important to ancient Egyptians.
8. Use Google Earth or a digital atlas to explore the Nile River and its delta.
   - **a** Zoom in on the Suez Canal, which links the western upper fork of the Red Sea to the Mediterranean Sea.
   - **b** The canal was opened in 1869, but ancient writers such as Aristotle report that the idea of linking the Mediterranean and Red Seas was considered around 4000 years ago, and was explored at various times in ancient Egypt's history. Why might ancient and modern governments in Egypt have pursued this idea?

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt

1 Describe the three key elements of ancient Egypt's geographical setting. (5 marks)

2 Identify the natural features in and around ancient Egypt. (5 marks)

» Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society

3 Explain the relationship between Egypt's natural features and the origins of human settlement in Egypt. (10 marks)

4 Explain how Egypt's geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Egyptian society developed in ancient times. (10 marks)

Total marks [/30]

2A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills



2B HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

2.2 LIFE ON THE NILE RIVER

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt.**

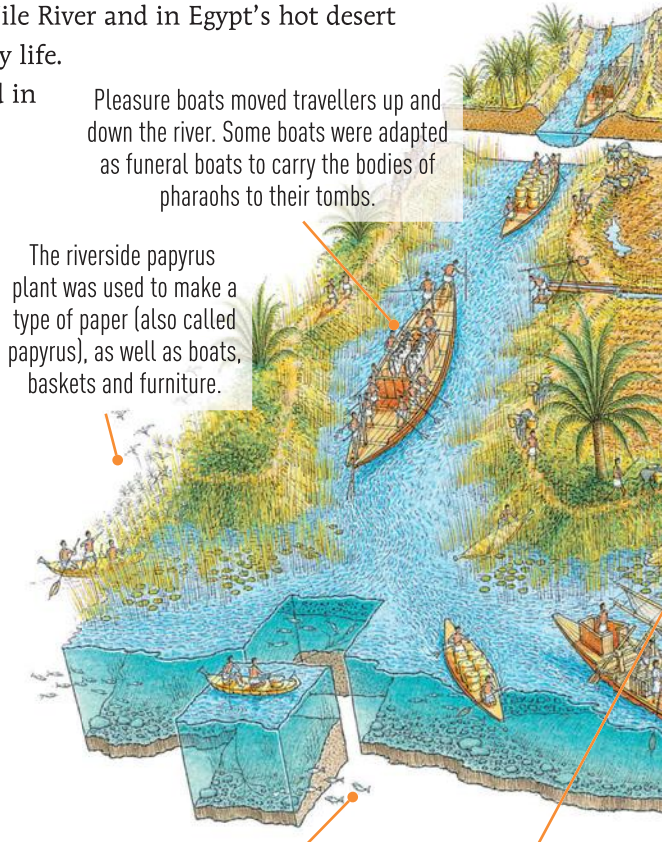
SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The Nile River was the source of life in ancient Egypt. This caused the development of civilisation along its banks. The annual flooding resulted in fertile soil, allowing for rich agricultural production.

The Nile River was the focal point of Egyptian life. Source 1 is an artist's impression of life along a section of the Nile

In a society that lasted thousands of years, there were many different ways of life. However, historians are able to make some generalisations about daily life in ancient Egypt, based on written evidence and archaeological sources such as tomb paintings. In this topic we will explore how life along the Nile River and in Egypt's hot desert environment influenced many aspects of everyday life. We also look at the class structure that developed in ancient Egypt, with its clear roles and social responsibilities.



2.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Study Source 1. Describe the features in detail. Draw conclusions about ancient Egyptian society from what you have seen. Outline what more you want to know.

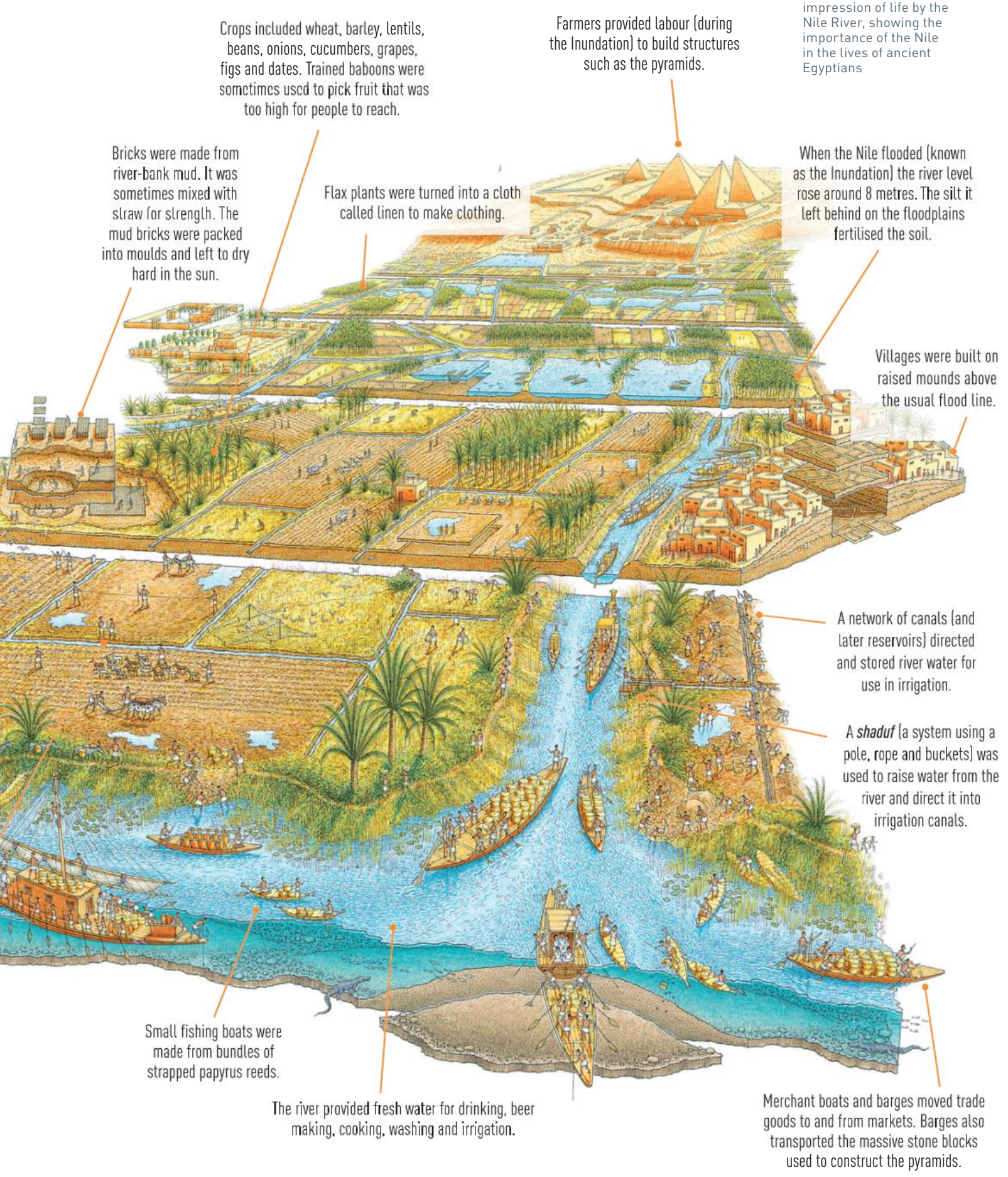
2 The Inundation was an important event in the lives of the people of ancient Egypt.
   - **a** What was the Inundation and how did it influence Egyptian society?
   - **b** List the precautions the Egyptians took to control the Inundation.
   - **c** List the different kinds of crops the Egyptians grew, and other sources of food.
   - **d** Aside from the Inundation, what were some of the other dangers associated with life on and near the river?
   - **e** What did the Egyptians do to help make their houses safer during bigger-than-usual floods?

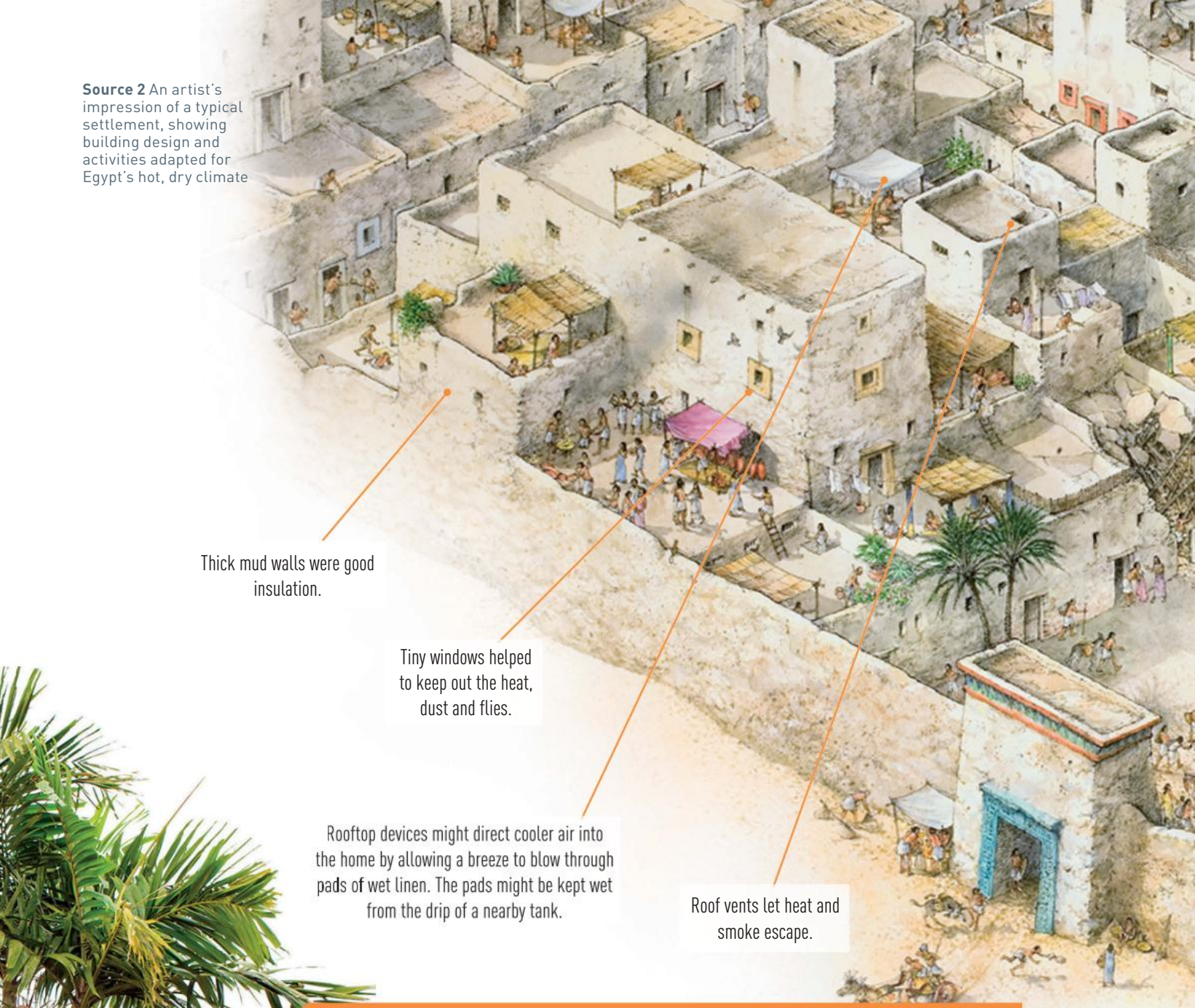
APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Explain how the kind of life shown in Source 1 needed a strong, centralised government. Could the pyramids, the canals or the irrigation systems have been built by small groups? Why or why not?

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Source 1 An artist's impression of life by the Nile River, showing the importance of the Nile in the lives of ancient Egyptians





Source 2 An artist's impression of a typical settlement, showing building design and activities adapted for Egypt's hot, dry climate

2.3 LIFE IN A HOT CLIMATE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Eygpt.**

Egypt's hot desert environment influenced aspects of daily life such as where people lived, what they wore and how they spent their time.

Egyptian housing

The ancient Egyptians lived in a hot, dry climate. Source 2 shows how Egyptian houses were designed to keep their occupants cool. Houses were made from mud bricks and were multi-storeyed to provide cooler, insulated rooms on the lower storey. Meals were cooked outside and people often slept outside to escape the heat.


Meals were prepared outside – often in a courtyard or on rooftops – so that the smoke and heat from cooking could escape.
Palm trees provided some shade.
The lower room of a two-storey house (if there were multi-storey homes) was insulated by the rooms above it.
Most buildings were whitewashed with a lime solution to reflect the heat.
Houses were made from dried mud bricks. Only important buildings such as temples were built from stone.
Floors were made from packed earth or, sometimes, tiles; both these surfaces would be cool to the touch.
People often slept on the roof at night to stay cool.

Egyptian clothing

Clothing worn by ancient Egyptians was usually light-coloured to suit the hot, dry climate. Men were often bare-chested and children were usually naked. Tunics and dresses were made from linen, a fabric made from the flax plants that grew along the Nile. The linen made for wealthy Egyptians was very fine and see-through, as shown in the Source 3 image of Nefertari.

Men and women shaved their heads to keep cool, so they wore wigs when not at home. On special occasions, a cone of solid, perfumed fat could be worn on top of the wig, as shown in Source 4. The fat would melt in the heat so that a sweet-smelling, cooling liquid dripped down the wearer's face and upper body. Most people went barefoot, or wore sandals made from papyrus or leather.

2.3 SOURCE STUDY

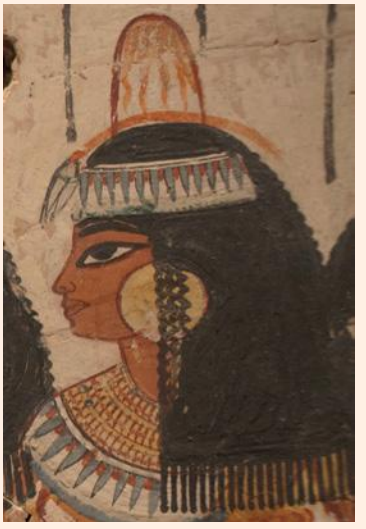
Keeping cool, Egyptian style

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The desert sand, dust and glare meant that eye infections were a common ailment in ancient Egypt. Ancient papyrus texts tell of treatments that involved rubbing ointments on the eyes of affected people. Some of these ointments were made from bat's blood, while others were a combination of mashed human brain and honey.



Source 3 A tomb painting of Nefertari (1290–1254 BC), who is shown wearing a tunic made of fine linen, worn to keep cool



Source 4 Detail from an ancient tomb painting showing a woman wearing a cone of cooling fat on top of her wig



Source 5 Papyrus sandals like these kept feet cool and protected them from the hot ground.

INTERPRET

Read the text and study Sources 3 to 5 to answer the following questions.

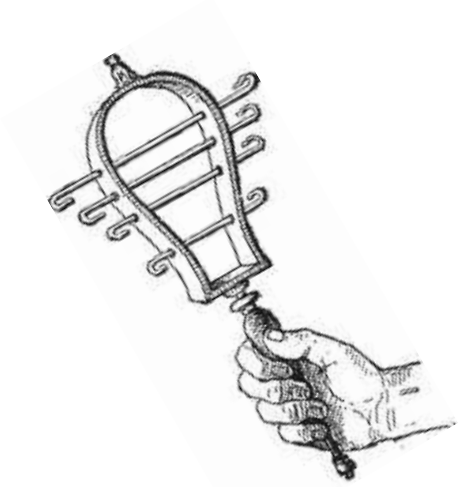
1. Do you think that the woman in Source 3 was wealthy? Give three reasons to justify your answer.
2. What are the limitations of these sources for understanding women in Egyptian society? Consider whether they represent all women, or only the wealthy or important women.
3. What are the strengths of these sources for historians studying the way ancient Egyptians lived in a hot climate?

Leisure activities

Most of the evidence in tomb paintings and reliefs shows the activities of wealthy Egyptians. However, we also know that some outdoor activities were common for both rich and poor. Egyptian leisure activities included hunting, sailing, swimming and fishing along the Nile.

Music and board games were also popular. Senet, a similar game to backgammon, but using casting sticks rather than dice, was enjoyed by all (Source 3 shows Nefertari playing the game). Egyptian musical instruments included harps, drums, tambourines, bells, lutes and ***sistra*** (see Source 6).

sistra
metal musical instruments in ancient Egypt that rattled when shaken



Source 6 An old engraving of a *sistrum*; *sistra* were shaken to make a clanging sound as the moving metal parts banged into each other. People of ancient Egypt believed the sounds kept away evil spirits.



Source 7 A wall painting from the Tomb of Menna shows Menna (the main figure on the left, with a damaged face) and members of his family hunting birds in the marshes. He holds a throwing stick to strike the birds, and grasps two waterfowl that were possibly used as bait.

2.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

Look carefully at Source 2 and answer the following questions.

1. Where did people often cook and sleep? Why?
2. Why were walls whitewashed?
3. What building materials have been used in this settlement?
4. What does the source reveal about Egyptian society? In your answer, consider technology (such as construction materials and techniques), climate and living conditions.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. List the different ways we keep cool in Australia.
6. Create a Venn diagram to compare similarities and differences between your list from question 5 and the housing design, clothing and lifestyle that people of ancient Egypt developed for their climate.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7. Create a concept map to summarise how the ancient Egyptians kept cool in a desert environment, including aspects such as housing, clothing and leisure.
8. Do you think this was the same for rich and poor people in society? Give reasons to support your argument.

GO DEEPER

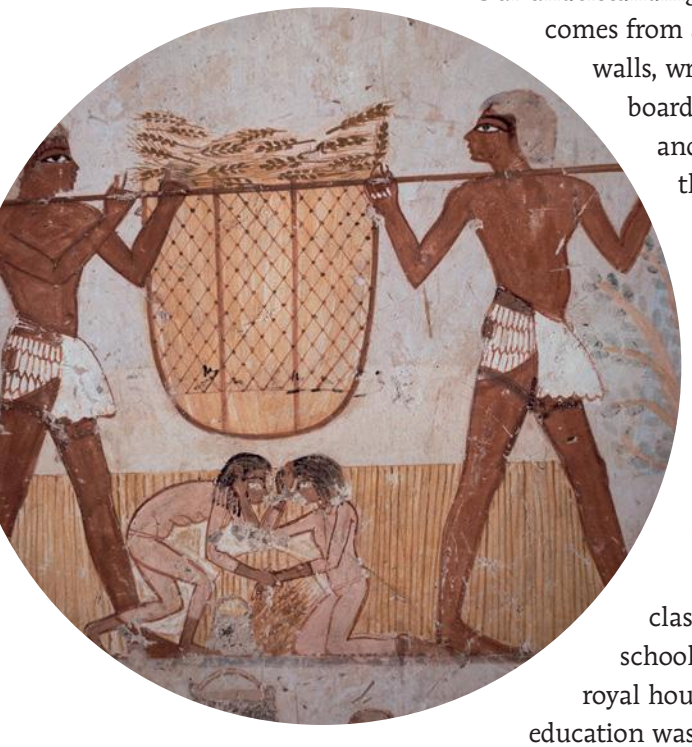
9. Research '*sistra* and religion'. What particular religious cults in Egypt were known for using *sistra*? Create an infographic highlighting key features of the beliefs and practices of these cults.

2.4 GROWING UP IN ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt.



Source 8 Detail from a painting in the Tomb of Menna in Thebes showing girls fighting or wrestling during the wheat harvest

Our understanding of the upbringing and education of children in ancient Egypt comes from a range of sources, such as the images that survive on tomb walls, written texts and artefacts that have been found (such as toys and board games). Egyptian children played ball games, juggled, kept pets and played with dolls. Boys would participate in various sports; there are scenes of acrobatics, a kind of tug-of-war, tumbling, wrestling and group balancing acts. The girls are often shown dancing. Boys and girls are rarely shown playing together. This suggests that they were educated in very different ways and for very different roles.

When it came to formal education, only a handful of the boys and very few girls attended school. Young boys and girls learned their future roles in life by watching and working with their parents and older relatives around the home, and in the fields and workplaces.

Literacy was the mark of the professions and the ruling class, and the sons of the ruling class went to school. Even though schooling was normally reserved for boys, some Egyptian women from royal households were literate. As in other societies, in ancient Egypt education was the key to both wealth and power.

literacy
the ability to read and write

Schooling during the Middle Kingdom

Ancient Egyptian civilisation existed continuously for thousands of years, and the ways in which things were done, such as schooling, changed over time. At the time of the Old Kingdom, for example, boys seem to have been educated by their fathers. It was not until much later, during the Middle Kingdom (2040–1782 BC), that schools as we think of them today started to appear. In fact, it was only during this period that we find the first use of the Egyptian word for school, which translated as 'house of instruction'.

More written evidence is available about schooling during the time of the New Kingdom (1550–1069 BC).

- School began for boys between the ages of 5 and 10.
- Parents decided when they thought their children were ready for school.
- Girls rarely went to school.
- The main subjects taught were reading, writing and arithmetic.
- Teachers were encouraged to use physical punishment as part of teaching; one old Egyptian expression was 'a boy hears when he is beaten'.
- Schooling involved a great deal of rote learning or memorising of many old texts.
- There was no provision for physical education or sport of any kind.

2.4 SOURCE STUDY

Education in ancient Egypt



Source 9 A relief depicting scribes at work, from the Tomb of Horemheb, *c.* 1300 BC



Source 10 A pupil's wooden tablet from the Middle Kingdom

INTERPRET

1. Describe the scene shown in Source 9. What does it tell you about the life of an educated person in ancient Egypt?
2. What evidence in the image suggests that Horemheb lived after the Old Kingdom?
3. Source 10 shows a wooden tablet that students would use to practise their writing. The tablet would be covered with a layer of plaster that could be wiped off. Why do you think that young students would write on a wooden tablet (or shard of pottery) rather than papyrus?

2.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What sources of evidence are available about the activities and education of children in ancient Egypt?
2. Much of the evidence we have about leisure and education comes from large tombs belonging to wealthy or important people. Which groups in society might not be represented by this evidence?
3. What factors influenced a child's level of education in ancient Egypt?

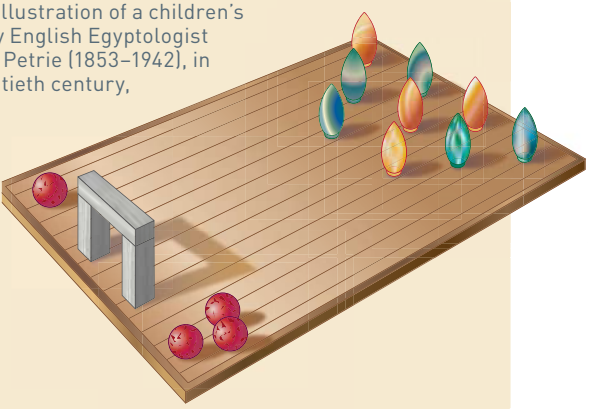
APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Being educated and having a role as a scribe was highly desirable. What does this tell us about Egyptian society?
5. Students in ancient Egypt were required to memorise a lot of material. Suggest why this might have been the case.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. An archaeologist discovered pieces of a game in a child's grave in ancient Egypt, with the pieces found loose in the earth. Source 11 is an illustration based on his sketch, showing his hypothesis of how the pieces would have been arranged as a form of skittles, where the balls are driven through the wooden gate. Either:
   - make a model of the game as presented and play the game

   or:
   - make your own hypothesis using the same pieces. Sketch your arrangement of the pieces, and outline the aim and rules of the game.



Source 11 An illustration of a children's game found by English Egyptologist W.M. Flinders Petrie (1853–1942), in the early twentieth century, in Egypt

2.5 THE POWER OF THE PHARAOHS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion.

pharaoh
the leader of ancient Egypt who was believed to be a god; the pharaoh had absolute power and total control

monarchy
rule by a king or queen

theocracy
a system of rule in which the ruler's authority was based on religious beliefs

The head of Egyptian society was the **pharaoh**, who was believed to be both a king and a god in human form. Most pharaohs were men. The pharaoh was the ultimate authority in Egypt. The basis of the pharaoh's power was his wealth, the strength and loyalty of his army, and the fact that he was seen as a god, or at least the earthly representative of the Egyptian god Horus. This means that the Egyptian system of government was a **monarchy** and a **theocracy**.



1. A crown symbolised the pharaoh's position as ruler. Its design is a combination of the white crown of Upper Egypt and the red crown of Lower Egypt that merged to form a united Egypt.
2. A uraeus (gold headpiece shaped like an upright cobra) symbolised magical powers and a readiness to strike.
3. A false beard made from goat's hair symbolised the pharaoh's status as a god.
4. A heavy jewelled collar symbolised great wealth.
5. A flail (whip) symbolised total authority.
6. A crook symbolised the pharaoh's role as a shepherd of the people.
7. An animal tail (usually from a bull) symbolised strength and fertility.

Source 12 An artist's impression of a pharaoh and his symbols of power



Source 13 An ancient carving of Hatshepsut, the woman who became pharaoh *c.* 1473

The pharaoh's duty was to ensure law and order, and to protect the people from foreign enemies and natural disasters. The two most common natural disasters that threatened Egypt were floods and droughts. This meant that to keep the confidence of his people, the pharaoh had to make sure that the army was strong and ensure the safety of the people by building and maintaining dams along the river. This gave protection from flooding, as well as an irrigation system that provided water during dry seasons.

The laws of Egypt were made by the pharaoh by royal decree (order) and enforced by his soldiers and officials. The pharaoh also made decisions about taxation.

The people of ancient Egypt did not use the term 'pharaoh' when referring to their kings or queens. The word 'pharaoh' comes from the Greek language, based on the Egyptian words *per aa* meaning 'great house'. Pharaohs in ancient Egypt often dressed in ceremonial costumes and carried important objects that symbolised their power and position in society. Source 12 shows a number of these items.

Source 14 Responsibilities of the pharaoh

Earthly responsibilities (shaped by the law)	Divine responsibilities (shaped by religion)
The pharaoh was responsible for: • directing the government • commanding the army and leading them into battle • protecting the people and keeping peace and order • making all laws, and sometimes making decisions in the courts • managing building, mining, trade and irrigation.	The pharaoh was responsible for: • acting as chief priest • keeping the gods happy so the Nile flooded every year and harvests were plentiful • choosing priests • overseeing religious ceremonies and festivals • building temples to honour the gods • performing religious duties.

Narmer (Menes)

Narmer, who lived around 3150 to 3100 BC, is also known as Menes. He was the first pharaoh to unify the upper and lower kingdoms of ancient Egypt. This was an important step because he brought all the resources of the state under his strong central rule. Narmer extended the system of canals that spread out from the Nile. This did two important things.

- It extended the amount of land under irrigation.
- It meant that when the Nile flooded, the flood waters carrying the new rich soil spread further, adding to the total area of good farmland and enabling Egypt to grow even more crops and add to its food surpluses.

The Narmer Palette

hieroglyphs
picture-like symbols used in the original writing system of the ancient Egyptians

The Narmer Palette is an engraved stone that was discovered in 1897 and dates from the time of Narmer's rule. It is important because it contains the earliest **hieroglyphic** inscriptions ever found. It has been described by Egyptologist Professor Bob Brier as the oldest document in the world. The palette is 63 centimetres tall and includes images of the pharaoh Narmer. On one side he is wearing the crown of Upper Egypt and on the other, the crown of Lower Egypt. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that it was intended to record the unification of the two kingdoms.

There is ongoing debate among archaeologists and historians about the significance of the palette. The debate is about whether it records an actual event or whether it was an idealised or imagined origin story for the kingdom of Egypt. It is also possible that the sides were carved years apart and by different people. Both the palette and the story of Narmer are examples of issues with the significance and contestability of evidence. It is an example of history as a 'problem-solving discipline'.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The Narmer Palette is significant because even if it is idealised rather than factual, historians can learn that military victories were important to Egyptians at this time, and they can see the image and narrative that Egyptians wanted others to know.



Source 15 The front and back of the Narmer Palette, showing the pharaoh wearing the crown of Upper Egypt (left) and the crown of Lower Egypt (right)

Tutankhamun: the boy pharaoh

Tutankhamun's reign as pharaoh was short. He became pharaoh as a young boy and died when he was only 19. Tutankhamun is significant because his is the only tomb from ancient Egypt that has been found undisturbed by robbers. It was discovered by the English archaeologist Howard Carter in 1922, in the Valley of the Kings. Thousands of artefacts were found along with Tutankhamun's mummified body. These discoveries provided archaeologists with new evidence about Tutankhamun's life as well as the burial practices of ancient Egyptians.



Source 16 The mummy of Tutankhamun



Source 17 The reconstructed head of Tutankhamun



Source 18 The gold mask found fused to Tutankhamun's mummified head and upper body

2.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What was the basis of the pharaoh's power?
2. What is meant by the term 'theocracy'?
3. Outline the pharaoh's responsibilities.
4. Use a table format to summarise what each item shown in Source 12 symbolised about the pharaoh's role.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Tutankhamun died very young and therefore did not reign for long or leave a lasting legacy. Why, then, was the discovery of his tomb such an important event for historians?

GO DEEPER

6. Conduct research on one of ancient Egypt's pharaohs, such as:
   - Akhenaten
   - Khufu
   - Mentuhotep II
   - Amenhotep III
   - Rameses II
   - Hatshepsut
   - Cleopatra.

   Present your research in a PowerPoint presentation or poster, including an image of the pharaoh, a timeline showing the dynastic period in which he or she reigned, the pharaoh's achievements and your assessment of that pharaoh's importance in the ancient world.
7. Theories about how Tutankhamun died have been contested by historians for decades. Conduct research on the different theories that have been put forward, including methods and new technologies used by archaeologists in recent years. Write an exposition to present your views on the question 'How did Tutankhamun die?'

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historical inquiry starts with asking different kinds of questions about the past, drawing on evidence from a range of sources. Planning is essential, as is interrogating the evidence to find gaps in your research.

2.6 ROLES OF KEY GROUPS IN ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves.

hierarchy
a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance

Ancient Egyptian society was organised according to a strict social **hierarchy** – in other words, there were clear social divisions or classes where the people at the top held power over those lower down. Some of these roles were shaped by laws, traditions and religious beliefs, as well as by people's wealth and abilities.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

History is often studied from the perspective of the leaders of the time. By studying different groups in society, we consider the varied experiences of groups and individuals, including women and slaves.

Vizier
I am the pharaoh's second-in-command. I supervise the other officials and judge law-breakers. I also make sure people pay their taxes, in grain or goods. Sometimes people provide their labour as a tax payment.

Nomarch
I govern one of our country's 42 nomes (provinces). I keep the vizier happy by collecting lots of taxes. Like other important and wealthy people, I wear garments made from the finest linen and lots of gold jewellery.



Scribe
I am one of the very few people in Egypt who can read and write. I record the pharaoh's orders and decisions, and help the vizier and the Director of the Seal to keep tax records. I also keep accounts for the army, write letters for local people and prepare inscriptions for tomb walls and sculptures. I hope one day to become a doctor or an architect.



Merchant
I am a trader. I am constantly sailing up and down the Nile with goods from Egypt, such as linen, papyrus, pottery, grain and gold. Goods I bring back from other places include ebony wood, ivory, incense, copper and baboons. Every now and then, I sail north, across the Mediterranean Sea.



Linen workshop supervisor
I was at home for many years raising my seven children. To help out, I made linen from flax. My husband used to trade it in the local market for other things that we needed. I now have a supervisor's job, managing women in a linen workshop.



Slave
I was born in Libya, but was captured as a prisoner of war. Other slaves come from Syria and Nubia. My master uses me as a field hand. Some of the lucky slaves work in the palace of the pharaoh – much better than working in the quarries or mines out in the hot desert.



Source 19 The social hierarchy in ancient Egypt

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about which group in society would have the most freedom.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.



Pharaoh
My main duty is to keep life in balance – on this Earth and beyond. I govern with a large team of officials.



Director of the Seal
I am the treasurer. I manage all the goods (food and other products) that come into the pharaoh's storehouses. Most of these goods are tax payments, but some items are imports from other countries.





Priestess
My husband is a nomarch. In fact, most of my fellow priestesses are married to senior officials – the high priestess in our temple is a daughter of the pharaoh. My main role is to help look after the temple goddess and to sing and play music if the pharaoh visits our temple. I report to the chief priest.



Chief priest
I represent our country's top priest, the pharaoh, and look after the gods. I enter the inner part of the temple where the statue of the god is kept. Each day I wash it, wrap it in clean linen and bring it food. If I didn't do this, bad things would happen. On special days, I take it out to show the people. My priests and I don't wear clothing made from animal products because that would be unclean. We wear only the finest white linen. We shave all our body hair and wash many times each day.



Soldier
I am a soldier. I am very skilled at using a pike (spear). I march on foot but our army also has charioteers. Our army divisions – all named after gods – usually consist of about 5000 men. Often, I fight alongside mercenaries – men from other countries who are paid to fight for us. Many of them come from Nubia. When not at war, I help out by supervising building projects.



Stonemason
I spend my days making stone statues (usually of my pharaoh), carving the blocks used to build temples and pyramids, and engraving the walls of tombs. My father was a stonemason, too, of course. Until she went blind, my mother made wigs from real hair.



Potter
I am a member of the middle class – not too poor, but not too rich either! I give some of the pots I make to the pharaoh as tax payment. Some of my pots are exported to other countries. Most of my friends are craftsmen, too. We learnt our trades from our fathers. Some make jewellery; others make papyrus, boats or furniture. I wish I was smart enough to be a scribe.



Farmer and his wife
Except for slaves, we are at the bottom of the social ladder (along with tomb builders, pig herders and beggars). I grow wheat and barley, and flax used to make linen. My wife here helps me in the field when she can. I work very hard, digging canals for irrigation and preparing the soil. During the Inundation, I often help out with the pharaoh's building work. I pay over half of the grain I produce as tax.

The role of women in ancient Egypt

Egyptian women appear to have had greater equality with men than in many other society in the ancient world. Motherhood was seen as an important role and women had significant financial equality. Women could own businesses and land, as well as testify in court and bring legal actions against men. In many occupations, they received the same pay as men. The most common career for an upper-class Egyptian woman was the priesthood. Men were accepted as the head of the household, and even the power of the rich and aristocratic Egyptian women depended on their male relatives. There were not many female pharaohs, but it was possible for a woman to have the most important position in the Egyptian state.



Source 20 This bust of Cleopatra was created during her time as the last pharaoh of Egypt.

The vast majority of Egyptian women, however, spent their time in the fields and lived out their lives as wives and mothers. Egyptian women generally married as teenagers to men chosen by their parents. Because marriage was often linked to business and control of land, there were times when an Egyptian girl might be expected to marry her own brother to keep wealth in the family. The life expectancy of Egyptian women was thought to be around 40, largely because of the risks associated with childbirth in the ancient world.

Nevertheless, it is hard to ignore the fact that the history of ancient Egypt is full of famous and powerful women, such as Nefertiti, the wife of the pharaoh Akhenaten, who may have been pharaoh for a short time after her husband died; Hatshepsut; and Cleopatra, the last pharaoh of Egypt.

2.6 SOURCE STUDY

Egyptian women



Source 21 Tomb art showing Egyptian women celebrating at a feast

INTERPRET

1 Look at Source 21. Identify the wealthy women and the attending slaves or servants in this image and write a short description of the scene.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

Slaves in ancient Egypt

Slaves became increasingly common from the time of the Middle Kingdom, either captured during battles or traded by slave merchants. The tomb relief in Source 22 provides evidence of slaves captured during a battle with a rival civilisation to the south of Egypt known as Nubia. Slaves worked as labourers, government administrators, and servants for wealthy Egyptians, or served in temples and royal households. The slaves who suffered the most were those sent to mine gold and copper in the desert mines of northern Africa, where a great many died from malnutrition (lack of proper food), overwork and dehydration.

Contrary to popular belief, the pyramids were not built by slave labour. As mentioned earlier, the evidence suggests that the source of labour for building pyramids and other major projects was farmers and other workers who were employed during flood seasons.



Source 22 A stone relief from a tomb showing Nubian slaves, Egyptian guards and Egyptian scribes



SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

When communicating an effective explanation, it's essential to include sources as supporting evidence. Develop a persuasive response so that the audience is convinced that your argument is foolproof.

2.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

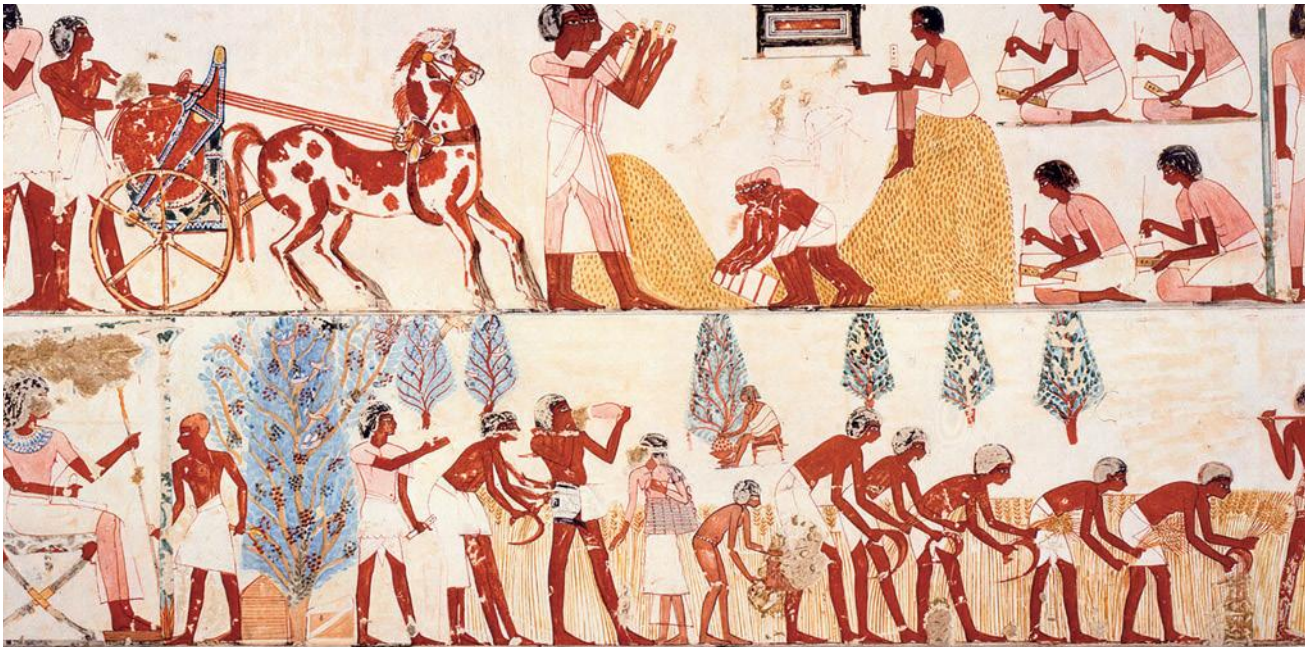
1. Who is at the top of Egyptian society and who is at the very bottom?
2. What are the duties of the chief priest?
3. How was the role of the vizier different from that of a nomarch?
4. List the people who you think were members of the Egyptian middle class.
5. Even though Egyptian women had a great deal of equality with men, there were limits to what they could do. What were they?
6. How could people from other societies become slaves in Egypt?
7. List the type of work that slaves undertook in ancient Egypt.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

8. Using Source 19 as a reference, write a paragraph that describes the structure of ancient Egyptian society.
9. What does this hierarchy reveal about Egyptian society? In your response, consider the importance of religion, the economy and whether or not the social structure was fair.

GO DEEPER

10. Conduct research and write a 250-word biography of one of the famous Egyptian women listed below. In the biography, note how they came to power, list their achievements and make a judgment about their performance as rulers. You will therefore divide your biography into informative and persuasive text. Include two primary sources as supporting evidence.
    - Hatshepsut
    - Nefertiti
    - Twosret
    - Cleopatra VII



Source 23 A painting from the Tomb of Menna showing farming activities: (top) measuring and recording of the processed wheat by scribes; (bottom) harvesting wheat with sickles, with Menna attending at the far left

2B

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt

1 Write a paragraph on each of the following aspects of everyday life in ancient Egypt, to describe the experiences of men, women and children. Consider:

- the role of the Nile in people's lives
- housing, clothing and leisure pursuits
- education. (15 marks)

» Outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

2 Outline the social hierarchy in ancient Egypt, including the key social groups. (10 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves

3 Describe the roles of the pharaoh and explain the importance of the pharaoh. (5 marks)

4 Outline the roles and responsibilities of the pharaohs' officials. (5 marks)

5 In ancient Egypt, what were the roles of:

a women (5 marks)

b slaves? (5 marks)

Total marks [/45]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

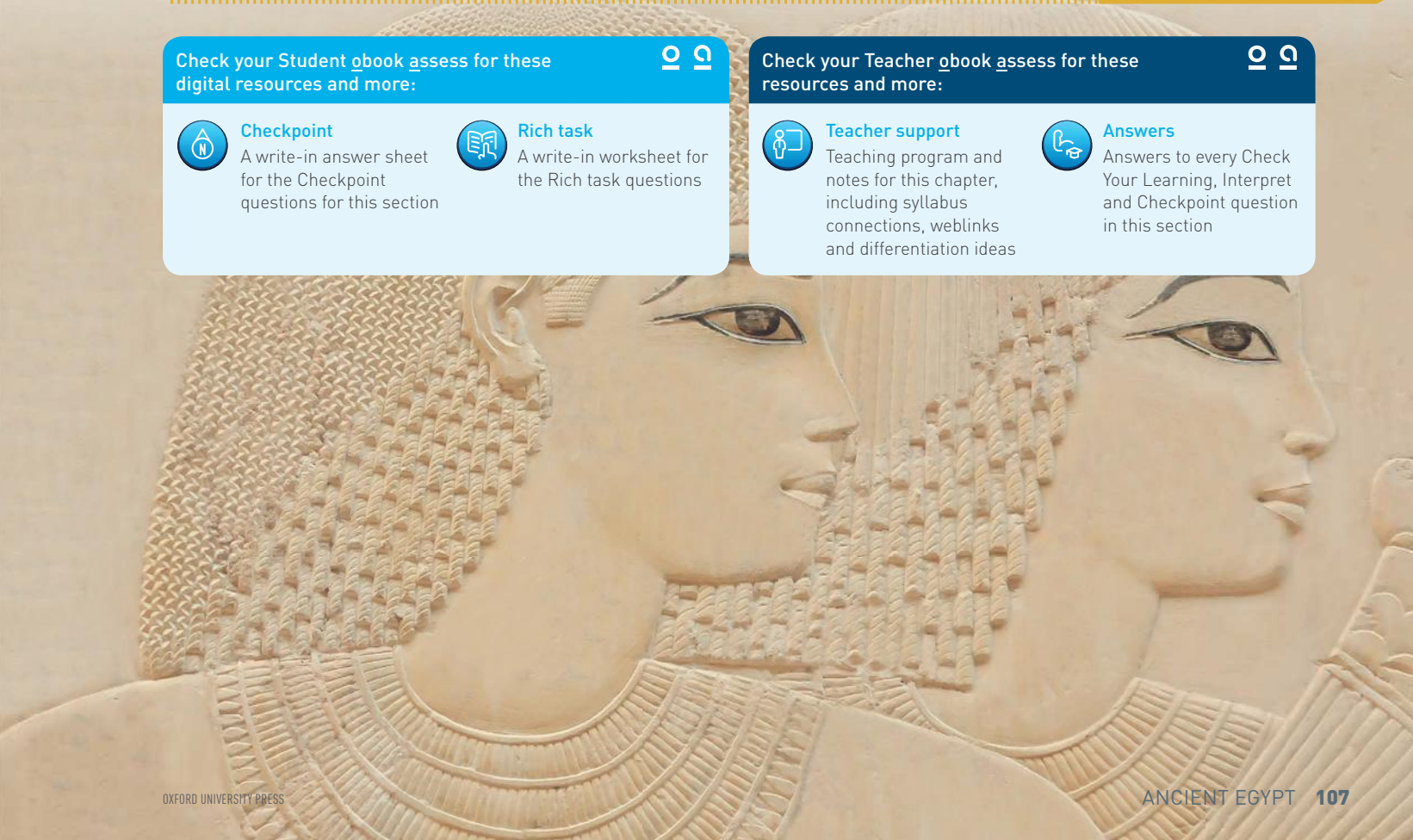
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section



2C WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

2.7 RELIGIOUS BELIEFS IN ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

The people of ancient Egypt believed in gods and goddesses who created the world and controlled the forces of nature. Their religious beliefs influenced their daily lives and affected aspects of Egyptian warfare. They played a central role in ancient Egyptian burial and funerary customs, including **mummification** and the building of the pyramids as tombs for their pharaohs.

The ancient Egyptians were **polytheistic**, meaning that they believed in many different gods and goddesses. Religion dominated the lives of ancient Egyptians. They believed their pharaoh was a living god on Earth and their link to the spirit world.

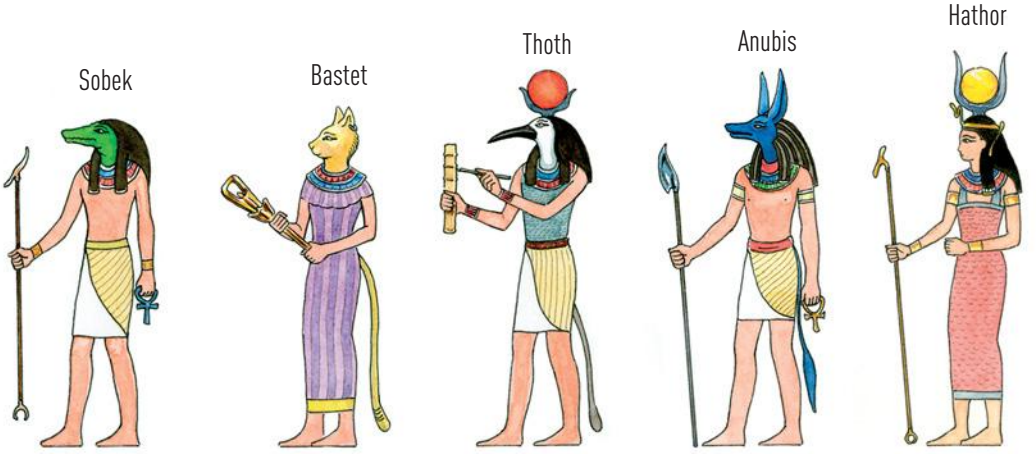
mummification
the process of preserving a dead body by preventing its natural decay; a body was mummified by removing internal organs and drying out the remaining body tissue

polytheism
a belief in many gods

Gods and goddesses

Egyptians believed in hundreds of gods and goddesses who controlled almost every aspect of their lives, including fertility, wisdom, love, music and dance, health and childbirth. Gods and goddesses were sometimes depicted as animals in human form, as shown in Source 1. The main god in Egyptian mythology was Ra (or Re), the Sun god. It was thought the Sun was a boat that Ra rowed across the sky each day (see Source 2).

The ancient Egyptians built many temples to honour their gods. In these temples, priests and priestesses served the deities who were believed to live there. They burned incense and made offering to the gods, which often involved the ritual sacrifice of animals.



Source 1 A modern artist's illustration of some of the most popular Egyptian gods

2.7 SOURCE STUDY

The depiction of Egyptian gods



Source 2 This ancient painting shows some of the main gods of ancient Egypt. Ra is the figure in the green boat; a symbol of the Sun is shown on his head. The figure arched over Ra is Nut, the universal mother. The Earth god Geb is stretched underneath her; his angled limbs suggest the mountains and valleys of the land.

Source 3

> In the beginning there was a huge ocean called Nun. Ra, the creator god, let out a deep breath and created his son Shu, the god of the air. From his saliva, he created his daughter Tefnut, the goddess of moisture. He then moved across the water and land appeared. He stood on the land and ordered animal and plant species to come out of the ocean. Later, he created people from his tears.
>
> *From a translated legend of the ancient Egyptians*

INTERPRET

1. What did ancient Egyptians believe, according to the evidence provided by Sources 2 and 3?
2. What is the value of these sources for historians studying religion? Consider the central positioning of Ra, Nut and Geb in Source 2 and the representation of both men and women.
3. What are the limitations of these sources? Consider whether or not all gods have been represented and whether there could be other religious beliefs and rituals that aren't shown here.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Different sources provide contrasting perspectives or insights. As historians, it's important to consider how useful or valuable sources are, but also to think about what evidence is missing.

2.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. List some of the main gods of ancient Egypt.
2. How important was religion to the ancient Egyptians? Think about whether religion extended to every aspect of life (the home, love, natural resources, war) and what this indicates.

GO DEEPER

3. Use digital and other resources to research the deities shown in Source 1. Present your findings in a table format that shows:
   - the deities' names
   - the animals they were linked to and how they were depicted
   - their qualities and what the ancient Egyptians believed they controlled.
4. Monotheistic (single-god) religions are widespread in the world today. As a class, discuss how you think a polytheistic culture would be different from a monotheistic culture.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

We're often fascinated by the Egyptian afterlife beliefs and practices. However, mummification and following strict burial procedures were extremely important to the people of the time.

2.8 BURIAL RITUALS AND BELIEFS ABOUT DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.**

To ancient Egyptians, death was not seen as the end. They believed that those who were worthy would journey to a different existence in the afterlife, so the proper preservation of bodies by mummification and burial rituals were very important. Source 5 shows how bodies were preserved using the process of mummification.

Proper burial rituals were so important that Egyptian soldiers were afraid to die on foreign soil, where their bodies would be left to rot in the open. To avoid this, mercenaries (foreign soldiers paid to fight) were typically used in Egypt's battles away from their territories.

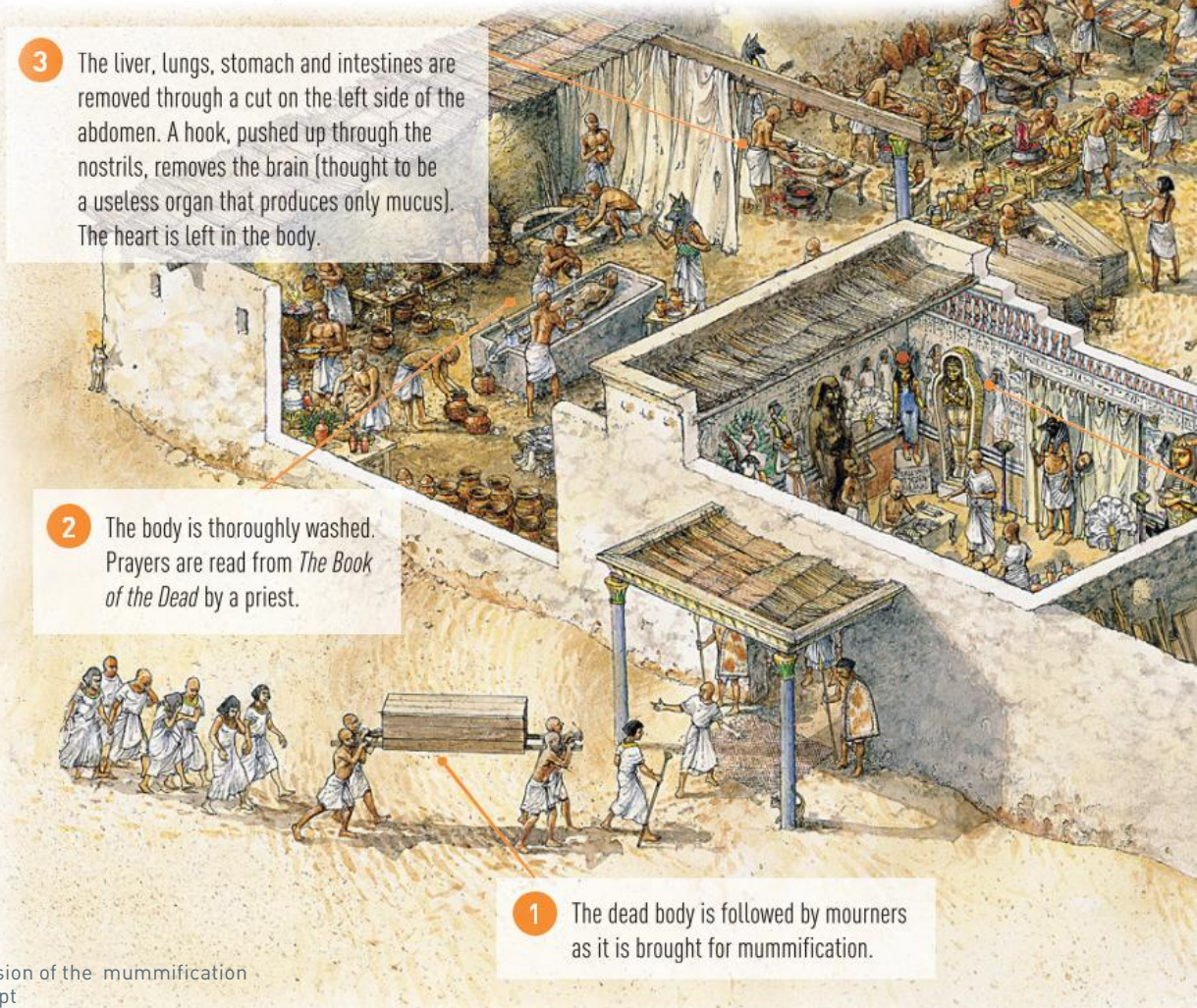
The special prayers and spells needed to protect the dead and allow them to reach the afterlife were documented in *The Book of the Dead*. A copy would be buried with the body so the dead person would have the secret knowledge needed to reach the afterlife. Spells were also carved on tomb walls and inside coffins.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Cats were sacred animals in Egyptian mythology. Egyptians would go into deep mourning when a cat died, shaving their eyebrows to show their loss. Cat mummies and cat cemeteries from ancient times have been found along the Nile River.



Source 4 A mummified cat



Source 5 An artist's impression of the mummification process used in ancient Egypt

2.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain why religion affected so many aspects of the ancient Egyptians' everyday life.
2 Explain why the people of ancient Egypt placed great importance on mummification and other burial rituals.
3 Create a flow chart to summarise the process of mummification.

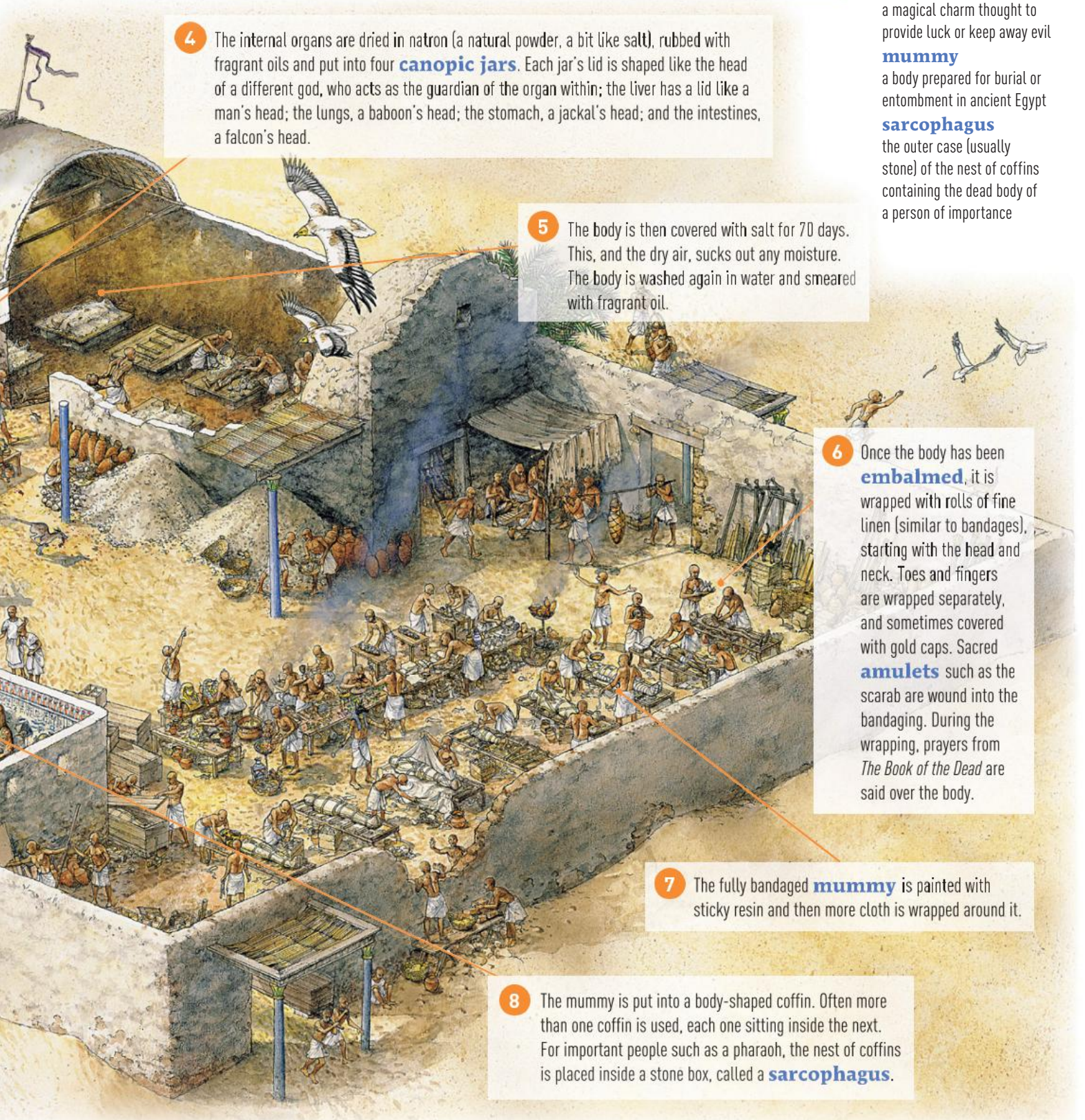
canopic jar
a jar used in ancient Egypt to store body parts removed during the mummification process

embalm
to preserve from decay with spices

amulet
a magical charm thought to provide luck or keep away evil

mummy
a body prepared for burial or entombment in ancient Egypt

sarcophagus
the outer case (usually stone) of the nest of coffins containing the dead body of a person of importance



4 The internal organs are dried in natron (a natural powder, a bit like salt), rubbed with fragrant oils and put into four **canopic jars**. Each jar's lid is shaped like the head of a different god, who acts as the guardian of the organ within; the liver has a lid like a man's head; the lungs, a baboon's head; the stomach, a jackal's head; and the intestines, a falcon's head.

5 The body is then covered with salt for 70 days. This, and the dry air, sucks out any moisture. The body is washed again in water and smeared with fragrant oil.

6 Once the body has been **embalmed**, it is wrapped with rolls of fine linen (similar to bandages), starting with the head and neck. Toes and fingers are wrapped separately, and sometimes covered with gold caps. Sacred **amulets** such as the scarab are wound into the bandaging. During the wrapping, prayers from *The Book of the Dead* are said over the body.

7 The fully bandaged **mummy** is painted with sticky resin and then more cloth is wrapped around it.

8 The mummy is put into a body-shaped coffin. Often more than one coffin is used, each one sitting inside the next. For important people such as a pharaoh, the nest of coffins is placed inside a stone box, called a **sarcophagus**.

2.9 THE PYRAMIDS

KEY CONTENT

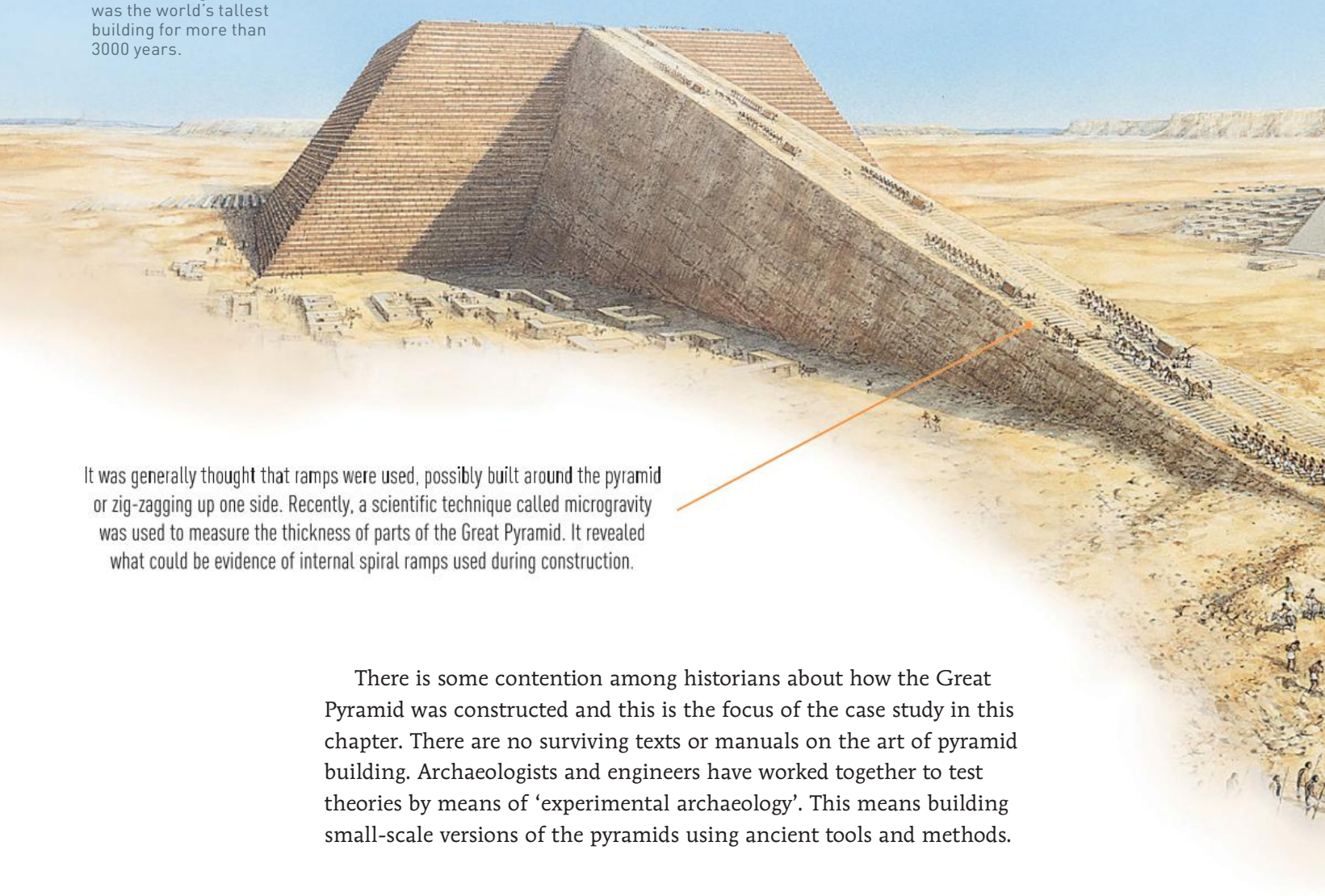
In this topic you will:

- **explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.**

The burial rituals of pharaohs were elaborate, and from the beginning of the Old Kingdom to the end of the Middle Kingdom, pyramids were built as tombs for the pharaohs. More than 160 pyramids have been found. The Great Pyramid at Giza is the only remaining wonder of the ancient world. It was built as the tomb of the pharaoh Khufu over a period of 20 years and completed around 2550 BC (see Source 6).

Entombing the mummified body and artefacts of the pharaoh was meant to ensure they would remain undisturbed for eternity. Barriers were built in the pyramids to stop robbers from stealing the pharaoh's treasures. These included false doors, dead-end passages, very low ceilings, tunnels blocked with rubble or massive rocks, deep pits and the statues of the most-feared gods at doorways. However, tomb robbers became a problem and later pharaohs were buried in tombs that were carved into the hillsides of the Valley of the Kings.

Source 6 An artist's impression of the building of the Great Pyramid at Giza; it was originally over 146 metres high and was the world's tallest building for more than 3000 years.



It was generally thought that ramps were used, possibly built around the pyramid or zig-zagging up one side. Recently, a scientific technique called microgravity was used to measure the thickness of parts of the Great Pyramid. It revealed what could be evidence of internal spiral ramps used during construction.

There is some contention among historians about how the Great Pyramid was constructed and this is the focus of the case study in this chapter. There are no surviving texts or manuals on the art of pyramid building. Archaeologists and engineers have worked together to test theories by means of 'experimental archaeology'. This means building small-scale versions of the pyramids using ancient tools and methods.

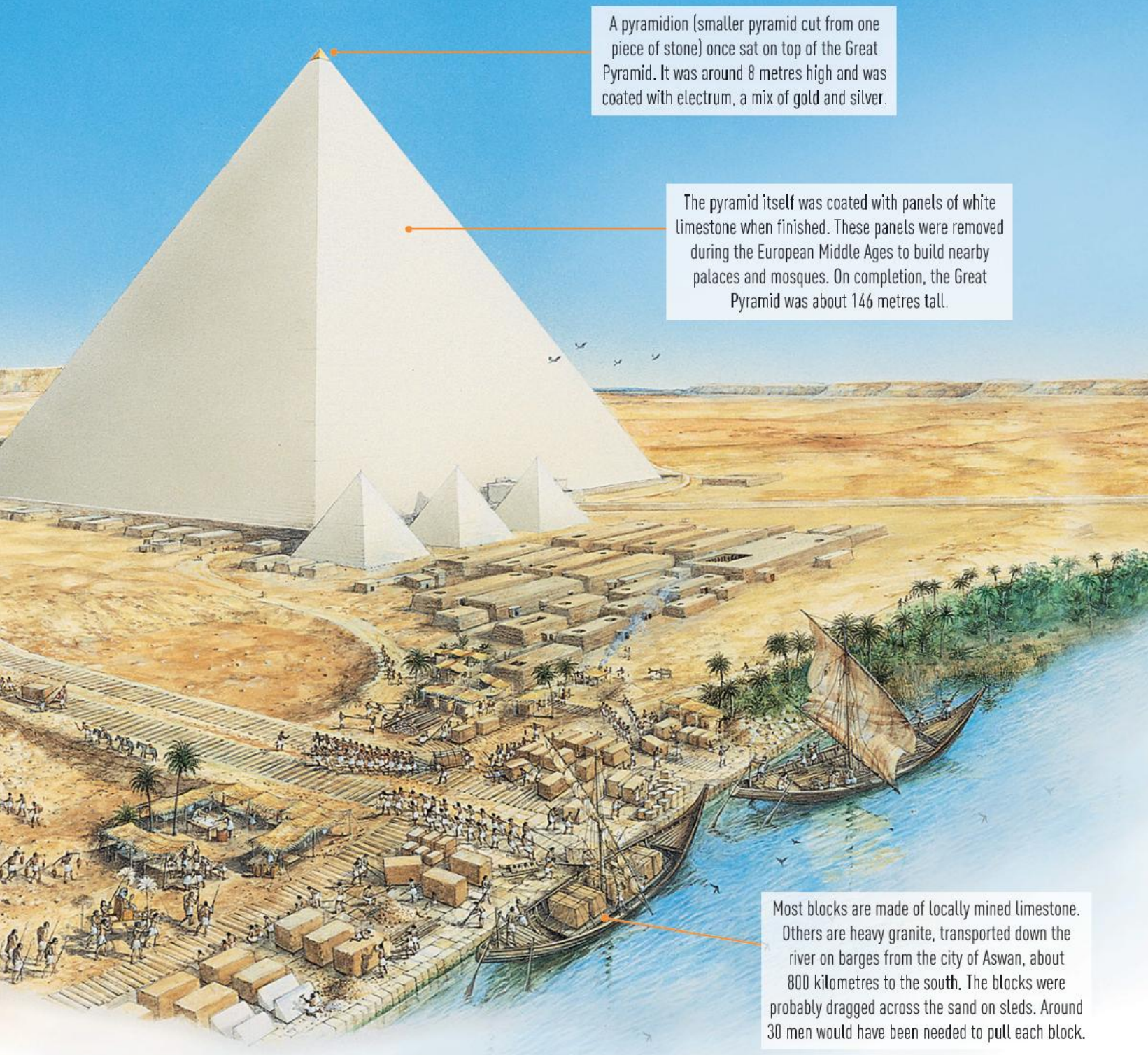
2.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why were pyramids built?
2. Where did the materials for the Great Pyramid come from, and how were they transported?

GO DEEPER

3. Investigate how pyramid building developed from mastabas (rectangular structures with a flat roof) to pyramids with smooth sides such as the Great Pyramid. Present your findings as a flow chart with detailed labels.



CASE STUDY

Construction of the Great Pyramid

History is an investigation. This case study gives you the opportunity to investigate and assess the explanations or theories about the construction of the Great Pyramid.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

The pyramids are a construction marvel. Historians have long disputed various theories regarding how the pyramids were built. As new technologies are developed, new interpretations come to light, challenging earlier beliefs.



Source 7 The pyramids at Giza

The giant ramp theory

One of the earliest theories about the building of the Great Pyramid was that a large, single ramp was used to move stones up to each new level of the pyramid. The key criticism of such a ramp is that it would have been a bigger building project than the construction of the pyramid itself. A single, linear ramp might have worked in the early stages of construction for the lower levels, as shown in Source 6, but it is unlikely to have been used later for the higher levels. Although there is evidence of many smaller ramps, there is no archaeological evidence of this kind of giant ramp.

Erich von Daniken's theory

In 1967, a Swiss hotel manager named Erich von Daniken presented his theory that aliens built the Great Pyramid. In his book *Chariots of the Gods*, he exploited the fact that there were many questions but a lack of evidence about how the pyramid was built. He rejected all the existing research and claimed that the Great Pyramid was the work of an alien people from outer space. Von Daniken offered no explanation about how aliens could have achieved this.

Von Daniken doesn't account for the changes in pyramid styles. He ignores the fact that Pharaoh Khufu had seen his father, Sneferu, try different construction techniques with the Meidum, Bent and Red Pyramids. Sneferu had abandoned the first two due to construction problems, meaning that there is evidence of humans refining techniques before building the Great Pyramid. Von Daniken ignores this evidence.

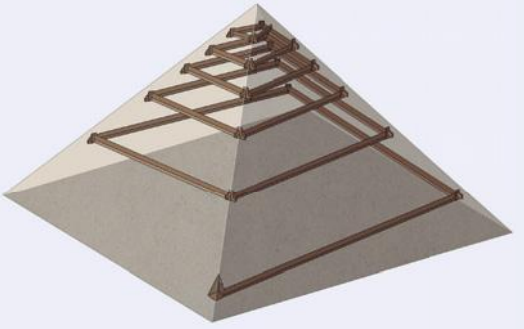
The book was followed by a film documentary in 1970, seen by millions of people, and another book, *Gods from Outer Space*, published in 1971. Not only has von Daniken's theory been sensational, it has been personally profitable for him, and he continues to promote his theory at conferences, claiming alien intervention in ancient civilisations.

Spiral or zig-zag ramps

Recently, historians have updated theories about how the pyramids were built. For a long time it was thought that a spiral ramp was built to wrap round the pyramid, or that zig-zag ramps were built up one side. Newer interpretations suggest that instead of one large ramp, small ramps were used for each stage of the pyramid's construction. The debate is now about what kind of smaller ramps were used. One side of the debate is based on external ramps, with the other side suggesting an internal ramp.

Jean-Pierre Houdin's theory

In 2006 French architect Jean-Pierre Houdin suggested that an internal ramp that became part of the interior core of the pyramid was a possible part of the construction process. His view was supported in 2008 by Egyptologist Professor Bob Brier in a book called *The Secret of the Great Pyramid*. The idea is that at the end of the ramp a space would have been temporarily left open in the outer wall of the pyramid and then sealed as the stones were put in place. Houdin's idea remains a theory, due to a lack of conclusive evidence.



Source 8 Interior ramps may have been used in the construction of the pyramids. Thermal imaging suggests a different density of stone and the possibility of a ramp inside the pyramid.

The find at Hatnub

In 2018, a ramp contraption was found at an alabaster quarry at Hatnub, about 350 kilometres south of the Great Pyramid. The ramp is short and very steep, with steps and post holes on either side of it. The conclusion drawn by Dr Yannis Gourdon from the French Institute of Oriental Archaeology was that workers using the steps and posts set in the post holes would have had enough leverage to be able to move heavy stones up short, steep ramps. Because the quarry was in use at the time of the construction of the Great Pyramid, researchers have drawn conclusions that the same method may have been used in building the pyramid.



Source 9 This 4500-year-old ramp contraption, discovered at Hatnub, may shed light on how ancient Egyptians hauled massive blocks into place when building the Great Pyramid.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

GO DEEPER

1 Consider the arguments in the case study and conduct your own research to decide how the Great Pyramid was built. While doing so, reflect on why von Daniken's ideas continue to appeal to a wide audience. In the process consider: 'How did the Egyptian pyramid builders move stones to the top of the Great Pyramid?' Could they have used:

- a long straight ramp built outside the pyramid
- spiral or zig-zag ramps built outside the pyramid
- cranes based on the design of the *shaduf* to lift stones
- an internal spiral ramp built into the pyramid?

When investigating historical mysteries, there is rarely a single or simple explanation. You will need to research, think and provide reasons for your response.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the construction of the pyramids and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

2C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs

1 Identify the term used to describe religion in ancient Egypt and explain its meaning. (3 marks)

2 Explain Egyptian beliefs about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday life, including examples. (10 marks)

3 What did Egyptians believe about death? (5 marks)

4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced:

- **a** burial rituals in ancient Egypt (5 marks)
- **b** the burial of pharaohs in ancient Egypt (5 marks)
- **c** warfare in ancient Egypt. (2 marks)

Total marks [/30]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

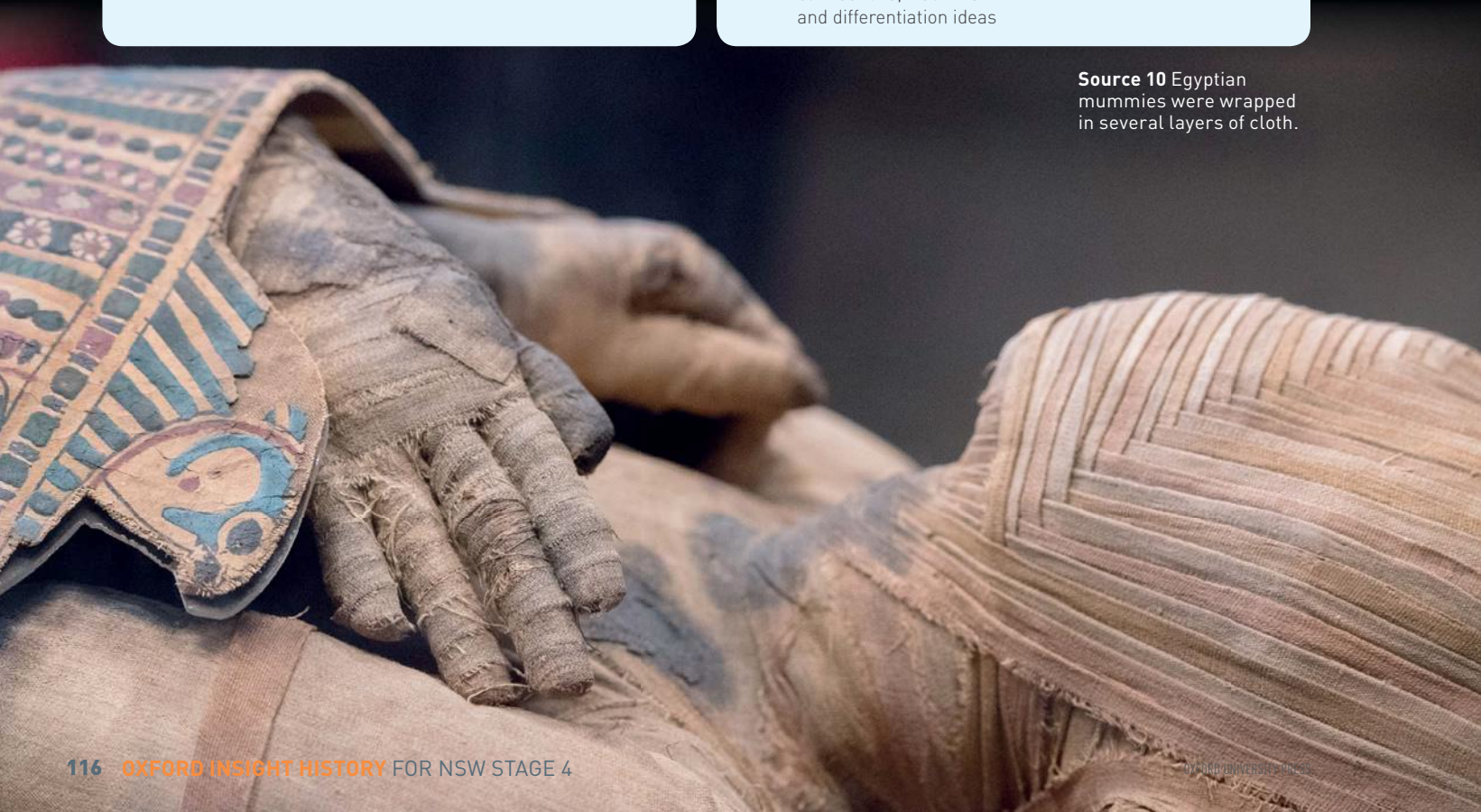
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework



Source 10 Egyptian mummies were wrapped in several layers of cloth.

2D HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Despite significant religious changes during the reign of Akhenaten, the evidence suggests that traditional polytheistic beliefs and practices continued in private. Akhenaten's son, Tutankhamun, has elements of the traditional and new religions in his tomb.

2.10 AKHENATEN'S ONE GOD: ATEN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt.**

Exchanges of ideas and goods between ancient Egyptians and other societies were common in times of peace, through trade and migration. At other times, Egyptians went to war to expand their influence, creating empires and increasing trade. They also suffered invasion and rule by other peoples. Conflict within Egypt's own borders divided the rule of Egypt, which later reunited under one pharaoh. Under the rule of the pharaoh Akhenaten, Egyptian religion underwent a revolutionary change, affecting the beliefs and lives of the people he ruled.

Akhenaten is one of the most mysterious and fascinating of all the Egyptian pharaohs. He ruled between *c.* 1352 and 1336 BC. His wife Nefertiti is equally well known. The people of ancient Egypt worshipped many gods, but during his reign Akhenaten declared that there was to be only one god, the Sun god Aten. This revolutionary change from a polytheistic religion to a **monotheistic** religion in Egypt is known as the Amarna period.

monotheism
a belief in one god

The Sun, represented by the god Ra, had been part of Egyptian religion for generations. However, Akhenaten changed the traditional nature of Sun worship. Aten, who was considered one aspect of Ra, was portrayed as the Sun's disc, with rays coming from the disc ending in hands to symbolise the giving of life (see Source 2). Surviving images show Akhenaten and the royal family as the focus of Aten's rays, so some experts have suggested that Akhenaten and his family were to be worshipped as the one link between Aten and the people.



Source 1
A statue of the pharaoh Akhenaten

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Consequences for the people

With Aten as the one true god, all of the old gods were to be abandoned. Their shrines were to be removed from homes and replaced by shrines to Akhenaten and his family. Temples to the old gods were closed down, and new temples were built to Aten.

Akhenaten moved the centre of power from Memphis and Thebes to a new city built in the desert, called Akhetaten, which means 'the horizon of Aten'. This would have caused major social and economic changes. Cities such as Thebes had depended on the wealth generated by worship of the gods, where temples were regularly given donations from people who wanted to gain the blessing of the gods. Craftsmen, such as stone masons

and wood carvers, had made a living by producing statues and shrines for the different gods. Akhenaten's new religion also affected traditional Egyptian beliefs about the afterlife. People worried that there might not be a next life if the old gods were abandoned.

Despite Akhenaten's changes, it is unlikely that the ordinary Egyptian people suddenly changed the habits and beliefs of a lifetime. There is evidence that the old gods continued to be worshipped in private. Even in Akhetaten, archaeologists have found statues, rings and pendants devoted to the old gods.

2.10 SOURCE STUDY

Images of Akhenaten



Source 2 A stone carving showing Akhenaten, Nefertiti and their children under the rays of the Sun god, Aten

One of the most intriguing things about Akhenaten and this period in Egyptian history was the radical change in artistic styles, particularly the way that the pharaoh and his family were depicted. In the past, pharaohs had been shown as powerful, good-looking figures. Akhenaten was depicted as being at equal level with his surroundings, and shown with a pot belly and an unusually long head and nose. Unlike traditional portrayals of royal families, Akhenaten's family are shown displaying affection for each other.

INTERPRET

1 Look at Source 2.
   - **a** How does this portrayal of the royal family differ from the way pharaohs had been portrayed before this?
   - **b** What does the image of Aten symbolise in terms of ancient Egypt's religion in this period?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Akhenaten's son was named Tutankhaten so that they both had a reference to Aten in their name. After Akhenaten's death, Tutankhaten's name was changed to Tutankhamun, reflecting the worship of Amun, the god who created the universe.

After Akhenaten

Akhenaten reigned for about 16 years, and not long after his death the old gods and old ways returned. Akhetaten was abandoned, and Memphis and Thebes again became centres of government and religion. Akhenaten was succeeded by Smenkhkare, a shadowy figure whom some believe might have been Nefertiti. Smenkhkare was followed by Akhenaten and Nefertiti's son Tutankhamun. All traces of Akhenaten were removed from monuments and the city of Akhetaten gradually crumbled back into the desert. Akhenaten and his immediate successors remained virtually unknown until the archaeological discoveries of Akhetaten and Tutankhamun's tomb.

2.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What changes did Akhenaten make to ancient Egypt's religion?
2 Why were the changes unpopular among ordinary Egyptians?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why do you think Akhenaten made these changes?

2.11 CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS WITH OTHER SOCIETIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world
- describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies
- explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

A dagger made from extra-terrestrial material was found in Tutankhamun's tomb. This doesn't mean that the Egyptians traded with people from other planets! Scientists believe that the dagger was made from a meteorite that landed 240 kilometres west of Alexandria.



Source 3 Tutankhamun's dagger made from meteoritic iron

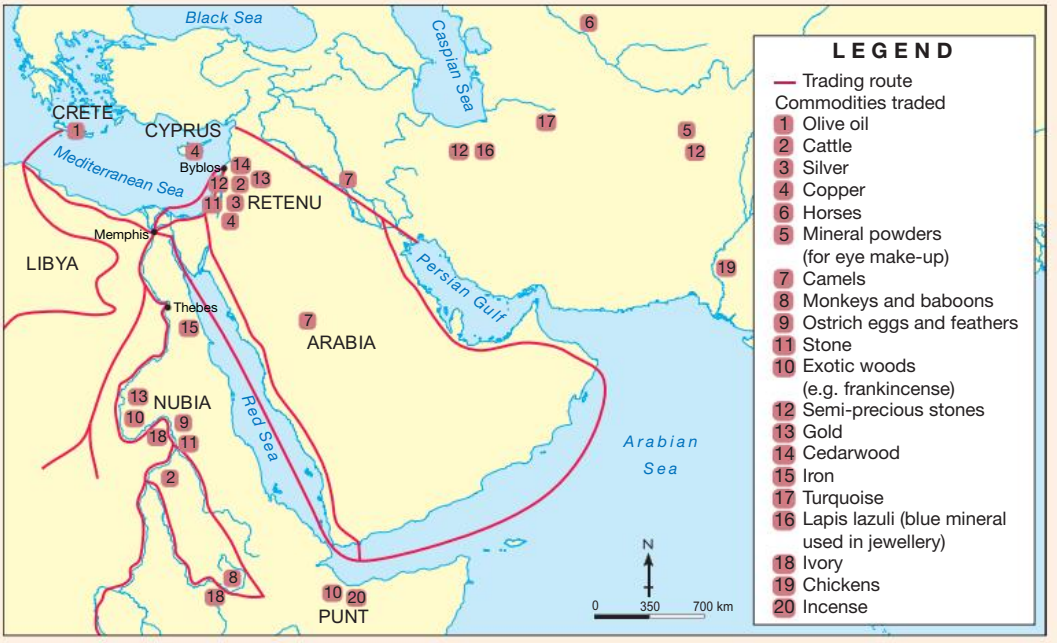
Trade

Egyptian traders exchanged goods with other ancient societies to bring in goods and resources that could not be produced along the Nile or in the deserts of Egypt. Trade routes were established along the Mediterranean Sea, overland to Nubia and other parts of Africa, and to Retenu (the region known to Egyptians as Canaan and Syria), as shown in Source 4.

Ancient Egypt had abundant resources to trade. In exchange for goods such as grain, papyrus, flax, fish, and stone for building, Egyptian traders brought back exotic goods such as incense, ivory, and ostrich eggs and feathers. Trading contacts also brought back resources such as gold, horses and camels that helped ancient Egypt to develop and prosper.

2.11A SOURCE STUDY

Trade routes of the ancient Egyptians



Source 4 Some of the key trade routes and goods that were imported to ancient Egypt

INTERPRET

1 Which goods were brought to Egypt from Nubia and Retenu?

2 Conduct research using an atlas or online map and list the modern countries in these two regions.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Rameses II lived to be 96 years old. He had 200 wives and mistresses. With these women he is believed to have fathered 156 children.

The rule of the Hyksos

The Hyksos (which means 'foreign rulers') were a group of people who seized power in the north of Egypt when Egypt's Middle Kingdom pharaohs were less powerful. It is disputed whether the Hyksos invaded Egypt, or whether a Hyksos population already existed in Egypt as immigrant settlers, possibly from the region of Canaan (see Source 5).

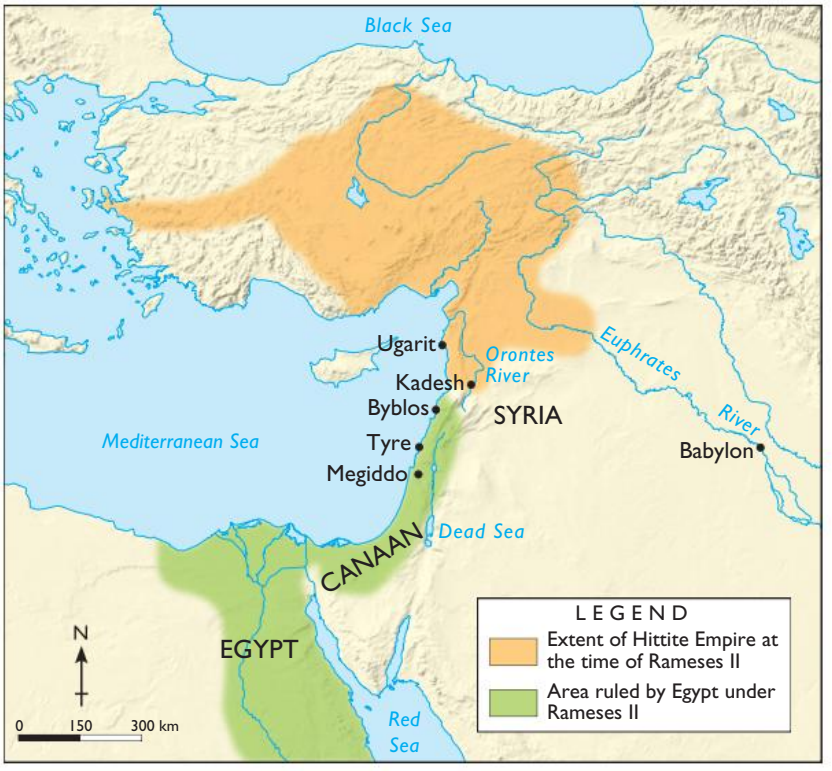
The Hyksos brought new ideas about warfare to the ancient Egyptians. They introduced new military equipment and weapons, and new techniques in warfare, including the use of horses. Pharaoh Thutmose III used these innovations and developed Egypt's first professional army. These advances would become a significant influence in Egypt's military success during the New Kingdom.

Expansion of Egypt under Seti I and Rameses II

The period of Egyptian history known as the New Kingdom, from around 1500 to 1069 BC, was a time of great expansion for Egypt. This is considered to be the height of Egypt's power and influence. Two of its greatest leaders were Seti I and Rameses II.

The pharaoh Seti I fought battles in Canaan, Syria, Libya and Nubia in a bid to increase Egypt's power and prestige. He temporarily reclaimed the city of Kadesh, which had been lost to the neighbouring Hittite Empire since the time of Akhenaten.

One of the high points of Egyptian military power came during the reign of Rameses II, the son of Seti I. He would become known as Rameses the Great because of his military feats. In 1275 BC, Rameses II proclaimed victory over the Hittite Empire at the Battle of Kadesh, in what is thought to be the largest chariot battle in history.



Source 5 Egypt's expanded territory during the reign of Rameses II

In the years that followed, Rameses II extended the scope of his military power south into Nubia in southern Egypt and the Sudan. He also expanded Egyptian influence westward into modern Libya.

Rameses II was a great warrior, and also a master at promoting his image as a leader who always won his wars. He built many great monuments and temples to himself, including the Abu Simbel temple and monuments that were carved out of solid rock.

Historians have questioned whether Rameses II was as great as the monuments and images suggest, with recently discovered artefacts, reflecting the perspective of the Hittites, mocking his claims of a victory at Kadesh.

2.11B SOURCE STUDY

Rameses II – the great self-promoter

Source 6

Two thousand and five hundred pairs of horses were around,
And I [Rameses II] flew into the middle of their ring,
By my horse-hoofs they were dashed all in pieces to the ground,
None raised his hand in fight,
For the courage in their breasts had sunken quite;
And their limbs were loosed for fear,
And they could not hurl the dart,
And they had not any heart
To use the spear;
And I cast them to the water,
Just as crocodiles fall in from the bank,
So they sank.

Translated extract from a poem by Pen-ta-ur, 'The Victory of Rameses II over the Khita', written about 1326 BC



Source 7 A tomb painting of Rameses II

INTERPRET

Rameses II portrayed himself as a great leader in the images he ordered to be created in stone carvings and paintings, as well as texts such as the poem in Source 6. Study Sources 6 and 7 to answer the following questions.

1. What symbols in Source 7 show that the image portrays a pharaoh?
2. How do the sources in this chapter portray Rameses II?
3. What message did Rameses II send to the ancient Egyptians in the way he is portrayed in these sources?
4. Why must historians be cautious when using evidence from Rameses II?

Ancient Egypt's decline

Egypt came under the rule of invaders during the Late Dynastic period (1070–332 BC), all of whom left their cultural influences on Egypt. Rule by Libyans and invaders from Nubia, Assyria and Persia came to an end in 323 BC when Alexander the Great defeated the Persians. Alexander set up the Ptolemaic Dynasty, Egypt's last pharaohs.

Ancient Egypt's legacy

Ancient Egyptian society left behind reminders of its greatness in its monuments, pyramids and temples. Even greater legacies than the physical remains are the new ideas, inventions and refinements in technology that influenced other ancient societies, including the Greeks, Romans and further generations long after the desert sands had reclaimed Egypt's material wealth. In order to build an empire that dominated the region for centuries, the ancient Egyptians needed a solid economic, social and administrative foundation. The development of the plough, irrigation and flood control in ancient Egypt ensured plentiful and reliable sources of food. The first **legacy** of the Egyptians was a prosperous and stable society that made all their other achievements possible. Their ideas,

legacy
something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Egyptian hieroglyphs were not deciphered until the nineteenth century. Only with the discovery of the Rosetta Stone in 1799 and its translation in 1822 by Frenchman Jean-François Champollion was their meaning finally unlocked.

aspects of philosophy and religion, and their understanding of mathematics and the sciences are likely to outlast Egypt's legacy in stone:

- Egyptians developed one of the world's earliest forms of writing. The ref nement of hieroglyphs and use of papyrus made record-keeping easier.
- Egyptian craftsmen led the world in stonework and metalwork.
- The pharaohs' architects and engineers took building to new levels. The pyramids – perhaps the best-known symbol and legacy of ancient Egypt – were the product of advanced mathematics and geometry.
- The ancient Egyptians were keen observers of the heavens and left records ref ecting an understanding of astronomy.
- Egyptian doctors, dentists and veterinarians displayed advanced skills. Egyptian medicine ref ected a sophisticated understanding of anatomy and used physicians' drugs and surgery to treat illness and injury.
- The f rst recorded example of monotheistic religion is found in the Amarna period under the pharaoh Akhenaten. Monotheism was a revolution in the way people thought about religion.



Source 8 A medical prescription written on papyrus from *c.* 1500–1300 BC

2.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Create a concept map to summarise your knowledge about Egypt's contacts with other societies.
2. What was the foundation of Egypt's legacy?
3. List the key aspects of Egypt's legacy.
4. What do you think was Egypt's greatest legacy? Explain your answer.

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt

1 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Egypt. Consider aspects of their rule, such as:

- military career and victories
- influence on religious beliefs
- changes to laws and government
- changes to the structure of society
- influence on social organisation and customs. (20 marks)

» Identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world

2 Identify a time of revolutionary change in ancient Egypt's religious beliefs and practices, including the reasons for the change and the pharaoh responsible for the change. (5 marks)

3 What were the consequences of this period for ancient Egypt? (10 marks)

» Describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

4 Identify trade routes that existed between ancient Egypt and other societies. (5 marks)

5 Identify the types of goods that were exchanged. (5 marks)

6 Describe a period of warfare between ancient Egypt and other societies. (10 marks)

7 Identify and describe periods when ancient Egypt came under the rule of invaders from other societies. (5 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies

8 What were the consequences of trade contacts between ancient Egypt and other societies? (5 marks)

9 What were the consequences of ancient Egypt's warfare with other societies? (5 marks)

» Explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians

10 Identify and describe four ideas, technologies or physical remains that are legacies of the ancient Egyptians. Explain how each of these legacies has influenced the modern world. (20 marks)

Total marks [/90]

2D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.



Source 1 The ancient Greek Temple of Concordia was built in the fifth century BC.

3

ANCIENT GREECE

Ancient Greece was not a unified country with a single national government. Instead, it was a collection of small independent city-states. The most famous of these were Athens, Sparta and Corinth. The city-states all shared a common language and culture. From *c.* 800 BC, the Greeks set out to establish colonies in new lands. In doing so, they spread Greek culture well beyond the shores of Greece. Our understanding of ancient Greece comes mainly from accounts by Herodotus (*c.* 484–425/413 BC) and Thucydides (*c.* 460–400 BC). Between them, they built the foundation for recording the past in the Western tradition. Although Herodotus and Thucydides wrote about different events and were separated by more than 50 years, they spent most of their time in Athens. So it is important to note that they both wrote from an Athenian perspective. It is fair to say that much of what we call ancient Greek history is really ancient Athenian history.

The legacy of ancient Greece is all around us. Our ideas about democracy, education, the arts, sciences, philosophy (the formal ways we think and argue), architecture, medicine, the law, the theatre and parts of our language can all be traced back to the ancient Greeks.

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HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE? 3A

In this section you will:

» describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece

» explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Greek society.

CHECKPOINT 3A

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE? 3B

In this section you will:

» explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.

CHECKPOINT 3B

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE? 3C

In this section you will:

» outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

» assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

» describe the roles of key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta.

CHECKPOINT 3C

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE GREECE AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES? 3D

In this section you will:

» identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within ancient Greek society

» describe significant contacts with other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

» explain the consequences of these contacts for ancient Greece and other societies

» assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

» explain the legacy of ancient Greece.

CASE STUDY: THE BATTLE OF MARATHON AND THE ROLE OF MILTIADES

CHECKPOINT 3D

ANCIENT GREECE – A TIMELINE



Source 2 A Mycenaean death mask

TIMELINE

c. 2000 BC
Minoan civilisation begins; it lasts until *c.* 1400.

c. 1600 BC
Mycenaean civilisation begins; it lasts until *c.* 1100.

c. 1100 BC
The Greek 'Dark Ages' begin, a period of decline after the collapse of the Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations; this lasts about 100 years.

c. 800 BC
The Archaic Age begins – a period of Greek colonisation and the establishment of city-states, known as *poleis*; this period ends around 550 BC.

c. 800 BC
Greek culture and literature begin to develop and thrive for the next 150 years; Homer is credited with writing the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* – two important and influential epic poems.

776 BC
The first Olympic Games are held at Olympia.

c. 500 BC
A form of democratic government appears in Athens and other Greek city-states.

2000 | 1000 | 800 | 700 | 600

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Place the following events in chronological order:
- Alexander the Great conquers a vast empire
- the Persians attempt to conquer Greece
- Homer writes the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*
- Athens establishes democracy
- the Greek 'Dark Ages'
- the collapse of Mycenaean civilisation

2 Using the information on the timeline, match the clues in Column A with the correct answers in Column B.

Column A	Column B
Peloponnesian Wars	began in Athens
Homer	490 BC
776 BC	431–405 BC
Philip of Macedon	writer of the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*
Democracy	conquered Greece in 338 BC
Greece became part of the Roman Empire	146 BC
2000–1400 BC	Minoan civilisation
Battle of Marathon	first Olympic Games

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Source 3 Detail from an ancient Greek vase depicting Nike, goddess of victory, crowning an Olympic athlete with an olive branch

460 BC
Greek historian Herodotus writes his account of the Persian Wars.

431 BC
The Peloponnesian Wars begin, a conflict between the two most powerful Greek city-states: Athens and Sparta; the wars end in 405 BC.

336 BC
Alexander the Great (son of Philip of Macedon) begins his conquest of a vast empire across the eastern Mediterranean and as far as India.

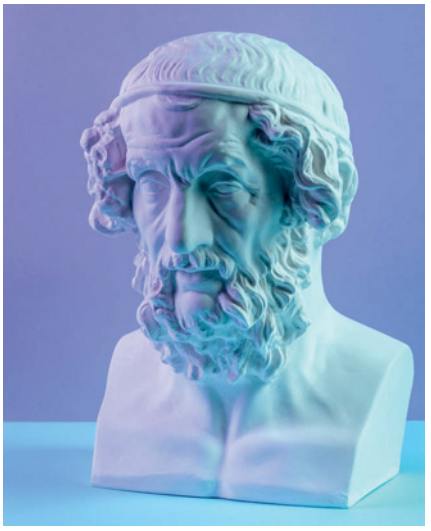
500 | 400 | 300 | 200 | 100 | BC | AD

490 BC
The Persian Wars begin, including the defeat of Persia at the Battle of Marathon in 490 BC and ending with the Battle of Salamis in 479 BC.

***c.* 450 BC**
Athenian power reaches its height; construction of the Parthenon on the Acropolis of Athens begins.

338 BC
Philip II, king of Macedon, takes control of Greece after the decisive Battle of Chaeronea against the combined forces of Athens and Thebes.

***c.* 197 BC**
Rome defeats Macedon and conquers all the Greek city-states by 146; Greece becomes part of the Roman Empire.



Source 4
A marble bust of Homer, who wrote several epic poems



Source 5 A statue of Alexander the Great, in Thessaloniki, Greece

3A HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE?

3.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Greek society.

society
a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

civilisation
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

city-state
an independent settlement (typical of those in ancient Greece) made up of an inner fortified city surrounded by houses and farmland

colonisation
the process of setting up outposts or settlements in other lands by a country, kingdom or empire, often for reasons of trade or defence

Greece is located in the area around the Aegean Sea, in south-eastern Europe. The first known settlements on Greece's mainland were on the Peloponnesian Peninsula and on the fertile plains of Thessaly. Scattered mud-brick villages built around 7000 BC are evidence of these settlements.

Unlike ancient **societies** in Egypt, Rome and China, the first appearance of Greek **civilisations** was not linked to a major river and fertile river valley. Away from the coastal plains, much of Greece's landscape is rugged and mountainous. This landscape is marked by steep mountains, deep valleys and rivers that are not easily travelled. Settling there would have been very difficult. The Peloponnesian Peninsula is connected to the mainland only by a narrow stretch of land known as the Isthmus of Corinth (see Source 2). This geographical division of Greek settlements encouraged the growth of independent **city-states** on the Greek mainland and islands. They shared a common language and culture, but did not develop into a unified country with one ruler, as was the case in other societies such as ancient Egypt. Source 3 shows the location of Athens, Sparta and other city-states of ancient Greece.

Lack of fertile farmland meant that mainland Greece could not feed its people when the population grew between 1000 BC and 800 BC. As a result, the Greeks had to look beyond the mainland for food and other resources, and this led to **colonisation**.



Source 1 A landscape of valleys and mountains in Thessaly, one of the first areas of settlement on mainland Greece

One of the primary effects of colonisation was the spread of Greek culture well beyond the Greek mainland, across the islands of the Aegean Sea, to areas we now know as Turkey and southern Russia, to north Africa, Sicily and southern Italy, and as far west as Spain and southern France (see Source 2). The Greeks called the colonies *apoikia* or 'away homes'.

The mountainous terrain of Greece meant it was often easier to travel by sea rather than over land, so the people of ancient Greece became skilled sailors and shipbuilders. This aspect of Greek culture, and the willingness of the ancient Greeks to colonise, was the key to the success of the Greek civilisation. It increased opportunities for trade and added to the wealth of its city-states.

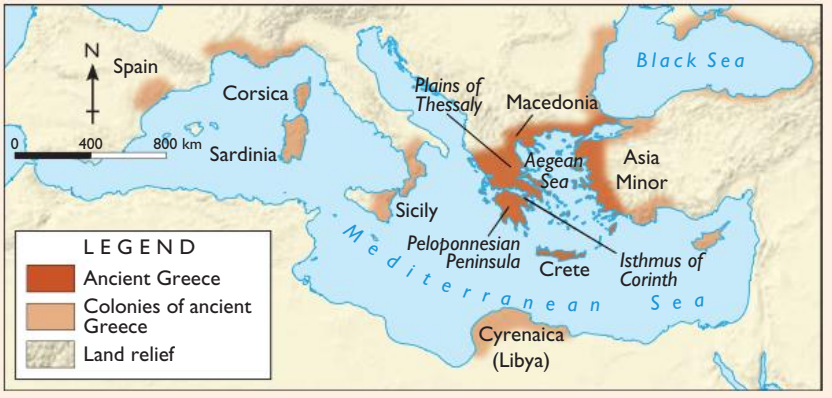
SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Civilisations need food and water for their societies to flourish. A lack of resources can cause a society to move to a new location or expand their territory in order to survive.

3.1 SOURCE STUDY

The geographical setting of ancient Greece



Source 2 The location of ancient Greece and its colonies

INTERPRET

1 Locate the following sites on Sources 2 and 3.
- Peloponnesian Peninsula
- Crete
- Athens
- Sparta
- Plataea
- Marathon
- Olympia
- Mycenae

2 Use the scales and study the maps to answer these questions.
- **a** What was the furthest away from the sea that the people of ancient Greece lived?
- **b** In kilometres, approximately how wide (from west to east) was the territory colonised by the Greeks?



Source 3 Some of the city-states of ancient Greece

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Sometimes historians disagree with interpretations of the past, but history can also be contested when there is a lack of evidence, with historians completing the story through inferences that may or may not be accurate.

The earliest civilisations of Greece

Our study of ancient Greece spans the period from 800 BC to 146 BC, but it is also important to learn about the earlier Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations because many historians agree that the roots of ancient Greek civilisation lay in the **Bronze Age** cultures of the Minoans and the Mycenaeans. These impressive early civilisations are clear examples of the limits of historical knowledge about the past. Aspects of both civilisations are still unknown to us, and may never be known. Other aspects are contested by historians and archaeologists and are open to further investigation; for example:

- There is debate about the causes of the end of Minoan civilisation. Some have argued that the collapse of this great maritime civilisation was triggered by damage done by the eruption of the Thera volcano, on the modern-day island of Santorini, around 1450 BC. Others argue that it was due to civil war, while others suggest that the Minoans were invaded by the Mycenaeans.
- There is also ongoing speculation that the story about the fate of Minoan Crete was the basis for the legendary tale of the lost city of Atlantis.

We do know that the Minoan civilisation centred on the island of Crete, and is believed to have existed between *c.* 2000 BC and 1400 BC. Much of what we know about it is due to the efforts of British **archaeologist** Sir Arthur Evans. He named the civilisation after King Minos, the legendary king of Crete. Much of Evans' work was the restoration of the massive royal palace at Knossos, which was first built around 1700 BC (see Source 4).

Historians believe that they have learnt some things about the Minoans from the **frescoes** on palace walls. These frescoes provide **evidence** that the Minoan people were regular sea traders. They also suggest that bulls and double-headed axes were important religious symbols, even though archaeology is not always reliable when it comes to speculating about religious beliefs. Some **artefacts** provide evidence that the Minoans had their own language, known as Linear A. This language has so far not been decoded by historians, meaning that many records cannot be translated. As a result, much of Minoan history is unknown to us.

Bronze Age
a period in human history after the Stone Age characterised by the use of bronze tools

archaeologist
a person who uncovers and interprets sources from the past, such as the remains of people, buildings and artefacts; archaeologists often take part in archaeological digs

fresco
a type of artwork created by applying paint directly onto fresh, moist plaster

evidence
the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

artefact
any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)



Source 4 Part of the reconstructed Palace of Knossos; bulls feature prominently in decorations in Knossos, perhaps in reference to the legendary minotaur.

The Mycenaean culture developed on the Peloponnesian Peninsula, on mainland Greece, from about 1600 BC. Because they lived close to the water, the Mycenaean people (like the Minoans) were sea traders. Based on archaeological evidence of the Mycenaeans' weapons, some historians and archaeologists have argued that they were more war-like than the Minoans. However, this inference is contested. Large quantities of weapons and armour have been found in tombs. Like the Minoans, it appears the Mycenaeans believed in an afterlife, with goddesses playing a significant role in their religious beliefs.

The Mycenaean language has been given the name Linear B (see Source 5). Linear B scripts have been found on tablets in Mycenae and other sites on the Peloponnesian Peninsula, as well as Chania in Crete. Unlike the language of the Minoans, the Linear B script was decoded in 1953 by John Chadwick and Michael Ventris, and identified as an early form of Greek. They were able to do this because a further 600 Linear B tablets were found by Carl Blegen in the Mycenaean palace of Pyros, shortly before the outbreak of the Second World War. This is an example of how our understanding of the past can change when historians find new evidence.



Source 5 A stone tablet bearing the Mycenaean script, known as Linear B

3.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What is the time span for our study of ancient Greece?
2. Identify the areas where the ancient Greeks established colonies.
3. What was a key to success in the rise of the ancient Greek civilisation?
4. Where were the centres of Minoan and Mycenaean societies located?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Use the zoom-in tool for Google Earth, or switch to Earth view of Google Maps, to study the topography of mainland Greece and answer the following questions:
   - **a** Approximately what percentage of the terrain do you think is mountainous? Compare your estimate with a partner and discuss any differences.
   - **b** Locate the Isthmus of Corinth and identify a feature there that would not have existed in ancient times.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast what you have learnt about the Minoan and Mycenaean societies.

GO DEEPER

7. Conduct research to find out why the Minoan and Mycenaean societies 'disappeared', according to the theories of archaeologists and other historical experts. Write a report to discuss the theories, including any variations and relevant sources of evidence.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Effective research starts with asking questions to find sources. It's important to consult a number of books and websites so that you can draw reasonable conclusions from the evidence about facts, myths and opinions on the topic.

3A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece

1 Describe the location and geographical setting of the mainland settlements and colonies of ancient Greece. (3 marks)

2 Describe the geographical setting of the earlier Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations. (5 marks)

» Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Greek society

3 Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the way ancient Greek society developed. (10 marks)

4 How did the geographical setting influence one aspect of the Minoan and Mycenaean societies? (2 marks)

Total marks [/20]



Source 6 Part of the coastal landscape of Greece, on the Peloponnesian Peninsula

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

3B WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

3.2 BELIEF IN GODS AND GODDESSES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.**

The ancient Greeks lived in a difficult and dangerous world. Death, injury and illness were ever-present. This made people think often about fate, luck and the gods. It also encouraged them to value the good times and live life to the fullest.

The ancient Greeks believed in many **deities**. Their religion was **polytheistic**, which means they believed in many gods. Each deity was seen to be in charge of different aspects of life or natural processes. For example, Poseidon was god of the sea, and Artemis was goddess of the hunt. Chief among the deities were the Olympians, whose 'family home' was on Mount Olympus. It was believed the gods sometimes visited the world of mortal people to dwell in the temples made for them, and even have children with humans!

deity
a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

polytheism
a belief in many gods

Every morning, families in ancient Greece would pray at their household **shrine**. The deity they prayed to depended on what was happening. A man travelling to sell his goods might pray to Hermes, god of travel. A woman tending a garden might pray to Hegemone, goddess of plants. Offerings, frequently of wine or food, would be left on the shrine.

shrine
a place or building where respect and devotion is paid to a god or goddess; shrines often house relics (religious objects)

The people of ancient Rome also worshipped a large number of deities before they officially became a Christian people. Many of the Roman deities were versions of Greek deities, whose characteristics and powers were adapted to the Roman belief system. For example, Aphrodite, the Greek goddess of love, became Venus for the Romans. The Greek god Ares, the god of war, became Mars. Both Aphrodite and Ares were Olympians, who lived on Mount Olympus.



Source 1 Sean Bean as Zeus, the king of the gods, from the movie *Percy Jackson and the Lightning Thief* (2010), one of the many movies and books inspired by the ancient Greek deities



Source 2 A restored statue of the deities Venus and Mars, made in around AD 175

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 1.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

Temples

acropolis
a raised and fortified area (often on a rocky hill) within a Greek city-state on which public structures such as temples were built

Prayers and offerings such as sacrifices of slaughtered animals could also be made at temples. Temples in ancient Greece were built as 'homes' for the deities whenever they were on Earth. The Parthenon in Athens, for example, was dedicated to the city's protector, Athena, the goddess of war and wisdom (see Source 3). The design of temples reflected this function – they were impressive, spacious structures. Usually, they were built on the highest hill, called an **acropolis** (from the Greek *akron*, which means 'summit', and *polis*, which means 'city'). Greek temples were decorated, inside and out. A statue of the deity for whom the temple was built was always featured inside.



Source 3 The remains of the Parthenon, built on the Acropolis of Athens

Oracles and seers

oracle
a person who was believed to be able to talk directly with the gods

seer
a person who was believed to be able to interpret messages from the gods by way of dreams and signs

Sometimes, people felt a need to contact a deity more directly than was possible through rituals such as sacrifices and festivals. For example, a ruler might wish to ask a god about whether he should go to war. To make such contact, one had to consult an **oracle** or a **seer**. The most famous oracle was the Delphic Oracle – the priestess to the god Apollo at Delphi.

An oracle was believed to be able to talk directly to the gods. If the oracle's message was confusing, it would be interpreted by priests. The oracles were always believed to be right, so if there were any inconsistencies between the 'advice' given and what happened later, the conflicting advice would be explained away. The oracles, especially the Delphic Oracle, were often excellent sources of information. This was because leaders of many different city-states regularly visited oracles, asked questions and, in doing so, shared their plans with the oracles. The result was that oracles became a kind of 'clearing house' for information – a source of intelligence. Their insights and power were therefore based on being trusted and offering good advice.

In contrast, seers did not claim to have direct contact with the gods. Rather, they interpreted a deity's wishes by analysing dreams and interpreting signs. For example, seers might interpret what they saw in the guts of sacrificed animals, or in the pattern of leaves.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Oracles and seers did not have to explain their opinions or interpretations; their word was accepted as being true. They often played a significant role in the fate of city-states.

Death and funerary customs

Religious beliefs and traditions also influenced what people did when someone died. Death was thought to be the start of a long spiritual journey through Hades, the **Underworld**. Hades was also the name of the god of the dead (the Romans called him Pluto), who was believed to rule the Underworld. The River Styx separated the world of the dead from the world of the living. A three-headed dog named Cerberus guarded the entrance to Hades to stop the dead from leaving or the living from entering.

When someone died, the body was carefully washed and then wiped with sweet-smelling oil. It was then wrapped in white garments. The soul of the dead person would need to pay the ferryman to cross the River Styx, so a coin was placed in the corpse's mouth. Once they reached the other side, dead souls were judged by deities according to the life they had led. The souls of 'good people' would eventually reach the Elysian Fields; the souls of 'bad people' would be tossed into a place of torment called Tartarus, even deeper into the Underworld.

As in ancient Egypt, in ancient Greece the person was typically buried with possessions, food and drink. There might also be professional mourners, who would wear black. Family members were expected to make regular offerings to those who had died.

Underworld
a mythical place where the spirits of the dead were believed to reside according to ancient Greek and Roman beliefs

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Families returned to the graves of loved ones often. Rituals observed by ancient Greeks included leaving offerings of oil, food and wine, and a tube might be pushed into the dirt to allow the dead person to 'drink' the wine offered.



Source 4 A seventeenth-century artist's portrayal of Hades

3.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Identify the ancient Greek gods responsible for each of the following:
   - **a** love
   - **b** war
   - **c** the sea
   - **d** travel
   - **e** the Underworld.

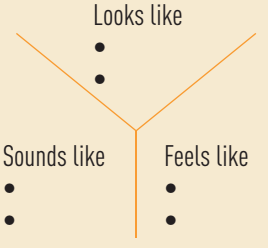
2 Why did ancient Greeks regard Mount Olympus with a degree of awe?

3 Why was the Parthenon built?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Explain what each of the following might do when consulted by a ruler in ancient Greece:
   - **a** an oracle
   - **b** a seer.

5 Look carefully at Source 4 and use it to complete a Y chart to detail what you think the Underworld of the ancient Greeks might have looked like, sounded like and felt like.



GO DEEPER

6 Conduct some research on the Olympian gods and goddesses and create a 'family tree' that identifies their responsibilities and relationships to each other.

3.3 THE OLYMPIC GAMES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.**

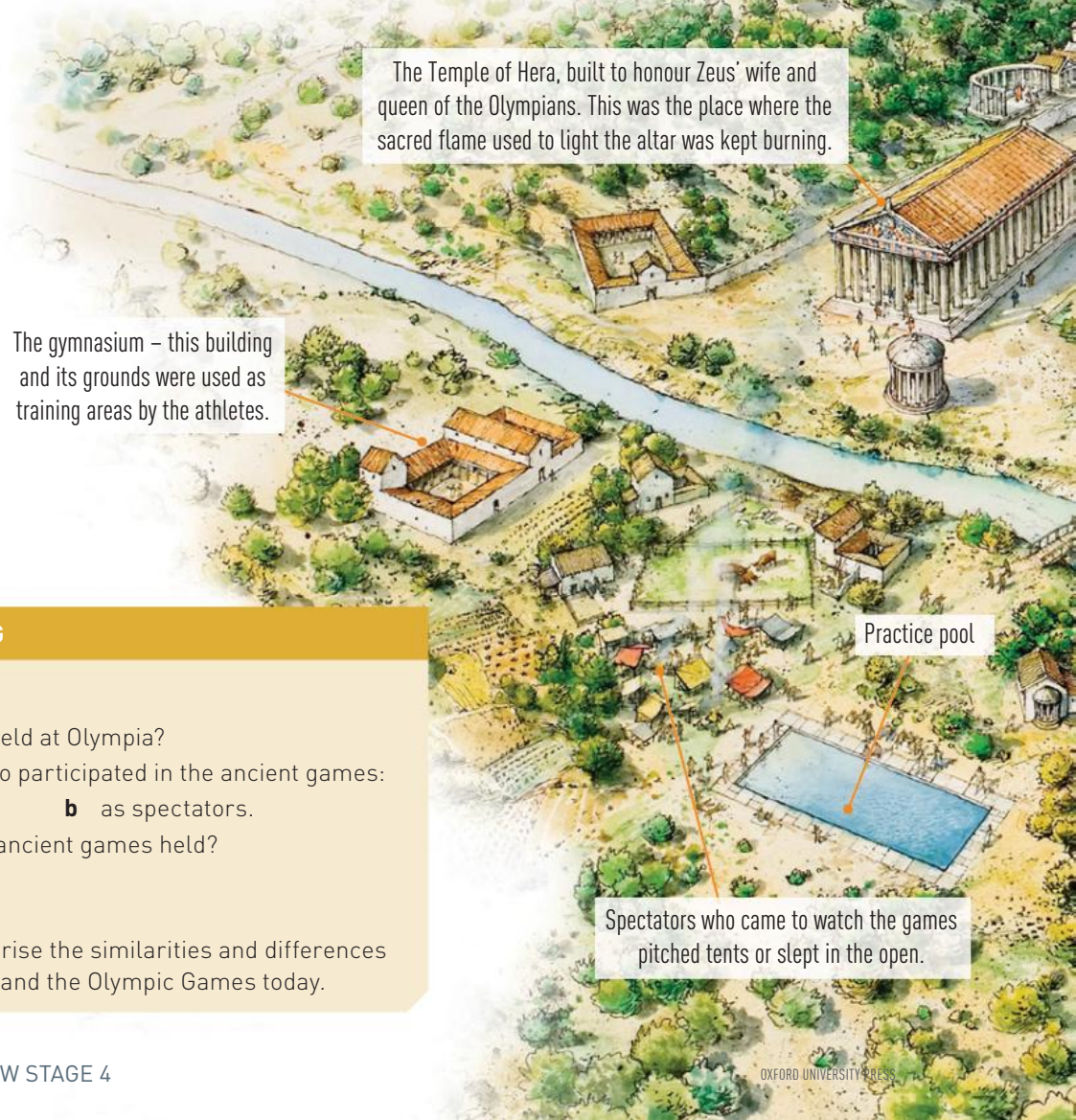
The main reason why festivals were held in ancient Greece was to honour the gods. One of the most significant festivals was the games held in the city-state of Olympia to honour Zeus, the king of the gods. The first ancient Olympic Games were held in 776 BC. The five-day games were held every four years until AD 394, when they were stopped by the Christian Roman emperor Theodosius I, who regarded them as a **pagan** event.

pagan
a person who is not a Christian and worships non-Christian gods

Only free men who spoke Greek could take part in the Olympic events, initially competing for no more than a wreath of olive leaves. The first games only had one event: a running race. Later, other events were added, such as spear- and discus-throwing, wrestling, the marathon, the pentathlon, chariot racing and **pankration**. Contestants competed in the nude and were often injured or killed.

pankration
a dangerous fighting event with almost no rules held as part of the Olympic Games

Source 5 shows an artist's impression of the ancient site at Olympia. Spectators stood on the grassy slopes on three sides of the track, while the seating on the south-east side was reserved for judges.



Source 5 An artist's impression of the site of the ancient Olympic Games

3.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why were the ancient games held at Olympia?
2 Identify the types of people who participated in the ancient games:
   a as competitors **b** as spectators.
3 For how many years were the ancient games held?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Use a Venn diagram to summarise the similarities and differences between the ancient Olympics and the Olympic Games today.

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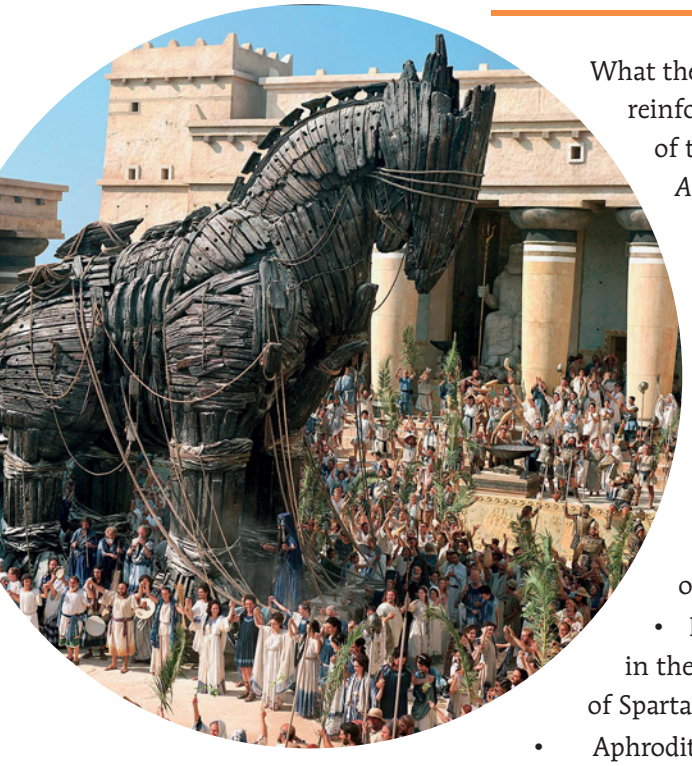

The stadium where athletic events such as running, long jump and discus were held
Spectators – men and unmarried women could watch the events.
The hippodrome was an oval-shaped track where both horse and chariot races were held.
Storehouse for valuables
Athletes – only male athletes competed in the games. They did so naked as a tribute to the gods. Many were badly injured or killed during competition.
Altar to Zeus, where ritual animal sacrifices were made
Statue of Zeus, housed in the temple of Zeus. This statue was 12 metres tall and covered in gold and ivory. It took 12 years to complete and was one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world.
The *bouleuterion*, a building where Olympic officials met and athletes were required to swear an oath to Zeus
Animal pens where animals used for events and ritual sacrifices were kept
Guest houses to accommodate important officials and guests
Workshop where the statues of Zeus in the temple were created

3.4 GREEK MYTHS AND LEGENDS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.**



Source 6 A still from the film *Troy* (2004) showing the wooden horse entering the city

What the people of ancient Greece believed about their deities was reinforced by myths and legends, such as the Trojan War. Details of the legend of the wooden horse are found in Virgil's poem the *Aeneid* written in the first century BC. The 10-year siege of Troy and final battle is said to have taken place about 3200 years ago. The story of the legend is outlined below.

- Zeus gave a banquet to celebrate the marriage of Peleus and the goddess Thetis. Many deities were invited to the wedding, but not Eris, the goddess of strife. Angry at being snubbed, she showed up uninvited at the reception.
- Eris tossed a golden apple among the guests. On it were the words, 'To the most beautiful'. The goddesses Hera, Athena and Aphrodite each assumed she was the most beautiful. Paris, son of the king of Troy, was asked to choose.
- Paris chose Aphrodite. His reward was the most beautiful woman in the world, Helen. But Helen was already married to King Menelaus of Sparta. He was the brother of Agamemnon, king of Mycenae.
- Aphrodite used her magic to allow Paris to whisk Helen off to the city of Troy. Menelaus, Agamemnon and other Greek kings set out with a massive fleet of ships to get her back.
- For nearly 10 years, the Greeks laid siege to the walled city of Troy. Then Odysseus, king of Ithaca, suggested they build a huge, hollow wooden horse. He proposed that it be left outside Troy's walls, and the Greek army would then sail away.
- It was hoped that the Trojans would see the horse as a parting gift and assume the war was over. It worked. The Trojans dragged the horse into the city and celebrated into the night.
- The Trojans, however, did not know that the Greeks had hidden warriors inside the hollow horse. Later, these hidden men crept out of the horse and opened the gates to the returning Greek army, which had not sailed away at all.
- The Greeks burned and ruined the city of Troy. Paris was killed, as was the Trojan hero Hector and the Greek hero Achilles. The Greek army, under Odysseus, took 10 years to return home.

3.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

EVALUATE AND CREATE

1 In groups, present the legend of the Trojan War in another way. Choose from the following options: a puppet show or role play with music and special effects; a comic strip; or a children's storybook using digital or hand-drawn illustrations.

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs

1 Identify the term used to describe the kind of religion practised in ancient Greece, and explain its meaning. (2 marks)

2 Explain what the ancient Greeks believed about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday lives, and in their festivals. Include examples. (10 marks)

3 What did the ancient Greeks believe about death? (5 marks)

4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced burial practices in ancient Greece. (3 marks)

5 Use Sources 7, 8 and 9 to answer the following questions.

a What do you think is the purpose of the stone line in Source 7? (2 marks)

b Describe the scene shown in Source 8. (3 marks)

c Read Source 9, which suggests how the Olympic Games gave Greeks from independent city-states a sense of unity as a people. Do you think the addition of team events would have added to the rivalry between city-states? Explain why or why not. (5 marks)

d These sources provide different information on the ancient Olympic Games. Identify the strengths and limitations of each source in a table. (5 marks)



Source 7 The site of the ancient Olympic stadium



Source 8 A Greek pot showing a boxing match, ancient Olympic-style

Total marks [/35]

Source 9

> The Panhellenic [all-Greek] contests and rituals fostered the idea of Greekness, of sharing the same language, religion, customs, and values. Indeed they had the avowed purpose of knitting together the Greeks in peaceful celebration. During the Olympic Games, for example, a sacred truce banning war throughout the Greek world was declared for the month in which the games were held ... There were no team events, only individual contests. Thus the games kept alive the ancient ideal of the individual hero ...
>
> *S.B. Pomeroy et al.,* Ancient Greece: A Political, Social and Cultural History, *Oxford University Press, UK, 1998, p. 128*

3B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

assess quiz
Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension

3C HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

3.5 POLITICAL SYSTEMS IN ANCIENT GREECE

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Sometimes studying history means studying another language. This topic uses many ancient Greek terms that influenced words we use in English today.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion
- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

Democracy in Athens

Around 1100 BC, Athens gained control of Attica, the large area of country surrounding the city. It became the biggest and wealthiest city-state in ancient Greece. As in other Greek city-states, the king at first had total power in Athens. Over time, he became more of a figurehead. Real power was passed to a small group of wealthy, privileged landowners who ruled Athens as an **oligarchy**. A new way of governing developed in Athens during the sixth century BC: **democracy**. The word 'democracy' comes from two Greek words: *demos* ('people') and *kratos* ('rule'). Under Athenian democracy, every **citizen** over the age of 18 could be involved in the political process. Because citizenship was restricted to free adult males born in Attica, most of the population of Athens – women, *metics* (foreigners) and slaves – was excluded.

oligarchy
a political system in which a small group of wealthy nobles or aristocrats rule over the wider population

democracy
a political system based on the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed

citizen
a person who through birth (or by meeting certain conditions) is a recognised legal member of a community

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about politics and politicians today and compare these with the image portrayed in Source 1. What is similar and what is different?

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.



Source 1 An artist's impression of the Greek leader Pericles

Historians give most of the credit for the development of democracy to the Athenian leaders Solon (*c.* 638–558 BC) and Cleisthenes (*c.* 570–507 BC). The most famous democratic leader of Athens was Pericles (495–429 BC). He ruled during the Golden Age of Athens. In Athens, participating in politics was seen as a civic duty by its citizens. However, the actual role that individuals had in politics depended on their position in society; in other words, on their wealth and land ownership.

The *Ekklesia* and the *Boule*

Cleisthenes led a reform of Athens' **constitution** around 508 BC. Source 3 summarises the political structure of Athens in this period.

Any Athenian citizen could speak and vote at the *Ekklesia* or Assembly. The *Ekklesia* decided on matters that the *Boule* (the Council of 500) asked it to consider. This might include whether or not to go to war. It is known that some decisions required at least 6000 citizens be present to vote. The Greek **philosopher** Plato (*c.* 427–347 BC) wrote that those who talked too long at the *Ekklesia* about things they knew little about were laughed at, shouted down or carried off. This treatment was given out to even the wealthy or popular.

The *Boule* was a council of 500 citizens who met every day. They were responsible for the day-to-day administration of Athens, putting into practice the laws passed by the *Ekklesia*.

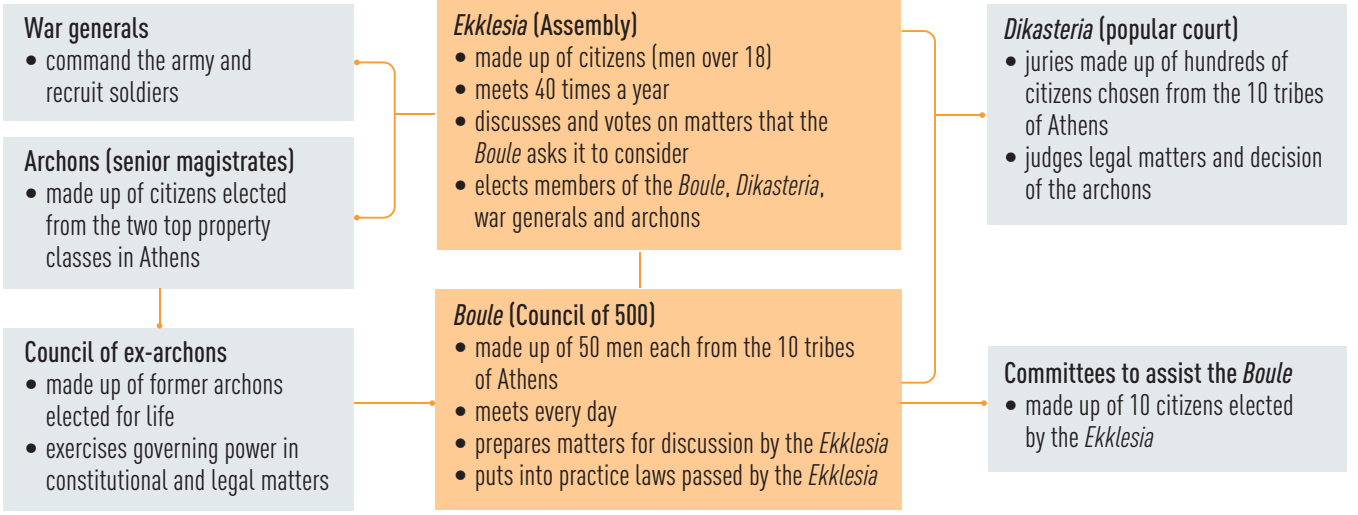
constitution
the political principles on which a country or society is based and that guide its government; also, a written document that outlines these principles

philosopher
a person who specialises in the discipline or study of philosophy (i.e. the investigation of the truths and principles of knowledge)

Source 2

> [But] the man who rises to advise them [a meeting of the *Ekklesia*] on [non-technical matters to do with the government of the city-state] ... may equally well be a smith, a shoemaker, a merchant, a sea-captain, a rich man, a poor man, of good family or none.

From a translated extract of Protagoras *by Plato*



Source 3 The political structure of Athens in the fifth century BC

Military rule in Sparta

militarism
the belief that a society should build a strong military force and use it to protect its interests

monarchy
a state where power is held by a monarch

Many believe that they know the nature of Spartan society. However, in reality, our knowledge and understanding of ancient Sparta is shrouded in uncertainty. The path to understanding starts with acknowledging the mystery. This mystery is often called 'the Spartan Myth' or 'the Spartan Mirage'. The Spartans were a secretive people and were very careful about how they were seen by outsiders. Their reputation for fierce and ruthless **militarism** was designed to intimidate potential rivals. Sparta was mainly, but not totally, a military state, and it retained the role of king. According to the philosopher Aristotle, Sparta had a 'mixed' constitution. By that he meant that the Spartan system had elements of **monarchy**, oligarchy and democracy. Aristotle was impressed by what he had heard about the Spartan system and wrote favourably about its stability. The mixed Spartan system included two kings, five elected men (*Ephorate*), a council of elders (*Gerousia*) and an assembly of citizens (*Apella*). The political structure of ancient Sparta is shown in Source 5.

The Spartans developed their militaristic society out of need. The first Spartans appeared in the valley of the Eurotas River in Laconia around 1000 BC. As mentioned earlier, by 750 BC Athens and other city-states were colonising areas outside mainland Greece because of the lack of farmland needed to feed their people. The Spartans solved the problem by conquering the neighbouring region of Messina. The conquered Messinesi (the inhabitants of Messina) became Spartan slaves, known as *helots*. The *helots* outnumbered the Spartans by as many as 10 to one, which meant that from this period the Spartans were constantly on the alert in case of a revolt. They specialised in war and constantly trained as soldiers in order to maintain control over the larger *helot* population.

The people of Sparta were suspicious of outsiders and were always concerned about the threat of a *helot* revolt. Spartans were not permitted to travel to other city-states, except for military reasons, and few people from outside Sparta were allowed to enter its borders. This was to prevent Spartans from picking up foreign ideas that might weaken their military discipline.

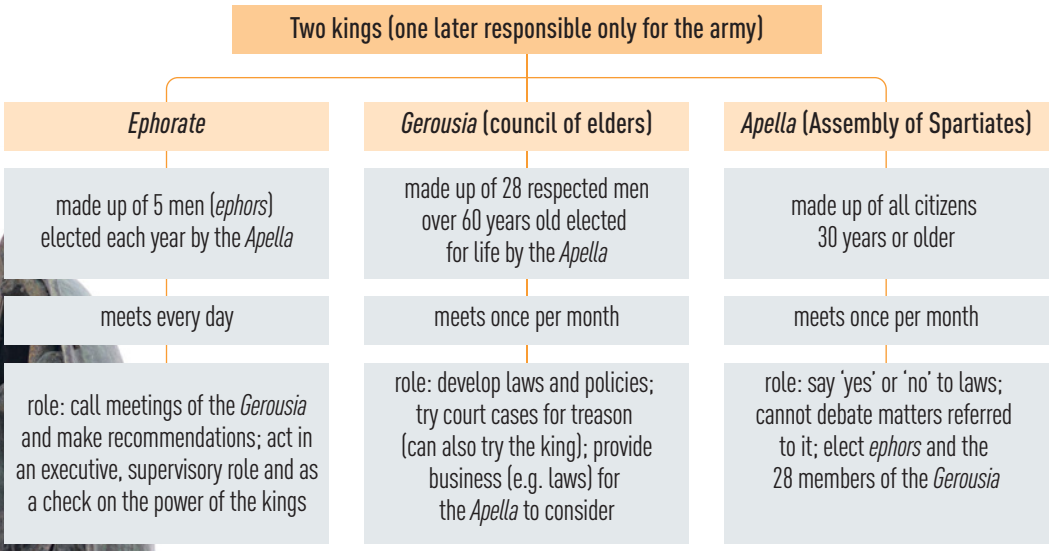
STRANGE BUT TRUE

In Sparta, baby boys were washed with wine because it was believed this would make them strong. Then they were inspected by members of the *Gerousia* who would determine if they were strong and healthy enough to be allowed to live.



Source 4 A statue of King Leonidas in Sparta, Greece

Source 5 The political structure in ancient Sparta; it can be described as an oligarchy, but it also included rule by kings and the election of the Council of Elders by an assembly of citizens.



The *ephors*

Every nine years this small group of Spartan elders went out to look at the night sky, to look for signs that the gods were unhappy with either of the two Spartan kings. One interpretation of this ritual is that it provided inbuilt flexibility in the Spartan system. If the *ephors* agreed, for any reason, that it was time for a change of monarchs, they could 'see' something in the skies that indicated the need to change either or both of the kings. In this way, part of the role of the *ephors* was to limit the powers of the kings.

Rule by tyrants

Other city-states were aristocracies, meaning they were ruled by a small group of wealthy landowners. At different times some city-states, such as Corinth and Megara, were controlled by rulers known as **tyrants**. Greek tyrants were not, as the modern use of the word suggests, bad or ruthless rulers. They were men of common birth who overthrew the existing monarchies or aristocracies. Some tyrants were in fact good rulers.

tyrant
a ruler of a city-state in ancient Greece who was not born as an aristocrat (i.e. a commoner)

3.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Write your own definition of 'democracy' as a system of government.
2. In your own words, describe the role of the *Ekklesia*, the *Boule* and the *Dikasteria* in Athens in the fifth century BC.
3. Outline the reasons why ancient Sparta's development as a military state is an example of cause and effect.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Modern democracy was described by US President Abraham Lincoln (1809–75) as 'government of the people, by the people, and for the people'. How does this definition compare with democracy in ancient Athens?
5. Conduct research to find out about citizenship in Australia today.
   - **a** Summarise your findings in a paragraph, including who is eligible to be a citizen of Australia, and how people who are not citizens can qualify for Australian citizenship.
   - **b** What aspects of democracy have changed in respect to citizenship in ancient Athens and citizenship in modern Australia? What aspects have continued?
6. Write two paragraphs to compare and contrast Athens' style of government with Sparta's.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7. Conduct some research to learn about the *Dikasteria*, the law courts in ancient Athens, where trials were initially held. Have a class discussion about the similarities and differences between the workings of the *Dikasteria* and Australian law courts, then decide which system is more effective.
8. Conduct research to find out more about one of these Greek tyrants:
   - Cypselus of Corinth
   - Theagenes of Megara
   - Thrasybulus of Miletus.

   Note any achievements and evaluate your tyrant's leadership. Create an infographic on his strengths and weaknesses.

GO DEEPER

9. Conduct research about the life of Pericles to answer the question 'Why is Pericles a significant individual in ancient Greece?' Present your findings in any format that you choose, as long as you communicate your findings effectively. For example, it could be a piece of writing or a speech, or a recorded or live role play as Pericles. Keep a record of the sources you have used as a basis for your presentation.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

An important part of being a historian is being able to present findings of research in a range of communication forms.

3.6 THE SOCIAL ORGANISATION OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the roles of key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves.**

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Just as life in ancient Greece varied from one city-state to another, it also varied depending on a person's place in society.

Ancient Greek society had a number of broad social divisions. There was the division between those who lived on the Greek mainland and nearby islands and those who lived in the colonies. There were social divisions between citizens and non-citizens, men and women, and between those who were slaves and those who were free. As we have seen, in Athens only free adult men who were born in the region could be citizens.

Slaves in ancient Greece

Slavery was a key feature of ancient Greek society and slaves contributed greatly to the economy because they were a source of cheap labour. We do not know much about Greek slaves, as they are rarely mentioned in the written sources. It is likely that wealthy landowners used slave labour to work on their farms. Slaves also worked as craftsmen, builders, stone masons, carpenters and potters. If they were highly educated, they might teach the male children in a wealthy household. Slave women often worked in the textile industry.



Source 6 An artist's impression of slaves being sold in a Greek marketplace

Slaves were often rented out by their owners to other free men. There are surviving records of slaves who worked to build the Acropolis of Athens. The records show that the slaves on the project were paid the same rate as free men, but their wages were given to their owners. In some of the city-states, slaves managed the banks because many free men thought that commerce and trade were beneath them.

In Athens, slaves made up about 30 per cent of the population. They may have been prisoners of war, 'trade goods', people sold by very poor families or abandoned babies. As mentioned earlier, in Sparta the *helots* were like slaves. They were the descendants of neighbouring peoples that the early Spartans had conquered. Spartan men had the time to train as soldiers because most of the hard physical labour associated with farming, building and trade was done by the *helots*.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about women in ancient Greece and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

The role of women

The experiences of women in ancient Greece varied depending when they lived, their class and where they lived. However, many women in ancient Greece were expected to stay at home. They rarely had the same kind of educational opportunities or responsibilities as men, with the exception of women in Sparta. Women were generally expected to run the household, have children, care for their families and obey the men in the household. This applied to both wealthy and poor women.

If there was a desperate need for money, free women would hire themselves out as nursemaids, and older free women were sometimes part of a 'rent a crowd' at funerals for rich families.

Spartan women generally had much greater freedom than any other women in ancient Greece and had more power and independence. Their first duty was as wives and mothers; they were expected to breed the next generation of Spartan warriors. It was assumed that a fit, strong and healthy mother would give birth to fit, strong and healthy children. As a result, Spartan girls played sport and were involved in all forms of physical education. As wives, Spartan women controlled the home and took care of money matters; for example, Spartan wives were in charge of the *helots* who worked the land for Spartan families. Although they, like other Greek women, could not be citizens, these roles gave Spartan women both power and influence in daily life.

3.6 SOURCE STUDY

Women in ancient Greece

INTERPRET

1 Examine Sources 7 and 8. Create a Venn diagram to show similarities and differences in the way the women are portrayed. Take particular note of what they are doing and what they are wearing.



Source 7 A fifth-century-BC painting of a Greek woman



Source 8 A sculpture of a Spartan woman

The *metics*

Metics were foreigners. They were free people who worked and lived in a city-state but were not citizens. We know most about the *metics* in Athens, where they made up a significant percentage of the population. In other city-states there is evidence of a similar class of people. As non-citizens, the *metics* could not vote, hold office or own property. Aside from those restrictions, however, they mixed as near equals with the Athenian citizens. The *metics* were seen as useful to Athens and in times of danger they could be drafted into the army. There is evidence of a number of very rich *metics* in Athens.

3.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What types of people could become citizens in ancient Greece?
2 Who were excluded from becoming citizens in ancient Greece, and what did this mean for them?
3 What jobs did slaves usually do?
4 What was the role of most women in ancient Greece?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5 How did the role of Spartan women differ from other women in ancient Greece?
6 Why were slaves important in the Athenian and Spartan societies?

3.7 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

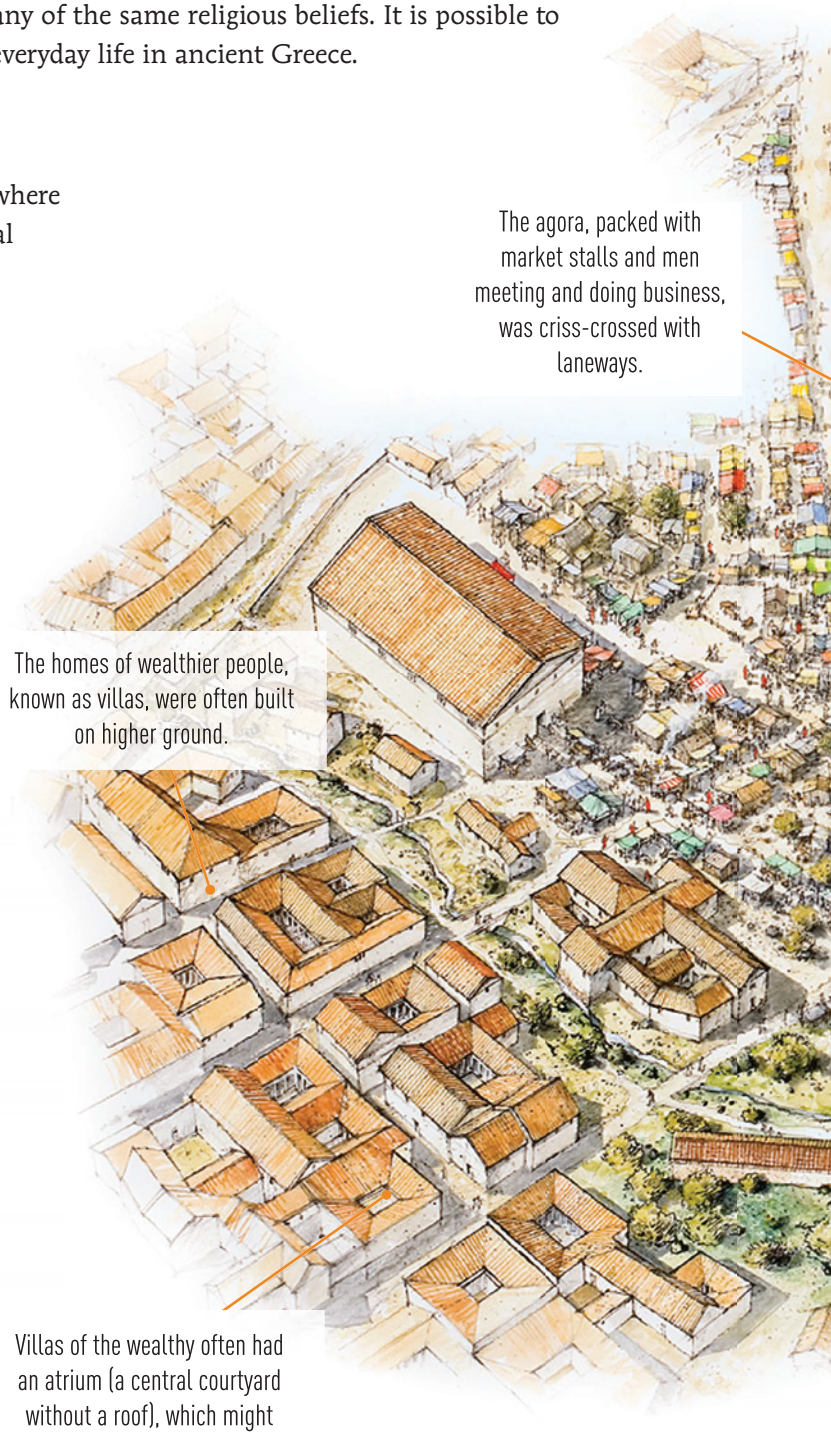
- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta.**

The Greeks living in each of the city-states were fiercely independent, and there were differences between city-states. Despite this, the people of ancient Greece shared a common language, culture and many of the same religious beliefs. It is possible to make some generalisations about everyday life in ancient Greece.

Life in a Greek city

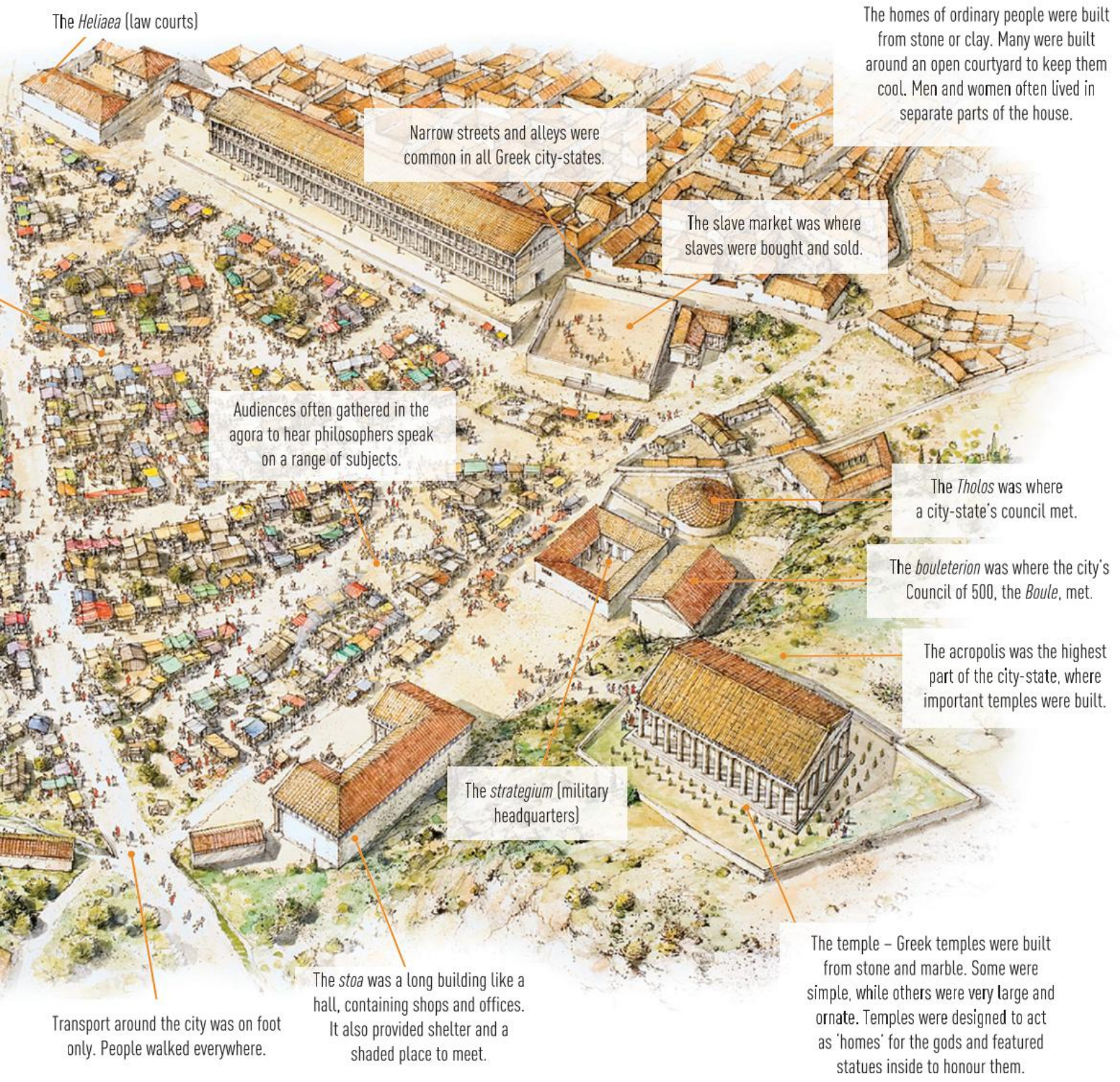
A city-state typically had one city, where most political, religious and cultural activities took place. Source 9 is a modern artist's impression of a typical city in ancient Greece. It shows key areas in the city:

- the agora – a large public meeting space; this was also where the markets were located, and where people did business and were entertained
- the acropolis – a mound or hill on which temples, palaces and other important buildings were built
- a band of houses surrounding the city centre, where the people lived
- beyond the houses, an area of countryside that provided the population with food.



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Source 9 An artist's impression of a city centre in ancient Greece



Living in a Mediterranean climate

Generally, Greece has a 'Mediterranean climate'. This means that it has sunshine year-round, with wet, mild winters and dry, warm summers.

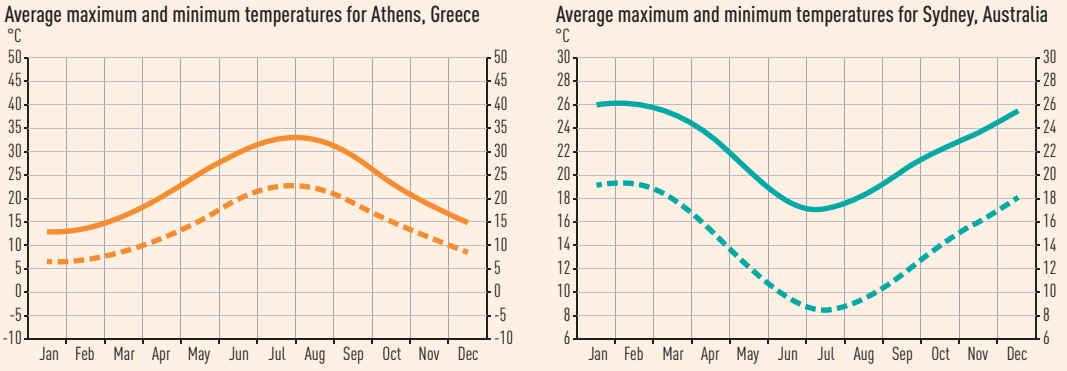
3.7A SOURCE STUDY

Life in a Mediterranean climate

Source 10

The social effects of the climate must not be forgotten. For most of the year, the Greek could work and eat and talk in the open air, somewhat scantily clad, seeking the shade rather than the sun; and this had a large effect on his way of life. Farming left some time to spare ... the ancient Greek [Hesiod] spent most of it talking with his fellow farmers ... The townsmen felt the same need ... Consequently the Greeks lived a very public life. The pressure of the community on the individual was greater than it is in climates where man must shelter indoors for most of his leisure time. It was harder to hide from disapproval, more essential to display what might earn praise.

Anthony Andrews, Greek Society, *Penguin Books, Hammondsworth, 1984, p. 12*



Source 11 The yearly average minimum and maximum temperatures in Athens, Greece, and Sydney, Australia

INTERPRET

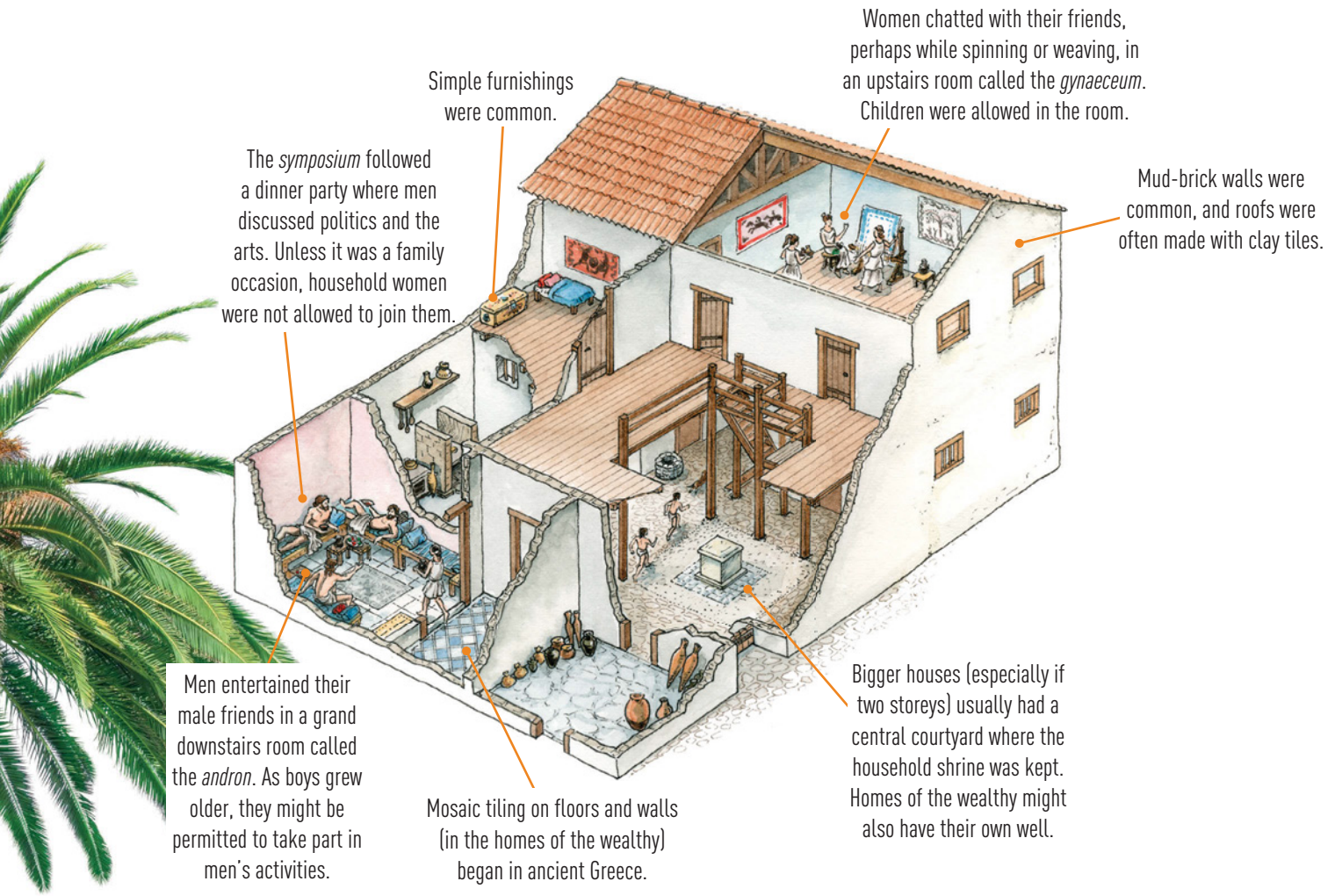
1. According to Source 10, how did the mild climate influence the Greek way of life?
2. Look at Source 11 and compare the climates of Athens and Sydney. With this information, how would you describe the climate of Sydney? (Note the different temperature scale in each graph.)
3. How has Australia's climate affected our way of life? Do you think technologies such as air-conditioning for cooling and heating our homes have made climate a less important influence on society and the way people live?

Social divisions at home

As mentioned earlier, women in ancient Greece were generally confined to the home. Wealthy married women usually led more pleasant lives than did poor women. For them, there were occasional outings to a religious festival, wedding or funeral, or a visit to another woman at her home. There is some evidence suggesting women may have occasionally attended the theatre. Life for a poor woman consisted mostly of looking after the family, fetching water, cooking food, and spinning and weaving cloth.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

The social divisions between men and women, and between wealthy families and their slaves, are evident in the layout of homes in ancient Greece. An area for women only was at the back, often upstairs. Similarly, only men could relax in the large downstairs room that was used for entertainment and discussion. The living areas of slaves were separate from those of the family. Slaves would typically work in the kitchen or gardens and would not be seen in the house unless serving their master and family.



Source 12 An artist's impression of a wealthy family's house in ancient Greece

Marriage and divorce

Girls were married at around 13, often to men twice their age. Their husbands were chosen by their fathers; girls had no say in the matter. The first time a young girl met her new husband was often the day she married him. After the wedding, a new bride would live in her husband's family home and accept all his family's rules and beliefs. He would expect her to obey him and be loyal, and to have children soon. He could divorce her easily if that was not so, or if she could not have children.

Marriage did not affect a man's public life and social freedoms, but women in ancient Greece had a different experience of marriage. For a teenage girl, marriage meant giving away her toys as an offering to the goddess Artemis (protector of young girls). Her life after marriage would be controlled by her husband, as it had been by her father until then. She knew she might be denied access to her children if her husband chose to divorce her.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Even marriage was different for Spartan women. They usually married around the age of 18 and shaved their head in preparation for the marriage, keeping it short afterwards. Because the husband lived in the army barracks, he would have to sneak away to visit his wife.

Fashion and beauty



Source 13 A statue of a Greek woman wearing a *chiton*

Evidence for the clothing and footwear worn by men and women includes what is shown in sculptures, stone reliefs and the paintings on pottery. Garments were loose fitting and simple, and shoes (if worn) were typically sandals. Rich women had the time and wealth to pamper themselves. They would admire their faces in mirrors of polished bronze (as shown in Source 16). Powdered lead and chalk were used to acquire the pale skin that marked an upper-class woman. Eyebrows were darkened (and sometimes joined in the middle, over the nose). Cheeks and lips were rouged.

A garment called a *chiton* was worn by men and women. *Chitons* were knee-length for young men and floor-length for women and older men (see Source 13). *Chitons* were long, lightweight pieces of cloth, either draped around the body and secured with a belt and brooches so the cloth fell in a fold over the waist, or sewn at the sides and pinned along the top to create sleeves. Women always covered their head with a veil when they left the home.

Education

Girls were generally not educated in ancient Greece, although girls in Sparta were given formal physical education so they would be fit and healthy mothers. For boys, education started at age seven. In Athens, boys learnt how to read and write, studied mathematics, and learnt to appreciate dancing, music and poetry. Physical development was also very important, and boys attended a gymnasium from an early age. Once boys reached the teenage years, especially if they were from a wealthy family, they might have a mentor. This was someone, such as a philosopher or highly educated man, who gave them individual instruction.

hoplite
an ancient Greek warrior

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Archaeological and written accounts reveal different aspects of a study, allowing historians to reconstruct the past more effectively.

After the Spartan society became driven by military obligations and duties in the seventh century BC, its education system emphasised physical fitness and the arts of war. Spartan boys left home at age seven and went into military barracks. The aim was to replace family ties and loyalty with ties to the Spartan state. Their education prepared them for a future as soldiers and was often brutal, training the boys to deal with physical pain and hardship, as observed by the Greek philosopher Plutarch. At 20, Spartans officially became warriors or **hoplites** and continued to live in the soldiers' barracks. At 30, they became full citizens, but were still required to live most of the time in barracks rather than at home with their wives and families.

3.7B SOURCE STUDY

Education in ancient Greece



Source 14 Detail from ancient Greek pottery showing a Greek youth learning to dance

Source 15

[Apart from reading and writing] ... their whole education was aimed at developing smart obedience, perseverance under stress and victory in battle ... From the age of twelve, they never wore a tunic, and were given only one cloak a year. Their bodies were rough and knew nothing of baths or oiling.

Observations about Spartan boys, by the Greek historian Plutarch

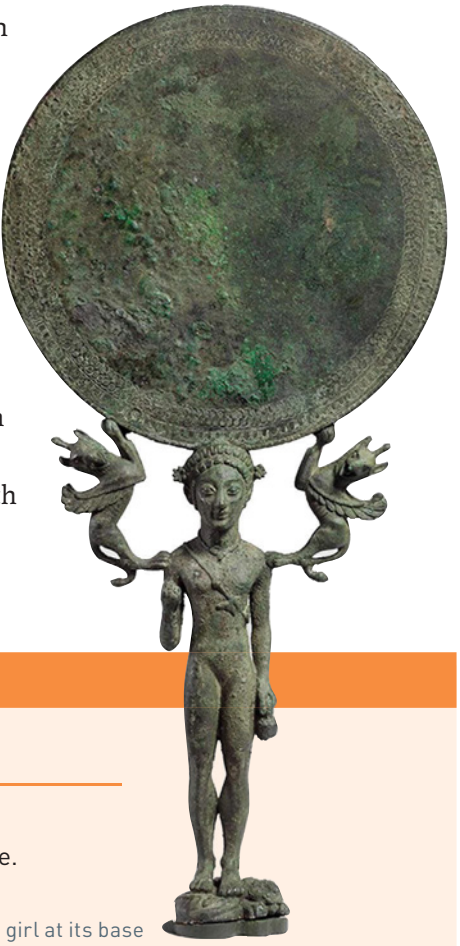
INTERPRET

1 Explain why Source 14 is unlikely to be a scene from Spartan society.
2 According to Plutarch, in Source 15, what were the aims of Spartan education?

A Spartan myth?

The common belief about ancient Sparta is that Spartan families were opposed to luxuries and leisure time. However, there is evidence that indicates Spartans were in some ways just like their neighbours from Athens and other city-states. Archaeologists have found painted pottery, marble sculptures, carvings in bone and ivory, and bronze figurines across Sparta. One explanation of this 'Spartan myth' is that Spartans themselves wanted to be seen as tough, harsh and ruthless. In other words, this view of Spartans by other peoples could have been the result of stories spread by Spartans themselves!

According to a legend that may be part of the Spartan myth, to encourage self-reliance and mental toughness, Spartan boys were often underfed so they would be forced to steal food. If they were caught, they were punished – not for stealing, but for being caught stealing. This Spartan value was illustrated in a story written by Plutarch about a Spartan boy who stole a fox for his dinner and hid it in his cloak. The fox bit and clawed at the boy, but the child 'let [the fox] tear out his guts with his teeth and claws and died right there, rather than let it be seen'.



Source 16 A bronze mirror with a figure of a girl at its base

3.7C SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET

1 Identify three decorative features of the mirror in Source 16.
2 Consider the purpose of a mirror, along with the features identified above. How does this source challenge the 'Spartan myth'?

3.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 In a Greek city, what were typical activities carried out at the agora? What types of activities were done at the acropolis?
2 How did life change for a new bride, and how was it similar to her old life?
3 Why do you think *chitons* were loosely worn and made from lightweight material?
4 Explain how the roles of men and women in ancient Greece influenced the way they were educated.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5 Study Source 9 and use a table to compare and contrast an ancient Greek city with a modern city. In one column, list the things that are similar; in a second column list the things that are different.
6 Look closely at Source 12.
   a What conclusions can you draw about life for the people who lived in this house?
   b List the features of the house that are similar to modern houses, then list the differences.
7 What evidence challenges a common belief that Sparta sacrificed everything for the military way of life?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

8 Think about the different roles of men, women and slaves.
   a How were these roles reflected in the design of houses in ancient Greece?
   b From the perspective of either a man, woman or slave, write a diary entry outlining a typical day both within the house and any roles undertaken away from the house.

3C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

» Outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

1 How were people classified or distinguished in ancient Greek society? (10 marks)

2 Outline the political systems of ancient Greece in the fifth century BC, in:

- **a** Athens (5 marks)
- **b** Sparta (5 marks)
- **c** other city-states with political systems that differ from Athens and Sparta. (5 marks)

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

3 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (10 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves

4 Distinguish between the following groups in ancient Greek society, including a description of their rights and expected roles:

- **a** men and women (10 marks)
- **b** citizens and non-citizens (5 marks)
- **c** slaves and free-born people. (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta

5 Describe the experiences of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta. Include a paragraph on each of the following aspects:

- family life
- schooling
- fashion and beauty
- life in a Greek city. (15 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

3D HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE GREECE AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

3.8 TRADING GOODS AND IDEAS

KEY CONTENT

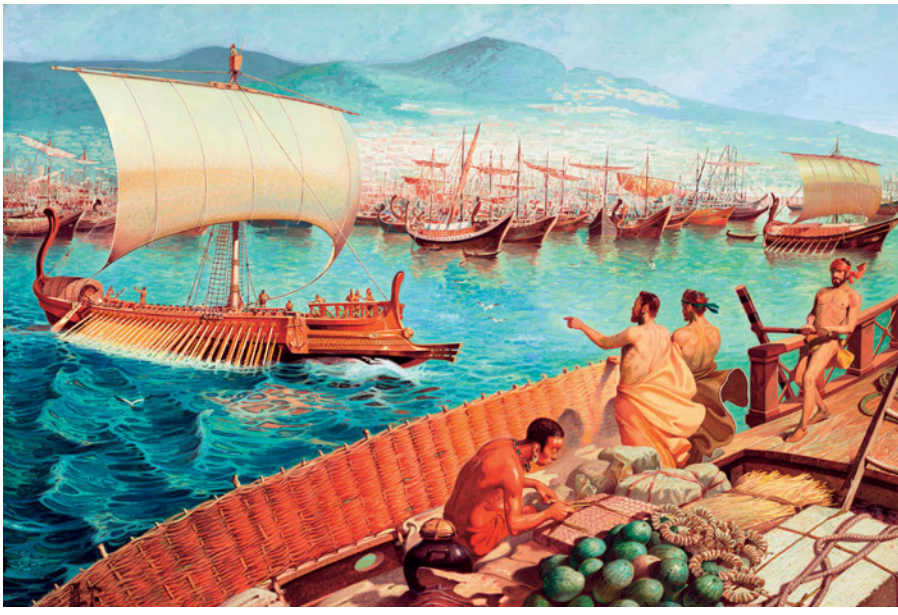
In this topic you will:

- describe significant contacts with other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts for ancient Greece and other societies.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Trade remained a constant feature of all Greek city-states. As populations grew and new ideas advanced along the Silk Roads, the nature of trade changed.



Source 1 An artist's impression of Greek trading ships (*triremes*) at the Greek island of Delos

Greece's soil was fertile for growing olives and grapes, and timber was in plentiful supply for boat-building. However, a shortage of farmland meant a shortage of grain crops. Metals other than silver were also in limited supply.

Ancient Greece's colonies provided much of the grain they needed, and trade links were set up all around the Mediterranean to trade for other resources. Its widespread trading partners, including ancient Egypt and Rome, exposed Greece to a wide range of different **cultures**. Trade also gave the ancient Greeks the opportunities to advance and acquire great wealth. Sea trade became very important to ancient Greece. Ports sprang up along the coastline and many Greek merchants became very rich.

culture
the customs and traditions that a community, society or civilisation develops over time that are passed down from generation to generation

Through sea trade, the Greeks improved their navigation and ship-building skills. They were also introduced to new ideas and learnt skills from those they traded with. These included:

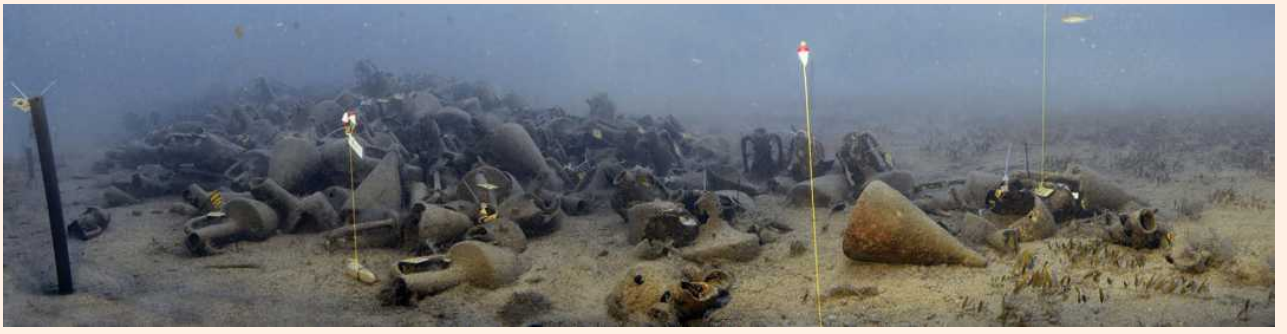
- ideas about astronomy, building methods and mathematics from ancient Egypt (Egyptian design also influenced pottery design during Greece's so-called Oriental period; until then, symbols used for pot decoration in Greece were geometric)
- ways to cook with spices from parts of Asia
- metal technologies from the ancient Syrians.

radiocarbon dating a method used to estimate the age of something that was once alive; the amount of radioactive carbon in the object gives a good indication of age because carbon breaks down over time at a known rate

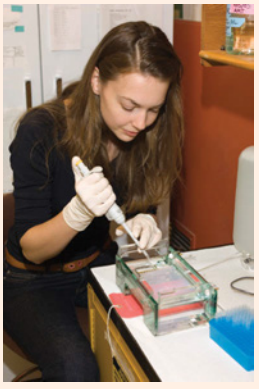
Evidence of the increase in Mediterranean Sea traffic at this time is provided by shipwrecks discovered by marine archaeologists. **Radiocarbon dating** of ancient shipwrecks confirms that two sank during the eighth century BC, and 46 during the fourth century BC.

3.8 SOURCE STUDY

Evidence of trade in ancient Greece



Source 2 This image shows ancient *amphorae*, which provide evidence of the type of cargo carried by a trading ship that sank in the fourth century BC in the Aegean Sea.



Source 3 Dr Maria Hansson, testing for ancient DNA in samples collected from a Greek *amphora*

A new type of DNA analysis has given new insights into centuries-old trade in the Mediterranean. Usually, *amphorae* (ancient storage jars) are empty when found in shipwrecks. Many archaeologists had previously believed that *amphorae* were mainly used to transport wine. However, a new method that analyses ancient DNA molecules from inside the *amphorae* has revealed traces of olive, ginger, walnuts, herbs and grapes (as expected). This suggests that the ancient Greeks produced and traded a wide range of foods, and the economy of the time was much more sophisticated than previously thought. Archaeologist Brendan Foley says that the new research will allow us to 'see who traded what with whom; what people were eating; how they prepared and preserved food; what crops were grown where and when'. One of the researchers, biologist Maria Hansson said: 'It's a feat no one thought was even possible ... it opens up a whole new field of molecular archaeology.'

INTERPRET

1. Identify two examples of technology being used by historians and archaeologists.
2. Researchers discovered that the Greeks traded more than just wine. Why is this discovery significant?
3. Why do you think *amphorae* from shipwrecks are usually empty?
4. According to archaeologist Brendan Foley, what new evidence about life in ancient Greece could become available as a result of this scientific technique?

3.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why were resources in short supply in mainland Greece?
2. Identify some of the skills and ideas gained by ancient Greece from its contact with other societies.
3. What does evidence reveal about trade in the Mediterranean?

3.9 ANCIENT GREECE AT WAR

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

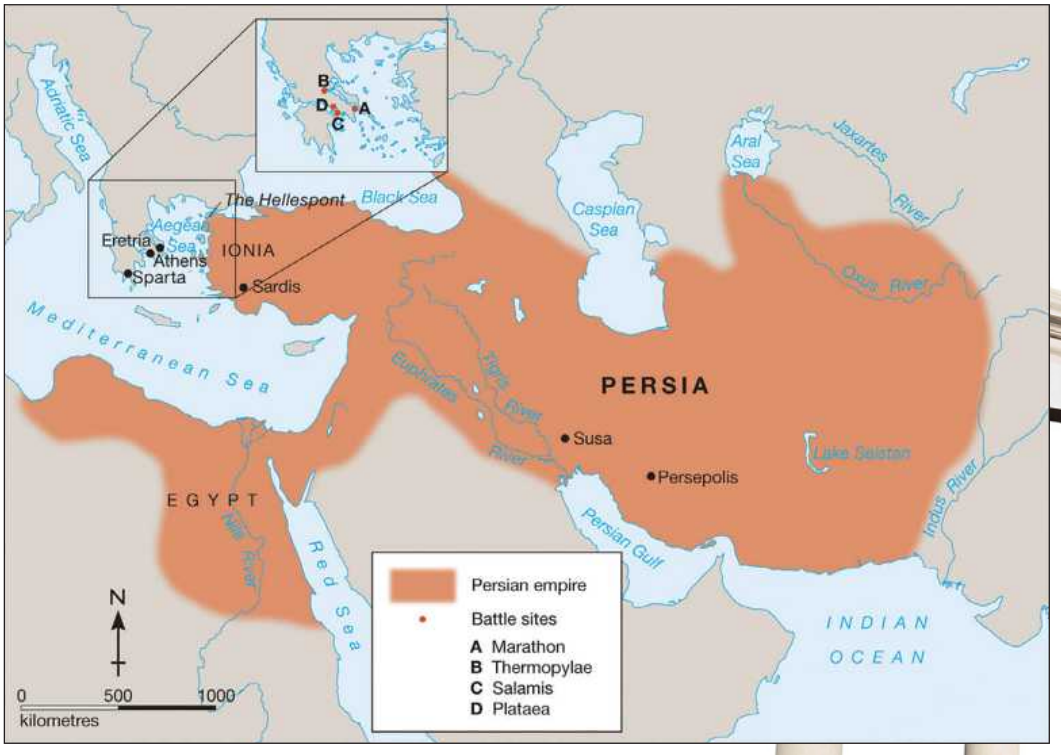
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within ancient Greek society
- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

The ancient Greeks united against attacks from the Persian Empire and also fought among themselves. Wars meant that loyalties between city-states changed, and new military strategies developed. Ultimately, these conflicts weakened the once-powerful city-states of Athens and Sparta, depleting their wealth and populations. Foreign powers such as the Macedonians, and later the Roman Empire, were able to take control of Greece.

The Persian Wars

Our understanding of the Persian Wars relies largely on the work of Herodotus. His version is overwhelmingly 'pro' Greek. Herodotus believed that the Greek victory was partly because the Greeks were favoured by the gods.

The Persian Wars were attempts made by the Persian kings Darius I and Xerxes I to extend their empire. Greece was seen as a potential valuable addition to the Persian Empire. The Persians also saw how useful aspects of Greek culture such as engineering and the sciences could be. The Persian Wars were fought in 490 BC and then again in 480-479 BC. Two of the battles from these wars, the Battle of Marathon and the Battle of Thermopylae, have become famous in history, fable and myth.



Source 4 The extent of the Persian Empire at the time of the wars with ancient Greece

Persia's first invasion and the Battle of Marathon

STRANGE BUT TRUE

After the Battle of Marathon, the Greek leader Miltiades knew that the retreating Persian fleet would head to Athens. He ordered a young man to run 42 kilometres ahead to warn the city. The runner succeeded, but died of exhaustion. Although this story may be a myth, it is the basis of the modern-day marathon race.

The Persian Empire extended from India to Egypt. In 521 BC, Darius I became ruler and extended Persian control to a number of Greek city-states in Ionia, a region now in modern Turkey. In 499 BC, these Ionian Greek states rebelled against the Persians, and two Greek city-states, Athens and Eretria, sent warships to help the rebellion. Despite their help, the Greek rebellion against the Persians was crushed. According to Herodotus, Darius not only wanted to extend his empire, he also wanted to punish the Greeks. He sent his army out against the Greeks in 490 BC, attacking and destroying Eretria. Darius then ordered a Persian fleet to sail to Marathon, close to Athens. The battle that resulted is one of the most important in Greek history. It is known as the Battle of Marathon. This battle was fought between the Greek hoplites and the more lightly armoured Persians.

The Persian army was used to fighting in the vast open plains of their homelands. Their tactics relied on vast numbers, with archers and cavalry who could march long distances to battle. Unfortunately for the Persians, their battles on the Greek mainland were generally fought in very mountainous country. These conditions were better suited to the more heavily armoured Greek hoplites and their battle tactics.

3.9A SOURCE STUDY

The Battle of Marathon

Source 5

Amongst the Athenian commanders opinion was divided: some were against risking a battle, on the ground that the Athenian force was too small to stand a chance of success; others – and amongst them Miltiades – urged it. It seemed for a time as if the more faint-hearted policy would be adopted ... Miltiades' words prevailed, and ... the decision to fight was made.

One result of the disposition of the Athenian troops before the battle was the weakening of the centre by the effort to extend the line sufficiently to cover the whole Persian front; the two wings were strong, but the line in the centre was only a few ranks deep. The dispositions [were] made ... word was given to move and the Athenians advanced at a run towards the enemy, not less than a mile [1600 metres]) away ... they were the first Greeks, so far as we know, to charge at a run, and the first to look without flinching at Persian dress and the men who wore it ... The struggle at Marathon was long drawn out. In the centre ... the advantage was with the foreigners ... but the Athenians on one wing and the Plataeans on the other were both victorious ... drawing the two wings together into a single unit, they turned their attention to the Persians who had broken through the centre. Here again they were triumphant, chasing the routed enemy, and cutting them down. ... In the battle of Marathon some 6400 Persians were killed; the losses of the Athenians were 192.

An account of the Battle of Marathon by the Greek historian Herodotus, in The Histories, *Penguin Books, London, 1996 pp. 362–4*

INTERPRET

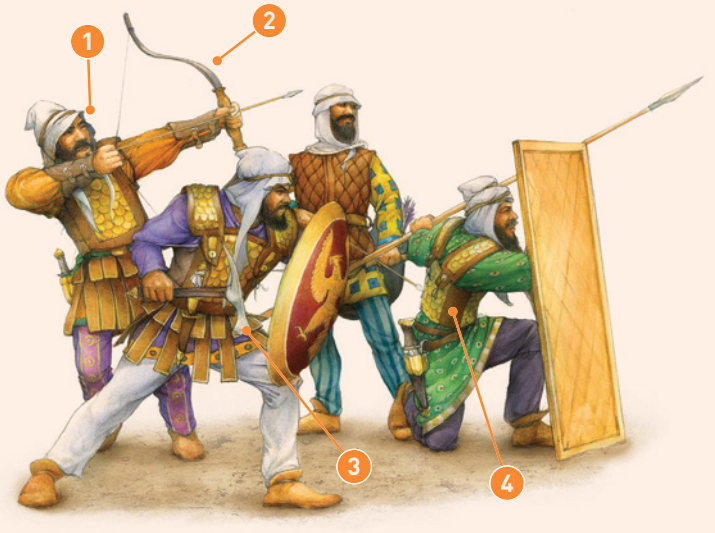
1 Who was the Athenian leader?
2 Write a narrative text outlining the key events in the battle.
3 What were the Persian and the Greek losses in the battle?
4 According to the source, which factors contributed most to the Greek victory?

3.9B SOURCE STUDY

1. Helmet; some curved out at the bottom to deflect slipping blades away from the body. It covered everything but the eyes.
2. Chest plate called a cuirass, made from bronze or leather; sometimes it was moulded to look like a bare torso (abs and all). Armour was heavy (about 30 kilograms) and hot to wear in the summer.
3. Double-edged sword, with a curved blade
4. Concave round shield, usually decorated
5. Metal greaves, which guarded the shins
6. Red cloak; some researchers suggest that this was not worn in battle.
7. Spear, over 2 metres long, with an iron blade at one end and bronze spike at the other
8. Long hair, usually combed and decorated before a battle



Source 6 An artist's impression of a Greek hoplite



1. A thanvabara or archer wears a loose-fitting tunic and trousers under his leather armour. His bow is made from wood, bone and animal sinew and has a range of over a 100 metres. He carries a secondary weapon, a sword, in case he is required to fight the enemy at close quarters.
2. Bows and arrows used for enemies at a distance
3. A Persian soldier wears leather armour and is armed with a war hammer. He carries a shield made of fabric-covered wood.
4. The sparabara or 'shield bearers' were the frontline infantrymen. This soldier wears an embroidered tunic and Scythian-style headdress. In battle, several sparabara form a shield wall using their large, wicker shields and 2-metre spears to protect the archers and other soldiers. The wicker shields were light and manoeuvrable, but did not provide protection against heavily armoured opponents.

Source 7 An artist's impression of Persian soldiers

INTERPRET

1 Sources 6 and 7 are artists' impressions of a Greek hoplite and Persian soldiers at the time of the Battle of Marathon. Compare and contrast the armour and weapons of the two soldiers. Which would best suit a battle fought at close quarters? Explain your reasoning.

CASE STUDY

The Battle of Marathon and the role of Miltiades



Source 8 A statue of Miltiades in Athens

The Athenian leader Miltiades is linked to the famous Greek victory at Marathon. His role in the victory, however, may have been an exaggeration and a convenient political invention. Our understanding is based on the controversial account by Herodotus (see Source 5) and archaeological research.

There is a consensus that the Persians landed at the Bay of Marathon north of Athens with a force of around 20 000. The site was a plain 10 kilometres long and 5 kilometres wide. This open ground was suited to Persian tactics. When news of the landing reached Athens, the Athenians knew that there would be no military aid from Sparta for weeks. Athens did, however, have help from 1000 hoplites from the neighbouring city of Plataea, and this is often ignored in the story.

The Greeks marched to meet the enemy. After several days' delay, with the Greeks on the high ground and the Persians on the plain near the beach, the battle began. According to Herodotus, one of the reasons for the delay was that the Athenians were waiting for Miltiades' turn to command in a rotating system among the leaders or *strategoi*. However, there is a lack of evidence for this assertion and modern scholars doubt the claim.



Source 9 The plain of Marathon as it is today

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According to Herodotus, Miltiades made the key decisions, including when and how to attack. He is said to have extended the line of Greek soldiers, spreading them out to match the Persian line. However, this meant the line was thinner, so instead of being 10 to 12 soldiers deep, it was five to six soldiers deep in the middle, making the centre weaker. Herodotus also claimed Miltiades ordered a dramatic advance at the run, covering approximately 1600 metres. This run would have been difficult, if not impossible, for soldiers in heavy armour. The consensus is that if they did run, it was only for the last part.

The result was a Greek victory but can Herodotus' version of the critical role of Miltiades be trusted? Herodotus always emphasised the roles of great men. Therefore, it is not surprising that Miltiades was given undue credit for the Greek victory.

Professor James Lacey wrote in 2011 that there were reasons to argue that the Athenian commander Callimachus played a more important role at Marathon than Miltiades. Callimachus was both more experienced and better regarded than Miltiades at the time. Lacey argues that Herodotus' version is a distortion arising from three factors:

1 Callimachus was killed in the battle, and was therefore not able to offer his version of events. He also came from a region of Attica that had supported a former leader, Peisistratus, who was unpopular when Herodotus was writing.
2 Miltiades' son Cimon became a powerful political leader in Athens. Cimon built much of his political reputation on the fame of his father.
3 Herodotus was earning a living in Athens giving public readings of his history at the height of Cimon's power and he wanted to keep the powerful Cimon happy.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES AND CONTESTABILITY

The ancient record presents a different perspective to the archaeological record. Modern historians have to interpret meaning from the different accounts to determine the truth.



Source 10 The Athenian funeral mound at Marathon, where 192 dead Athenians were cremated and then buried; the mound is thought to mark the area of the most intense fighting.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

GO DEEPER

1 Using the case study, as well as your own research, write an account of the Battle of Marathon in your own words. You will need to write around 500 words to cover all the important information.

Persia's second invasion

The mighty Persian Empire made another attempt to conquer Greece in 480 BC. The son of Darius, Xerxes I, led a much bigger army than the one that his father had sent 10 years earlier. This time, however, the Athenians and the Spartans worked together to defend Greece.

King Leonidas of Sparta moved north to hold the narrow pass at Thermopylae and block the Persian army's advance. The Spartans, in a heroic and renowned stand, held the pass until they were betrayed by a fellow Greek who told the Persians how to find a way around their lines. Leonidas still refused to retreat. Although he died along with the 300 Spartans of his personal guard, they inflicted huge losses on the Persians.

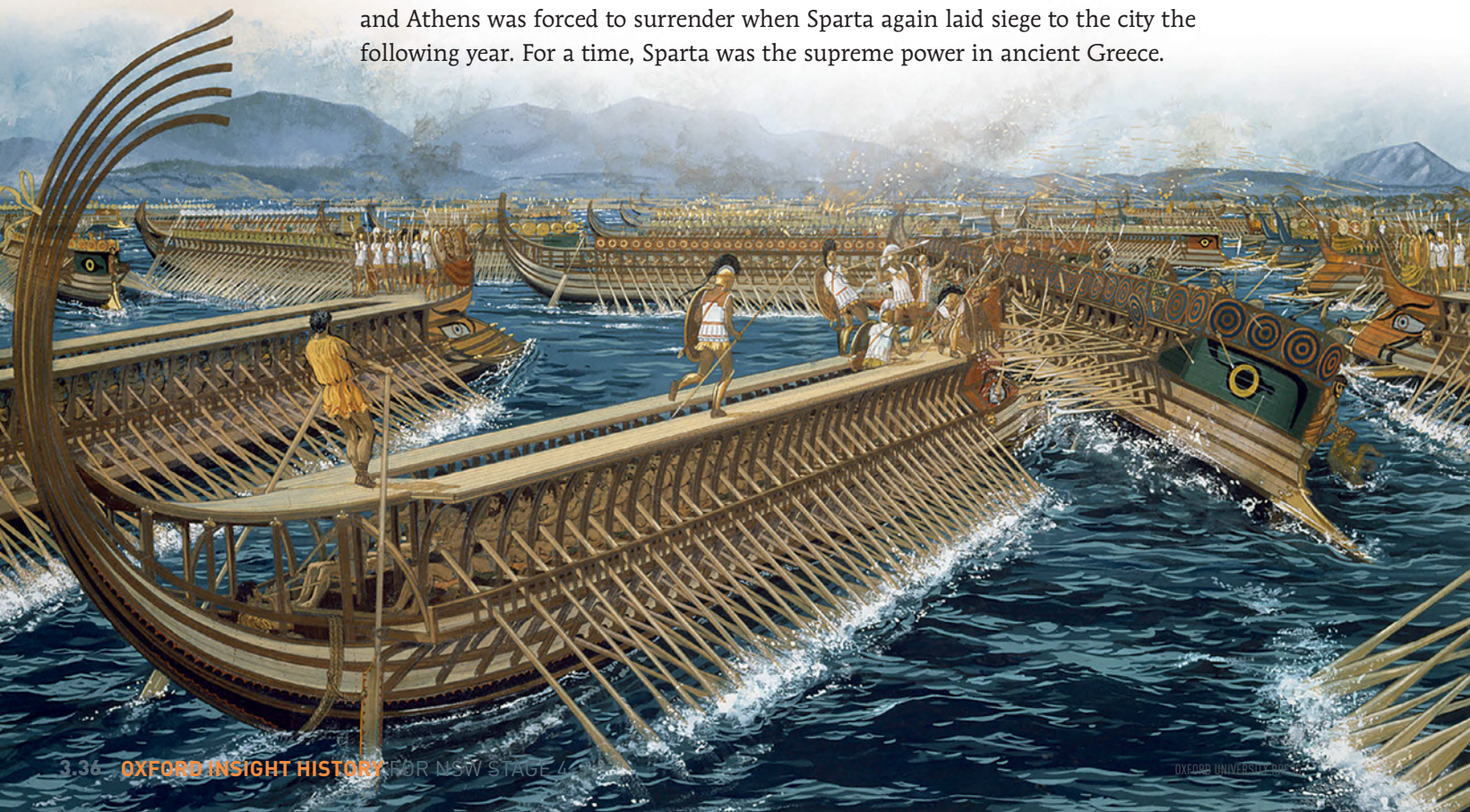
The Persians reached Athens, but the 'last stand' of Leonidas at Thermopylae gave the Greeks enough time to regroup as a force on the Peloponnesian Peninsula. A sea battle later that year – the Battle of Salamis – gave the Athenian navy an important victory, in which they sank or captured 300 ships in the narrow straits of Salamis, near Athens. But the Persian threat did not end until another Spartan army defeated the Persians at Plataea one year later, in 479 BC.

The Peloponnesian Wars

Our knowledge of the Peloponnesian Wars comes mainly from the account left by Thucydides. He was an Athenian and wrote that his account could be trusted because he lived through the events that he recorded.

Long-held tensions between Sparta and Athens resulted in a conflict between them and their allied city-states. This conflict, known as the Peloponnesian Wars, lasted from 431 BC to 405 BC. It started with an attack by the Spartan army and a 10-year siege of the walled city of Athens that wore out both sides. A truce was called in 421 BC, but fighting soon resumed. A huge sea battle was fought in 406 BC at Aegospotami, ending in a stunning victory by Sparta. The once-great Athenian navy was largely destroyed, and Athens was forced to surrender when Sparta again laid siege to the city the following year. For a time, Sparta was the supreme power in ancient Greece.

Source 11 An artist's impression of a sea battle during the time of the Peloponnesian Wars



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Conflict with Macedon

For Athens and other city-states, the consequences of the wars was the loss of their wealth, as well as a great deal of social upheaval. Much of the farmland in ancient Greece was ruined and trade was disrupted, which affected food supplies and the general economy. Sparta's closed society, which only allowed the descendants of original Spartans to become citizens, meant that its population had seriously declined from battle losses. This, in turn, would have affected the social structure.

While ancient Greece was starting to crumble, a new power was gaining strength in the north: Macedon. Under the rule of King Philip II, the army of Macedon brought most of Greece under Macedonian control by 338 BC. Philip was assassinated in 336 BC and his 20-year-old son Alexander took control. He would become known as Alexander the Great.

In the 13 years of his rule, Alexander's army defeated the Persians, ending their empire and creating his own empire, which stretched from Egypt to what is now Pakistan. Alexander greatly admired Greek culture and had been educated in its traditions. In the lands he conquered, he set up Greek rulers and introduced Greek customs, belief systems and practices. This widespread Greek influence, which survived for centuries, is referred to as the region's Hellenistic period (*Hellene* is the Greek word for 'Greek').

3.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Create a flow chart or timeline of the key events of the Persian Wars.
2. Why was Athens forced to surrender to the Spartans, ending the Peloponnesian Wars?
3. Explain the consequences suffered by Greece as a result of the Persian and Peloponnesian wars.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Use digital and other resources to investigate the life and achievements of Alexander the Great. Write a report to present your findings about his upbringing and how he created an empire. Remember to include any relevant sources.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5. Based on your investigation of Alexander the Great, create a 2- to 3-minute video on why he is considered to be a significant individual in the ancient world. Your video can include images with voice recording, or can be acted out in scenes. Remember to use a range of evidence to support your argument.



Source 12 A statue of Alexander the Great

3.10 THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

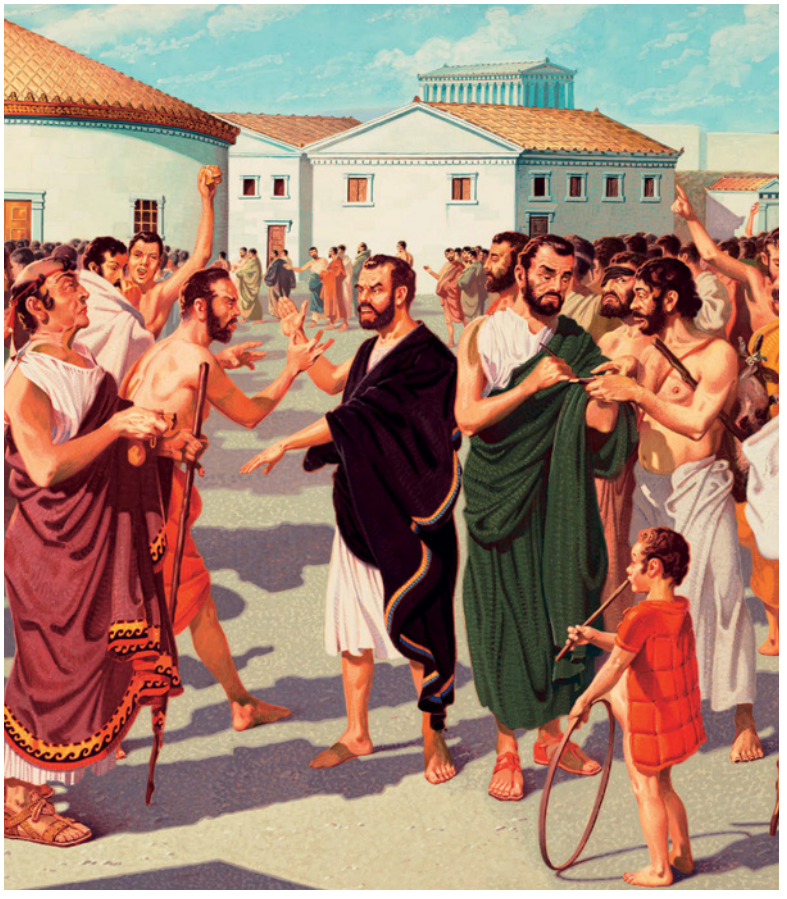
- explain the legacy of ancient Greece.

legacy
something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

The **legacy** of ancient Greece means it is sometimes called the 'cradle of Western civilisation' because many of the Western world's founding ideas and traditions have come from the period known as the Golden Age or Classical period of Athens. These include democracy as a form of government, Western drama, aspects of modern architecture and sculpture, and the work of Greek mathematicians, philosophers and storytellers who continue to inspire.

Democratic government and the rule of law

Athens is acknowledged as the birthplace of the ideals of democracy, and some features of ancient Greek law remain in modern court systems. The Greek philosopher Plato and his student Aristotle wrote a great deal about government and the importance of the rule of law. Their ideas are still valued and continue to be studied today.



Source 13 Greek philosophers often debated their ideas in the marketplace.

Philosophy and education

Philosophers concern themselves with key issues about truth (the nature of reality) and ethics (what is right and wrong). They also study logic (the organisation of thinking and argument). Western philosophy owes something to Socrates, a pioneer of both Western philosophy and teaching, but perhaps even more to his student Plato. Plato established a school in Athens called the Academy, which provided the basis for our word 'academic'.

When teachers ask questions meant to make students think and ask further questions, rather than just test their memory for facts, they are using what is called the 'Socratic method', which has its basis in the ideas of Socrates.

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Drama, language and literature

Ancient Greece provided the foundation of modern theatre, which in turn led to film and television dramas. Many of our traditions about the theatre and about comedy and tragedy date back to the Greeks. Actors are also known as thespians, from the name of the Greek poet Thespis, who is said to have pioneered the use of actors on stage. Well-known playwrights and writers in ancient Greece include Sophocles, Aeschylus, Aesop and Aristophanes.

All Western alphabets can be traced back to the alphabet that the ancient Greeks themselves adopted from the Phoenicians in about 800 BC. Even the word 'alphabet' comes from the first two letters of the ancient Greek alphabet – *alpha* and *beta*. Many English words have Greek origins.

Western culture owes much to the mythology of ancient Greece. The legends and myths about its gods and heroes, such as those told in the epic poems of Homer, continue to inspire and entertain us through modern versions in novels and films.



Source 14 A mask used by actors in ancient Greece

Architecture and sculpture

The ancient Greeks were famous for their impressive public buildings and their temples. A key feature of these buildings was their use of stone columns, which formed the basis of architecture in the classical style.

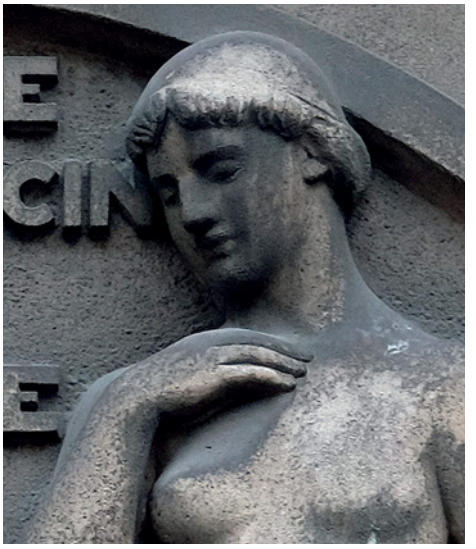
The ancient Greeks made life-like sculptures of people, often in the nude, to show the beauty of the human body. This classical style was later brought back into favour by Renaissance artists such as Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci.



Source 15 Australia's democratic system of government, and even the architecture of its federal parliament building, is a legacy of the ancient Greek civilisation.

Mathematics, science and medicine

Archimedes was a Greek mathematician who invented, among other things, a water-pumping device known as the Archimedes screw. Other important Greeks include Pythagoras and Euclid, who were pioneers of mathematics and geometry. All doctors take a version of the Hippocratic Oath, a promise to care for the sick, to respect human life and the privacy of patients. This idea comes from the Greek scholar Hippocrates, who is sometimes called 'the father of Western medicine'.



Source 16 Agnodice is believed to have been the first female physician and midwife in ancient Greece

3.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Which aspects of Western civilisation originated in ancient Greece?
2 Where does the word 'alphabet' come from?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Which of ancient Greece's legacies do you think has been the most important for the modern world? Write a persuasive text to explain your answer.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 In Athens, plays were first held in the agora, then in open-air auditoriums as their popularity grew. Investigate how plays originated, and how they were structured and performed in ancient Greek auditoriums. Use a model or sketch to present your findings.

GO DEEPER

5 The exercise of mind and body is a Greek legacy. One of Socrates' students, Plato, wrote: 'In order to succeed in life, God provided two means: education and physical activity.' Have a class discussion about what this statement means.
6 Copy the table below, which lists Greek words (or root words), their general meaning and an English word that has developed from the Greek. In each case, add other English words to the third column, using that same root. You may find a dictionary helpful.

Greek word	General meaning	English word
demos	the people	democracy
anti	against	anticlockwise
geo	earth	geography
bios	life	biology
therm	heat	thermometer
logos	word	dialogue

3D

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE GREECE AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within ancient Greek society

1 Identify the major conflict between Athens and Sparta, and describe the course and the result of this conflict. (10 marks)

2 What consequences did this conflict have for Athens and Sparta, and for ancient Greek society as a whole? (5 marks)

» Describe significant contacts with other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

3 Identify trading and other contacts between ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies. (5 marks)

4 Identify the major conflict fought between Greek city-states and the Persian Empire, and describe the course and result of this conflict. (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts for ancient Greece and other societies

5 What consequences did trading and other contacts have for ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies? (5 marks)

6 What consequences did the major conflict have for ancient Greece and the Persian Empire? (5 marks)

7 What consequences did the conflict between ancient Greece and its neighbouring power have for Greece and the ancient world? (5 marks)

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

8 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (10 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient Greece

9 Identify and describe four ideas, technologies or cultural traditions that are legacies of the ancient Greeks. Explain how each of these legacies has influenced the modern world. (15 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 to 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1 The Colosseum was used to stage gladiatorial fights during the Roman Empire.

4

ANCIENT ROME

The civilisation of ancient Rome lasted around 1300 years. At its heart was the city of Rome, which grew out of settlements in the seven hills near the Tiber River. Fuelled by trade and important links to the Silk Roads, alliances and the strength of its army, Rome grew in size and strength. By 201 BC, Rome had become a vast empire that included mainland Italy and the islands of Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica. Within another 300 years, the Roman army had conquered lands as far north as England and as far east as Egypt. Many of Rome's traditions, beliefs, cultural practices and technical skills have heavily influenced Western civilisation. The Romans built cities, roads, sanitation facilities and even central heating systems. The language of the Romans – Latin – also became the basis for most Western European languages. Today, the remains of ancient Rome are some of the most important cultural sites in the world and among the most visited.

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HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME? 4A

In this section you will:

» describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Rome

» explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society.

CHECKPOINT 4A

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED? 4B

In this section you will:

» outline how society in ancient Rome was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion

» describe the roles of key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves

» assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

CHECKPOINT 4B

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE? 4C

In this section you will:

» explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Rome are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

CHECKPOINT 4C

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE ROME AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES? 4D

In this section you will:

» identify conflicts within ancient Roman society

» explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society

» describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Rome and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

» explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies

» explain the legacy of ancient Rome.

CASE STUDY: HANNIBAL

CHECKPOINT 4D

ANCIENT ROME – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE



Source 2 According to Roman legend, Romulus and his brother Remus were raised by a wolf. Romulus is said to have killed his brother before founding Rome.

753 BC
According to legend, Rome is founded by Romulus.

700 | 500 | 400 | 300 | 200 | 100

509 BC
The Romans throw out the last Etruscan king and set up the Roman Republic.

312 BC
The first major Roman road (the Via Appia) and the first aqueduct are built.

264 BC
The first gladiator show is presented in Rome.

250 BC
Rome controls most of Italy.

218 BC
The Carthaginian leader Hannibal invades Italy.

149 BC
Rome's third and final battle of the Punic wars ends in 146 BC, destroying Carthage.

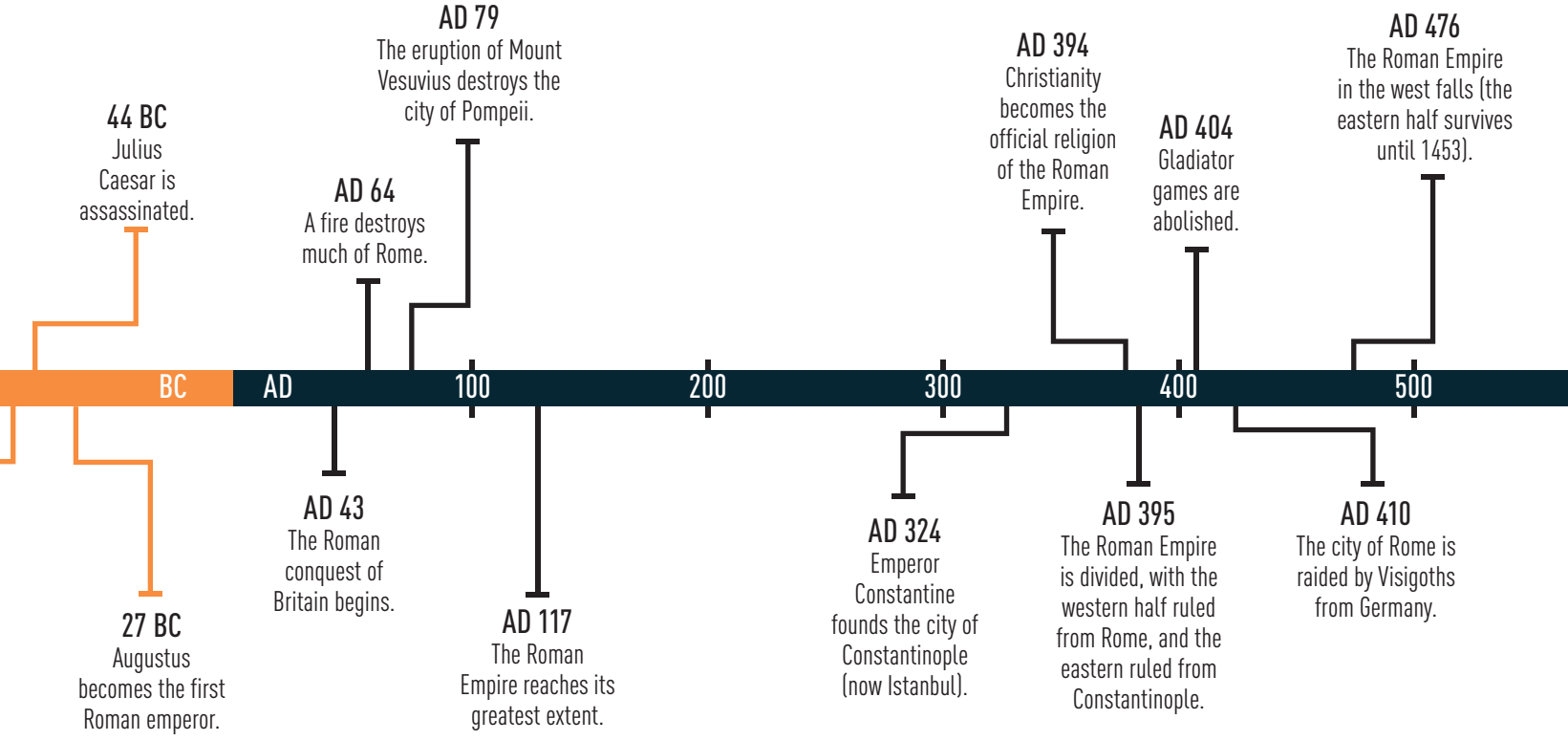
55–54 BC
Julius Caesar raids Britain but does not stay.



Source 3
A coin depicting Hannibal, famous for marching elephants across the Alps



Source 4 A cast of a victim of the Mount Vesuvius eruption found in the ruins of Pompeii





Source 5 An artist's impression of the assassination of Julius Caesar

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How long did gladiator games exist in Rome?
2. Which modern capital city was founded by a Roman emperor?
3. When was the Roman Empire at its greatest extent?
4. Who was the first emperor of Rome?
5. When did Rome become a republic?

4A HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

4.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Rome
- explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society.

Rome began as a small settlement on one of seven hills beside the Tiber River, in what is now central Italy. The Roman writer Varro calculated that Rome was first settled in 753 BC, which has now become the accepted official date. However, the first small settlements on the Roman hills have been dated by archaeologists as being from the tenth century BC.

Rome's position was excellent for future growth and trade, about 25 kilometres inland from the Mediterranean Sea at the first point where the Tiber River is narrow enough for bridges to be built. The Tiber at this point could still be accessed by seagoing ships, and the crossings allowed easy access to overland trade routes. The site was also well provided with natural springs for fresh water.



Source 1 The site of the original crossing of the Tiber River; the left-hand span of the bridge dates back to 62 BC.

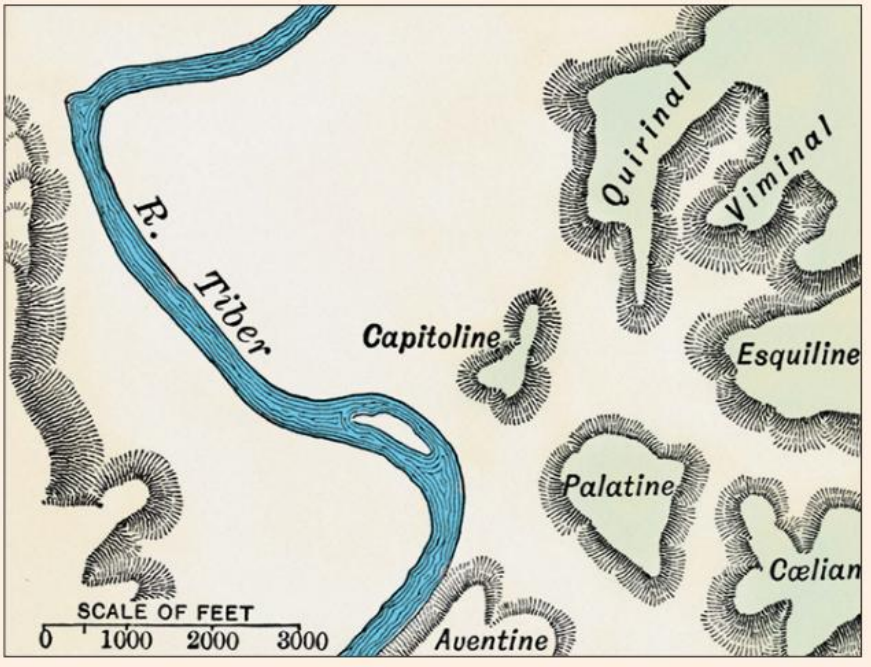
Other geographical features on the Italian Peninsula played an important part in Rome's history. Rome's earliest settlements developed in the region's western plains, but much of the region is mountainous. A rugged mountain range, the Apennines, runs down most of the length of the Peninsula. To the north, the Alps form a natural barrier to the rest of Europe, as shown in Source 2.

4.1 SOURCE STUDY

The geographical setting of ancient Rome



Source 2 Rome's location in the Mediterranean



Source 3 An illustrated map of the seven hills of Rome

INTERPRET

Study Sources 2 and 3 and answer the following questions.

1. Identify the mountain ranges in and around the Italian Peninsula.
2. Identify the seas surrounding the Italian Peninsula.
3. List the seven hills surrounding Rome.

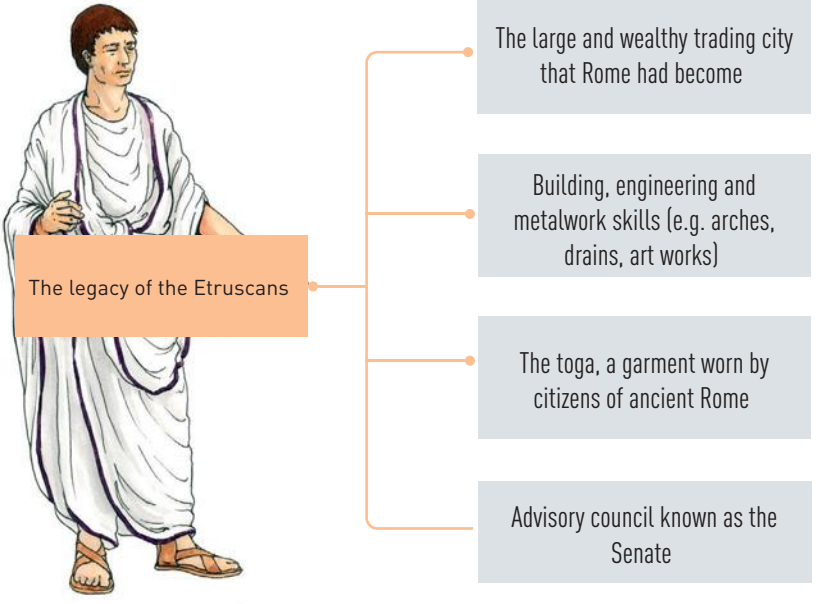
Rome's mythical origins

Romans developed myths about their origins, the most famous of which is about the twin brothers Romulus and Remus. According to the story, they were the sons of Mars, the Roman god of war, and a princess. A jealous uncle who wanted to take power from Mars ordered a servant to drown the boys in the river, but the servant took pity on them and set them afloat in a wooden cradle. When they were washed up on the shore, a female wolf fed the boys with her milk. They were later found by a shepherd.

As adults, Romulus and Remus agreed to build a new city near where the wolf had found them, but argued over the site. Romulus chose the Palatine Hill and Remus the Aventine Hill. Romulus began to build a wall but Remus mockingly jumped over it, at which the angry Romulus killed his brother. He then built the city, which he named after himself.

Historians treat this story with caution, because there are many examples throughout history of brothers falling out and one killing the other. The story of Romulus and Remus was probably intended as a lesson to all Romans that the city of Rome and defence of its walls was more important than family.

Source 4 Some achievements and customs of the Etruscans that were adopted and developed further by the Romans



Early rule by the Etruscans

Long before the city of Rome became a powerful force in the Mediterranean world, the Roman people were ruled by the kings of a neighbouring **civilisation** known as the Etruscans. In 509 BC, a revolt by the Romans drove out the Etruscan king Tarquin the Proud and it was declared that Rome would have no more kings. However, some elements of Rome's Etruscan heritage influenced the development of Roman civilisation (see Source 4).

civilisation
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

4.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How did Rome get its name?
2. Identify three aspects of Roman society that had their origins in Etruscan heritage.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3. Create an infographic summarising some of the advantages of Rome's geographical setting and natural features.

GO DEEPER

4. Use Google Earth to study the site of modern Rome. Identify some of the hills of Rome, particularly the Capitoline Hill. Describe your observations and then conduct research to find out about its uses through history, and what can be seen there today.

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HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Rome

1 Describe ancient Rome's geographical setting. (5 marks)

2 Look at Source 5 to identify the natural features in and around ancient Rome. (5 marks)



Source 5 The natural features around ancient Rome

» Explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society

3 Explain how its geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Roman society developed in ancient times. (10 marks)

Total marks [/20]

4A CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

4B HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

4.2 ROMAN SOCIETY DURING THE REPUBLIC

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient Rome was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

In order to understand life in ancient Rome, it is important to understand the experiences of different classes and groups.

The society of ancient Rome was highly structured and governed by a complex set of rules and customs. People knew their place – there were clear distinctions between men and women, between the wealthy and the poor, between slaves and freeborn people, and between the rulers and those they ruled.

Rule in the Republic

Following the overthrow of Etruscan rule, the Romans set up a **republic**. The Roman Republic, which lasted from 509–27 BC, was ruled by the **Roman Senate**, which was made up of rich citizens from powerful families, called **patricians**. Each year two **consuls** were elected from the Senate to exercise power. Source 1 outlines the role and responsibilities of the consuls and other magistrates or government officials.

republic
a system of government in which the power lies with a group of elected officials rather than a king or queen

Roman Senate
a group of officials (senators) with ruling power in ancient Rome; the Senate had a lot of power during the republic; it continued to function during the empire, but its power was reduced

patrician
an educated and usually influential male member of one of ancient Rome's aristocratic families; usually a wealthy landowner

consul
the top official in ancient Rome; there were two consuls, each with different responsibilities

plebeian
one of the many poor and uneducated people in ancient Rome

Source 1 Government officials of ancient Rome

Official	Number appointed	Role and responsibilities
Consuls	2 (for 1 year)	Top ruling officials who shared power; they called and oversaw meetings of the Senate, and managed armies
Praetors	Up to 16	Managed the legal system; they appointed (or were) judges, and could be appointed as governors in the provinces
Aediles	2	Looked after food supply, games, public buildings, city maintenance and markets
Quaestors	Up to 40	Looked after financial matters within cities and the army
Censors	2 (every 5 years)	Reviewed Senate membership, enrolled new citizens, conducted census, and oversaw tax collection and public work contracts

Ordinary citizens, known as **plebeians**, could meet in assemblies to discuss issues and vote to elect magistrates, but in reality they had little political power. As Rome grew, the plebeians grew discontented by their lack of influence and rebelled, refusing to serve in the army. It was agreed that they could elect two representatives called tribunes who could stop any action of the Senate by calling out '*veto*' (Latin for 'I forbid'). This word is now part of our English language and is used to mean putting a stop to something. By the early first century BC, the Senate had around 300 members, all of whom were current and former government officials. If they behaved appropriately, they were members for life.



Source 2 A nineteenth-century painting of a meeting of the Roman Senate

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 2.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

Citizens of Rome

Roman citizenship was highly prized. Roman citizens had more rights and much more social power and influence than non-citizens. Once they turned 25, they could vote, be elected as magistrates, serve in the army and draw up contracts. They could also legally defend themselves and did not have to pay certain taxes. They could not be tortured or **crucified** as punishment for breaking the law.

Only men could be citizens – and even then, only certain men. In addition to patricians and plebeians, there was a third social class (based on birth and wealth), called equites, as shown in Source 3.

Slaves could not be citizens. In fact they had no freedoms or rights at all. Their master could do with them as he wished, including killing them. Some slaves were given their freedom and a few became very wealthy. Any sons born to freed slaves could become citizens. Foreigners (free men born outside Rome) had some rights but were not full citizens. This changed in AD 212 when it was declared that all freeborn men throughout the **empire** could be citizens.

crucify
to put a person to death by nailing or binding his or her hands and feet to a wooden cross; this punishment was called 'crucifixion'

empire
a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and cultures, that are ruled by a central power or leader (known as an emperor or empress)

Source 3 Classes of citizen in ancient Rome

Patricians	Equites	Plebeians
These men could trace their line of descent back to very important families. They were also very wealthy landowners. For a long time, they had all the controlling power. 	These men were descended from farmers who had provided the money and horses for military service in the early Roman army. Over time, they became Rome's wealthy merchants and businessmen. 	These were the common men, including poor townsmen and poorer rural workers. At first, they had very little say in what happened in ancient Rome. This changed over time. 

The role of women in ancient Rome

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In a Roman household the father had absolute power. He could even condemn his wife and children to death if he wished.

In ancient Rome, women were expected to be good wives and mothers. Many were highly respected but they had no real power and they could not vote or own property. Legally, they had no control over their children. They, their children, their sons' wives and children, and any slaves were all strictly controlled by the senior male in the extended family. Women had to have a male guardian with them in public (such as their father, husband or a brother). Among women there was a 'pecking order'; young, newly married women were very much controlled by their mothers-in-law.

Women's prime role was to raise children and run the household. Wealthy women had slaves to help them with these tasks. Girls could marry at the age of 12. The usual age was around 14, but some waited until their late teens or twenties. A husband was chosen by a girl's parents, particularly her father, and they were often much older than their brides.

A few women, especially those who were older, did work outside the home. This usually involved helping with the husband's work, or working in jobs that were typically female activities, such as cooking and haircutting. A public role that was open to a number of women was to be a **Vestal Virgin**. Chosen when they were young girls, these priestesses spent 30 years ensuring, among other duties, that the fire in the Temple of Vesta in Rome's Forum never went out. This was an important religious honour at the time. They were buried alive if they were ever found to have broken their vow to remain virgins.

Vestal Virgin
a virgin priestess in ancient Roman times whose life was dedicated to the goddess Vesta, and to maintaining the sacred fire in her temple

Later in the republic, women had a little more freedom. Many women regularly went to the public baths, and attended gladiator fights, chariot races and religious festivals. Not all men were happy about this though, as shown in Source 4.

4.2A SOURCE STUDY



Source 4 A sculpture of a Roman woman and her two sons

Women in ancient Rome

Source 5

> If you give women equal freedom with men, do you think this will make them easier to live with? Far from it! If women have equality, they will become men's masters.
>
> *Translated extract from the writing of Livy, a Roman historian (59 BC–AD 17)*

INTERPRET

1. Explain how the sculpture shown in Source 4 relates to Roman expectations of the role of women.
2. What evidence does Source 5 provide about what Livy thought of women?
3. Why is it problematic for historians that most sources on Rome are from a male's perspective?

Women in the **imperial** and senatorial families were often deeply involved in the world of political scandal and intrigue. Livia, the wife of the first **emperor**, Augustus, and the mother of the second emperor, Tiberius, was said to have exercised enormous power in the royal household. It was rumoured that she murdered her husband by feeding him a dish of poisoned figs. Another woman of the imperial household, Agrippina the Younger, married her uncle, the emperor Claudius, then persuaded him to adopt her son from a previous marriage. It is possible that she then poisoned Claudius so that her son would rule, as he did under the name Nero. However, her desire for power soon irritated Nero and he had her killed.

imperial
relating to the emperor or empress

emperor
someone who rules an empire, such as in ancient Rome and China; a female emperor is an empress

Slaves in ancient Rome

As in most ancient societies, slaves provided a vital source of labour, especially on farms and in mines and quarries. Their efforts, though often costing their lives, helped to increase the prosperity of Rome.

Most slaves were captured during battle and taken as prisoners of war, although some were bought as 'goods'. A few were abandoned or used as payment for people who could not pay their debts. Less fortunate slaves could be forced to fight to the death as **gladiators**. Clever, well-educated slaves might become tutors in wealthy households, or even work in powerful positions for emperors. Some slaves were given their freedom, or earned enough money to buy it.

gladiator
a person (usually male) who fought to the death in the amphitheatres of ancient Rome for the entertainment of the crowds

4.2B SOURCE STUDY

The treatment of slaves in ancient Rome

Source 6

> Clothing for the slaves: A tunic weighing three and one half pounds and a cloak in alternate years. Whenever you give a tunic or a cloak to any of them, first get the old one back to make patchwork cloaks of. Good wooden shoes should be given to them every second year.
>
> Rations for the slaves: The chain-gang should receive four pounds of bread a day in winter, five from the time when they begin to dig the vines until the figs start to ripen, and then back to four again. The total wine issue per man for a year should be about forty-two gallons. An additional amount can be given as a bonus to the chain-gang, depending on how well they work. A reasonable quantity for them to have to drink per annum is about sixty gallons. While slaves were ill they ought not to have been given as much food.

Extract from On Agriculture *by Cato the Elder (234–149 BC) that provides advice on managing slaves on an estate*



Source 7 Slaves who were strong or physically attractive, such as the slave shown in this ancient mosaic, were prized as workers in households of the wealthy.

INTERPRET

1 Identify Sources 6 and 7 as either primary or secondary sources.
2 What evidence do the sources provide about the lives of slaves in Rome?

4.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Use Source 1 to answer the following questions:
   a Which officials looked after economic matters?
   b Why do you think two consuls shared power?
2 Explain the main differences between a patrician and a plebeian.
3 Explain why Roman citizenship was something worth having.
4 At what age could Roman girls be legally married?
5 Outline the ways in which a woman's position in Roman society was worse than a man's.
6 What was the role of the Vestal Virgins?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

7 Why were slaves important in ancient Rome?
8 In the modern United Nations organisation, some countries have a 'power of veto' over proposed actions by United Nations forces. What do you think this allows them to do, and how did this phrase originate?

GO DEEPER

9 Conduct some research to find five examples of monarchies and five examples of republics around the word today, and mark these on a world map.

4.3 FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome.

The life and death of Julius Caesar

quaestor
the lowest ranking elected official; usually looked after public expenditure and revenue

praetor
an official under the consuls; one praetor commanded the army while the other was a magistrate

Julius Caesar was born into a patrician family in 100 BC. He was elected as a **quaestor** in 68 BC; by 64 BC he was a **praetor** and then governor of the Roman province of Spain. In 59 BC, he was elected as one of Rome's two consuls.

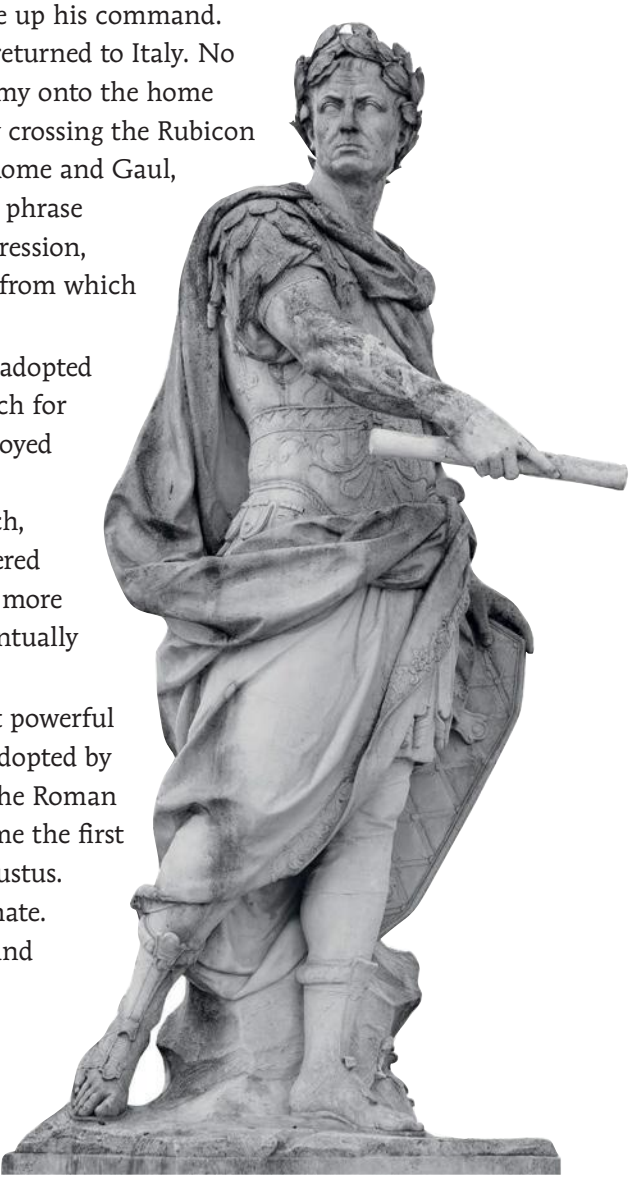
Caesar was a brilliant military commander, even though a great deal of this reputation was based on his campaigns in Gaul (modern-day France) where the most detailed accounts we have were written by Caesar about himself. He was popular with the people and his troops. Aside from the campaign where he conquered much of Gaul, Caesar twice raided England, though he did not stay there.

By 49 BC, many senators were concerned about Caesar's rising popularity and military successes. He was ordered to give up his command. Instead, Caesar left Gaul with his army and returned to Italy. No Roman general was permitted to bring his army onto the home territory of Rome, so when Caesar did this by crossing the Rubicon River, which formed the boundary between Rome and Gaul, this was a challenge that led to civil war. The phrase 'crossing the Rubicon' is now a common expression, meaning making a decision or taking action from which there is no going back.

dictator
a magistrate of the Roman Republic with almost absolute power

Caesar won the civil war and in 45 BC he adopted the role of **dictator** for life. This was too much for the republican senators. Although Caesar enjoyed strong popularity with the people, a group of senators decided to murder him. On 15 March, 44 BC, he was stabbed 23 times when he entered the Senate House. His death was followed by more than a decade of further civil war, which eventually brought an end to the republic.

When the fighting finally ended, the most powerful man in Rome was Octavian, who had been adopted by Julius Caesar and named his heir. In 27 BC, the Roman Republic came to an end and Octavian became the first emperor. Octavian changed his name to Augustus. He ruled wisely and worked well with the Senate. He expanded the empire and restored peace and prosperity to Rome.



Source 8 A statue of Julius Caesar

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Across time, Rome had many different rulers. Each one had an impact, for better or for worse, not only on the people they served, but also on future generations.

Between 27 BC and AD 395 there were 147 emperors. The empire that they ruled was then the largest in the world, eventually stretching across Europe to the western regions of Asia. After AD 395, the empire was divided into two parts, the Western Empire and the Eastern Empire. This division was designed to make it easier to rule over the enormous empire. Another 23 emperors ruled in the Western Empire before its collapse in AD 476 and another 94 in the Eastern Empire before its takeover by the Ottoman Turks in AD 1453. Some of the emperors were known for their great leadership, but some behaved strangely. Following are the stories of four emperors.

Four emperors of Rome

Caligula (AD 12–42)

I am Caligula (Gaius Julius Caesar Augustus Germanicus to be precise). I was Rome's third emperor, ruling from AD 37 to AD 41. Historians say I started well. I abolished sales tax and put on lots of games to entertain the people. Then I became very ill. Some say that's when I went mad. But did I really go mad? Maybe I just wanted people to think that I was mad, so that they would fear me and I could use my supposed madness as an excuse. I did often publicly order the Sun to rise, and tried get my horse elected as consul. I loved humiliating the senators and I loved money. I had beautiful silk clothes and jewelled shoes. I made it law that wealthy men leave me their fortunes in their will. Why not? I was a god. The Roman writer Suetonius said I was cruel and depraved. True – I loved watching gladiators die and the odd bit of slow torture. I was 29 when the Praetorian Guards murdered me. They were meant to protect me!

Nero (AD 37–68)

I am Nero. I became emperor in AD 54 when I was 17. The first few years went smoothly, although I was mostly interested in the arts. I was a writer, musician and actor. I liked chariot racing, too. I had my mother murdered when I was 21 because she thought that she was the real power behind the throne. There were military campaigns in Britain and Judea, but it was the fire in Rome in AD 64 that caused the most fuss. It was said I started it and played the fiddle while Rome burned. I blamed the Christians; they made good scapegoats. We fed some to the lions in the arena and painted others with tar and set them alight. I built a new palace on the city ruins. The Senate plotted to get rid of me, but the army revolts in AD 68 were the final straw. I lost the throne to Galba, a provincial from Spain! So I took my own life.



Source 9 A bust of Caligula



Source 10 A bust of Nero



Source 11 A bust of Hadrian



Source 12 A bust of Marcus Aurelius

Hadrian (AD 76–138)

I am Hadrian. I was emperor between AD 117 and AD 138. I gained a reputation as a military organiser by building fortifications along the borders of the empire to make the provinces safer. The best known of these was the long wall, named after me, built to protect Britannia from the wild tribes to the north.

Back in Rome, I supported the arts. I liked architecture and rebuilt the Pantheon, the huge temple to the gods that had been destroyed by fire. I gave it a huge dome, which was admired for centuries afterwards.

I liked reading Greek philosophy and wrote poetry in Latin and Greek. I made the laws more humane and banned torture. I built libraries, aqueducts, baths and theatres. I was widely thought to be just, even though I did have a bit of a temper. I did not like to be interrupted when I was working in my study, and I once poked out a slave's eye with a pen when he disturbed me. I started a fashion for beards. Only Nero before me had a beard, but afterwards most of the emperors copied me! Unfortunately, my health failed and I died of heart failure, aged 62.

Marcus Aurelius (AD 121–180)

I am Marcus Aurelius. I was 40 when I became emperor, ruling between AD 161 and AD 180. Historians say I ruled well, the last of five good rulers. I increased the size of the army and introduced a number of social reforms. For most of my reign, I had a co-emperor (my stepbrother Verus). We fought the barbarians, he in Parthia (towards Asia) and I in Germanica. His troops brought the plague back to Rome and thousands died. I was a thinker and philosopher, even if I did persecute Christians rather cruelly. I wrote a book called *Meditations*, a guide for living. I eventually fell ill with the plague and died. My son Commodus ruled after me. Historians say he was unbalanced and undid a lot of the good work that I had done.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about these four emperors and order them from least to most effective.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

4.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Outline how Julius Caesar gained his reputation as a military commander.
2 Who was the first emperor of Rome?
3 When did the Roman Empire finally collapse in Western Europe?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Do you think Julius Caesar should have crossed the Rubicon with his army? Explain your reasoning.
5 Suggest why Julius Caesar was killed.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6 It is 45 BC and Julius Caesar is about to take power as sole ruler. Create a poster to persuade the Roman people that this would be either a good idea or a bad idea for Rome.

GO DEEPER

7 Research to find out the modern-day meaning of 'crossing the Rubicon'. What does this indicate about Julius Caesar's actions if we're still referring to them in the English language today?

4.4 EVERYDAY LIFE IN THE ROMAN WORLD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.**

Everyday life in ancient Rome varied according people's position in society and where they lived.

Family life and education

Education in ancient Rome was reserved for the wealthy, usually only for boys. Girls were taught skills that would be useful in the household, such as spinning and weaving.

In early Roman days, schooling was done in the home. Younger boys up to the age of seven would be taught by their fathers, and then by teachers or tutors, who were often educated slaves. Boys typically studied history, geography, astronomy, mathematics, reading, writing, and Greek and Latin. Older boys would learn the art of oratory (public speaking), which was considered to be essential for a career in public life. A boy would 'graduate' from his schooling around the age of 17. This occasion was a family celebration, marked by his putting on a new **toga** for his entry into public life.

Later in the Roman Republic, schools opened by freed slaves gave less wealthy boys some form of education where they learnt to read and write. Boys were frequently beaten, as there was a belief that fear would make students learn correctly.

SPOTLIGHT

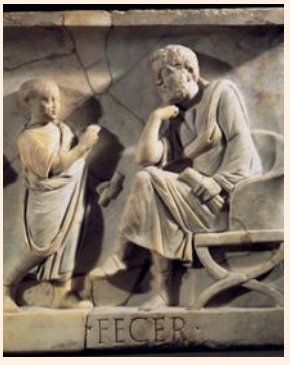
CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Education remained a constant throughout ancient Rome, but the way in which it was conducted changed over time.

toga
an item of clothing worn by the male citizens of ancient Rome

4.4 SOURCE STUDY

Roman schooling



Source 13 A stone carving from AD 3 showing a father with his child



Source 14 Writing implements from ancient Rome



Source 15 A fresco of a woman, possibly the Greek poet Sappho, holding a wax tablet and stylus

INTERPRET

1. Look at the scene in Source 13. Which social class do the father and son belong to? Explain your reasoning.
2. Source 14 shows writing implements that would have been used by Roman students. The surfaces of the wood tablet were covered in wax. The sharp end of the stylus was used for writing and the blunt end for erasing by smoothing out the wax. Suggest why wooden tablets were used in schools in ancient Rome.
3. Source 15 depicts a woman holding a stylus and wax tablet. What does this suggest about the education of at least some women?
4. Why would a historian have to be careful when drawing conclusions about Source 15?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Often the evidence available to historians provides an incomplete picture. This means a range of sources must be consulted and caution must be taken when drawing conclusions from rare types of sources.

Roman weddings

A wedding was an important family celebration in ancient Rome. Many of today's marriage ceremonies and rituals are derived from Roman practices. A wedding ring was placed on the third finger of the left hand because a nerve was thought to run from there directly to the heart. The bride wore a white dress with an orange-coloured veil and a feast was held at the home of the bride's father, where a wedding cake was served to the guests. The bride's parents were normally expected to give a **dowry** to the groom's family, and a wedding contract was drawn up between the two families setting out the financial arrangements. Most women were considered to be the property of their husbands.

dowry
an amount of property or money given by a bride's family to her husband on their marriage

After the ceremony, a party was held at the bride's father's house. Then the noisy, happy guests walked to the couple's new home (often the home of the groom's family). The husband carried his new bride over the threshold.



Source 16 A carving of a wedding ceremony in ancient Rome; the groom holds the wedding contract.

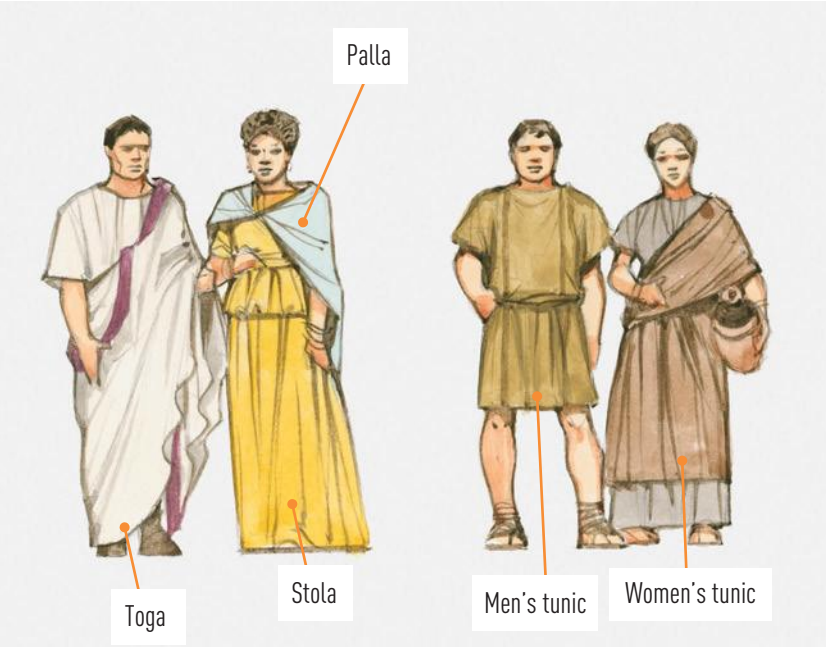
Clothing and fashion

Men and women wore tunics made from linen or wool. Women's tunics (known as *stola*), were ankle length. Men's tunics were shorter. Only citizens (men) could wear a toga over their tunic, which they did when in public. When women in ancient Rome went out, they covered their head with a veil or with part of a *palla*. This was a long rectangle of cloth that could be draped across the shoulders like a shawl, pulled up over the head like a cloak, or folded and worn around the neck and shoulders like a scarf. Slaves and children, and poorer people, wore only tunics.

Wealthy women spent time caring for their hair and skin. Roman women favoured hair that was pinned back and held in place with a comb. It was fashionable to have a pale complexion. Many women covered their faces as much as possible, while others applied chalk dust as face powder. As the empire grew, the fashions of rich women became more stylish. Leather sandals and boots replaced wooden sandals and bare feet. Silks, fur and felt were added to some wardrobes. Jewellery made from gold, ivory and polished glass became more common.



Source 17 Jewellery and other grooming accessories discovered in a villa in Pompeii



Source 18 Clothing of Roman men and women

4.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Create two tables, such as those below, listing the similarities and differences between ancient Roman and modern Australian schooling and wedding customs.

Schooling	
Ancient Rome	Modern Australia

Weddings	
Ancient Rome	Modern Australia

EVALUATE AND CREATE

2 Consider everyday life in ancient Rome from the perspective of one group or level in society. Create a series of diary entries detailing your typical day, including at least one reference to schooling and one reference to a wedding. Include specific historical terms when describing the clothes you are wearing and the activities you are doing.

4.5 LIFE IN A ROMAN TOWN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.**

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Studying ancient Rome often includes the study of Latin. Buildings and everyday objects have specific terms to describe them. However, some terms are the same or similar to what we use in English because they have been adopted into the English language.

forum
an open area in the centre of a Roman town or city where people met, debated and sold things

circus
an open-air stadium (shaped like an oval) built to host chariot races

amphitheatre
a circular building with tiers of seats rising from a central open arena, built to host gladiator fights

As their empire expanded, the Romans built more and more towns. Most of these towns followed the same basic design (see Source 20). All towns were protected by a town wall. People entered the town through a large gateway that could be closed during an attack. Inside, the town's streets were neatly laid out in a grid pattern. The remains of Roman towns and streets can still be seen across the countryside in Britain. Every town featured the necessities of Roman life.

- At the heart of most Roman towns was a **forum** that served an important social function. This is where people met for a variety of reasons – everything from conducting business to discussing important political matters.
- Temples to various gods were scattered around each Roman town. The god or goddess to whom each temple was dedicated influenced the size and design of the building. Large temples were common for major gods, such as Jupiter, and smaller temples were more common for minor gods.
- A **circus** was a large, oval track used for chariot races (from which we get the English word 'circuit').
- Gladiator fights were held in round open-air stadiums known as **amphitheatres** that could accommodate a large number of spectators in their steeply sloped stands. Amphitheatres were often located outside the town walls.
- Public baths were large buildings with indoor and outdoor pools. They had an important social function in Roman towns. Romans did not only go to the baths to get clean, they went there to meet friends, discuss business and argue about politics.



Source 19 The remains of Roman towns and streets can still be seen across the countryside in Britain, such as these ancient city walls of Silchester, a Roman town founded around AD 1 and abandoned sometime after AD 400.



Source 20 An artist's impression of a typical Roman town

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- A raised stone channel for moving water from the hills to the town, known as an **aqueduct**, was vital for Roman towns that were not settled close to fresh water.
- Because the power of the Roman Empire depended on a large army, towns across the empire needed barracks to house soldiers who lived away from their own homes for years while serving in the army. Barracks were often located close to the city gates in case of attack.
- Foods and household goods were sold at open-air stalls in markets surrounded by walls.
- The homes of wealthy citizens were often large compounds with several smaller buildings inside their walls.
- Dramatic presentations were held in theatres that featured tiered seating arranged around the stage in a semi-circle.
- Romans considered dead bodies to be dirty and those who tended to them were thought to be 'polluted'. As a result, cemeteries were always located outside Roman town walls.

aqueduct
a channel (often on top of arches; other times underground) that carried water, by gravity, from distant mountain springs to settlements



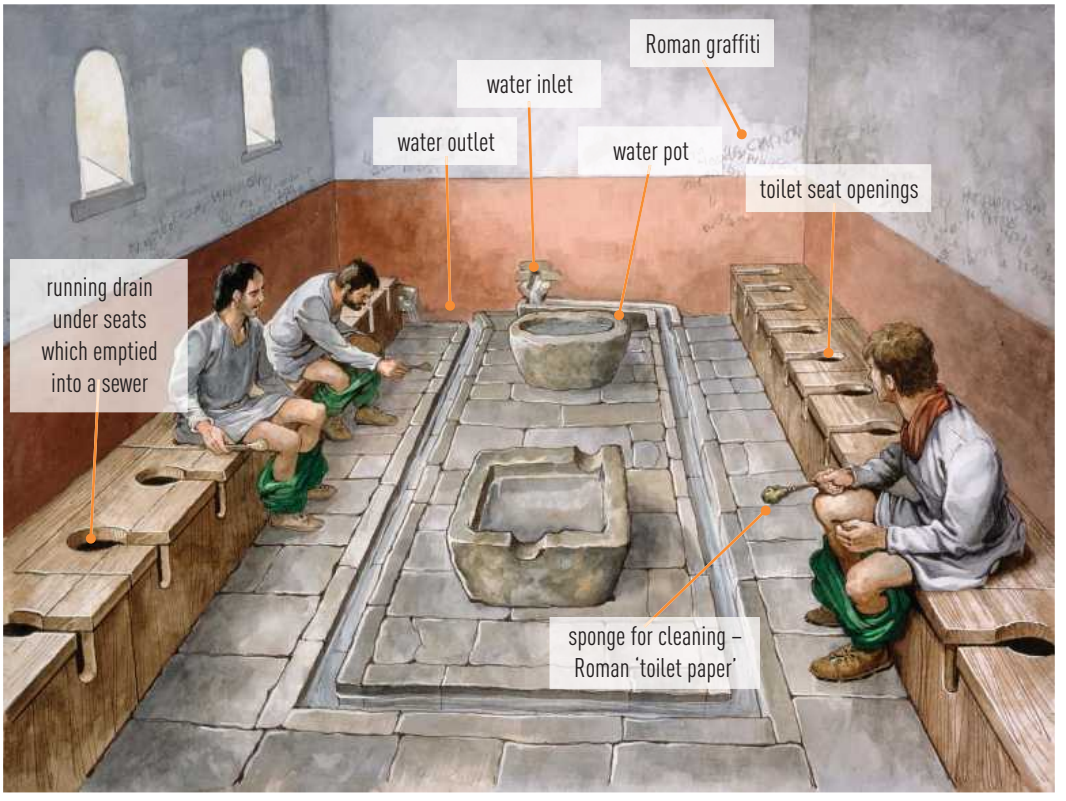
Water and sanitation

As shown in Source 20, a Roman town's water supply was brought in by a system of aqueducts. These would bring fresh water from streams, often from many kilometres away, travelling along tunnels through hillsides and crossing steep gorges on high arches. The slope had to be carefully controlled to ensure a steady flow and the surveying of aqueducts had to be very precise. The top of the channel was sealed to prevent evaporation and contamination.



Source 21 The Pont du Gard aqueduct, at Nîmes in France, was built between AD 40 and AD 60.

Once it reached the town, the water was distributed in lead, timber or terracotta pipes to the various baths, public fountains and private houses of the rich. (The Latin word for lead is *plumbum*, which is the name of this element in the periodic table and the source of our word 'plumbing'.) The poor would fetch their water from a central fountain or trough. Water was also used for the public toilet blocks, which had constantly flushing toilets but no cubicles. Unlike in modern cultures, visiting the toilet could be a social occasion or even a place to conduct business meetings.



Source 22 An artist's impression of a public toilet in ancient Rome

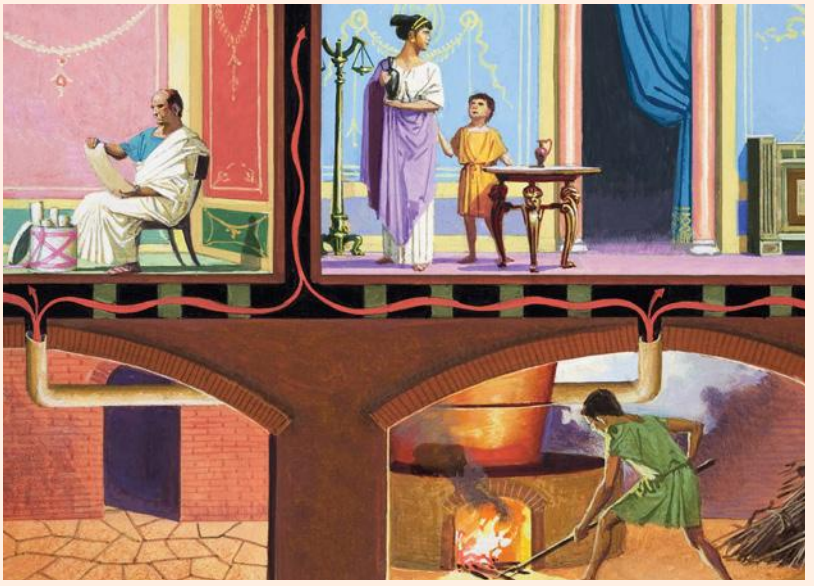
Roman central heating

The homes of the rich and middle class were carefully laid out around a central courtyard. These homes had gardens, toilet facilities and often fine **mosaic** floors made up of hundreds of small coloured pieces of stone, glass or tile. Rooms were heated by a hypocaust system, which was the first form of central heating.

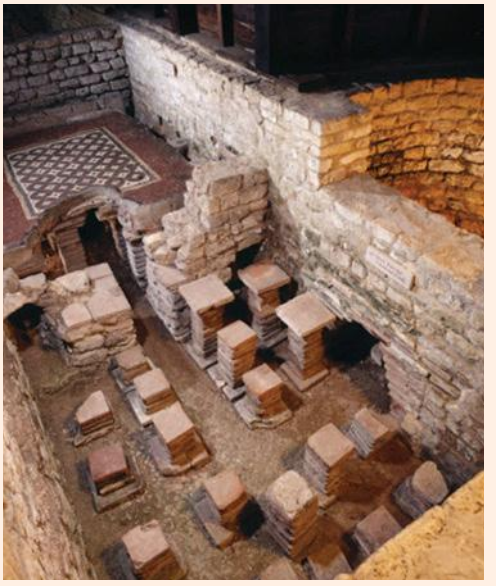
mosaic
a design made up of small pieces of tile and glass to create an image or pattern; commonly found on the floors and walls of buildings across the ancient world

4.5 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman hypocaust



Source 23 A small hypocaust was a typical feature of Roman villas – spacious homes lived in by wealthy families



Source 24 The remains of a mosaic floor and hypocaust from Chedworth Roman villa; the stacks of tiles supporting the floor and the hole to the furnace can be seen.

INTERPRET

1 Study Sources 23 and 24 and, in your own words, explain how the Roman hypocaust system worked to heat a building.

4.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain the following features of a Roman town.
a the forum **b** the circus **c** aqueducts.

2 List some of the ways in which life in a Roman town resembles life in a modern town. What are some of the major differences?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 On your own or in small groups, make your own mosaic. Use a rectangle of cardboard 8 centimetres x 10 centimetres and, with a pencil, divide it into 1-centimetre squares. This is your 'floor'. Use coloured cardboard (three colours should be enough) and cut it into 1-centimetre squares. Conduct research to find some typical Roman mosaic patterns for inspiration, then decide on your pattern. Stick the pieces onto your 'floor' to make a pattern. You can cut the coloured squares further – into rectangles or triangles (but not circles) – to vary your pattern.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about life in a Roman town, including the geography, architecture, and water and heating supply. Complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

4.6 LIFE IN ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.**

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first ever shopping mall was built by the Emperor Trajan in Rome. It had more than 150 shops arranged over several levels.

While some of the provincial towns would have been quite spacious and pleasant places to live, by AD 1 more than one million people lived in Rome. The city had become an extremely cramped, dirty and noisy place. Julius Caesar introduced a law in Rome saying that carts were only allowed to pass through the streets at night.

Although the rich lived in fine houses, the majority of the people were poor and lived in badly built apartment blocks that had no heating or running water. All water had to be fetched from a public fountain, and because there were no proper cooking facilities the poor frequently ate at 'fast food' stalls in the markets. The apartment blocks were often built by greedy landlords who used cheap materials and cut corners during construction. As a result, building collapses and fires were common. Despite these problems, the residents of ancient Rome also enjoyed aspects of city life that would be familiar to people living in towns or cities today:

- large apartment blocks, with shops and businesses on the ground floor
- paved main streets, footpaths and pedestrian crossings
- parks and recreation grounds
- good water supply, sewerage systems and public toilets
- police and fire services, and street cleaners
- public notices and advertisements
- social benefits, such as free food, for poor citizens
- public libraries.

4.6A SOURCE STUDY

City life in Rome

Source 25

The sick die here because they can't sleep,
Though most people complain about the food
Rotting undigested in their burning guts.
For when does sleep come in rented rooms?
It costs a lot merely to sleep in this city!
That's why everyone's sick: carts clattering
Through the winding streets, curses hurled
At some herd standing still in the middle of the road,
Could rob Claudius or a seal of their sleep!
When duty demands it, crowds fall back to allow
The wealthy to pass, while on the way
They read or write or even take a nap,
For the litter and its shut windows bring on sleep.
Yet he still arrives first; while we are blocked
In our hurry by a wave before us, while the great crowd
Crushes our backs from behind us; an elbow or a stick
Hits you, a beam or a wine-jar smacks you on the head;
My leg is covered in filth, from every side
I'm trampled by shoes, and some soldier spears
My foot with his spiked shoes.

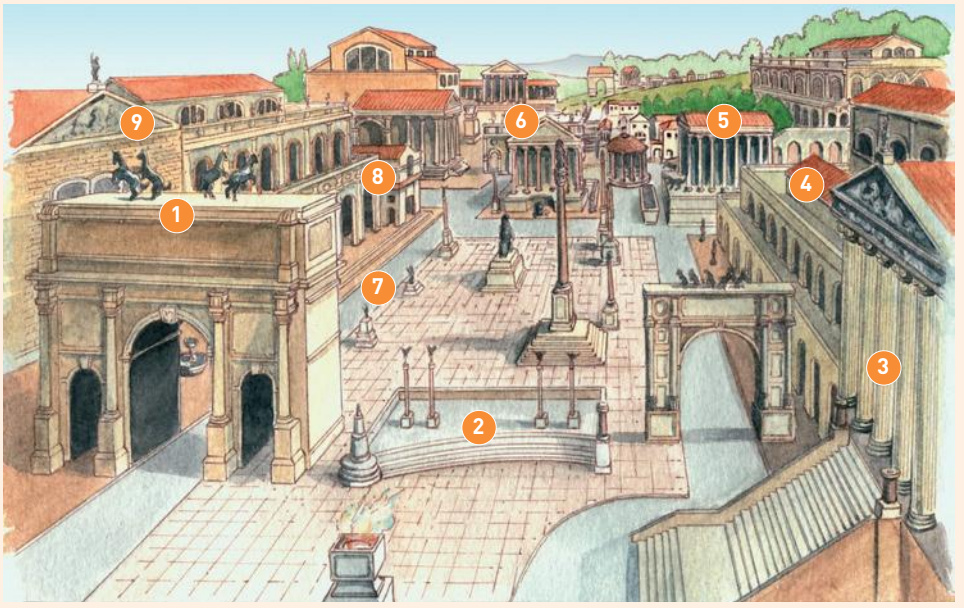
The Roman poet Juvenal, *On the City of Rome*

INTERPRET

1 Make a list of the complaints that Juvenal has about living in Rome.

4.6B SOURCE STUDY

The Roman Forum



1. The Arch of Septimus Severus (not built until AD 202)
2. The Rostra
3. The Temple of Saturn
4. The Basilica Julia
5. The Temple of Castor and Pollux
6. The Temple of Vesta
7. The Via Sacra
8. The Basilica Aemilia
9. The Curia

Source 26 An artist's impression of the Roman Forum in ancient times



Source 27 A modern-day photograph of the ruins of the Roman Forum

INTERPRET

1 Study Source 26 and identify the buildings and structures in Source 27, which shows the Roman Forum as it is today.

4.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Create a 'Plus, Minus, Interesting' table such as the one below to list the advantages, disadvantages and interesting points of living in the city of Rome in ancient times.

Living in the city of Rome		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

4.7 PUBLIC BATHS

KEY CONTENT

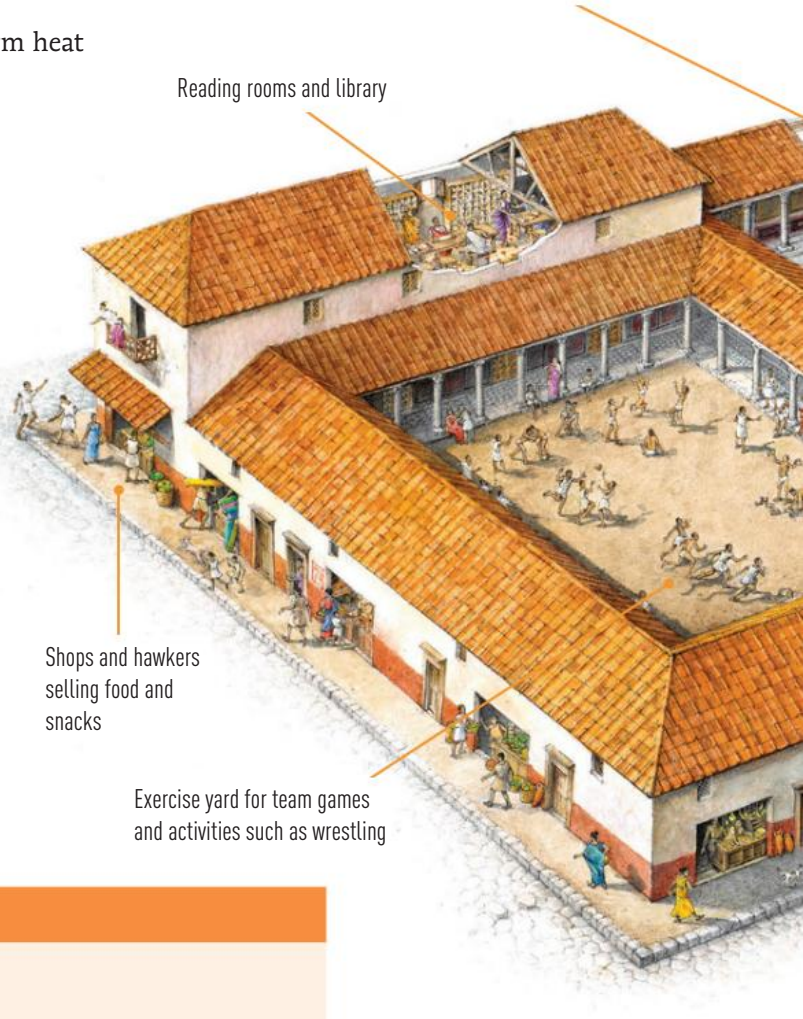
In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.**

Houses did not have bathrooms, so bathing was a public event. Towns would have at least one public bathhouse, and going to the public baths was a regular part of a Roman's life. But the bathhouse was not just a place to get clean. It was a place for exercise, conducting business, eating and drinking, and catching up with friends.

After exercising, Romans would undress and enter the warm heat of the *tepidarium* before making their way to sit and sweat in the *caldarium*. The Romans did not use soap, so they would cover themselves with oil. They then scraped off the oil and dirt with a curved instrument called a strigil, which they could do themselves or hire a slave to do for them. After a hot bath, Romans would complete the process by plunging into a cold bath in the *frigidarium*. The simplest baths would always have these three main rooms. Larger baths would have all the facilities you see in Source 29.

While you bathed, there would be food sellers calling out their wares, such as sausages or roasted dormice (small rodents, like mice), slaves running around at the bidding of their masters, entertainers playing instruments or juggling, and the general chatter of people doing business or enjoying a conversation. Bathing was a noisy, lively activity. Meanwhile, out of sight, slaves fed the fire that fuelled the hypocaust system to heat the warm rooms and bathwater.



4.7 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman baths

Source 28

> I live over the public baths – you know what that means. Ugh! It's sickening. First there are the 'strongmen' doing exercises and swinging heavy weights about with grunts and groans. Next the lazy ones having a cheap massage – I can hear someone being slapped on the shoulders. Then there's the man who always likes the sound of his own voice in the bath.
>
> *Excerpt from the Roman philosopher Seneca, AD 63*

INTERPRET

1 Why does Seneca complain about his accommodation?

The cold pool, the *frigidarium*

The sauna, the *laconicum*

The warm pool, the *tepidarium*

Gardens where people could stroll or chat, or play games such as dice or knucklebones

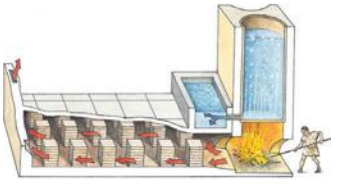
Masseurs

Swimming pool for exercising

The steamy hot pool, the *caldarium*

Drains carrying away excess water to the Tiber River

A hypocaust – a room with huge wood-fired furnaces; hot air from these furnaces was forced up through tunnels to heat the floors and hollow walls of the warm and hot rooms. The furnaces would also heat up large tanks of water. Pipes from aqueducts or reservoirs supplied the water to the tanks. Another system of pipes fed hot and cold water up to the pools.



Entrance

Cloakroom where people paid slaves to look after their clothes and goods

Personal cleanliness and grooming were important. Wealthy Romans went to the baths every day.

Romans oiled their bodies and then scraped them (along with any dirt and grease) with a strigil.



Source 29 An artist's impression of public baths in ancient Rome

4.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 List the variety of activities you can see happening in Source 29.
2 Describe the appearance and use of the strigil.

4.8 GLADIATORS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

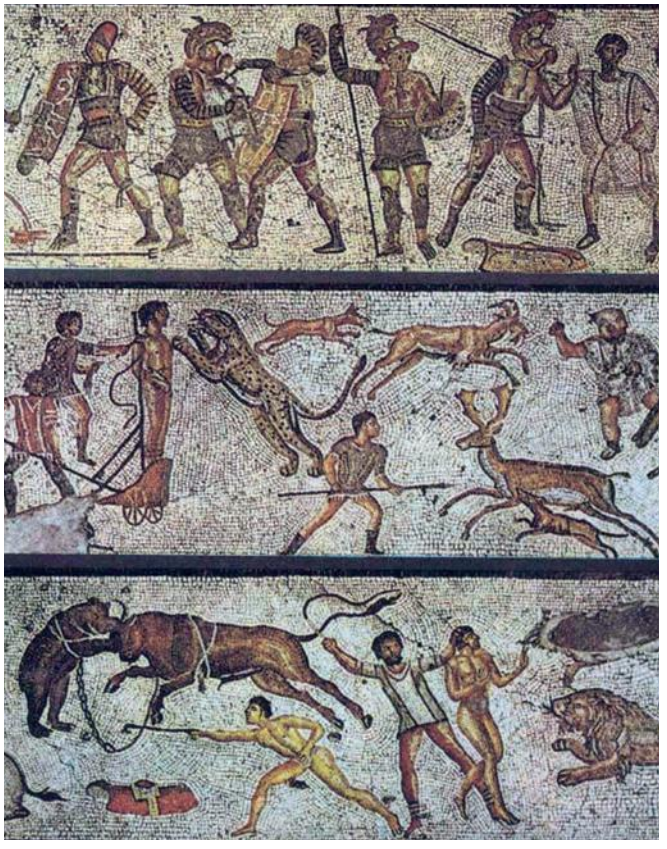
Using a wooden sword, Emperor Caligula once fought a gladiator. When the gladiator deliberately fell and asked for mercy (thinking it was a good idea to let the emperor win), Caligula pulled out a real knife and killed him. Caligula then ran round the arena demanding a prize for his 'victory'.

Throughout the Roman Empire, one of the favourite sources of entertainment was the gladiator games. Sometimes, especially in Rome itself, the games would last for several weeks and involve the deaths of thousands of men and animals. Gladiator games originated in pre-Roman times, when the practice of sacrificing prisoners of war to the gods by making them fight each other was common in Italy. It is thought that the Romans simply carried on and expanded this tradition. Religion also played a part as it became the custom for men to put money aside in their wills to pay for funeral games. It also became customary for gladiator games to be put on by successful generals and by officials seeking popularity; in Rome, the emperors could afford to put on lavish shows. The first gladiator games in Rome began in 264 BC at a funeral, and grew from there.

Who were the gladiators?

Gladiators came from a range of backgrounds, including:

- slaves, prisoners of war and condemned criminals
- victims of religious persecution, particularly Christians
- retired gladiators returning to the profession who could expect to earn large sums
- freemen who became gladiators as a 'career', including a few noblemen and Roman citizens.



Source 30 An ancient mosaic showing gladiators and beasts in the arena

Even noblewomen fought in the arena until Emperor Septimus Severus (AD 145–211) banned female gladiators altogether. One emperor, Commodus (who was murdered in AD 192), had fought in no fewer than 1000 bouts of one kind or another, against animals and men. It is believed, however, that the animals he fought were injured or drugged first to make them easier to kill. The men he fought were all slain because the emperor could not be allowed to lose!

There were many different types of gladiators and each fought and dressed in a different way.

Alongside the true gladiator contests, which were between men, there were fights between wild animals, and between animals and men. Those who fought animals were called *bestiarii* and were divided into two categories: those who were condemned to be killed by the beasts, and those who fought them for money and glory. A condemned man would be sent into the arena naked and without weapons to defend himself. If he managed to kill the animal set against him, another animal would be sent in until he was killed. The writer Cicero tells of a single lion that killed 200 *bestiarii*.



Source 31 Inside the Colosseum in Rome

The arenas

At first, gladiator contests were held in whatever public space a town had available. Eventually, wooden amphitheatres were set up. These could be highly dangerous and the Roman historian Tacitus tells of the collapse of a wooden theatre at Fidenae, just north of Rome in AD 27, where 50 000 people were killed. The most famous stone-and-concrete amphitheatre, the **Colosseum** in Rome, was opened by Emperor Titus in AD 80 and had seating for 45 000 and standing room for a further 5000. Spectators entered through 76 numbered entrance arches, just like a modern sports stadium. Emperor Domitian even flooded the Colosseum to accommodate sea fights, complete with ships and thousands of gladiators to crew them.

Colosseum
a large amphitheatre built and used during the Roman Empire to stage gladiator fights and other forms of public entertainment

The end of the gladiators

In AD 326, Emperor Constantine created a new law that was supposed to make gladiator games illegal, but it had little effect. Even Constantine himself attended further shows. In AD 404, a Christian monk called Telemachus rushed into the Roman arena to put a stop to a gladiator battle and was torn to pieces by the angry crowd. This caused Emperor Honorius, who had already closed the gladiator schools in AD 399, to abolish gladiator games once and for all.

4.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How did the gladiator games originate?
2. How did gladiators and *bestiarii* differ?
3. In your own words, briefly describe the Colosseum and how it was used.
4. Name two of the more surprising types of people who became gladiators.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Lions and panthers were once quite common in south-eastern Europe but the Roman appetite for wild beasts for the arena led to their extinction across the continent.

4.9 POMPEII

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.**

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The eruption of Mount Vesuvius caused the deaths of many people in nearby regions, and buried the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum. This resulted in modern historians having well-preserved Roman towns and villas to excavate and analyse.

In AD 79, death came suddenly to an entire Roman town. Pompeii, along with the neighbouring port of Herculaneum, lay in the shadow of the volcano Vesuvius. This did not worry anyone as it was thought that Vesuvius was inactive. However, the city had been badly damaged in a major earthquake in AD 62, which is now thought to have been a linked to volcanic activity from Vesuvius. Although it is generally agreed that the volcano erupted in AD 79, the exact date is contested by historians and archaeologists.

Beginning with a short outpouring of steam and smoke, an eruption of pumice (volcanic rock) and ash sent a pillar of volcanic debris 32 kilometres into the air. An avalanche of mud, poison gas and ash raced down the mountain, burying Herculaneum. Another avalanche of pumice, gas and ash overwhelmed Pompeii and buried it, and many of its inhabitants, under 6 metres of volcanic rubble.

By the time the eruption had finished three days later, around 2000 of Pompeii's population of 20 000 had been killed. Many people died in the middle of their day-to-day work; others hid in basements and storerooms, desperate to avoid the catastrophe.

Pompeii and Herculaneum remained lost and forgotten until 1594, when workers searching for ancient treasures came upon the site. Archaeological investigations did not begin until 1748, though at first the object was to find treasures and valuable objects rather than conduct a historical investigation.

Since that time, the excavation of Pompeii and Herculaneum has been an ongoing project. When Pompeii was excavated, archaeologists discovered cavities in the ash that once contained the bodies of people and animals. These cavities were then filled with plaster (see Source 34), creating eerie reminders of the terrible event. In addition to these gruesome finds, archaeological investigations have also revealed whole streets, houses, wall paintings and even graffiti on a wall that says 'Successus the cloth-weaver loves Iris, the inn-keeper's slave girl'.



Source 32 An artist's impression of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius



Source 33 A street today in the excavated ruins of Pompeii; Mount Vesuvius is in the distance.

Pompeii is now a time capsule that allows thousands of tourists who visit it each year to gain insight into an ancient Roman town. The discoveries that archaeologists have excavated have provided a wealth of evidence about ancient Roman lifestyles.

4.9 SOURCE STUDY

An eyewitness at Pompeii

Source 34

We saw the sea sucked away and apparently forced back by the earthquake: at any rate it receded from the shore so that quantities of sea creatures were left stranded on dry sand. On the landward side a fearful black cloud was rent [torn] by forked and quivering bursts of flame, and parted to reveal great tongues of fire ...



Source 35 A plaster cast of a Pompeian at the moment of death

Ashes were already falling, not as yet very thickly. I looked round: a dense black cloud was coming up behind us, spreading over the earth like a flood. 'Let us leave the road while we can still see,' I said 'or we shall be knocked down and trampled underfoot in the dark by the crowd behind.' We had scarcely sat down to rest when darkness fell ...

A gleam of light returned, but we took this to be a warning of the approaching flames rather than daylight. However, the flames remained some distance off; then darkness came on once more and ashes began to fall again, this time in heavy showers. We rose from time to time and shook them off, otherwise we should have been buried and crushed beneath their weight ... At last the darkness thinned and dispersed into smoke or cloud; then there was genuine daylight, and the sun actually shone out, but yellowish as it is during an eclipse. We were terrified to see everything changed, buried deep in ashes like snowdrifts.

An eyewitness account by Pliny the Younger; his uncle, Pliny the Elder, had sailed across the bay to Pompeii during the initial stages of the eruption and died there, suffocated by sulphur fumes.

INTERPRET

1 Describe what Pliny saw on the seashore.
2 What did he see on the landward side of the road?
3 Why did Pliny decide to leave the road?
4 What caused the light that Pliny saw?
5 Why did Pliny and his companions find it necessary to rise from time to time?

4.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Examine Sources 32 to 35. Which are primary sources for a study of Pompeii? Give reasons to support your answer.
2 Explain why the discoveries at Pompeii have been so significant for historians.

GO DEEPER

3 Use Google Earth to explore Pompeii. Look at some of the streets and buildings, and take note of the appearance of Mount Vesuvius. Write a summary of what you see and any aspects that you would like to explore further.

4B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

» Outline how society in ancient Rome was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion

1 Outline the ways in which people were classified or distinguished in ancient Roman society. (5 marks)

2 Outline how Rome was governed during the Roman Republic. (5 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves

3 Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Roman society, writing one paragraph for each:

a citizens

b patricians and plebeians

c women

d slaves. (20 marks)

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome

4 Research a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Rome. (20 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome

5 Choose four aspects of Roman life from the list below, and write a paragraph on each one to describe the everyday experiences of Roman men, women and children:

- family life
- clothing and fashion
- social life and entertainment
- living in the city of Rome
- schooling
- water and sanitation
- design of Roman towns. (20 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

4C WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

4.10 ROMAN BELIEFS AND CUSTOMS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Rome are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

Roman customs and religious beliefs, whether inherited from their ancestors over the centuries or taken from other cultures, influenced the behaviour of ancient Romans in their everyday life, military life, and death and burial customs.

Roman gods and goddesses

polytheism
a belief in many gods

deity
a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

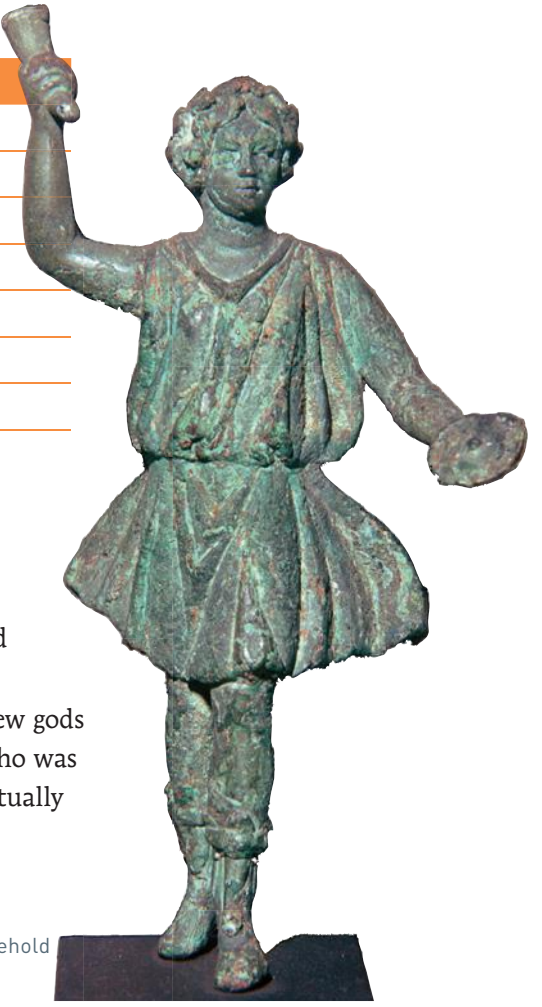
The religion of the ancient Romans was **polytheistic**. They believed in a family of gods and goddesses, each with their own responsibilities. Many of the **deities** were simply adapted from the myths of ancient Greece and renamed, as you can see in Source 1.

Source 1 The main Greek gods and their Roman equivalents

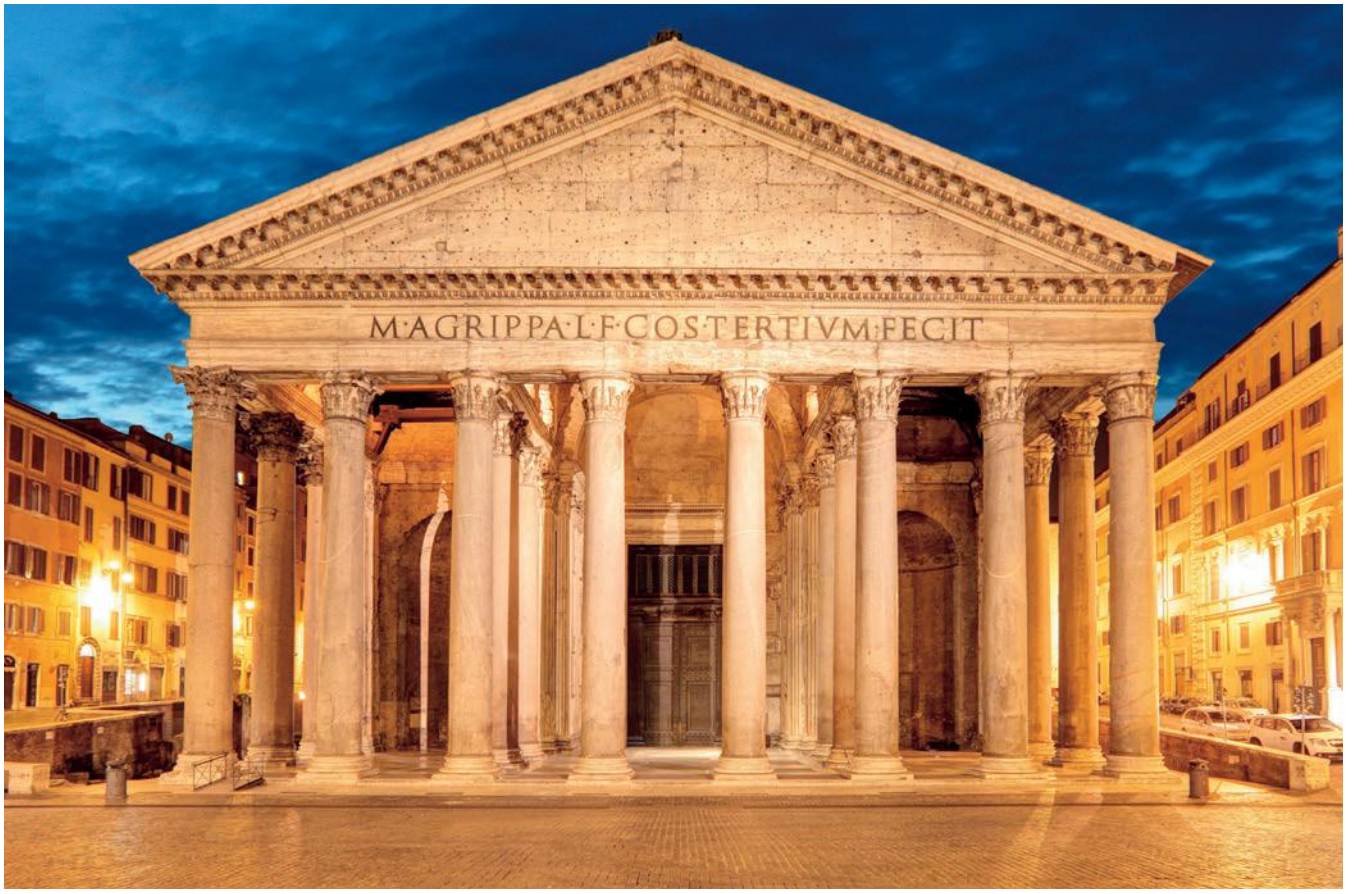
Greek god/goddess	became	Roman god/goddess
Zeus (supreme god)	→	Jupiter
Hera (women and marriage)	→	Juno
Artemis (wild things, hunting)	→	Diana
Athena (arts and crafts and war)	→	Minerva
Ares (war)	→	Mars
Hermes (the gods' messenger)	→	Mercury
Aphrodite (love)	→	Venus

In addition to these main gods there were also household gods such as Vesta, the goddess of the hearth; Janus, the god of the doorway; the Lares, gods who looked after the family and home; and the Penates, gods who looked after the store cupboard. Every day the family, including the children, would make an offering to the gods at their own household shrine.

As the empire grew, the Romans were happy to adopt new gods from conquered territories, such as Mithras from Persia (who was very popular among the soldiers) and Isis from Egypt. Eventually even the emperor came to be worshipped as a god.



Source 2 A statue of a household god from a family shrine



Source 3 The Pantheon was built by the emperor Hadrian in AD 125 on the site of an earlier temple that had burned down. As its name implies (*pan* = everything, *teon* = divine), it was dedicated to every known god.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In ancient Rome, sacred chickens were kept and carefully watched because people believed that the way they ate their food showed whether or not the gods approved of a plan or decision.

Romans were very superstitious and lived in fear of the gods. But the Romans did not have regular religious meetings and services. Instead, temples to the various gods could be found around town and people would visit them as and when needed, such as before setting off on a journey or making an important decision. The Pantheon, a temple to all the gods of ancient Rome, is one of the best preserved ancient buildings in Rome (see Source 3).

Each god had a festival day, which was usually a holiday when the god's temple would be visited and priests would kill animals to be offered as sacrifices. There was a high priest in Rome, known as the *Pontifex Maximus*, and this title was often given to the reigning emperor. There were also the augurs, who foretold the future by watching the flight of birds or flashes of lightning, or by examining the entrails of sacrificed animals.

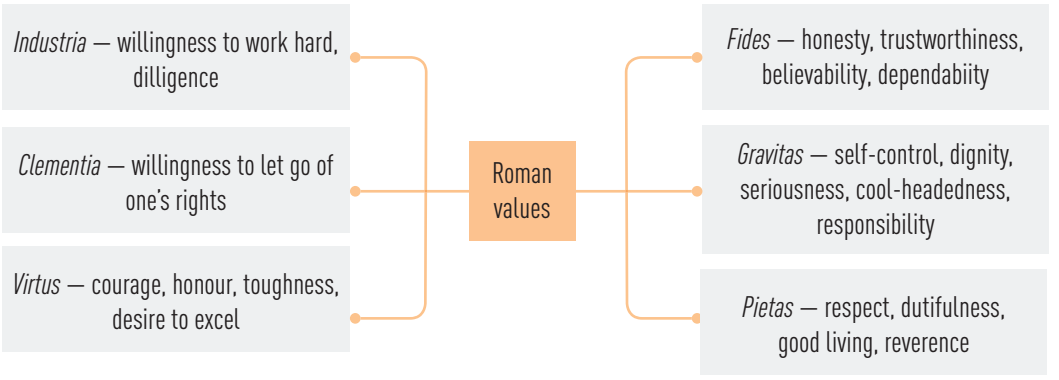
Christianity

For a time, the one religion the Romans did not accept was Christianity, mainly because its believers refused to worship the emperor as well as their own god. There are stories about Christians being persecuted, by being thrown to wild animals in the arena or crucified. These stories may have been exaggerated by Christian monks in the Middle Ages who copied ancient Roman texts that they thought were important.

Gradually, however, Christianity was increasingly tolerated as long as Christians paid their taxes and obeyed the law. It then gained acceptance, and when Emperor Constantine adopted Christianity it became the official religion of the empire. Eventually, the centre of the Catholic Church, Vatican City, was established in Rome.

Roman values

The key values of the ancient Romans, which are shown in Source 4, influenced their behaviours and attitudes in everyday life, in warfare, and in their death and burial customs.



Source 4 Some of the key values of ancient Romans

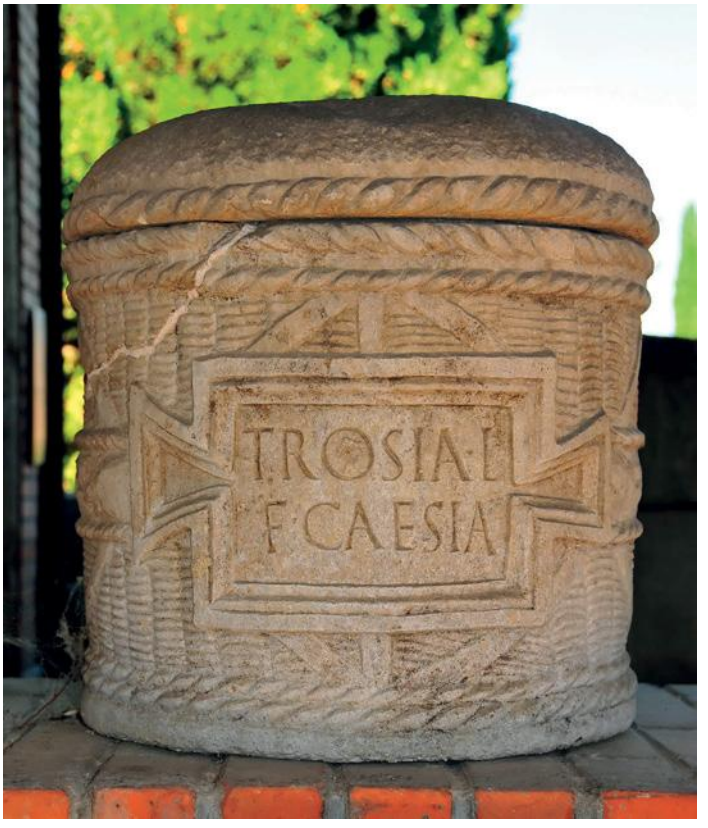
Death and burial customs

Until Christian ideas began to dominate, Romans had no set beliefs about what happened after death. Myths and beliefs from conquered peoples influenced some peoples' lives, and a common influence about death also came from Greek mythology. Many believed, as the Greeks did, that there was a gloomy **Underworld**: Hades (see Source 6). Dead souls reached it by paying the ferryman, Charon, to row them across the River Styx. Only the bravest of heroes made it to the Elysian Fields. Very wicked people wound up in the deepest, darkest dungeons of Hades: Tartarus.

Underworld
a mythical place where the spirits of the dead were believed to reside, according to ancient Greek and Roman beliefs

Despite having no certainty about life after death, the ancient Romans were uneasy about their dead. Many believed the spirits (or souls) of the dead roamed around haunting them. Rituals such as *decursio* were carried out to prevent this, which involved circling the funeral pyre (a pile of wood set on fire) of an important person as their dead body was cremated (burned). Wandering souls could be a good or bad thing. Hence, the people of ancient Rome showed a great deal of the value *pietas* towards those who had died. They worshipped their ancestors, and often kept death masks or stone busts of them in their houses.

Cremation was the preferred procedure for disposing of a dead body during Etruscan times and the Roman Republic. By the end of the first century AD, however, burial was more common because of the spread of Christian beliefs. Wealthy Romans were buried in graves or tombs. Those who could not afford a burial plot were usually buried in mass graves on the Esquiline Hill outside of Rome.



Source 5 An ancient Roman burial urn carved with the name of the deceased person

4.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 From which other cultures did Romans derive some of their own gods?

2 The Pantheon was built as a temple to which of the Roman gods?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Source 4 summarises values that were important to Roman society. In table form, explain each value in your own words, including an example of how you would show this value in your own life.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Creative writing: You are an augur. Write a report for a client who has asked you whether now is a good time to begin a new business venture in the provinces. You will need to explain how the different natural phenomena, or animal parts, helped you to come to your decision.

GO DEEPER

5 Conduct research to find the Roman equivalents of the following Greek gods. Indicate their names and their roles. Draw a chart to demonstrate the relationship between these gods and other gods you come across in your research.

- **a** Poseidon
- **b** Hades
- **c** Dionysus
- **d** Haphaestus
- **e** Apollo. (What is unique about him?)

6 Conduct research to find out about the catacombs of Rome and how they were used by Christians.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Knowledge and understanding can be conveyed in a range of ways, including through creative writing or historical fiction.



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WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Rome are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs

1 Identify the term used to describe religion in ancient Rome and explain its meaning. (2 marks)

2 Identify the origins of gods and goddesses in Roman religion, and explain the role of gods and goddesses in people's everyday life. (8 marks)

3 Identify the key values of the ancient Romans. (6 marks)

4 What did the ancient Romans believe about death? (4 marks)

5 Explain how beliefs about death and key values influenced Roman burial rituals and other customs. (10 marks)

Total marks [/30]



Source 6 A sixteenth-century painting of the Underworld, based on ancient Greek and Roman mythology; the ferryman shown was known as Charon. He was believed to row the souls of the dead over the River Styx to Hades. Coins were often placed in the mouths of the dead in order to pay Charon for the journey.

4C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

4D HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE ROME AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

4.11 THE SPREAD OF ROMAN POWER

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify conflicts within ancient Roman society
- explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society.

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Trade all around the Mediterranean and via the **Silk Roads** played a role in expanding Roman influence, but control of this vast area depended on the power of the Roman army. As Roman territory expanded through conquest, Roman culture and lifestyle spread.

As the Roman army began to conquer other Italian cities, Italy became 'Romanised' and Latin became the standard language of the whole region. In time, Roman influence was to extend far beyond the boundaries of what we now know as Italy, as Source 1 shows.

Roman citizenship was often extended to people outside the Italian peninsula. This meant that even foreign-born people could enjoy the full protection of Roman law, and citizenship became highly prized. In other places, people were left to govern themselves as long as they agreed to supply soldiers to the Roman army.

4.11 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman Empire

INTERPRET

1 Using Source 1 and an atlas, list as many modern countries as you can find that were wholly or partly included in the Roman Empire.
2 Write a paragraph to describe the expansion of the Roman Empire from 201 BC to AD 117, using the names of modern-day countries.



Source 1 The growth of the Roman Empire, which reached its height in AD 117

The Punic Wars

The expansion of Roman power brought Rome into conflict with Carthage, another great Mediterranean trading city. Because the Carthaginians were originally from Phoenicia (modern-day Lebanon), the three resulting wars were known as the Punic Wars (from the Latin word *Poeni*, which means Phoenician).

The First Punic War 264–241 BC

Before the Punic Wars, most of Sicily was controlled by the Carthaginians, as Source 2 shows. When the Sicilian city of Messana revolted against the Carthaginians, the Romans intervened, and the first Punic War erupted. To fight Carthage, the Romans, who were used to fighting on land, had to develop a navy for the first time. They did this by capturing a Carthaginian warship and copying it, then adding two new features that enabled them to win sea battles: the **battering ram** and the corvus (see Source 3).

The battering ram allowed Roman ships, known as galleys, to punch a hole in the hull of an enemy ship. The corvus was simply a kind of bridge that would be dropped onto an opponent's deck so that Roman soldiers could cross and fight, as if on land. Roman galleys were crewed by slaves and prisoners of war.

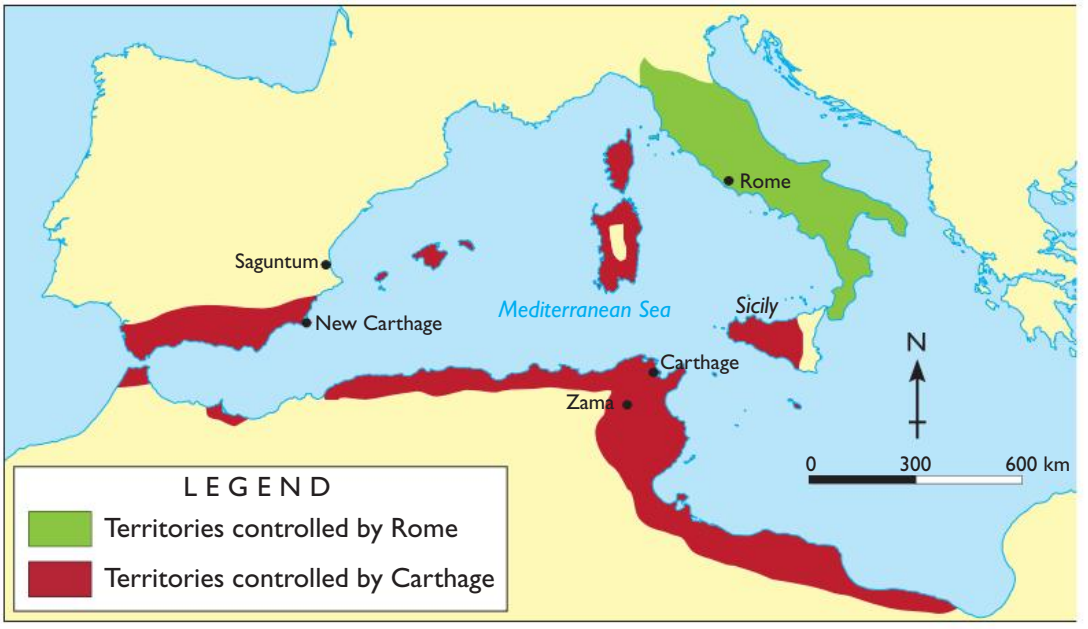
In 241 BC, the two sides signed a peace treaty, with Carthage surrendering the island of Sicily to the Romans.

SPOTLIGHT

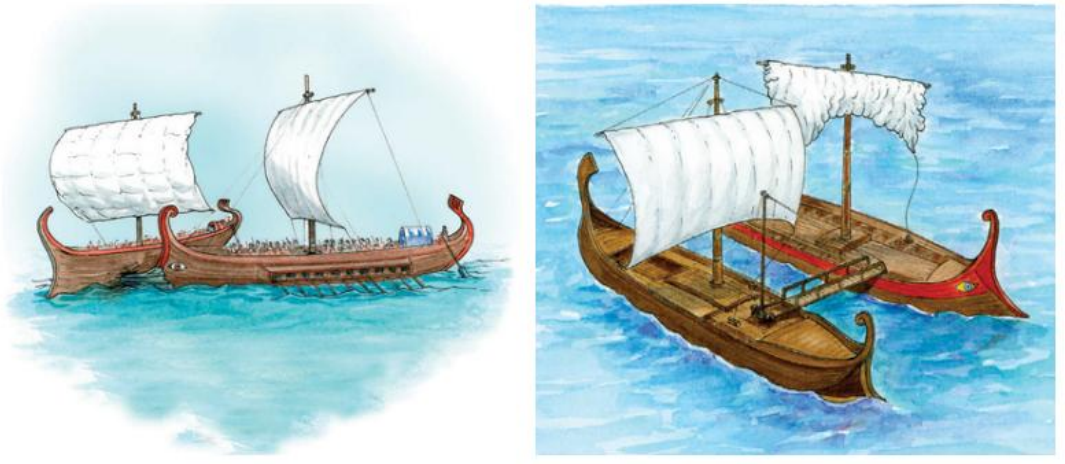
PERSPECTIVES

There are many objective truths about where and when different battles were fought during the Punic Wars. However, the Romans and Carthaginians had vastly different perspectives on the causes of the wars, particularly in relation to breaches of the Ebro River Treaty and the city of Saguntum, which sparked the Second Punic War.

battering ram
a long, heavy pole (often a tree trunk) used to knock through enemy fortress doors



Source 2 The territories controlled by Rome and Carthage, the rival powers in the Mediterranean, before the Punic Wars



Source 3 An artist's impression of a Roman sea battle showing two of the devices added to Roman warships: the battering ram (on the left) and the corvus (on the right).

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Historians still argue over whether Hannibal's elephants were of the African (more fierce) or Indian (more easily trained) variety. It seems that only one survived the war. This was the elephant Hannibal himself had often ridden. Its name was Surus, meaning 'the Syrian', which suggests an eastern or Indian origin.

The Second Punic War 218–202 BC

After several years of uneasy peace, trouble broke out in Spain, where Carthage had been building up its empire. A 25-year-old Carthaginian named Hannibal, who is the focus of the case study in this chapter, took command in Spain, captured the Roman town of Saguntum and began a march towards Italy.

Hannibal's army consisted of 46 000 soldiers and 37 elephants. Its long march from Spain to Italy involved crossing rivers and, most famously, crossing the Alps of northern Italy in freezing weather. Rockfalls, attacks from mountain tribes and severe winter weather meant that Hannibal arrived in northern Italy with 26 000 men and at least some of his elephants.



Source 4 An artist's impression of Hannibal's army crossing the Alps; note that in this image the elephants are depicted with the larger ears of African elephants. The type of elephants in Hannibal's army is contested.

At first, things went well for Hannibal. He won victories over Roman armies at Trebbia and Lake Trasimene, and over 50 000 Gauls – a tribe from northern Italy – joined his army. However, he was far from home and could not receive supplies or further reinforcements, and he lacked the large catapults and siege towers needed to capture large towns like Rome. He had hoped to persuade the various Italian towns to join him, but they stayed loyal to Rome. All he could do was rampage around Italy, doing damage and tempting the Romans to engage in battle.

The Romans argued among themselves over what to do. Some argued that Hannibal had to be quickly beaten in battle, but for a time they followed the advice of Quintus Fabius Maximus, nicknamed 'the Delayer'. He said that the best tactic was not to have a big battle, considering that Hannibal had already beaten Roman armies twice. He proposed instead that they should mount only small, niggling attacks on Hannibal's army while waiting for it to grow weaker, as it surely would without reinforcements or supplies. Many Romans disagreed with Fabius' tactics and finally lost patience. In 216 BC, the Roman consul Varro was sent against Hannibal's army of 45 000 troops with a Roman army of 86 000 men. At Cannae, despite being heavily outnumbered, Hannibal won a great victory. Fabius had been right after all.

The Romans resumed their 'Fabian' tactics of waiting, but even when Hannibal arrived outside the walls of Rome in 211 BC, they would not fight him. Hannibal still lacked the equipment to besiege large towns so, again, all he could do was roam and do damage in the Italian countryside.



Source 5 Hannibal's three major victories against Rome



Source 6 A stone bust of Scipio

The Romans now tried a new tactic. They sent a general, Publius Cornelius Scipio, to attack the Carthaginian possessions in Spain. When he had conquered them, he sailed to Carthage itself. Hannibal, despite never having been beaten in Italy, was recalled to defend his home city.

In 202 BC, at Zama in northern Africa, Hannibal and Scipio came face to face in battle. Here Hannibal met his first defeat. One condition of the peace was the destruction of the Carthaginian fleet: 500 ships were towed out into the sea and burned. The Romans wanted to capture Hannibal but he fled and managed to stay one step ahead of his enemies until, tired of running, he committed suicide in 183 BC. Meanwhile, Rome reduced Carthage to a dependent state and now controlled the whole of the western Mediterranean, including Spain and northern Africa.

The Third Punic War 149–146 BC

For some Romans, the very existence of Carthage was a threat. One senator, named Cato, became known for ending every speech in the Senate, no matter what he had been talking about, with the phrase 'Carthage must be destroyed'. Finally, the Roman Senate declared war, and Rome attacked Carthage itself. After a siege, the Romans stormed the town and slaughtered many of the inhabitants. Those who were not killed were sold into slavery. The harbour and the city were demolished. The final outcome of the Punic Wars was that Rome greatly expanded its territories.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Between the Battles of Trasimene and Cannae, Hannibal's army were trapped in Campania by the Romany army. Hannibal gathered 2000 oxen and his army tied bundles of kindling wood to their horns, lighting them during the night and driving them up the slope above the Roman encampment. The Romans abandoned their position, thinking the Carthaginians were escaping, allowing Hannibal's army to march to freedom.

4.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why were Rome and Carthage rivals?
2. How did the Romans alter their sea warfare tactics to enable them to use their experience as land fighters?
3. What was meant by 'Fabian' tactics? Who originated them and why were they used?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Provide three reasons for Hannibal's failure to conquer the Romans in Italy.
5. Provide three reasons why the battle of Zama can be called a significant event.
6. What words would you use to describe the Roman attitude towards Carthage after reading about the Third Punic War? Explain your choice of words.

CASE STUDY

Hannibal

Hannibal Barca is famous for his use of elephants and superior battle tactics throughout the Second Punic War. However, historians disagree on whether Hannibal was an outstanding general, or whether the Romans have written about him favourably to make their victory look even grander.

The two main sources we have about Hannibal and the Second Punic War were written by the Roman historian Livy and the Greek historian Polybius. Both had strong links to the Roman aristocracy, meaning that they would only write positive accounts of the Roman army. Livy and Polybius both write of Rome's unbreakable fortitude and determination, while glorifying Hannibal's successes. Modern historians view Hannibal differently, with disagreement regarding a number of key areas in his life. Ultimately, Hannibal lost the Second Punic War and he failed to conquer Rome.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Historians only have Roman accounts to understand the life and times of Hannibal. They have different opinions on the motives of the Roman authors, drawing different conclusions about Hannibal.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Hannibal seemed to be indestructible to the Romans, and people feared him so much that a children's game was adopted where they would call out 'Hannibal at the Gates!' and the players would run away to hide.

Contestability about the start of the Second Punic War

Saguntum was an independent Greek city in Spain. The Romans had an alliance with Saguntum, just in case they needed an ally to assist them during times of war. In 226 BC, the Carthaginians and Romans signed the Ebro River Treaty, allowing Carthage to control the area south of the Ebro River in Spain, while the Romans could take control of any land north of the Ebro River. Source 8 shows that Saguntum is south of the Ebro River. Hannibal wanted Rome to withdraw troops from there, seeing them as a direct threat to Carthaginian interests. Rome, however, claimed that Saguntum had always been a friend of Rome, and was excluded from the treaty. Carthage and Rome went to war because Hannibal attacked Saguntum to drive the Romans out. Rome declared war on Carthage because Hannibal would not withdraw his troops. Without further evidence on the details of the treaty, the facts about how the war started remain contested.



Source 7 A statue of Hannibal

Contestability about Hannibal as a leader

Both Livy and Polybius identify key leadership traits in Hannibal, such as his ability to arrange to march an army of elephants over the Alps during winter, and his humility, illustrated by him eating with his troops, serving others before himself and wearing the same types of clothing as the soldiers. Livy and Polybius also describe times of great cruelty, with Hannibal inflicting harsh punishments on soldiers who tried to run away. When looking at the ancient evidence for Hannibal, modern historians such as Nigel Bagnall have argued that Hannibal is a role model for anyone involved in diplomacy or foreign relations today, with great mental and physical strength. Other historians, such as Arthur Eckstein, argue that Hannibal didn't think through the war, but instead acted out of resentment after the First Punic War, leading to ultimate disaster for Carthage.

Contestability about Hannibal as a military commander

Hannibal is often admired for his extraordinary tactical skill. The military historian Theodore Dodge claims that his tactics at Cannae are the best in history. In contrast, another military historian, Richard Gabriel, states that Hannibal failed in the oath he swore to his father to destroy Rome, meaning that he failed as a military commander. When looking at the Second Punic War, Hannibal won every major battle except the Battle of Zama. He continued to have military successes after the Second Punic War, working with leaders in the eastern Mediterranean. These successes prompt many historians to view Hannibal as a supreme military tactician, which is why he is often studied in modern military academies. However, it is important to remember that he failed in his attempt to conquer Rome, which is why his success is contested, with many historians criticising his work.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Hannibal devised a tactic of throwing clay jars filled with snakes across to enemy ships. The jars broke open on impact, releasing snakes. Hannibal's enemies were terrified, and retreated to safety, allowing Hannibal's crew to push forward.



Source 8 The Mediterranean at the time of Hannibal

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Who are the two main Roman historians who write about Hannibal and the Second Punic War?
2. Identify problems with the evidence relating to Hannibal.
3. Outline Hannibal's key strengths.
4. Describe two of Hannibal's failures.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Explain why Hannibal's tactics are still used in military training today.
6. Do you think Hannibal was a success or a failure? Provide reasons to support your answer.

GO DEEPER

7. Hannibal was famous for his role in the Second Punic War, even though he lost. After losing to the Romans, Hannibal continued to antagonise them by working with leaders in the eastern Mediterranean. Research Hannibal's life *after* the Second Punic War and write an obituary about his key achievements. Include information on:
   - his military role before, during and after the Second Punic War
   - his political role after the Second Punic War
   - his attitude towards Rome after the Second Punic War
   - his death.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Even though sources on Hannibal are mostly from the Roman perspective, there are a number of sources from other ancient societies. General research will often reveal the Roman interpretation of Hannibal, but reading more widely will open up a range of other sources.

4.12 THE ROMAN ARMY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society.**

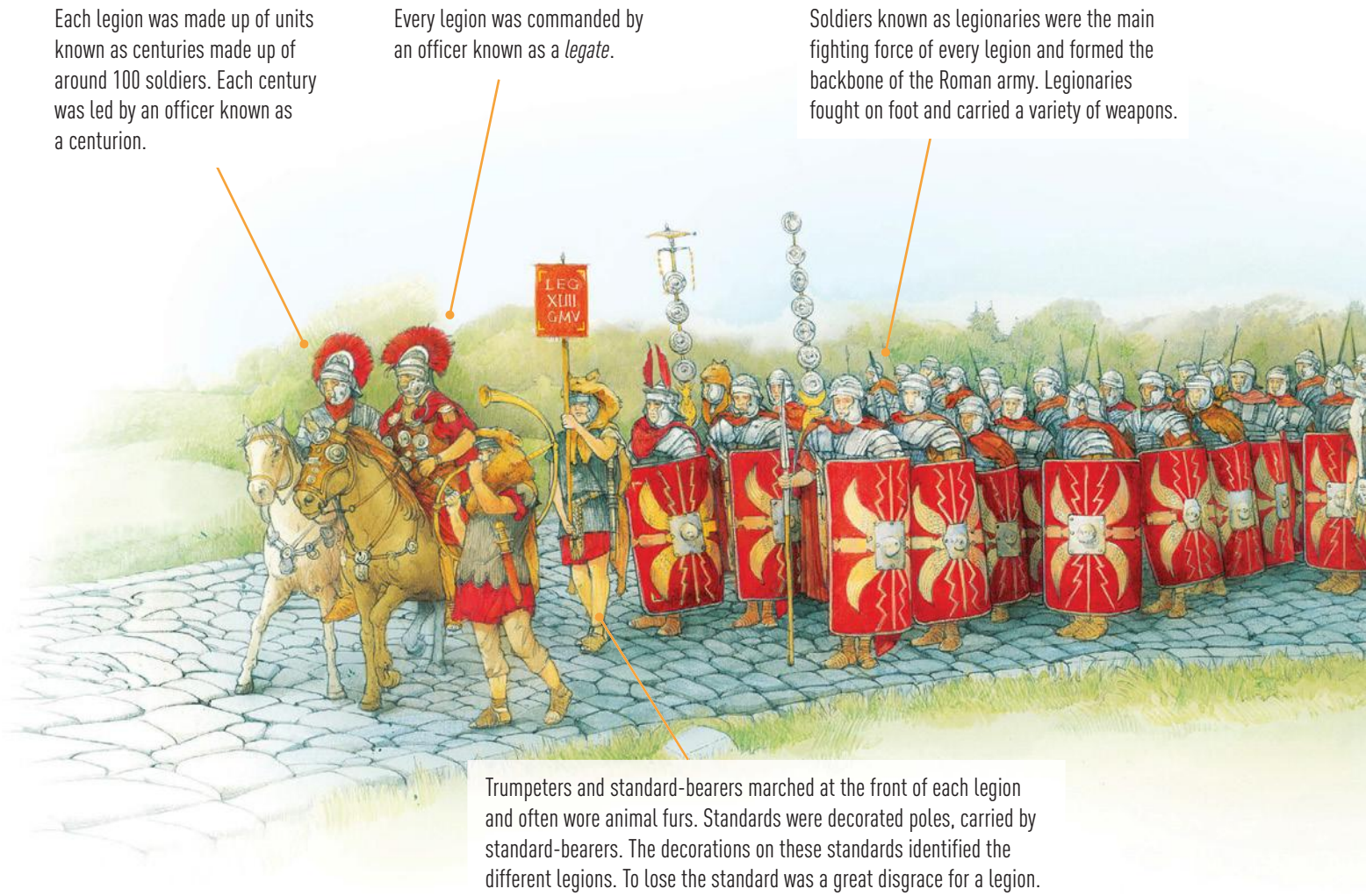
legionary
a Roman soldier who fought in a military unit known as a legion; legionaries had to be Roman citizens under the age of 45

auxiliary
a soldier who fought in the Roman army but who was not Roman; often recruited from a faraway province

Military service was a part of life for Roman citizens. It was needed at first to increase Rome's territory and then to defend it. Through intense and disciplined training, Rome's army became very strong, fuelled by a belief in Rome and particularly by the Roman value *virtus* – meaning courage, honour, toughness and a desire to excel.

The Roman army was divided into about 30 legions. A legion was a fighting force of about 6000 men, and was made up of soldiers called **legionaries** and **auxiliaries**. Legionaries had to be Roman citizens under 45 years of age.

Source 9 The Roman army



Each legion was made up of units known as centuries made up of around 100 soldiers. Each century was led by an officer known as a centurion.

Every legion was commanded by an officer known as a *legate*.

Soldiers known as legionaries were the main fighting force of every legion and formed the backbone of the Roman army. Legionaries fought on foot and carried a variety of weapons.

Trumpeters and standard-bearers marched at the front of each legion and often wore animal furs. Standards were decorated poles, carried by standard-bearers. The decorations on these standards identified the different legions. To lose the standard was a great disgrace for a legion.

Auxiliaries were recruited from the **provinces**. To reduce the likelihood of rebellion, it was Roman policy never to use auxiliaries in their home provinces. For example, an auxiliary from Syria might be used to fight in Britain, but not in Africa, and an auxiliary from Britain might be used to fight in Africa, but not at home in Britain. When soldiers retired they often went to live in a colonia – a settlement in one of the Roman provinces. This was a good way to spread Roman influence and also to have experienced soldiers available in case there was a rebellion.

provinces
the lands captured and ruled by the Romans

4.12 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Complete the following sentences:
   - **a** The Roman army was divided into ...
   - **b** The *pilum* was a ...
   - **c** Helpers known as auxiliaries ...
   - **d** Soldiers known as legionaries ...

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Roman army, including during the Punic Wars, and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

Helpers known as *auxiliaries* assisted legionaries and often came from the lands that Rome had conquered. After serving in the army for 25 years, auxiliaries could become Roman citizens. The auxiliaries provided special fighting skills that the legionaries lacked. Some fought on horseback, others with sling shots.

The baggage train was made up of carts and horses that carried food and equipment for the soldiers. Traders, camp followers and other servants also followed the legion and carried equipment



The Romans constructed a system of stone roads to link the empire and to enable legions to move wherever they were needed quickly. For this reason, most Roman roads were built to be as straight as possible and distances were marked with milestones. When completed, the network of roads across the Roman Empire stretched from Britain in the north to cities in Africa and the Middle East.

4.13 ROMAN TRADE AND CONTACTS WITH ASIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Rome and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies.

Trade routes to the east

By around AD 100, the Roman Empire encircled the Mediterranean Sea, and there was a constant flow of trade across its waters. Egypt was especially important as it was 'the granary of Rome', meaning that Rome depended on a regular supply of food (wheat and other grains) from its provinces in Africa, where the warm climate was ideal for growing large quantities of crops. The sea and land routes to Egypt and the east are shown in Source 11.

At the height of the Roman Empire, hundreds of merchant ships left Egypt each year to sail down the Red Sea into the Arabian Sea. In exchange for products from Europe, such as pottery and gold, the ships brought back spices, fabrics, precious stones, slaves, pepper (sometimes referred to as 'black gold') and exotic animals from the East. These trade links, some via the Silk Roads, became so important that Emperor Augustus often met with the ambassadors of Indian princes seeking treaties of trade or alliance.

As trade grew, so did the desire to find the quickest route to India. Around this time, many believed that the coastline of India ran from west to east, leading to the edge of the world. As a result, ships from Egypt sailed around the Arabian Peninsula and the Persian Gulf, hugging the coast, until they reached their destination. As knowledge improved and it was realised that the Indian coast ran roughly north–south, traders began sailing from the mouth of the Red Sea out across the open ocean – a more direct route that saved time. By AD 50, Roman ships were regularly using the direct route to reach India from Egypt in around 70 days. Not only Roman goods travelled. Ancient Indian sources show that Roman tradesmen and mercenary soldiers found employment in India. In recent years, archaeologists have excavated an ancient Roman port called Muziris on the southern coast of India. Among the finds have been many *amphorae* (large pottery containers for wine or grain) and Roman coins.



Source 10 Roman merchant vessels were powered by sails and had deep hulls to maximise cargo space.

At first, trade with India was restricted to the western coast. Around AD 54, a Roman merchant ship from Egypt was blown off course and landed in Sri Lanka. Soon the Romans were not only trading with Sri Lanka, but also sailing north along India's eastern coast to trade for precious stones, spices and fabrics.

On the east African mainland, merchant ships regularly visited Somalia and other African nations. The Romans called these the 'Aromatic Lands' because of the large amounts of strong-smelling incense to be found in the region. Gradually, Roman ships travelled further south down the African coast until they reached a settlement near the island of Zanzibar (see Source 11).

Rome and China

For almost 300 years, the two huge empires of Rome and China ruled over half the world's population at the same time, but what did they know of each other? Though goods travelled between them from the first century BC, each knew very little about the other. One reason for this was the vast distance separating them; another was the presence and location of the Parthian Empire, Rome's sworn enemy, blocking the main land trade routes that linked Europe with Asia, known as the Silk Roads (see Source 11).

Silk was brought to the Mediterranean by a people the Romans called the *Seres* (or 'Silk people'). Some historians have assumed that these were Chinese, but Pliny's description of them as tall, red-haired and blue-eyed suggests otherwise. They probably came from the desert region to the north of the Himalayas, well to the west of China.

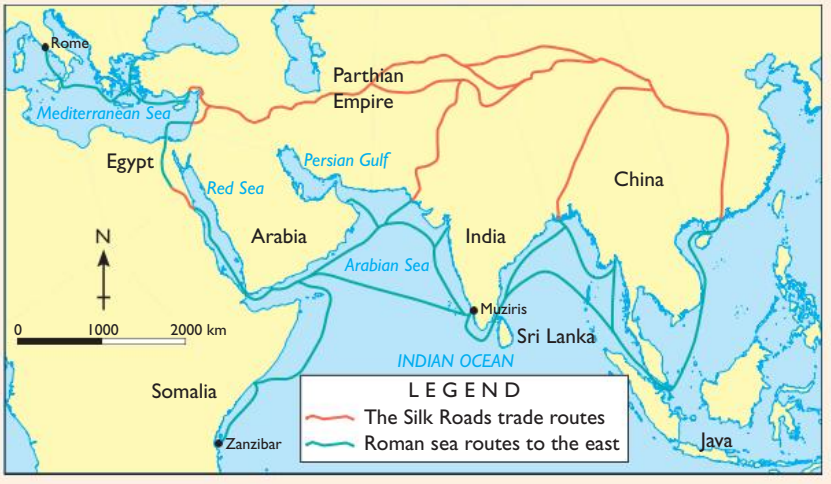
Direct contact between Rome and China came in AD 166, when a group of Roman traders reached Vietnam and from there were brought to the Chinese capital for a meeting with the emperor. However, when they returned to Rome with news of this new contact, they found that smallpox had ravaged the city, killing about one-third of Rome's population. This had a crippling effect on trade and the possibilities for further contacts with China were no longer considered a priority.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Romans were fascinated by silk. Some Romans wrongly thought silk was harvested from forests in distant Asia, while the writer Pliny thought it was the 'hair of the sea-sheep'. So great was the demand for silk in Rome that Emperor Tiberius tried to ban importing it because it was costing the Roman treasury too much.

4.13 SOURCE STUDY

Roman trade routes



Source 11 Roman trade routes

INTERPRET

1 Examine Source 11.
   - **a** Use the scale to estimate the distances sailed by merchants from Egypt to Muziris on the coast of southern India if they travelled:
     - around the Arabian Peninsula and Persian Gulf
     - directly across the Arabian Sea.
   - **b** How much travelling distance was saved by using the direct route?

4.13 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Explain why Egypt was such an important part of the Roman Empire.
2 How does a Roman naval warship (see Source 3) differ from the merchant ship shown in Source 10?
3 What is the significance of the following dates in Roman trade and exploration?
   - **a** AD 54
   - **b** AD 166
4 Why did trade between Rome and China fail to develop after early contacts?

GO DEEPER

5 Investigate Roman India. Indicate the points of contact, details of archaeological finds to date, evidence of India on Roman maps, and other relevant items of interest to a historian.

4.14 THE DOWNFALL AND LEGACY OF ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the legacy of ancient Rome.

All great empires eventually decline. For the Roman Empire, the end did not come suddenly, but the cracks began to appear after AD 200, due to a number of factors.

- Competing generals began to fight for the right to become emperor, and these civil wars destroyed the unity of the people.
- Economic conditions began to worsen as trade declined, and the population of Italy suffered from attacks of **plague** brought back by soldiers from the campaigns in the East.
- The systems of government that ran the empire became inefficient and corrupt.
- The empire was too large to protect from the **barbarian** tribes trying to invade along its north-western borders (see Source 12).

plague
a contagious bacterial disease, usually with fever and delirium

barbarian
a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders



Source 12 The division of the Roman Empire and the direction of threats from barbarian tribes

pagan
a person who is not a Christian and worships non-Christian gods

Diocletian, one of the last **pagan** emperors, persecuted Christians across the empire. But he brought stability to the empire for about 20 years, starting in AD 284. He knew that the empire was too large for centralised rule, so he divided the empire into two parts, each with its own emperor, but the western emperor maintained control. He appointed himself emperor of the eastern part of the empire, known as Byzantium. The Roman Empire remained strong because of this.

After Diocletian retired, there was some conflict over who would succeed him. Eventually, Constantine would be declared emperor and reunite the empire. Constantine believed that he came to power with the help of the Christian god and, by the time of his death in AD 337, Christianity had become the state religion.

By AD 395, the empire had again split in two. The Western Roman Empire itself began to break up again under the strain of military defeat and economic crisis. In AD 406, the Western Roman Empire was becoming overrun by barbarian tribes, such as Vandals and Visigoths. In AD 410, the city of Rome itself was looted by the barbarian Goths, and in AD 476, the last western emperor was overthrown by German troops within the Roman army. As the Western Roman Empire collapsed, a group of people known as the Franks invaded the province of Gaul, soon to be called France. The Angles and Saxons invaded Roman Britain, turning it into Saxon England. The Eastern Roman Empire survived until 1453, when it fell to the Turks and became known as the Byzantine Empire.

Legacy of the Romans

Although the Roman Empire ended about 1500 years ago, its legacy is still with us in many ways. The Roman Empire made it safe to travel across the region, allowing skills and ideas to spread as never before.

- Despite many years of opposition, Christianity eventually spread and became a 'world' religion because of the Roman Empire.
- The Roman language, Latin, became the basis of the French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese languages, and is also central to the English language.
- Rome's system of government during the republic has served as a model for modern political systems. Roman law codes are the basis of legal systems in many European countries and a number of our legal principles evolved from ancient Rome, such as the right to a fair trial, contracts and property rights.
- Western architecture owes much to the Romans. The arches, vaults and domes used widely by the Romans, in their aqueducts, bridges and great public buildings such as baths and temples, are a feature of Western architecture.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Octo is eight, and *decem* is 10 in Latin. Why then are October and December the 10th and 12th months of the year? This is because the Romans altered the calendar to add July (named after Julius Caesar) and August (named after the Emperor Augustus).



Source 13 The architecture of the Jefferson Memorial in Washington DC draws on ancient Roman building designs.

- Romans were the first great town planners and were skilled engineers. They developed sophisticated plumbing, sewerage and heating systems. Many towns founded by the Romans still exist, and modern roads have been built over the remains of Roman roads.
- Roman poets, historians and philosophers, such as Livy and Emperor Marcus Aurelius, although largely influenced by ancient Greece, produced great writing and literature.
- The calendar that we use every day has links to ancient Rome. The Julian calendar, introduced by Julius Caesar in 45 BC, was the main calendar used throughout Europe until changes made by Pope Gregory in 1582.
- The Romans invented concrete, which they made from a mixture of lime and volcanic soil.



Source 14 A surviving section of the Via Appia (sometimes called the Appian Way), a road built by the Romans from 312 BC to connect Rome to the south-east of Italy

4.14 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What decision was made by Emperor Diocletian to try to preserve the empire?
2 Which emperor was responsible for the introduction of Christianity into the empire?
3 When and how did the Roman Empire end in the west and in the east?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why might the end of the empire be described as 'the Romans' own fault'? Which things could be considered outside their control?

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE ROME AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

4D CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Identify conflicts within ancient Roman society

1 Identify and describe conflicts that occurred within ancient Rome. (Also refer to topic 4.3 'From republic to empire'.) (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society

2 What consequences did these conflicts have for Rome, and for the ancient world? (10 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Rome and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

3 Identify and describe trading contacts that existed between Rome and other ancient societies. (10 marks)

4 Identify and describe ancient societies that came into conflict with Rome as it expanded its empire. (10 marks)

5 Describe the course and result of major conflicts between ancient Rome and another Mediterranean power. (20 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies

6 What consequences did trading contacts have for ancient Rome and other societies? Include examples. (5 marks)

7 What consequences did conflicts between the Roman Empire and other societies have, for Rome and for the other societies? (5 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient Rome

8 Explain the legacy of ancient Rome that has been left to the modern world. (10 marks)

Total marks [/80]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

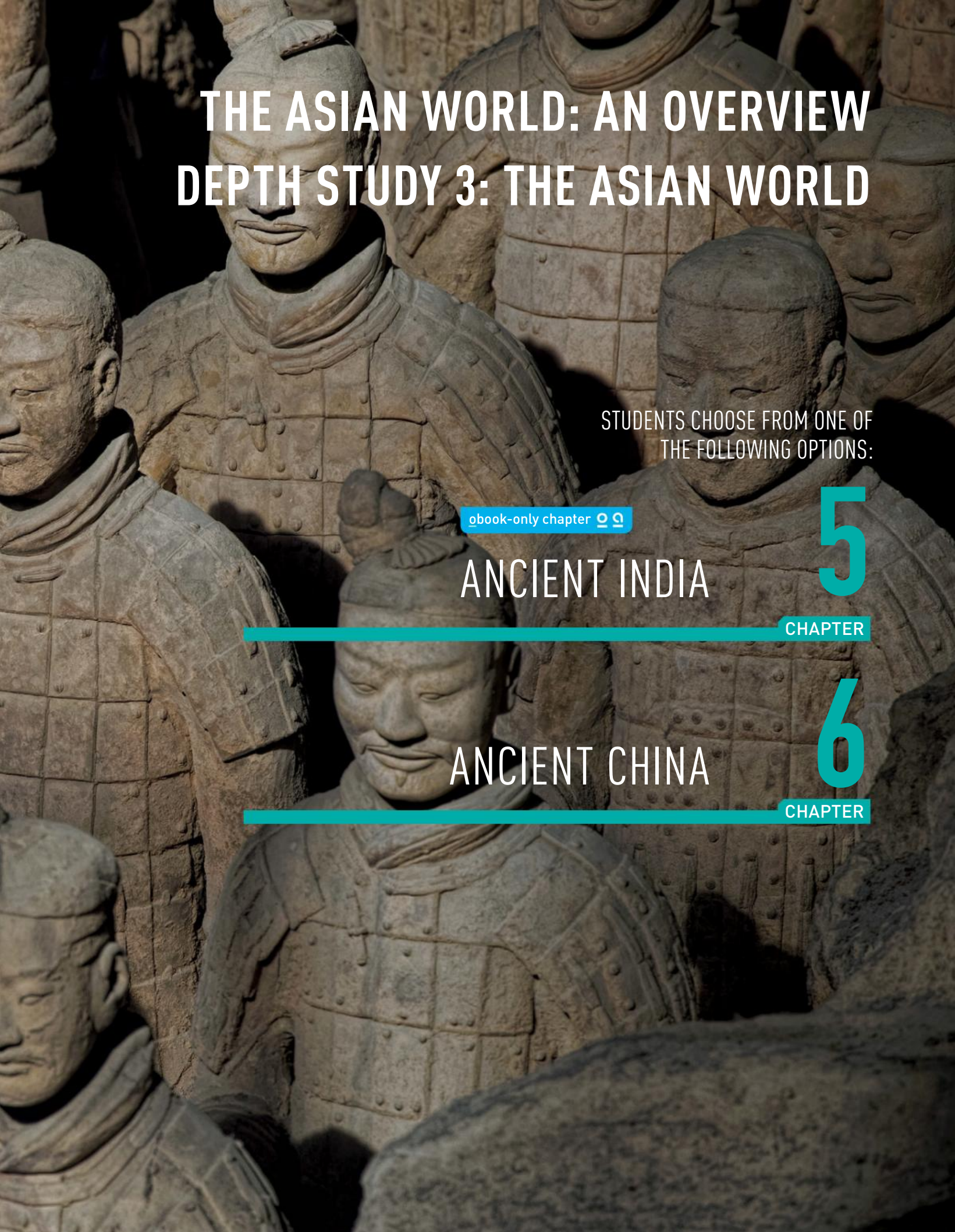
Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

PART C



An army of more than 8000 terracotta warriors was found in the tomb of Chinese Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di. Every one of them is different.



THE ASIAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW
DEPTH STUDY 3: THE ASIAN WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

obook-only chapter

ANCIENT INDIA

5 CHAPTER

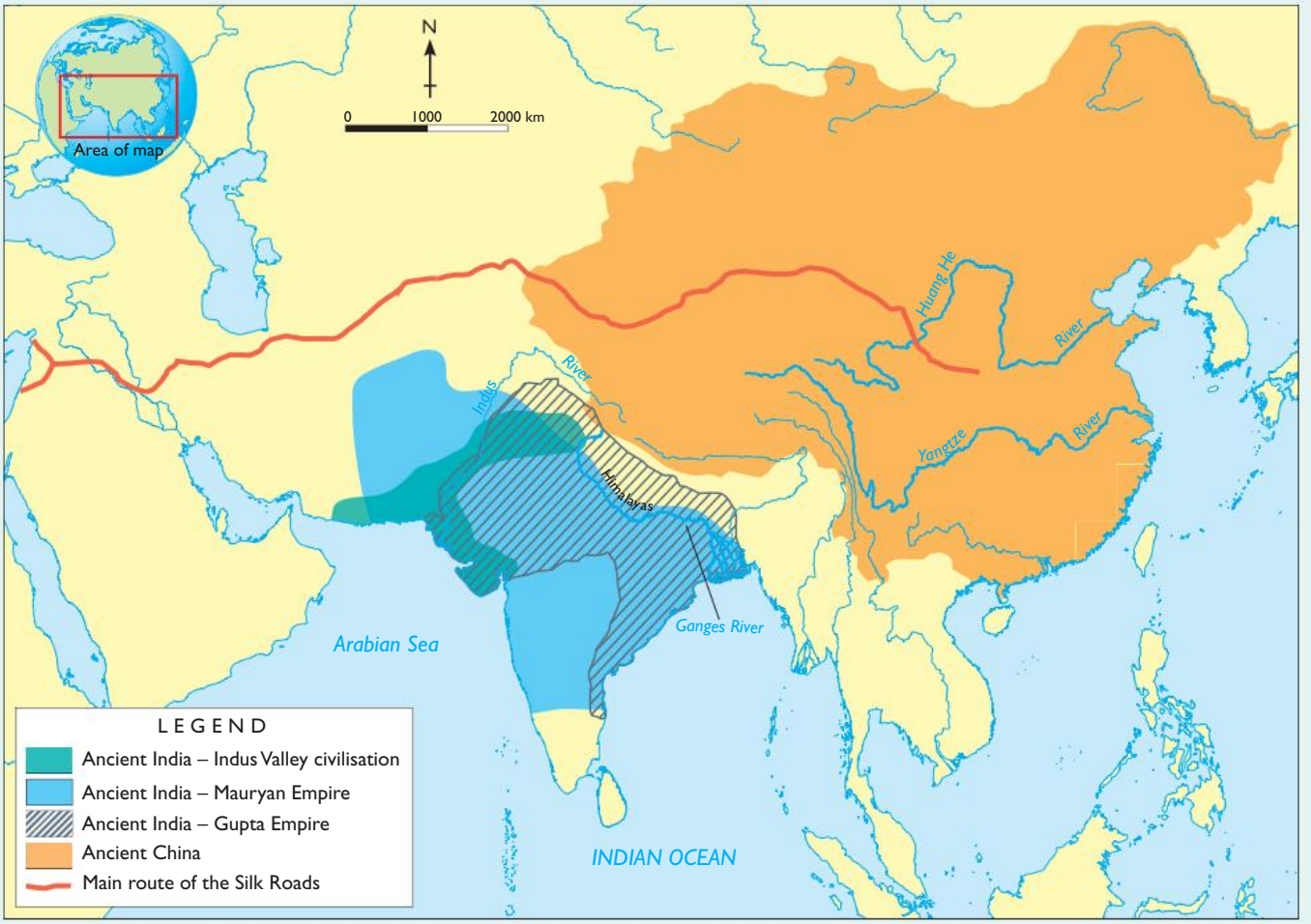
ANCIENT CHINA

6 CHAPTER

OVERVIEW OF THE ASIAN WORLD

Historians such as Professor Peter Frankopan have argued that, for a very long time, school history has mostly been about studying the 'rise of the West'. If this is the only history that we learn, it is incomplete. It is also essential to study the history of the Asian world.

From the earliest times, the Asian world was dominated by two great civilisations: ancient China and ancient India. These culturally rich societies are among the world's oldest. Both China and India were exploited by European powers during the nineteenth century for their raw materials before reasserting themselves. Today, China and India have the world's largest national populations, and have emerged as global economic powers. Australia is a geographically close neighbour, so it is especially important that we look beyond a Eurocentric view of history and also learn about these great Asian civilisations.



Source 1 China and India: two of the great civilisations of the Asian world

In this depth study, you will learn about one of the Asian civilisations in depth, including its:

- geography
- social structure and government
- religious beliefs
- everyday life
- contacts and conflicts within this society, and with other societies.

Sources 2 to 5 outline key aspects of the Asian civilisations you will be learning about in this depth study. These sources highlight some of their similarities and differences, and will help you to make connections between them.

0.1 KEY FEATURES OF THE ASIAN CIVILISATIONS

Geographical features

The geographical features of China and the Indian sub-continent were critical in influencing the way these societies developed.

Source 2 Geographical setting and natural features of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
Located entirely on the Asian continent, for much of its history China was largely unknown to societies in the West. This was mostly because of its geography. The Pacific Ocean lies to the east, dense forests to the south, the Himalayan mountain range to the west, and large deserts to the north-west. China's large area means it has very different climates in different regions. Chinese society was based on agriculture; as a result, many early Chinese settlements were located in the fertile plains along the Huang He (or Yellow) River and the Yangtze River.	To the north of the Indian sub-continent, deserts and the Himalayan mountains provided a natural barrier. There was plenty of fertile land for people to settle on, including coastal regions, plains and river valleys. India was well placed for trade, midway between East and West on one of the branches of the **Silk Roads**. India's earliest civilisation (the Harappan) emerged in the Indus River Valley. Much later, India's first empire, the Mauryan Empire, began near the Ganges River. Later still, the Gupta Empire brought a 'golden age' to India, with the introduction of many inventions and discoveries in mathematics, sciences and the arts.

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Social organisation and government

Ancient China and India had strict social hierarchies. In both societies, the strict class structure was influenced by belief systems and values popular at the time. In China, social structure and the approach to recording history were reinforced by the ideas of the great teacher and philosopher Confucius, who taught that a society could not be successful without respect for the past, strict social order and discipline. In India, a **caste system** developed that was connected to Hindu beliefs. These beliefs also influenced the concepts and methods of the earliest Indian historical accounts, where stories from the past were chosen to serve the needs of the present. This meant that legendary stories of the lives of great men were regularly featured. In terms of government, China was ruled by a series of **dynasties** throughout much of its ancient period, some lasting for hundreds of years. India's dynasties were more short-lived.

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

dynasty
a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other; power is often passed from father to son

Source 3 Social organisation and government of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
China was governed by powerful dynasties for much of its history. Its emperors came from wealthy and influential families, and passed the leadership to their children. Dynasties sometimes changed after a power struggle between rival families, or if a ruler became unpopular with the people because of floods or famine. China had a strict social hierarchy. Rulers, scholars and nobles were wealthy and powerful at the top of the hierarchy. Farmers, artisans and merchants were below them. Chinese women had a lower status than men and had few freedoms. Their life was mostly restricted to the home.	India had a strict social hierarchy with roots in the Hindu religion: the caste system. It divided people into social groups that determined their status, responsibilities and privileges. There were four main castes, with Brahmins at the top. Outside the caste hierarchy were the Untouchables, who were the most deprived group. Women in ancient India seem to have had a similar status to men for part of its history. After the Harappan civilisation declined, India was ruled as separate kingdoms, other than two periods when Indian dynasties established the Mauryan Empire and Gupta Empire.

Religious beliefs

The societies of ancient China and India were influenced by a complex mix of religious beliefs, cultural values and traditions.

Source 4 Religious beliefs of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
The people of ancient China worshipped their ancestors, as well as gods and goddesses. Chinese deities (gods) were believed to control the forces of nature. China had a number of organised religions. Daoism focused on the spiritual struggle between the yin (female) and yang (male) forces of the world. Buddhism was brought to China from India in the first century AD and focused on a pathway to spiritual meaning and enlightenment. Confucianism was also a significant influence on Chinese beliefs. It was more a code of behaviour rather than a religion.	The people of ancient India worshipped deities, but also believed in other supernatural beings. Hinduism was the major religion in India. Hinduism had multiple gods and, like Buddhists, Hindus believed in reincarnation (rebirth). Buddhism was founded by a wealthy Indian prince in the fifth century BC and was an established religion in India before it spread to China. Ashoka, a ruler during the Mauryan Empire, was responsible for sending Buddhist missionaries to other societies across Asia. Over time, it became a major world religion. During the time of the Gupta Empire, there was a renewed interest in Hinduism, and Buddhism declined in the northern regions of India.

Conflicts

Ancient China and India both experienced conflicts between warring kingdoms in their own territories, as well as threats from outside invaders.

Source 5 Conflicts involving the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di defeated warring states to rule a united China for the first time in 221 BC. China did not have a permanent army until relatively late in its history, during the Han Dynasty. The Chinese used a range of tactics and equipment to fight, and these changed over time. Early on, chariots were important, but these were gradually replaced by cavalry (soldiers on horses). The permanent army allowed China to combat tribes of invading Mongols from the north.	One of India's invaders was Alexander the Great (a powerful king from ancient Macedonia). After conquering Greece, Egypt and Persia, he briefly held territories around the Indus Valley. Throughout its history, India fought many invaders, and different kingdoms within India also went to war with one another. The army under the Mauryan Empire had a highly organised structure and hierarchy, and was strong enough to unite most of the country. Indian armies were the first to use elephants in battle. They also had foot soldiers, cavalry and chariots. The Gupta Empire was generally a very peaceful time, but the empire was greatly diminished when invaders from the north-west reduced the kingdom substantially in the fifth century, eradicating it completely by the sixth century.

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Outline the similarities between the ancient Chinese and ancient Indian civilisations in terms of their origins and geographical settings.
2. Ancient China and ancient India both had strict social hierarchies, but how did India's differ in terms of its origins?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. Create a concept map to outline the major religions in ancient Asian societies, including any links between them.
4. Draw up a table to show similarities and differences between ancient China and ancient India with regard to conflicts and conquests.

0.2 LEGACIES OF THE ASIAN WORLD

Ancient societies across the Asian world, such as China and India, have gone on to influence the societies and cultures of modern-day civilisations both in the East and the West. With the establishment of the Silk Roads, travellers from East and West exchanged ideas, inventions and beliefs. In later centuries, explorers were motivated by a desire to trade with China and India. Today, the **legacies** of these ancient Asian civilisations can be seen across many areas of our daily life.

legacy
something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

Belief systems

The belief systems of ancient China and ancient India are still influential all around the world. These belief systems included religion as well as other less formal beliefs. Hinduism and Buddhism, which originated in ancient India, are now major world religions. Some of the principles of those religions have had a wider impact, such as the principle of not harming living beings. The principles of Confucianism also continue to be important in modern China. Yoga and meditation grew out of ancient Indian belief systems and are commonly practised in many countries around the world today.



Source 6 A giant statue of Buddha in Hong Kong

Science and technology

Ancient China and ancient India made important contributions to mathematics and other areas of scientific and medical knowledge. The first use of the decimal system, which is the basis of modern mathematics, is credited to the fifth-century Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata. The Chinese were also advanced mathematicians and developed a number of mathematical systems that were later adopted by Western civilisations. Many inventions that were crucial to the development of the modern world arose in China. The ancient Chinese developed printing, using flat wooden blocks carved so that the character to be printed stood above the rest of the block. Magnetic compasses, which became very important for navigation, were invented in China. Gunpowder was invented by a Chinese scientist in AD 850 and became a powerful weapon in warfare.

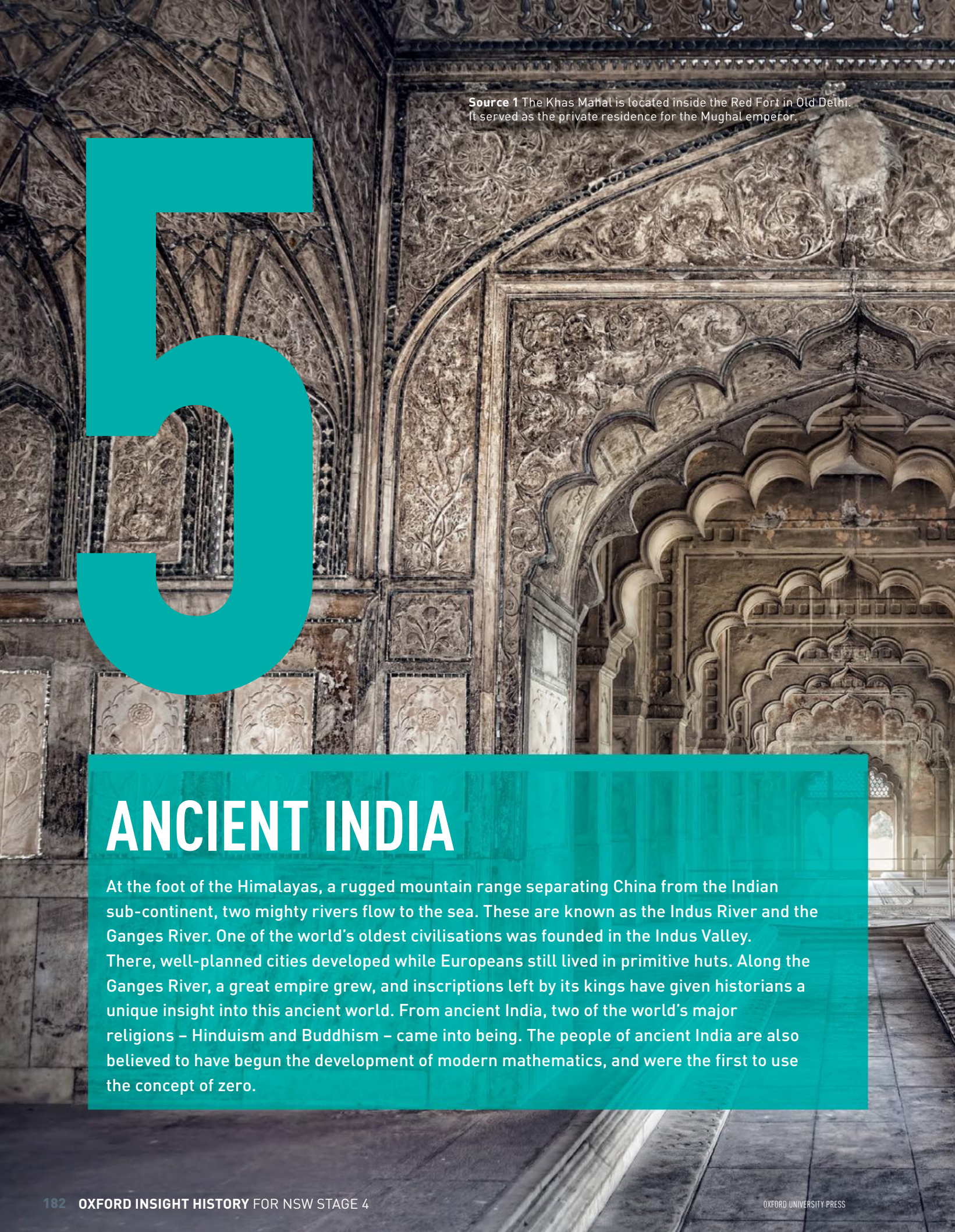


Source 7 An ancient Chinese nautical compass

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Which legacy of the Asian world do you think is the most important? Write a short explanation of 150 words to account for your view.



Source 1 The Khas Mahal is located inside the Red Fort in Old Delhi. It served as the private residence for the Mughal emperor.

5

ANCIENT INDIA

At the foot of the Himalayas, a rugged mountain range separating China from the Indian sub-continent, two mighty rivers flow to the sea. These are known as the Indus River and the Ganges River. One of the world's oldest civilisations was founded in the Indus Valley. There, well-planned cities developed while Europeans still lived in primitive huts. Along the Ganges River, a great empire grew, and inscriptions left by its kings have given historians a unique insight into this ancient world. From ancient India, two of the world's major religions – Hinduism and Buddhism – came into being. The people of ancient India are also believed to have begun the development of modern mathematics, and were the first to use the concept of zero.

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obook-only chapter

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA? 5A

In this section you will:

» describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India

» explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society.

CASE STUDY: THE DECLINE OF THE INDUS VALLEY CIVILISATION

CHECKPOINT 5A

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE? 5B

In this section you will:

» explain the beliefs and values of ancient India are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

CHECKPOINT 5B

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA? 5C

In this section you will:

» outline the main features of the social structures of ancient India, including the roles of law and religion

» describe the roles of key groups in ancient India

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India.

CHECKPOINT 5C

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE INDIA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES? 5D

In this section you will:

» identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society

» explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society

» outline significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

» explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies

» outline the main features of government in ancient India, including the role of laws and religion

» assess the role and importance of a significant individual in ancient India

» explain the legacy of ancient India.

CHECKPOINT 5D

ANCIENT INDIA – A TIMELINE

Source 2 The remains of the Great Bath in Mohenjo-Daro, the largest city of the Indus Valley civilisation; it is thought to have been a centre for ritual bathing.



TIMELINE



c. 3500 BC
The Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation emerges.

c. 1800 BC
The Aryan people begin to arrive in the Indus Valley from Central Asia.

c. 1700 BC
The Indus Valley civilisation has largely ended.

c. 800 BC
The Vedas, the sacred writings of Hinduism, are produced.

c. 563 BC
Siddhartha Gautama – later known as Buddha – the founder of Buddhism is born.

c. 500 BC
The Persians invade the Indus Valley and make it part of their empire.

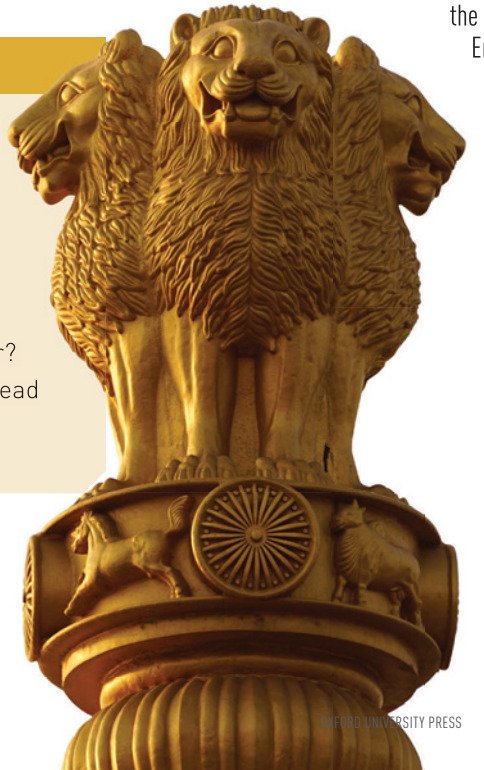
327 BC
Alexander the Great crosses the Indus River, intent on invasion.

c. 321 BC
A northern king, Chandragupta Maurya, founds the Mauryan Empire.

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How long did the Mauryan Empire last?
2. What is the name for the sacred writings of Hinduism?
3. What religion is associated with a man called Siddhartha Gautama?
4. When did the Indus Valley civilisation disappear?
5. When did the religion of Buddhism begin to spread beyond its Indian birthplace?



Source 3 The four lions on Ashoka's stone pillar at Sarnath; they are now the official symbol of the modern Republic of India.

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Source 4 The Hindu god Vishnu, whose four arms indicate that he is everywhere and all powerful

269 BC
Ashoka Maurya, Chandragupta Maurya's grandson, becomes emperor of the Mauryan Empire.

185 BC
The death of Emperor Brihadratha brings the Mauryan Empire to an end; for the next 300 years India is divided into small kingdoms.

232 BC
Emperor Ashoka dies.

50 BC
The first Buddhist stupa (religious structure) is built at Sanchi in India.

300 200 100 BC AD 100 200 300 400 500 600

AD 320
The Gupta Empire begins, a period in which the arts and sciences flourish.

AD 470
Aryabhata, the first in a long line of great Indian astronomers and mathematicians, is born.

***c.* AD 550**
The Gupta Empire ends.

250 BC
Ashoka sends missionaries across Asia to spread Buddhist beliefs.

261 BC
Ashoka leads a destructive military campaign against Kalinga, a rival civilisation.



Source 5 Part of a stone relief from Great Stupa at Sanchi, Bhopal



Source 6 An artist's impression of invading Huns (a rival civilisation from the West) who helped bring an end to the Gupta Empire

5A HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

5.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India
- explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

As ancient India developed, there were elements of society that remained the same, while other elements emerged and developed.

India's location and geographical features have helped to shape its history. Its fertile river valleys were natural places for human settlement. Its northern mountains and deserts were natural barriers along its borders, and its rivers and extensive coastline ideal for sea trade. Ancient India was located about halfway between the ancient societies of the Mediterranean and Asian worlds, and was a key section of the **Silk Roads**.

The Indian sub-continent includes modern-day Pakistan, India and Bangladesh. Based on the 'Out of Africa' theory, historians estimate that people first reached the Indian sub-continent 60 000 years ago. From around 9000 years ago, farming communities began to emerge, such as the Mehrgarh culture in today's Pakistan.

Like most major civilisations across the ancient world, the earliest settlements in India developed in river valleys. The Indus Valley, a vast flood plain, became the location of many of ancient India's earliest and largest communities. The Indus River lies in the north-west of the sub-continent, in modern-day Pakistan. It begins high in the Himalayas and flows south 3180 kilometres to the Arabian Sea. The Thar Desert lies to the south-east of the Indus River, providing a natural barrier and protecting settlements from invaders. Further south, a large **plateau** called the Deccan Plateau makes up the majority of India's southern region. The flat land of the Deccan Plateau is good for farming and animal grazing. The Deccan Plateau slopes down to the Indian Ocean in the west, and the Bay of Bengal in the east (see Source 2).

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

plateau
a large section of flat land



Source 1 Ancient ruins overlooking part of the fertile Indus Valley

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India's geographical setting and natural features



Source 2 The geographical features of the Indian sub-continent, and the borders of modern-day nations

INTERPRET

Refer to Source 2 to answer the following questions.

1 What four important physical features shaped the history of the Indian sub-continent?

2 Which physical feature is dominant? How might it have influenced human settlement?

India is a warm to very hot place year-round. Temperatures as high as 49°C have been recorded in some places, especially between March and June. The heavy **monsoon** rains usually arrive in June, with rain then falling most of the time until September. Most of the year's rainfall is during these few months. India's agriculture relies on monsoon rains arriving before its fields and crops dry up in the hot, dry months leading up to the monsoon. During the monsoon months, farmers store water supplies so they can irrigate crops during the rest of the year.



monsoon
a seasonal wind that brings heavy rainfall and warmer temperatures

Source 3 A farmer prepares his fields for planting after the first rains of the annual monsoon season.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

After Harappa was discovered, enough bricks were taken from there and other ancient ruins to lay the base of about 160 kilometres of track for the Lahore to Karachi railway line.

Ancient India's early civilisation

India's ancient society is often referred to as the Indus Valley civilisation, named for the Indus River around which that civilisation developed. Knowledge of this civilisation came to light with the discovery and excavation by archaeologists of its second largest city, Harappa, so some historians also refer to it as the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation. The Indus Valley civilisation developed from early farming communities that depended on the river waters for irrigation. Wheat and barley were their staple crops and rice was also grown. It lasted from about 3500 BC to 1700 BC, but was at its height from about 2600 BC to 1900 BC.

The discoveries of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro

Countries in the West first came to know of an early Indian civilisation through the writings of a British army deserter named James Lewis. He had come upon the ruins of Harappa in 1826 while travelling through the marshy woodlands of what is now the Punjab region of Pakistan. By the time the archaeologist Sir Alexander Cunningham visited the site in 1873, many of the walls and buildings of Harappa had disappeared. British engineers had taken the bricks from the ancient ruins to use for the building of a railway line.

Source 4 The ruins of Mohenjo-Daro



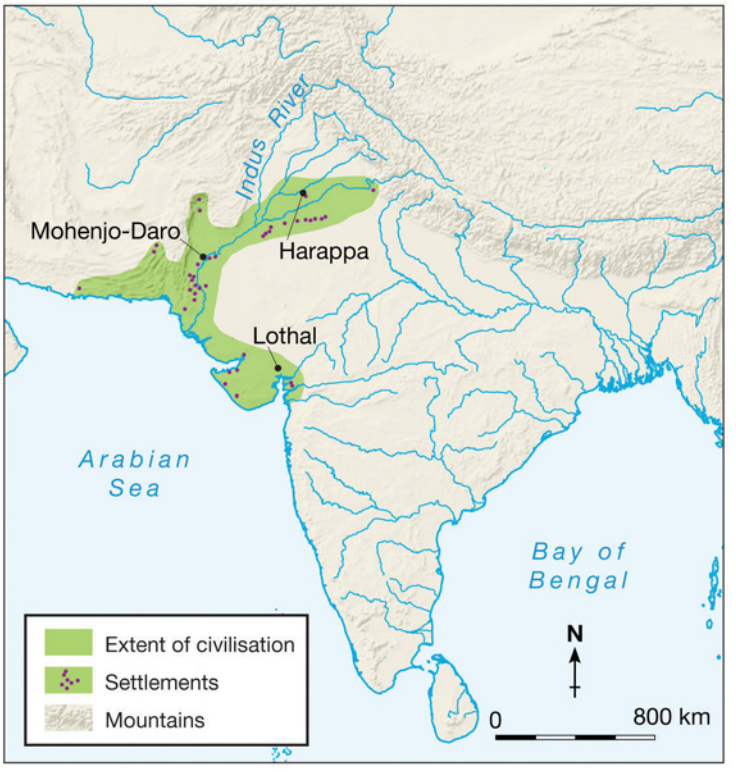
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For many years, because of the preference for Western or European history, there was little archaeological interest in the site. This changed in 1919 when Indian archaeologist R.D. Banerji investigated an ancient Buddhist **stupa** about 500 kilometres south of Harappa. Banerji noticed that the stupa was surrounded by mounds of crumbling bricks. He began digging and found, among other things, three soapstone **seals**. These seals were similar to one that had previously been found at Harappa, and were engraved with the same unknown writing that could not be decoded. Banerji had stumbled across the remains of the other great city from the Indus Valley civilisation: Mohenjo-Daro.

stupa
a dome-shaped religious building used to store important Buddhist relics (religious objects)

seals
engraved stamps

Archaeologists made a thorough excavation of both Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro in the early 1920s. It was found that Mohenjo-Daro covered an area of 1.5 square kilometres. Archaeologists estimate that the city housed more than 35 000 people. Harappa was a little smaller, with approximately 30 000 people. Since the 1920s, archaeologists have uncovered more than 1052 sites whose planned cities of brick, similar pottery and elaborately carved seals confirm they were part of the Indus Valley civilisation. The settlements were spread in a broad crescent across parts of Pakistan and northern India. Although most of the sites were found along the banks of the Indus River, some have also been excavated along the coastline near the ancient city of Lothal (see Source 5). At the civilisation's height in the late third millennium BC, Indus Valley cities and towns covered a region of almost 1.25 million square kilometres of land which is today part of Afghanistan, Pakistan and north-western India.



Source 5 The extent of the Indus Valley civilisation

5.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Outline the factors that made ancient India an important trading nation.
2. Why does agriculture in India depend on the monsoon season?
3. How were the ruins of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro discovered?
4. In which modern-day countries was the Indus Valley civilisation located?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. As a class, brainstorm any problems you think a severe monsoon might have caused for an ancient settlement in the Indus Valley.
6. The timing and amount of rainfall in the monsoon season has always been significant for Indian agriculture. Why might modern India's economy rely less on the monsoon season now, compared to ancient times?

5.2 INDUS VALLEY CITIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India
- explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society.

As the centuries of mud, soil and sand were cleared away from Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro, a sophisticated civilisation was revealed. As well as large protective walls, archaeologists discovered dockyards, grain storage buildings and warehouses. However, no large palaces or temples were found. In other ancient civilisations, evidence from these sites would have provided clues about the identity of important people in the ancient society, and how the civilisation was ruled. The lack of these types of buildings has led archaeologists to conclude that people in Indus Valley societies must have been more egalitarian (meaning that all people were treated equally) than those in other societies across the ancient world at that time.

The cities showed a well-developed sense of civic planning and organisation, including:

- huge brick platforms that formed the foundation of some major buildings
- roads set out on a grid pattern, with a 10-metre-wide main street in Mohenjo-Daro
- a well-developed system of sanitation and drainage, which has been described as the most advanced in the ancient world.

Sanitation and drainage

The residents in Mohenjo-Daro could obtain water from communal wells in the main street, as well as from wells in their own houses. House drains were linked to those in the street, which were built with a slight slope to allow water to drain away from the city. Some of the underground drains were large enough for people to walk in, which would have enabled them to be unblocked when necessary. This drainage system, found in every city of the Indus Valley civilisation, was extremely sophisticated and advanced among ancient civilisations.

Source 6 A domestic well from the ruins of a house in Mohenjo-Daro



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Housing

Houses of varying sizes were found in Indus Valley cities. Even after about 4000 years, their walls were still standing. On the ground floor most houses did not have windows, as these would have looked directly onto the busy streets. The main door, located in an alley behind the house, opened onto a spacious hallway and a courtyard beyond. Lining the courtyard and opening onto it were the individual rooms of the house, with a brick stairway leading to upper rooms and the roof. Windows had screens made of wood, terracotta or alabaster (a white stone) for privacy. The evidence suggests that most city-dwellers were traders or **artisans**, who lived with others belonging to the same occupation in well-defined neighbourhoods.

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)

Artefacts from the Indus Valley

The most common, and in some ways most puzzling, archaeological finds from the Indus Valley civilisation are numerous seals made from soapstone. These seals may have been used to stamp trade goods or other property to show ownership. To this day, the inscriptions on these seals have not been deciphered. The animal most commonly found on the seals is thought to be a unicorn. About a dozen Indus Valley seals have been excavated from sites as far away as Iraq and Iran.

The most distinctive single object found at Mohenjo-Daro is a stone sculpture known as the 'Priest-King', despite the fact that there is no supporting evidence that the figure represents either a priest or a king. The sculpture, found in 1927, is only 18 centimetres tall. The figure wears a headband, and has a similar band on his right arm. His upper lip is shaved and his beard is combed. His eyes are deeply cut into the stone, and some archaeologists think there may have been carved shell set into them. He is wearing a cloak decorated with a three-leafed design, which was once coloured red.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the artefact in Source 7.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

5.2 SOURCE STUDY

Artefacts from the Indus Valley



Source 7 Some of the Indus Valley seals have a symbol called a swastika (which means 'well-being') engraved on them, such as this example from Mohenjo-Daro.



Source 8 A seal from the ruins of Mohenjo-Daro features a picture of a unicorn.

Source 9 The 'Priest-King' of Mohenjo-Daro



INTERPRET

1 The writing shown in Source 8 has never been deciphered. How does this limit the source for historians studying the Indus Valley civilisation?

2 Look at Source 9.
   - **a** What evidence does it provide about how men in Mohenjo-Daro wore their clothing and groomed their beards and hair?
   - **b** As a class, discuss why this artefact may have been called the 'Priest-King'.

Indus Valley traders

Trade seems to have been the major occupation of the people of the Indus Valley civilisation. Their cities were centres of production of crafted items that were traded both overseas and overland. The city of Lothal was an important port where archaeologists have discovered an enormous dredged canal and docking facility. From here precious beads, ivory and jewellery were sent to faraway lands. Numerous finds of beads, pottery and bronze weapons of Indus Valley design in Oman have provided evidence of trade links across the Arabian Sea. Indus Valley traders also used coastal shipping along the Gulf of Oman and the Persian Gulf to the Tigris–Euphrates delta (now in Iraq). They travelled overland to Afghanistan and Iran, other parts of the Indian sub-continent, and through the Khyber Pass to link up with the Silk Roads that stretched from China to the Mediterranean.



Source 10 Trade routes used by the Indus Valley civilisation

The decline of the Indus Valley civilisation

By 1700 BC, most of the cities of the Indus Valley had been abandoned. It was once thought that this was because of invasions by the Aryans, a people from the north-west of Central Asia. Although it has been established that the Aryans did migrate to the Indus Valley and dominate the region, historians now believe that environmental factors played a key role in the decline of Indus Valley cities. These factors include heavy flooding of the valley and changes in the course of rivers due to earthquakes. The course of the Indus River itself was changed, and another ancient river, known as the Sarswati or Chagger Hakra, dried up entirely. Cities that had been built on the river banks would have been left without any water, and river trade would have ended as well.

The major influence in ancient Indian society then came from the Aryan people, who mingled with the existing population over time. Among their many achievements, the Indo-Aryans produced the language and script of Sanskrit, from which comes Hindi, the official language of modern India.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

For a great civilisation to cease existing, something has to happen to cause change and stop it from thriving.

5.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Create an infographic that includes some simple sketches to summarise aspects of the Indus Valley cities that historians have studied. Compare aspects such as urban planning, occupations of people who lived there, and their decline. Include sources of evidence that have been discovered. Which aspects of these cities and society are unknown to historians? Add these to the infographic.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

2 Conduct research on the swastika symbol (see Source 7) to discover its different uses and meanings over time. For example, swastikas have been found in religious buildings and temples; two Canadian ice-hockey teams in the early twentieth century used swastikas on their uniforms; and Adolf Hitler's Nazi party adopted the symbol in the 1930s. Write a 250-word report, with pictures, to summarise your findings. Explain why the swastika is now regarded as inappropriate and offensive by many people.

The decline of the Indus Valley civilisation

CASE STUDY

There is general agreement among historians and archaeologists that Harappan cities of the Indus Valley civilisation declined and some centres were abandoned around 1700 BC. Theories about the causes of the decline are an example of the concept of contestability. This is also an excellent example of how historical explanations change in the light of new evidence. In this case, new scientific techniques and developments in forensic science have led to the revision of old ideas. A range of theories has been offered, and these are examined below.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Until a theory is absolutely proven, historians may dispute interpretations of the evidence, even if they agree on some aspects of the topic.

Foreign invasion

In 1953, British archaeologist Sir Mortimer Wheeler, who was the director of archaeology for the Indian Government between 1944 and 1947, proposed the theory that the collapse of the Indus Valley civilisation was caused by a foreign invasion. He based this conclusion on a find of a number of skeletons at Mohenjo-Daro, which he suggested was evidence of a massacre. Wheeler claimed that marks on the skulls were evidence of violent deaths.

Even though the skeletons have often been used to add credibility to the theory of invasion, there are major disputes about this evidence. In 1994, Professor Kenneth Kennedy of the University of California determined that the marks were the result of erosion. Also, not all the skeletons at the site appear to date from the same period. They are likely to have been placed there at different times and may even have had different causes of death. The skeletons were found in a residential part of the city and not near the fortified part of the city where a defensive stand against invaders might have been expected.

Sir Mortimer also referred to passages in the Rigveda, an ancient text, about aggressive and ruthless invaders. However, these passages may be pure myth or they may be stories based on memories of real events.



Source 11 One of the Mogenjo-Daro skeletons

Environmental factors

Archaeological research and new techniques have shifted the focus of the investigation. A number of new explanations have been put forward, combining the impact of droughts and floods, and changes in sea levels and the course of rivers. There is evidence of major flooding at Mohenjo-Daro and other sites. In fact, the rise of the Indus Valley cities seems to have coincided with higher-than-normal rainfall, but then there was a dramatic drop in rainfall. A number of investigations by experts who study ancient climates have offered evidence of a prolonged drought. Not only that, earthquakes might have caused changes to the flow and direction of the Indus River, which would have had a disastrous effect on the Indus Valley cities. In addition, there is evidence that another river in the region, known as the Sariswati or Chagger Hakra, went dry and that cities along its banks were abandoned.

Decline in trade

Trade was a key factor in the rise of the Indus Valley civilisation, but there is evidence that this vital source of prosperity dropped dramatically around the time of the decline. The Indus Valley cities depended heavily on trade with the Mesopotamian civilisation (in parts of modern-day Iraq, Kuwait, Syria and Turkey), so when Mesopotamia went into decline, trade dwindled and both merchants and craft manufacturers in the Indus Valley suffered a dramatic loss of income.



Source 12 An artist's impression of Indus Valley merchants shows a local trader weighing beads. Bead and jewellery making – using gold, ivory, copper, shells and semi-precious stones – was a key industry.

Internal decline

Professor Gregory Possehl argued that changes that triggered the collapse came from within the Harrapan society. This was linked to expanding trade and growing internal class conflict. These domestic stresses are likely to have been accelerated by the decline in trade and the environmental changes noted above. The relative unity of the early years seems to have broken down. There is good archaeological evidence for this theory, for example there appears to have been overcrowding in the cities. The buildings had been well ordered, but around the time of decline, houses were jammed together. One of the most impressive public buildings in Mohenjo-Daro, the Great Bath, fell into disuse and was built over. There is also evidence that the impressive system of drainage fell into disrepair, drains became blocked and were not cleared. All this adds up to a breakdown in civil society and government.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 What types of evidence are historians likely to have used, including the use of technologies, to contest the earlier belief that an Aryan invasion caused the end of the Indus Valley civilisation? Discuss this in class.

GO DEEPER

2 Using the information in this case study and some research of your own, consider the most likely explanation (or explanations) for the cause of the decline of the Indus Valley civilisation. Note that the earliest theory of foreign invasion linked to Sir Mortimer Wheeler is now very much out of favour. As you work towards your answer to this question, try to separate the primary cause or causes from the secondary causes. When in doubt, look for the most likely option. Finally, remember that this remains a contested area of history and is an excellent example of how old beliefs have had to give way as historians work towards a better knowledge of the past.

5A

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India

1 Describe the geographical setting of India's earliest civilisation. (5 marks)

2 Copy Source 13, then identify and add the natural features in and around the Indian sub-continent. Use shading to mark the extent of the Indus Valley civilisation. Add a legend. (5 marks)

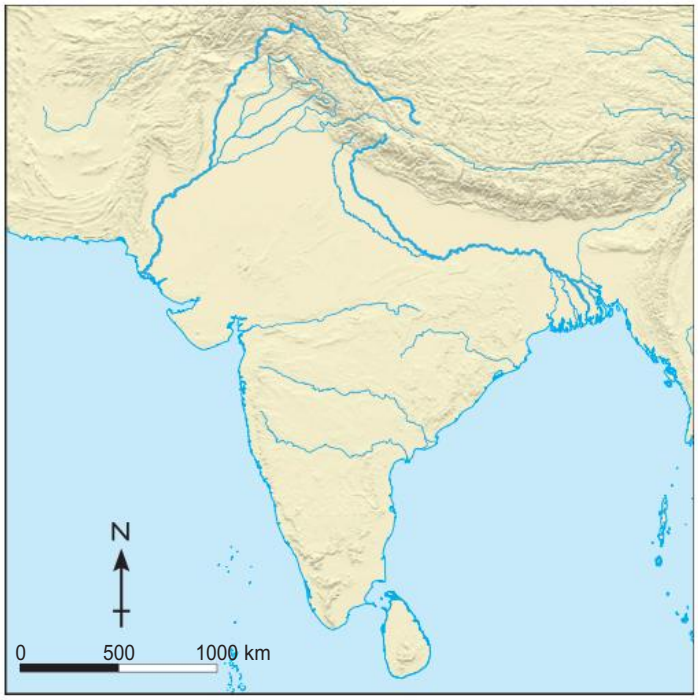
» Explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society

3 Explain how India's geographical setting and natural features influenced:

a the origins of India's earliest civilisation (5 marks)

b the way India's earliest civilisation developed and declined. (15 marks)

Total marks [/30]



Source 13 The geographical features of the Indian sub-continent

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

5B WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

5.3 RELIGIONS AND BELIEFS IN ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient India are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

Religious beliefs had an important role in the culture of ancient India. Three major religions originated in India – Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism. Over centuries, Hinduism and Buddhism developed into major world religions, while across the Indian sub-continent Hinduism and Jainism are the most significant religions. Buddhism has declined in popularity in India, but has flourished elsewhere in South-East Asia.

deity
a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

Besides **deities**, Indians believed in many other supernatural beings, such as spirits and the ghosts of people who had died a violent death. Goblins carried out wicked deeds, vampires ate raw flesh, and female ogres took possession of newborn babies and made them die. There were also kindly spirits who lived in springs, rivers, hills, crossroads and trees – even in the domestic hearth (fireplace).

Hinduism

Hinduism is the oldest major religion in the world. According to religious scholars, it originated 5000 or more years ago, before the arrival of the Aryans. The Aryans both influenced, and were influenced by, the religious practices of the original Indus Valley peoples who were known as the 'Hindus'. As well as developing the Sanskrit language, the Indo-Aryans created a body of literature called the Vedas, based on hymns and other sacred poems from their gods. Over time, the Vedas became the most sacred texts in Hinduism and now form the basis of the Hindu faith.

Hindus believe in an original being, Brahman, who takes the form of many other deities. Hindus also believe in **reincarnation**. Hinduism requires that believers:

reincarnation
the process of being born again; to live again in another body (human or animal)

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

- live according to the 'rules' of the **caste system**
- worship their deities (with offerings made to gods in temples and holy places)
- cremate (burn) rather than bury their dead
- make pilgrimages to holy places such as the Ganges River (see Source 1).

Jainism

Jainism developed as an offshoot to Hinduism and teaches that one should do no harm to any living thing. Jains, like Hindus, believe in karma, which teaches that the effects of a person's actions determine their destiny in the next life – no repentance can save someone and no god can forgive or forget past actions.

5.3 SOURCE STUDY

Hindu beliefs and rituals



The Ganges River is considered holy in India. Despite its high pollution levels, people today still risk their health to bathe in it or drink from it. At the festival of Kumbha Mela, held every 12 years, Hindu pilgrims take a ritual bath in the Ganges, which is thought to guarantee an end to reincarnation and the beginning of eternal happiness.

Source 1 Hindu pilgrims bathing in the Ganges

INTERPRET

1 Conduct research to find out about the mystical origins of the Kumbha Mela festival and write a paragraph of 50 words to summarise your findings.

Buddhism

Buddhism stemmed from the life and teachings of Siddhartha Gautama. He was born to a noble family around 563 BC in modern-day Nepal. Over time, he grew disillusioned with his privileged life and left to pursue a simple existence in the search for truth. After various experiences, including nearly starving to death, he sat under a tree, vowing to stay there until he had found the truth about life. After 49 days of meditation he is said to have reached a state of enlightenment. He came to be known by his followers as the Buddha, meaning 'the enlightened one'.

Buddhists do not worship deities. Instead they strive for a deeper insight into the true nature of life, with a focus on personal spiritual development. Buddhism teaches that greed and violence can never make people happy. The way to find peace of mind is through honest work, truthfulness, kindness and respect for the lives of all creatures – human and animal. The Eightfold Path laid out by Siddhartha Gautama describes the way to the end of suffering.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about what Source 1 reveals about Hinduism today in India.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your ideas with the class.

Wisdom	Ethical conduct	Mental discipline
Right view	Right speech	Right effort
Right intentions	Right action	Right concentration
	Right livelihood	Right mindfulness

Source 2 The Eightfold Path is a practical guideline to ethical and mental development leading to understanding the truth about all things.

Death and funerary customs

Customs related to death and funerals in ancient India were influenced by people's beliefs and traditions, as described in Source 3.

Source 3 Typical rituals for a Hindu funeral in ancient India

When a man was close to death, he was placed on the ground so that he could die close to the earth.

After death, undertakers cut the dead man's hair, beard, body hair and nails, rubbed the body with perfumed oils and dressed it in new garments.

Professional female mourners would be paid to surround the corpse and wail and cry, beating their chests and tearing at their hair.

A sacrificial cow was chosen; it followed directly behind the corpse in the funeral procession.

A pyre (a heap of wood) was constructed and the body was placed on top of it. Three fires were placed around it – at the north-west, south-west and south-east corners. The widow was led up to the corpse from the north and stretched herself out by his side. She was then helped to her feet and got down from the pyre.

The priest arranged all the sacrificial objects that had belonged to the dead man on the corpse. The cow was then killed by the priest and its vital organs were placed on the body of the dead man.

The fires were simultaneously lit and the priest watched carefully. If the flames from all three fires reached the body simultaneously it was a sign of supreme good fortune.

The funeral was followed by a 10-day period of mourning. On the eleventh day the dead man's bones, which were left on the pyre to be picked clean by birds, were taken to be buried in the cemetery in a clay funerary urn.

Source 4 A memorial representing the handprints of widows who were burned with their dead husbands on the funeral pyre – a practice known as *sati*



Around AD 400, the practice of *sati* began to appear. This involved a widow climbing, or being placed, on the funeral pyre to be burned alive with her husband. By choosing (or being forced) to practise *sati*, the widow would be greatly respected as a pure woman, and declared a 'true wife'. It was believed that her agonising death ensured that she, her husband and seven generations of her family would all go straight to heaven.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religion in ancient India and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

5.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Using bullet points, summarise the key beliefs of the Hindu and Buddhist religions.
2. What does karma teach?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. Conduct research to find out what is required of a Buddhist following the Eightfold Path. For example, what do you think is meant by 'right speech' or 'right livelihood'?
4. Why do you think Hindus cremate (burn) rather than bury their dead?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5. Conduct research to find out why cows are sacred to Hindus and followers of other religions. Create a Venn diagram showing the similarities and differences in their belief systems in relation to cows.
6. The practice of *sati* is outlawed in modern India, yet some widows continue to choose to carry it out when their husband dies. Using your understanding of Indian beliefs, and historical empathy, propose why a woman might be motivated to choose this option.

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient India are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

1 Identify the three major religions in India and outline what followers of these religions believe. In your response, refer to Source 5. (15 marks)

2 Explain how Hindu beliefs influenced burial rituals in India, and describe the rituals practised at a typical Hindu funeral. (15 marks)

Total marks [/30]

Source 5 Characteristics of the major Indian religions

Characteristics	Hinduism	Buddhism	Jainism
Origins	*c.* 1800 BC with more ancient roots	*c.* 450 BC	*c.* 570 BC
Key beliefs	Existence is a cycle of birth, death and rebirth, governed by karma. Reincarnation is dependent on how the previous life was lived. One of the goals in life is to release the soul from the cycle of rebirth by gaining spiritual knowledge.	The focus is on personal spiritual development. The path to enlightenment is through the practice and development of morality, meditation and wisdom. The aim is to achieve nirvana, which is best understood as a state of profound spiritual joy, without negative emotions and fears.	All animals and plants, as well as humans, have living souls, which are of equal value and should be treated with respect. Souls are reincarnated. 'Right belief', 'right knowledge' and 'right conduct' are the three guiding principles.
God/s	Brahman, who takes the form of other deities responsible for the creation, upkeep and destruction of the world, including the gods Vishnu and Shiva	None	None
Sacred texts	*Bhagavad Gita* and the Vedas	The Tripitaka, the Mahayana Sutras and the *Tibetan Book of the Dead*	The Agamas, which contain the teachings of Mahavira
Sects or branches	Nine major sects including Brahmanism, Krishna Consciousness and Vishnuism	Twelve major sects including Falun Gong, Theravada, Mahayana and Zen	Two sects: Digambaras and Swetambaras
Number of followers today	1.15 billion	535 million	6 million

5B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

5C HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA?

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Unlike some other ancient societies, where there could be some movement among the classes, the caste system was inflexible, with chance defining each person's quality of life.

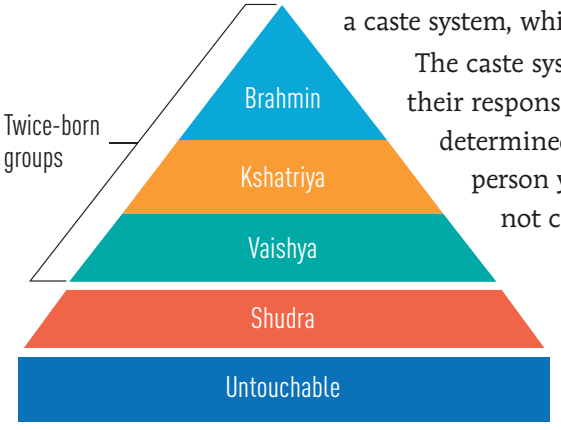
5.4 THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline the main features of the social structures of ancient India, including the roles of law and religion**
- **describe the roles of key groups in ancient India.**

As we have seen, Indo-Europeans (commonly known as Aryans, or Vedic people) began moving into northern India from about 1800 BC. They produced four religious manuscripts called the Vedas, which became the holy books of Hinduism. The concept of a caste system, which divided Indian society into groups, developed within Hinduism.



Source 1 The caste system in ancient India

The caste system in India enforced rigid limits on a person's life, dictating their responsibilities and privileges within society. The caste you were born into determined the sort of life you would lead, including the job you did, the person you married, and the people you socialised and ate with. You could not change your caste.

There were four main castes. The first three – Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas – were the so-called 'twice-born'. This was because children took part in a 're-birth' ceremony around the age of 12, when they came of age. The fourth caste, the Shudras, did not have these spiritual privileges. Below these castes were the lowest of the low with no rights or privileges: the Untouchables.



Source 2 Brahmins perform a prayer ceremony at a Hindu festival in Varanasi.

Brahmins

The Brahmins were the most privileged caste. They were the priests, teachers, and performers of the religious rituals. They were also the group that selected the stories to record and produced the early history of India. Their accounts were designed to justify their own right to rule, and included almost nothing about the lives of ordinary people. They alone memorised and passed on teachings from the Vedas. They even exerted authority over the powerful tribal chiefs. Brahmins were expected to lead a religious, intellectual and saintly life, and to develop all ideal qualities, especially honesty, integrity, cleanliness, purity, austerity, knowledge and wisdom. To enable them to do this, they were not expected to accept paid employment but could receive gifts. Although Brahmins were expected to live simply, relying on donations from others, they sometimes came to possess large estates and large sums of money. Legally, Brahmins could not be sentenced to death, or receive torture or physical punishment. They also did not have to pay taxes.

Kshatriyas

The Kshatriyas were the noble caste. They were the leaders and protectors of society. They served as kings, warriors and tribal chiefs. Their responsibilities included protecting citizens from harm, especially women, children, Brahmins and the elderly. In times of war, they were expected to be the first into battle and never to flee the battlefield. As leaders, they were to ensure that the citizens performed their duties, enforce law and order, and collect the taxes from the main tax-paying caste, the Vaishyas. Spiritually, they were to be concerned with advancing their own spiritual awareness by knowing the scriptures and by taking counsel from the Brahmins.

Traditionally, only men from the Kshatriya class undertook military training. Reforms in modern India have allowed other castes to join the military. However, the majority of the Indian army is still made up of soldiers from the Kshatriya caste.



Source 3 Indian soldiers from the Kshatriya caste, on parade

Vaishyas

The Vaishyas were the farmers and merchants. Economically they were the most productive of all the castes. As time passed they became the business class and could become very wealthy. Their original function was to work and earn money to maintain the Brahmins, who were not required to work on the land, and the warrior caste, who were often busy conquering new territory. As a result, they paid heavy taxes. Though lower than the Brahmins and the Kshatriyas in the social order, they were classed as 'twice-born' and retained certain spiritual privileges, which involved performing rituals and rites of passage.



Source 4 Merchants were members of the Vaishya caste.



Source 5 These men from the Shudra caste are employed to work in a factory belonging to a merchant from the Vaishya caste.

Shudras

The Shudras were the workers, and it was their duty to serve the other three castes. They were the only section of society allowed to accept employment from members of the other castes. The Shudras paid taxes, though these were not as heavy as those paid by the Vaishyas. Although theirs was a life of labouring for others, it was not necessarily an unbearable existence. Employers (from the Vaishya caste) were obliged to supply a worker's tools, and sometimes a regular wage if the employer were wealthy.

Dalits

At the bottom of society, with no rights or privileges, was the group that came to be known as the 'Untouchables'. Untouchables did the jobs that were despised or considered spiritually unclean, such as sanitary workers, road sweepers and funeral attendants. They were not allowed to live within the confines of regular village life, or to share public facilities such as wells and temples. Emphasising their lowly status, Untouchables were supposed to dress in clothes stripped from corpses and eat only from cracked bowls and dishes. If they had jewellery, it could only be made from iron.

In modern Indian society, the term 'Untouchable' is no longer used. In fact, the Indian Constitution of 1950 outlawed Untouchability and gave equal status to all citizens. Untouchables are now referred to as Dalits. In practice, however, many rigid caste values continue and the role of caste in modern Indian society is often debated among Hindu scholars.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Although the caste system is considered to be rigid and confining, there are clear examples where society has broken with tradition.



Source 6 Work being carried out in a sewer in Kolkata; for over 2000 years, Hindu beliefs required that such work be carried out only by Untouchables.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In the past, a Brahmin who killed an Untouchable received the same penalty as someone would for killing a dog. An Untouchable had to avoid 'polluting' members of other castes by any kind of contact or even by coming within their sight.

The status of Dalits

In recent years, Dalits have been speaking out and demanding rights. For the first time, men from the Dalit caste have held high office in modern India. In 1997, K.R. Narayanan was elected as President of India, and in 2007 K.G. Balakrishnan was sworn in as India's Chief Justice – both men were born Dalits. Despite advances, however, there are still a number of crimes carried out against Dalits by members of higher castes. An attack against a Dalit farmer named Girdharilal Maurya provides one example of this.

Source 7

> The sins of Girdharilal Maurya are many, his attackers insisted. He has bad karma. Why else would he, like his ancestors, be born an Untouchable, if not to pay for his past lives? Look, he is a leatherworker, and Hindu law says that working with animal skins makes him unclean, someone to avoid and revile. And his unseemly prosperity is a sin. Who does this Untouchable think he is, buying a small plot of land outside the village? Then he dared speak up, to the police and other authorities, demanding to use the new village well. He got what Untouchables deserve. One night, while Maurya was away in a nearby city, eight men from the higher Rajput caste came to his farm. They broke his fences, stole his tractor, beat his wife and daughter, and burned down his house. The message was clear: Stay at the bottom where you belong.
>
> The punishment of Girdharilal Maurya *(c. 2003) from National Geographic online news*



Source 8 These two women are taking part in a protest march by Dalits in Mumbai.

INTERPRET

1 Read Source 7 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** What were Girdharilal Maurya's 'crimes'?
   - **b** Why did his attackers think they had the right to punish him?
   - **c** Is the source credible (reliable)? Justify your answer.

2 Look at Sources 7 and 8.
   - **a** What evidence do these sources provide about the status of the Dalits in India?
   - **b** Outline the limitations of these sources. What other evidence would historians need to form a comprehensive understanding of Dalits?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND THE USE OF SOURCES

The origin and purpose of a source must be considered before drawing conclusions about how useful or accurate it is.

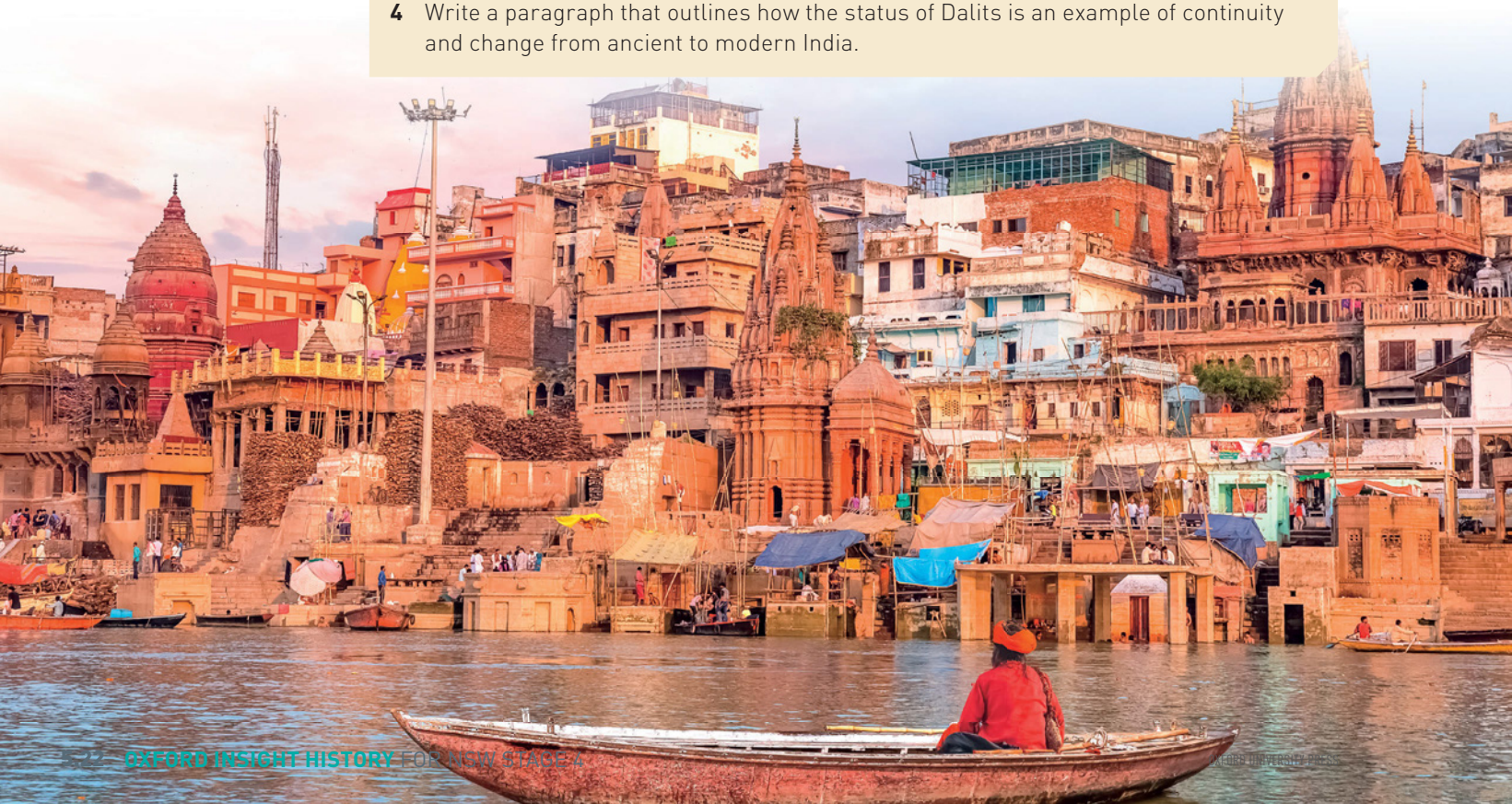
Slaves in ancient India

Written sources from the first century BC confirm there was slavery in ancient India. However, unlike slavery in ancient Greece and Rome, it was rarely a life sentence. Slaves were brought to India by traders, or became slaves as punishment for certain crimes or to pay off a debt. Some slaves worked in mines, but most appeared to have worked as domestic servants. Many would have probably have had a better life as slaves than as Untouchables, as slavery was governed (as least officially) by laws. For example, if a female slave bore her master a son, she became legally free and the child had the legal status of a son of the master. Slaves were allowed to buy back their freedom or could be voluntarily released by their masters.

5.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why were the Aryans sometimes called the Vedic people?
2 Based on the information provided, identify if each of the following statements is true or false:
   - **a** The Kshatriyas were the princes so this made them the spiritual leaders of society.
   - **b** The Vaishya caste paid more taxes than the Shudras, who were a lower caste.
   - **c** Members of all castes had to pay taxes, though some paid more than others.
   - **d** Brahmins, being the highest caste, dressed more elegantly than the others.
   - **e** Shudras provided the main workforce in society.
3 Identify the caste to which each statement refers:
   - **a** They were the carpenters and the metalworkers.
   - **b** They lived simply and memorised the Vedas.
   - **c** They kept the drains and the streets clean.
   - **d** They were the tax collectors and warriors.
   - **e** They were the main business class.
4 Write a paragraph that outlines how the status of Dalits is an example of continuity and change from ancient to modern India.



5.5 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India.

As we have seen, the caste system in India determined the sort of life a person could lead. Daily experiences of people in ancient India would also depend on whether they were male or female, and where they lived. Nonetheless, some general observations can be made about everyday life in ancient Indian towns and villages.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Ancient India had a complex variety of groups in society. It is important to understand the perspective of the different levels in the caste system.

Town and village life

The well-planned cities and towns of ancient India were divided into distinct districts. Each caste was supposed to occupy a different district. In addition to the main streets, each district included smaller streets and lanes, which were often narrow and winding. These led to the houses of the poor and were used by members of the lower castes, especially the Untouchables, as they moved from one part of the city to another to carry out their necessary but despised jobs, such as street sweeping.

It was considered unacceptable for a member of a higher caste to come face-to-face with an Untouchable. While the upper castes strode proudly through the wide streets, or travelled in **palanquins**, the poorest of the poor scurried along the lanes. Half-naked Brahmins walked with a stick to ward off evil spirits and carried an umbrella to emphasise their dignity.

palanquin
an enclosed chair, carried on poles by servants

Religious beggars, known as *sadhus*, sat naked, their bodies smeared with ashes as the people moved among the street stalls and entertainers, such as snake charmers. Large towns had pleasure gardens, public parks and fountains.



Source 9 A snake charmer in Jaipur, charms two deadly cobras, continuing a long cultural tradition.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Venomous cobras are the preferred snakes used by snake charmers. A charmer will know the snake's striking range (distance) and sit just outside it – though some charmers also extract the poison glands just to be sure! Snakes cannot hear as we do; they respond to the swaying of the flute used by the charmer rather than its sound.

5.5 SOURCE STUDY

Rich and poor in ancient India



Source 10 Palanquins, like this one, were used to carry wealthy members of society.



Source 11 A woman sweeping a dirt road – a common sight in Indian towns, past and present

INTERPRET

1 To which castes do you think the man in the palanquin in Source 10 and the woman sweeping the road in Source 11 might belong? Use evidence from the sources to explain your reasoning.

Food and diet

In ancient times, Indus Valley populations would have eaten the grain crops they grew (such as rice, lentils and wheat) and the meat of the animals they herded, which included sheep, pigs, cattle and goats. Diets changed over time, often for religious reasons. For example, not eating meat became more common during the Mauryan Empire. This was because animal sacrifice had become less common under Emperor Ashoka, who had converted to Buddhism. By the time of the Gupta Empire, the cow had become sacred and Hindus did not eat beef at all. Much later, with the arrival of Islam, pork also became a forbidden food for many.



Source 12 A single piece of cloth is wound in different ways to form a sari, worn by women, and a *dhoti*, worn by men.

Clothing

Cotton was grown in ancient India by Indus Valley farmers. Fabric made from cotton was cool to wear in India's climate. It was used to make the saris (the Sanskrit word for 'cloth') worn by women, and the *dhoti* worn by men. Both these garments were a single piece of cloth wound in different ways around the body. Men wound the *dhoti* between their legs to form loose pants. Some men also wrapped a length of fabric around their head to form turbans.

Saris later became vibrantly coloured garments, especially for young women; for wealthy women, they were often made from richly decorated silk. Typically, lots of jewellery was worn by those who could afford it.

Housing

The houses of the rich were several storeys high, with whitewashed walls and private gardens where a stream of water often ran, permitting daily washing rituals to be carried out. Rooms were generally separated by hanging mats or tapestries. Floors were laid with polished tiles or **mosaics**. Each day, rooms were perfumed by burning incense sticks and hanging up garlands of flowers. Everyday life centred on the garden, where herbs were grown for treating the family's ills. Furniture was elegant and varied. The master bedroom would contain a soft bed with a white bedspread and a decorated canopy, along with tables, chairs, and baskets of flower garlands to wear.

In small towns and villages, living conditions were simpler. Houses were usually single storey with walls covered with a mixture of lime, earth and cow dung. Floors were made of beaten earth, and there was usually only one window. Furniture was extremely sparse and there were no seats of any kind, since everyone sat on the ground. The main piece of furniture was a bed with a wooden or bamboo frame. Domestic utensils were restricted to pots of various sizes.

mosaic
a design or decoration made up of small pieces of tile and glass to create an image or pattern; commonly found on the floors and walls of buildings across the ancient world

polygamy
one man having several wives at the same time

Indian households

The Indian household was made up of the extended family composed of grandparents, uncles, aunts and other relatives all living together under the authority of the head of the household. The numbers could be increased by the practice of **polygamy**. Polygamy was permitted in all castes but was practised mainly by Kshatriyas. Its main purpose was to increase the chances of having sons who could preserve the family line (*gotra*). Custom required that a man should wait 8 to 12 years before taking a second wife, this being enough time to see if his first wife could bear him a son.



Source 13 Inside a home in India; this style of housing is typical for a poor family in India.

Education

During the Indus Valley civilisation, formal education was limited to the upper castes. Education focused on the Sanskrit language and religious training, such as learning the Vedas and ritual practices. Traditionally, students lived and studied with their teacher or guru in a forest location away from towns, called an ashram. Education started as young as 8 years of age, depending on a child's intellectual abilities. Upper-caste women were educated during the Indus Valley civilisation, and ancient Hindu scriptures provide evidence of women scholars who were teachers and took part in philosophical debates.

The sons of traders and merchants would be taught reading, writing and basic arithmetic in village schools, using their local dialect. Other boys and girls from the lower castes, the workers and farmers, would not have received any formal schooling.



Source 14 A student recites from the Vedas.

Marriages

Marriages were arranged between families and planned over a long period. Sometimes the negotiations were directly between the families; sometimes the services of professional matchmakers (*ghataka*) were used. Astrologers were consulted to find the most favourable time for the wedding. The father of the bride was obliged to supply a dowry or wedding gift to the family of the groom. The bride would often be very young by today's standards, and some religious texts permitted the marriage of girls as young as 8 years old. Others preferred a later age of 12. When a girl or woman was married, she cut all ties with her family and became part of her husband's household and *gotra*.



Source 15 A wedding in an Indian village today continues old traditions. The bride is washed in front of a sacred Mahuwa tree, known as the 'tree of life'. The tree provides edible fruit, wood, oil (pressed from seeds), flowers, fertiliser (seed husks) and alcohol (made from fermented flowers).

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians write for different audiences. It is important to consider the style and tone of a response to ensure it is suitable.

5.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain how the caste system influenced the design of towns and cities in ancient India.
2 At what age were Indian girls usually married?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 How did the homes of the wealthy and the poor differ?
4 What do you consider to be some of the most important differences between marriage and family life in ancient India compared to today in your culture?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Write a short article that expresses your feelings about Dalits in modern India. It needs to be suitable in tone, expression and presentation for publication in a magazine.

GO DEEPER

Most historians think that, during the Indus Valley civilisation, upper-caste women enjoyed much the same status as men and played an active role in society. They were educated, and they were respected by men for their spiritual and intellectual abilities. They could marry anyone they chose and have a say in what happened in the family. The status of women declined later in the Indus Valley civilisation, particularly after the arrival of both Islam and Christianity. Women began to lose their earlier independence and become more socially repressed by men.

6 Conduct research to find out more about the changing role and experiences of women in ancient India, and use a timeline with detailed labels to summarise your findings.
7 How would the changing status of women in ancient India have affected their daily experiences?

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA?

» Outline the main features of the social structures of ancient India, including the roles of law and religion

1 Identify the system that dictated a person's place in Indian society, and outline some of the ways in which this system influenced people's lives. (5 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in ancient India

2 Identify four key groups in India's social hierarchy, and describe the occupations, responsibilities and privileges of people who belonged to these groups. (10 marks)

3 Identify another group in Indian society that was considered to be beneath the accepted social hierarchy. Describe the types of duties the people in this group were expected to carry out and how were they treated. (5 marks)

4 Describe the work done by slaves in ancient India, and describe their status in Indian society. (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India

5 Write a paragraph on each of the following aspects of everyday life in ancient India:

a life in an Indian town or village

b education

c family households and marriage

d clothing, food and diet

e housing. (25 marks)

Total marks [/50]

5C CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills



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5D HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE INDIA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

5.6 ANCIENT INDIA'S EMPIRES

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

In order to fully understand a society, it is important to know its historical context and key terms used to describe important people, places and events. Ancient India's society was significantly changed by contact with other peoples. Some contacts were peaceful, through traders and missionaries, while other contacts came through invasion and war.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society
- outline significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies
- outline the main features of government in ancient India, including the roles of law and religion
- assess the role and importance of a significant individual in ancient India.

As discussed earlier, the Ayrans established control across much of India's north about 3500 years ago, before extending their influence into the Ganges River Valley. The fertile Indus Valley was also attractive territory to other civilisations. The Persians made it part of their empire around 500 BC, but did not hold it for long. Later, the Indus Valley and surrounding regions became part of the Hellenistic Empire under Alexander the Great in 326 BC, following the defeat of the Indian King Porus.

Two great Indian empires then emerged during ancient times. India's first empire, the Mauryan Empire, was established in 321 BC by its conquering king Chandragupta Maurya. A later king, Ashoka Maurya (Chandragupta's grandson), changed the face of India, first through war, and then by peaceful means. After the Mauryan Empire ended around 185 BC, India was again a mix of independent kingdoms. The Gupta Empire largely united India in AD 320, and was a time of cultural and intellectual advances. It too ended in conflict, with the fifth-century invasion by the Huns.

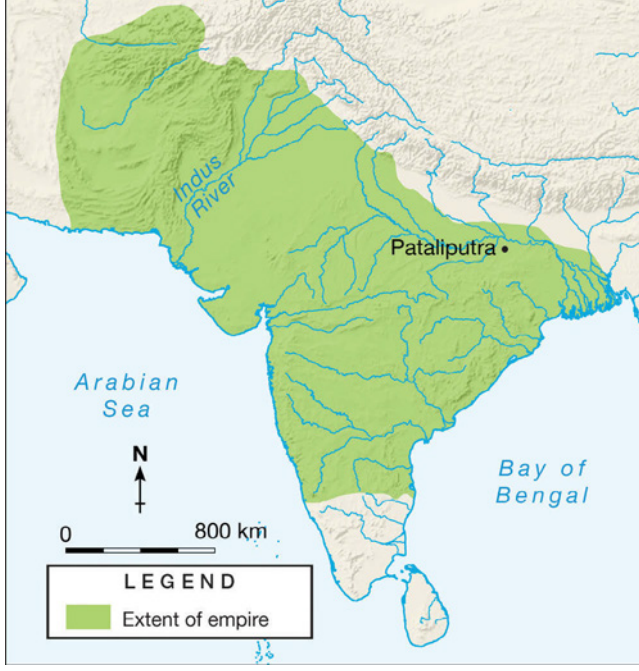


Source 1 An artist's impression of Alexander the Great defeating the Indian army of King Porus (and his elephant troops) at the battle at Hydaspes River in 326 BC

The Mauryan Empire

In 321 BC, a leader emerged in northern India who founded a great empire, stretching from modern Afghanistan to the Bay of Bengal. His name was Chandragupta Maurya and he ruled from his capital, Pataliputra. The ancient city now lies under the modern city of Patna, and the site is regarded as one of the oldest continuously inhabited places in the world.

By the time Ashoka came to power in 269 BC, a large part of the Indian sub-continent was under Mauryan control. The exception was Kalinga (now the Indian state of Odisha) on the east coast. In 261 BC, Ashoka led a lengthy campaign against the people of Kalinga, which ended in a victory for the Mauryan Empire. However, he was horrified at the devastation he had caused. He recorded how 150 000 Kalingan people had been carried away as prisoners, 100 000 had been killed, and many times that number had died as a result of the war. He vowed never to wage war again and turned to the newer religion of Buddhism for his inspiration and guidance. As a result, Buddhism became the empire's official religion in 260 BC.



Source 2 The Mauryan Empire at its greatest extent

Ashoka and the spread of Buddhism

Ashoka wanted the teachings of Buddhism to be spread beyond their birthplace in northern India. He sent Buddhist missionaries to various parts of the sub-continent and beyond to carry the teachings of Buddhism and win people over to this new faith. Missionary expeditions were sent to Tibet, southern India, Burma and Sri Lanka. The mission to Sri Lanka was led by Prince Mahinda, Ashoka's son, and was the most successful of all. Prince Mahinda and the king of Sri Lanka, King Tissa, converted almost all the inhabitants to Buddhism and built spectacular monuments. Altogether, Ashoka built 84 000 stupas across the Mauryan Empire.

Although Buddhism later declined in popularity in India, the descendants of missionaries sent to Sri Lanka by Ashoka carried Buddhism to Burma and Thailand. From there, it spread to the islands of modern-day Indonesia, Cambodia and Vietnam, and travelled overland through central Asia to China, Korea and finally to Japan.

Source 3 A rock-cut sculpture of the reclining Buddha in the Ajanta Caves, Aurangabad



Government during the Mauryan Empire

province
a territory or region governed or controlled by a foreign empire or country

The Mauryan Empire was divided into provinces, each governed by a prince or member of the royal family, their chief ministers and other officials. The only exception was the metropolitan area (known as the state of Magadha), which was directly governed by the emperor. Each village in a **province** had a headman who was both the local accountant and tax collector. Agriculture was the main activity within the Mauryan Empire, and taxes provided by farmers were the main source of income for the government.

Ashoka built schools, universities and hospitals using public money. One of the most impressive public works was the Great Royal Highway linking the city of Taxila in the north-west of the empire to the capital of Pataliputra. It continued on to the Bay of Bengal – a distance of more than 2500 kilometres. It was provided with signposts, roadside trees for shade, and bridges and ferries to cross the rivers on route. Ashoka had banyan trees planted (because of their significance in Buddhism), wells dug and rest houses built every 14 kilometres along the road for the comfort of travellers.



Source 4 A bust of Ashoka, third ruler of the Mauryan Empire

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Ashoka reduced the number of animals destined for the butchers of the royal palace from 'several hundred thousand' every day down to just two peacocks and one gazelle – his favourite meats. By the end of his reign, even this limited killing had been stopped.

Ashoka's *dhamma*

Perhaps the most significant aspect of Ashoka's reign was his effort to convey to his people his ideas about how life should be lived. These ideas were known as his *dhamma*. The word came from the Sanskrit word *dharma*, which means the universal law, or righteousness. In Buddhism, it was used for the teachings of the Buddha, but Ashoka gave the word a wider meaning beyond religious matters to include questions of ethics and social behaviour.

To convey his ideas to his people, Ashoka had edicts (similar to instructions or laws) inscribed in stone throughout the empire. Some of these inscriptions were made on large rocks and boulders; others were cut into the walls of caves. The finest were cut into specially built stone pillars crowned with lions (see Source 3 on the timeline at the beginning of this chapter). The pillar edicts were placed wherever people were known to gather. Because very few people could read, the edicts would often be read aloud by an official.

Ashoka asked people to be tolerant of each other. This meant that people should be considerate to slaves and servants, respect teachers, obey parents, be generous towards friends and relatives, show concern for all living beings, and refrain from killing or behaving violently. For leaders such as himself, this meant renouncing war and conquest. This teaching of non-violence also extended to the treatment of animals. Ashoka's edicts tell us that he set up hospitals for animals as well as for people.



Source 5 The remains of a pillar built by Ashoka, showing engraved edicts



Source 6 The Wheel of Law



Source 7 The Indian flag

Ashoka's Wheel

The Wheel of Law was one of the earliest Buddhist symbols, and over the centuries many designs of the eight-spoked wheel have been made. A form of the Wheel of Law can be seen on the current Indian flag. This version is normally referred to as Ashoka's Wheel.

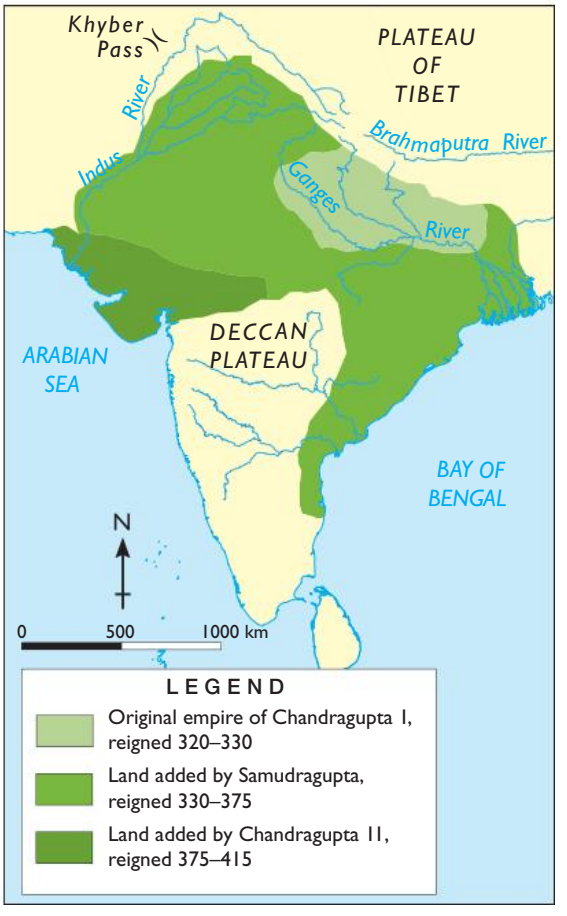
End of the Mauryan Empire

Ashoka ruled for 37 years and died in 232 BC. His policy of *dhamma* was not completely successful, as social and religious tensions throughout the empire continued. Decline set in and the empire broke down when the last of the Mauryan kings, Brihadratha, was assassinated in 185 BC. Although the empire had ended, the rule of Ashoka had left an important legacy. He had left behind the greatest historical records of an ancient Indian civilisation through his rock-and-pillar inscriptions, and been responsible for the spread of Buddhism across South-East Asia.

The Gupta Empire

More than 100 years after the end of the Mauryan Empire, ancient Indian civilisation was to reach new heights – this time under the rule of the Gupta Empire (AD 320–480). The Gupta Empire was founded by Chandragupta I, and although the reigns of the five Gupta emperors lasted only about 150 years, they oversaw great changes and advances in many fields. This was a period when Indian arts and sciences flourished. Great Indian writings took on their final form at this time, including the Sanskrit epic tales that are still central to Indian literature, culture and society today.

Trade also blossomed, with close contacts formed not only with Asian neighbours, but also with the Roman Empire in the west. Ancient India's geographical location – roughly midway along the Silk Roads between China and the Mediterranean societies of Rome, Greece and Egypt – also helped to develop exchanges of goods, ideas and religions.



Source 8 The extent of the Gupta Empire

During the Gupta Empire, Buddhism was replaced by Hinduism as the official state religion. Despite this change, followers of Buddhism, Hinduism and Jainism coexisted peacefully and exchanged ideas. The Gupta rulers were followers of the Hindu god Vishnu, but they were generous towards Buddhist monasteries and universities. They encouraged the works of Buddhists and Jains. Today, Buddhist sculptures carved into rock faces and paintings on temple caves from this time are evidence of this.

Tensions and divisions in Indian society appeared under the rule of the last Gupta ruler, Kumara Gupta, and the invading Huns ultimately ended what remained of the empire's unity. By the mid-sixth century AD, India was again ruled as a number of small kingdoms.

5.6 SOURCE STUDY

Ancient Indian society during the Gupta Empire

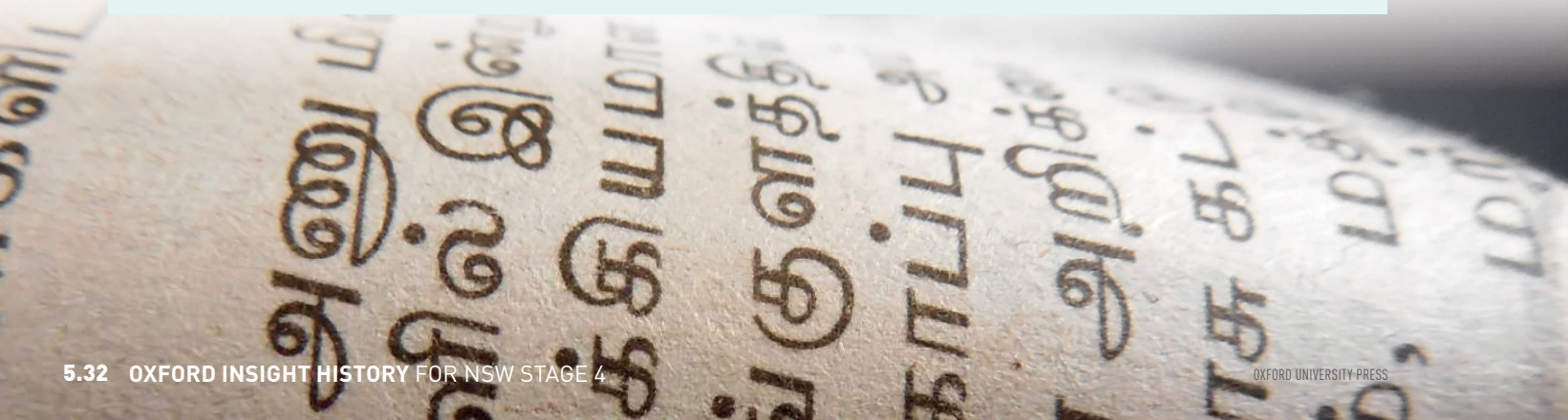
A Chinese Buddhist monk named Fa Hsien provided evidence of Indian society during the Gupta Empire. Fa Hsien toured the Gupta Empire to collect copies of Buddhist scriptures; his writings (AD 394–414) were first translated by French scholars in the nineteenth century.

Source 9

> [In this land] ... the people are numerous and happy; they have not to register their households, or attend to any magistrates and their rules; only those who cultivate the royal land have to pay [a portion of] the gain from it. If they want to go, they go; if they want to stay on, they stay. The king governs without decapitation or [other] corporal punishments. Criminals are simply fined, lightly or heavily, according to the circumstances [of each case]. Even in the cases or repeated attempts at wicked rebellion, they only have their right hands cut off ... Throughout the whole country the people do not kill any living creature, nor drink intoxicating liquor, nor eat onions or garlic ... they do not keep pigs and fowls, and do not sell live cattle; in the markets there are no butchers' shops and no dealers in intoxicating drink.
>
> The Heads of the Vaishya families ... establish in the cities houses for dispensing charity and medicines. All the poor and destitute in the country, orphans, widowers, and childless men, maimed people and cripples, and all who are diseased, go to those houses, and are provided with every kind of help, and doctors examine their diseases. They get the food and medicines which their cases require, and are made to feel at ease.
>
> *Fa Hsien, A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms*, trans. James Legge, 1886

INTERPRET

1. According to Source 9, the Indians under the Gupta Empire enjoyed a degree of freedom not often seen in the ancient world. What evidence does Fa Hsien give of this?
2. What does the evidence reveal about the legal system and health system available for Indians living under Gupta rule?



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Source 10 Detail from an early Buddhist rock painting from the Ajanta caves (north-east of Mumbai), which was created during the Gupta Empire

5.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Who were Chandragupta Maurya and Ashoka Maurya?
2. List four achievements of Ashoka's rule that benefited the people of the empire.
3. What was the purpose of Ashoka's rock-and-pillar edicts?
4. The Kalingan campaign was a turning point in the life of Ashoka.
   - **a** What was it about the Kalingan campaign that had an effect on Ashoka?
   - **b** What were the consequences for people in his empire and beyond?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. What would you describe as Ashoka's greatest legacy?
6. What were the Gupta kings' attitude to people with religious beliefs different from their own, and what evidence shows this?

GO DEEPER

7. Choose a significant individual in ancient India and investigate his or her life and achievements. Assess this individual's importance to India and, if relevant, to the ancient world. Present your findings in a piece of writing, a speech, or a recorded or live role play. Keep a record of the sources you have used as a basis for your presentation.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians develop questions to guide their research, consulting a range of sources.

5.7 THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the legacy of ancient India.



Source 11 The Iron Pillar of Delhi

Ancient India has left many legacies for our modern world. As we have already seen, it was where two of the world's major religions, Hinduism and Buddhism, began. The town planning and public hygiene in ancient cities set standards of cleanliness that were not achieved again until many centuries later. India's cultural heritage includes unique forms of architecture, art, music and dance. Perhaps less widely realised are the astonishing advances India's ancient people made in the fields of science and mathematics.

Technology

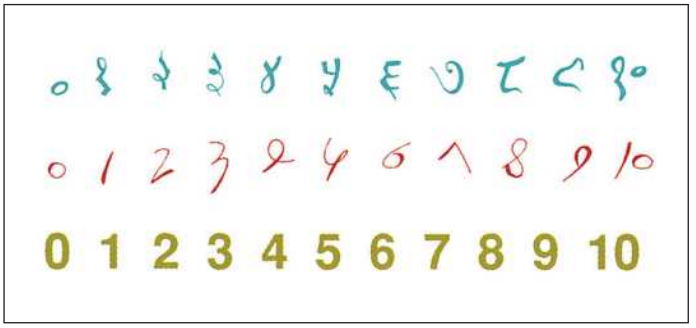
By 1000 BC, Indian craftsmen had begun forging iron, and in the centuries that followed they became the most skilled ironworkers in the world. Indian ironware was in demand in both Europe and Asia as first the Greeks, then the Romans, then the Chinese traded for the skilfully worked products of the Indian ironmasters.

The Iron Pillar of Delhi (see Source 11) is over 7 metres high and is made from sections of wrought iron hammered together. Though the date of its construction is not precisely known, it is generally acknowledged that it has stood, exposed to the tropical heat and monsoon rains, for about 1700 years without showing any sign of rust or corrosion.

Science and mathematics

The ancient Indian civilisations clearly knew geometry, which was used in planning the layout of their cities and shrines, and their mathematicians were the first to use the concept and figure of zero in their calculations. This numbering system of nine digits and a zero was later learnt by the Arabs who referred to mathematics as the 'Indian science'. This later passed to Western Europe, and we now describe our mathematical system as relying on 'Arabic' numerals, although their origin lies in ancient India.

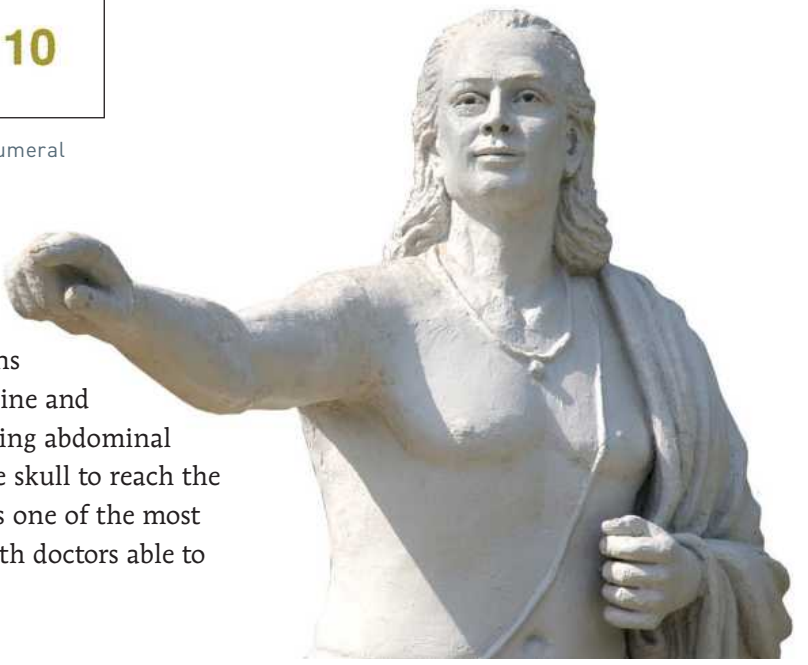
Scholars of ancient India practised astrology and were skilled astronomers. Without the aid of telescopes, they listed hundreds of stars and constellations and accurately plotted the course of the Sun across the sky through 12 sections or months of the year, providing the basis for the modern calendar. Aryabhata, who was born around AD 470, was the greatest Indian astronomer and mathematician. He wrote his first great work at the age of 23, detailing innovations in astronomy and mathematics, written in verse couplets. He described the Earth as a sphere, rotating on its own axis and revolving around the Sun, so explaining day and night and the seasons of the year. He also understood that lunar eclipses were caused when the Earth's shadow fell across the Moon.



Source 12 Our system of Arabic numerals is founded on a numeral system developed in India.

Medicine

India was ahead of most other ancient civilisations in having a highly developed knowledge of medicine and surgery. Physicians could perform surgery, including abdominal operations, setting broken bones, drilling into the skull to reach the brain, and removing cataracts. Plastic surgery was one of the most advanced areas of knowledge in ancient India, with doctors able to regraft split noses and re-attach torn earlobes.



Source 13 A statue of the Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata

Literature

Ancient Indian literature provides the basis of Hindu beliefs and philosophies. The two great epics of ancient Indian literature are the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. These epic poems were developed and handed down orally over centuries, before being written down in the second century AD. The *Mahabharata* is the longest single poem in the world, containing about 100 000 verses. Stories in the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* provide the basis of Hindu mythologies and rituals that are still practised today.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Surgeons of ancient India developed a method of 'stitching' wounds using giant ants. They brought the ants to the edges of the wound and made them bite at regular intervals, cutting the ant's body off when the pincers had clamped; the head and pincers remained embedded in the flesh, holding the lips of the wound together.



Source 14 A twelfth-century carving from the Hindu epic *Mahabharata*

Architecture

Ancient followers of Buddhism and Hinduism gave the world magnificent examples of religious architecture – from the Buddhist carvings of the Mauryan Empire to the establishment of Buddhist monasteries during the Gupta Empire. One of the most famous of these was at Nalanda in northern India, which attracted students from far away. The most breathtaking examples of the achievements of India's stonemasons and sculptors are temples and shrines cut into cliffs, such as the one at Ellora, located north-east of Mumbai. Its halls, cloisters and columns were carved out of a solid granite mountain (see Source 15).



Source 15 The temple at Ellora, built during the Gupta Empire

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Different experiences of individuals shape different views. This means that sources won't always provide the same perspective or view.

5.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1. The numbers we use today are called Arabic numerals rather than Indian numerals. Why do you think this is the case?
2. Collate a portfolio of pictures of ancient Indian painting, sculpture or architecture. Assemble these as a digital presentation, giving brief details about the origin and purpose of each example, and the meaning of religious symbols.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3. Create an infographic summarising ancient India's achievements and legacy to the world.

GO DEEPER

4. Research to find out more about the epic poems the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. Summarise one of their stories using a flow chart or storyboard.

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE INDIA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society

1 Identify the time periods when conflicts within ancient India resulted in the emergence of two great empires. Name these empires and their rulers. (2 marks)

2 Explain the nature of contacts between the king and his people during the rule of Ashoka. (3 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society

3 Explain how conflicts within India resulted in the emergence of empires. (5 marks)

4 Explain the consequences of the conflict that occurred in 261 BC. (5 marks)

» Outline significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

5 Describe contacts that occurred between ancient India's earliest civilisation and other societies through trade and migration. (5 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies

6 What were the consequences of contacts between India's earliest civilisations and other societies through trade and migration? (3 marks)

7 What were the consequences of the conquest of Indian territories around 500 BC and 326 BC? (2 marks)

» Outline the main features of government in ancient India, including the roles of law and religion

8 Outline how India was governed during the Mauryan Empire, and identify public works built during this period. (5 marks)

» Assess the role and importance of a significant individual in ancient India

9 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in India. Outline his or her achievements. Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society as well as other ancient societies. Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (15 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient India

10 Select two ideas or inventions from ancient India that you think had the greatest impact on other societies, giving reasons for your choices. (10 marks)

Total marks [/55]

5D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1 Construction of the Great Wall of China began in 220 BC, and continued for more than 1500 years.

6

ANCIENT CHINA

Ancient China is one of the world's oldest and most complex societies. Like many of the earliest civilisations, ancient China had its roots in farming. By about 8000 BC, the Chinese were growing crops such as rice and millet in the fertile valley of the Huang He (Yellow River). Villages formed from these settlements, with some becoming cities. Over time, complex belief systems, customs and traditions formed. Many of these continue to influence the modern world.

It has only been in the last 50 years that Western societies have gained a better understanding of China and its history. With a current population of well over a billion people, modern China is home to around 20 per cent of all people on Earth. In recent years, it has also re-emerged as a major global power. An appreciation of the role China plays in our modern world has never been more important, and this can only be developed through an understanding of its culture and history.

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HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA? 6A

In this section you will:

» describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient China
» explain how they influenced the development of Chinese society.

CHECKPOINT 6A

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE? 6B

In this section you will:

» explain how beliefs in ancient China were reflected in death and funerary customs.

CHECKPOINT 6B

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA? 6C

In this section you will:

» outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed
» describe key groups in Chinese society
» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China
» investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China.

CASE STUDY: THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

CHECKPOINT 6C

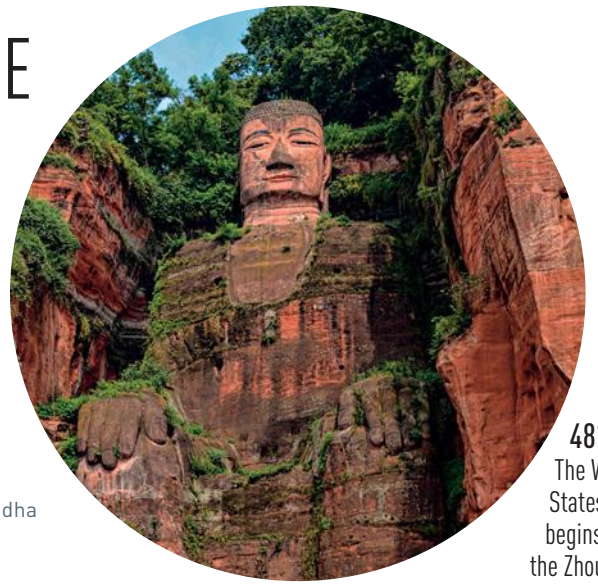
HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE CHINA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES? 6D

In this section you will:

» identify conflicts within Chinese society
» explain the consequences of these conflicts for ancient China
» describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
» explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient China and other societies
» investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China
» explain the legacy of ancient China.

CHECKPOINT 6D

ANCIENT CHINA – A TIMELINE



Source 2 The Giant Buddha of Leshan in Sichuan province, China

TIMELINE

10 000 BC
Early settlements appear in the Huang He (Yellow River) Valley of northern China.

7000 BC
Evidence appears of the first stages of simple farming.

***c.* 2205 BC**
The Xia Dynasty begins, a time of transition from stone-age to bronze-age tools and weapons.

***c.* 1766 BC**
The Shang Dynasty begins.

***c.* 1122 BC**
The Zhou Dynasty begins.

563 BC
Siddhartha Gautama (later known as Buddha) is born in India.

551 BC
Confucius is born.

481 BC
The Warring States period begins, during the Zhou Dynasty.

10000 — 7000 — 2000 — 1500 — 1000

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the statue in Source 2.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Place the following events in chronological order, from the earliest to the most recent:
- invention of paper
- China split into three kingdoms
- start of the Xia Dynasty
- start of the Qin Dynasty
- construction of the Great Wall.

2 How many years elapsed between the start of the Xia Dynasty and the end of the Qing Dynasty?

3 Which Chinese dynasty lasted the longest time? Which lasted the shortest time?

4 Which Chinese dynasty was in power when:
- democracy was introduced in Athens, Greece (508 BC)?
- Cleopatra committed suicide, ending the civilisation of ancient Egypt (30 BC)?
- the Byzantine Empire (formerly the eastern part of the Roman Empire) ended in 1453?



Source 3 An artist's impression of Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di travelling in a litter (covered chair)

206 BC
The Western Han Dynasty begins; paper and porcelain are developed; trade is established on the Silk Roads.

221 BC
The Qin Dynasty begins, and the rule of China's first emperor Qin Shi Huang Di also begins.

AD 220
Han Empire is divided into three separate kingdoms, and then into dynasties ruling the north and the south.

AD 9
The Xin Dynasty begins, a brief period under the reformer Wang Mang.

AD 618
The Tang Dynasty begins; cities and trade experience growth; Buddhism becomes an important religion.

AD 1644
The Qing Dynasty begins, China's last imperial dynasty under Manchu rule, which lasts until 1912.

AD 1279
The Yuan Dynasty begins, after the Song Dynasty is overthrown by Kublai Khan, the leader of the Mongols.

500 BC AD 500 1000 1500

220 BC
Work begins on construction of the Great Wall.

AD 25
The Eastern Han Dynasty begins; the Han are restored and remain in power until increasing corruption leads to their collapse.

AD 589
The Sui Dynasty begins; imperial rule is re-established over all of China.

AD 960
The Song Dynasty re-unifies China after a period of rebellion at the end of the Tang Dynasty.

AD 1368
The Ming Dynasty begins.



Source 4 The royal entourage of Gaozu, the first emperor of the Han Dynasty

Source 5 Pronunciation guide

Chinese name	English pronunciation
Xin	shin
Zhou	joe
Qin	chin
Qin Shi Huang Di	chin sheh hwang dee
Wu Zhao	woo jow
Sui	sway
Qing	ching

6A HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA?

6.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient China
- explain how they influenced the development of Chinese society.

Modern China has an area of 9.6 million square kilometres, making it the world's third-largest country after Russia and Canada – with Australia being the sixth largest. Despite its immense size today, China began as a small settlement in the Huang He (Yellow River) Valley.

Ancient China developed along the banks of major rivers, including the Huang He in the north of China and the Yangtze River further south. These rivers, like the Nile River in Egypt, would regularly flood. As floodwaters receded, the thick layer of rich soil left behind was ideal for growing crops. Ancient China is another example supporting the **hydraulic theory**, which tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of how close they were to sources of water. According to the theory, rivers provided early settlements with a reliable supply of water and a means of transport at a time when it was quicker and easier to travel by boat.

hydraulic theory a theory that tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of their closeness to sources of water (e.g. rivers)

Floodwaters in ancient China were both a blessing and a curse. A Chinese nickname for river is 'Great Sorrow', which reflects the many times that homes and lives were destroyed during flood seasons. During the floods, river levels had to be monitored and controlled by the building of canals and levees (raised areas along the banks). This was particularly vital in the case of the Huang He floods. The result was greater cooperation among the settlements along the river, leading to the development of centralised control and government.



Source 1 The fertile soil of the Yangtze River Valley is ideal for growing crops.

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Source 2 A section of the Great Wall in northern China from the Ming Dynasty

China's greatest resource has always been its agricultural land, even though much of its area is mountainous and only 70 per cent is useful for farming. Reliable harvests ensured that surpluses of food were often possible. This meant that less time and fewer people were needed to grow and harvest food. Instead, these people could spend their time providing labour for China's armies and large building projects, and developing ideas and skills in manufacturing, and the arts and sciences.

China's geographical divides

China is located entirely on the continent of Asia. Its geographical setting and natural features provided natural defences, and were also the reason why ancient societies to the west knew very little about China. Ancient China was surrounded by:

- the South China Sea, East China Sea and Yellow Sea to the east
- dense tropical forests, in places that are now in Laos, Vietnam and Myanmar (formerly Burma), to the south
- the Himalayas, the Tibetan Plateau and the mountainous country in parts of modern-day Pakistan and Afghanistan to the west
- vast deserts to the north-west.

It was only China's northern border that was less protected by natural geographical barriers. To secure this border against invaders, over 2000 years ago, work began on a series of walls now known as the Great Wall of China.

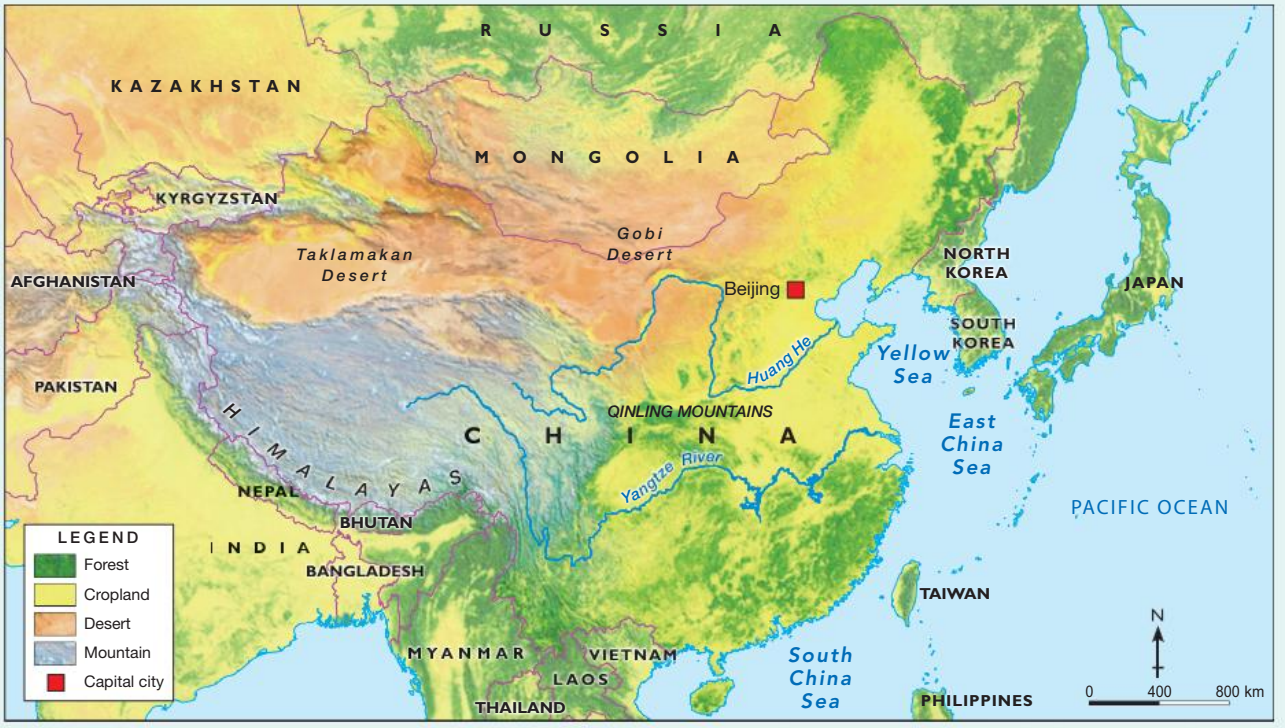
Because of China's isolation from the West, and its dominance across East Asia, for centuries the Chinese viewed themselves as being at the centre of the world. The Chinese name for their country is Zhong Guo, which translates as 'Centre (or Middle) Kingdom'. This view influenced the way China saw itself and other societies. The Chinese believed, for example, that they were the centre of learning and culture.

China is divided by a number of rivers and mountain ranges that criss-cross the entire country. Major rivers include the Huang He and the Yangtze River. The Qinling Mountains running across the country act as a dividing line between north and south. To the north of the Qinling Mountains there is low rainfall and the main grain crop grown is wheat. To the south of the Qinling Mountains there is high rainfall and the main grain crop is rice. Large amounts of rain are required for rice cultivation. This part of China feeds two-thirds of the Chinese population.

This geographical division of China into separate regions meant that there were many periods in its history where the country was also politically divided. For example, between AD 220 and AD 589, China was divided into north and south, with each region ruled as a separate state.

6.1A SOURCE STUDY

China's geographical features



Source 3 A map of East Asia, including China

INTERPRET

1 Look at the different environments and physical features of China shown in Source 3, using the legend for reference. Write a paragraph to summarise your observations. Note:
- the extent of different landforms, such as deserts
- the length of natural features, such as rivers
- the places best suited for human settlement.

2 List features in Source 3 that you think might have contributed to the isolation of China's early settlements.
- **a** Identify possible barriers that may have contributed to the political divisions.
- **b** Determine how people in specific regions within China may have been affected by the divisions, in terms of politics, language, diet, etc.

3 Using your summary from question 1, in your own words explain why you think ancient China considered itself to be the centre of the world.

Early cultures in ancient China

Around 5000 years ago, the Yangshao culture (an early farming society) had become dominant in northern China. The settlements of the Yangshao people spread out from the banks of the Huang He. Over time, two of China's earliest ruling families (known as **dynasties**), the Xia Dynasty and Shang Dynasty, developed out of this culture.

dynasty
a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other; power is often passed from father to son

The Xia Dynasty (*c.* 2055–1765 BC), China's first dynasty, is said to have been founded by Yu the Great. Yu was a legendary figure, renowned for his virtue and high sense of morality. Although there are no written records of him, stories of Yu's accomplishments handed down through the generations have survived.

The biggest problem of Yu's time was the destructive effects of the Huang He floods. Yu is famous in Chinese history for organising people from different tribes to build a system of canals, which stopped the flooding of farms and houses. The canals also provided irrigation for farmers.

The Shang Dynasty (*c.* 1766–1122 BC) was the first group to conquer the entire Huang He Valley. They also built China's first cities. Much of what is known about the Shang Dynasty comes from oracle bones (see Source 7). More than 100 000 oracle bones were found at Anyang, the Shang capital. These bones (or pieces of turtle or tortoise shell) were heated by a shaman (religious man) until they cracked. The cracks were seen as messages from the gods. The shaman then interpreted what the gods had 'said'. Sometimes a question was first carved on the bone before it was heated, as shown in Source 7. This form of writing, known as oracle script is considered to be the oldest form of writing in China.

China's first dynasty?

For a long time, evidence of the Xia Dynasty came from the oral traditions of ancient myths and legends. There are no written records of China's history before about 1300 BC, and descriptions of the Xia Dynasty from ancient Chinese historians were written long after it is believed to have existed.

In 1959, archaeological evidence of the Xia Dynasty was finally unearthed from a site at Erlitou in Henan province, which is located in the central-eastern part of China. Some archaeologists believe this was the site of the Xia capital. The tombs and palace-like structure found there date from about 2100 BC. Bronze artefacts on the site (such as the one shown in Source 5) are the oldest in China.

Despite this evidence, some historians still contest that this is not enough to confirm the existence of the Xia Dynasty. They argue, instead, that the Shang Dynasty should be considered China's first dynasty. Their interpretation of the artefacts from Erlitou is that they are evidence of a transition culture between earlier cultures and the Shang Dynasty, or that the Shang Dynasty may have begun much earlier. In spite of this, many Chinese historians now accept that the Xia Dynasty did indeed exist.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

As early Chinese civilisations emerged, closeness to water was a common factor, but political focus and new technologies resulted in different societies.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

According to legend, Yu the Great spent 13 years working on the problem of the Huang He floods. He travelled all over the country and was so dedicated in his mission that, although he sometimes passed by his house, he did not enter or talk to his family until the problem was solved.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Without comprehensive written records, history can be interpreted in different ways.

Source 4 Terraced rice fields are crucial for feeding the Chinese population.



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6.1B SOURCE STUDY

China's earliest dynasties



Source 5 A bronze wine beaker said to be from the Xia Dynasty



Source 6 A bronze food container from the Shang Dynasty



Source 7 A cracked oracle bone from the Shang Dynasty

INTERPRET

1 What evidence can Sources 5 to 7 provide about the Xia and Shang Dynasties?
2 In what ways are these sources limited? What don't they reveal about society?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Sources from an ancient society are always useful for understanding an aspect of that society. Historians need to analyse many sources to form a more complete picture.

6.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is the link between the origins of the ancient Chinese and Egyptian civilisations?
2 Why was the Great Wall built?
3 What is the main difference in climate between northern and southern China?
4 What benefits did canal building have for farmers in ancient China?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5 What does the Chinese name for their country indicate about the view of the ancient Chinese of themselves and other societies?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6 Create a concept map about the geographical features of China.
   a Summarise:
      - the geographical features that isolated China from the Western world in ancient times
      - the geographical features that acted as dividers within China.
   b What were the consequences of these geographical features for Chinese society? Add these to your concept map.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient China

1 Describe the geographical setting of China. (3 marks)

2 Outline the natural features in and around ancient China. (5 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of Chinese society

3 Explain how China's natural features influenced the origins of human settlement in ancient times. (5 marks)

4 Explain how China's geographical setting and natural features influenced the ways in which Chinese society developed in ancient times. (12 marks)

Total marks [/25]



Source 8 The Tibetan Plateau

6A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

6B WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE?

6.2 RELIGIONS AND PHILOSOPHIES IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how beliefs in ancient China were reflected in death and funerary customs.

The civilisation of ancient China was influenced by a complex mix of beliefs, values and traditions. Some were religious beliefs, while others provided a code of behaviour. Closely tied in with these beliefs were many rituals that related to all aspects of daily life, including what people ate, how they were buried, how they arranged their homes, and so on.

Like people in many other ancient societies, the Chinese worshipped their ancestors and believed in **deities** who controlled the forces of nature. People did everything they could to keep their ancestors and the deities happy, as they believed that events such as floods or poor harvests were signs that their ancestors and gods were angry. In addition to these beliefs, three main religions or philosophies played a dominant role in ancient Chinese society: Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism. They existed side by side, varying at different times in their popularity and influence.

deity
a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess



Source 1 A portrait of Confucius

Confucianism

Confucianism is not a religion, but a code of behaviour that came to influence almost every aspect of life in China. Its founder, Confucius (*c.* 551–479 BC), lived during the Zhou Dynasty when a number of states were at war with one another. Confucius believed peace and happiness were only possible if certain behaviours were followed between husband and wife, parents and children, and rulers and subjects. These included being respectful, moral, fair, obedient, courteous and self-disciplined. He said that an emperor should be guided in all his decisions by doing what was best for his people, in the same way that a father did what was best for his family. Confucius also believed in the value of education, and that people could improve and change with education and the support of their family.



Source 2 The yin–yang symbol represents the two equal and opposite forces that together control the world.

Daoism

Daoism offered a contrast and a balance to Confucianism, placing greater value on spirituality and links to nature. Daoism is said to have begun with the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Laozi (600–531 BC). He believed yin (female) and yang (male) forces made up everything in the world. He also believed that people had to become one with the life force (the Dao or 'the Way') if they wanted to live forever, and that this required constant change to balance the yin and yang forces within oneself. Two things helped this spiritual struggle. The first was meditation, usually at shrines built in beautiful natural spots. The second was exercise, such as kung fu and tai chi.

Ancient beliefs in modern China

Source 3

Confucius says ...

What you do not want done to yourself,
do not do to others.

Before you start out on a journey of revenge,
dig two graves.

Respect yourself, and others will respect you.

It does not matter how slowly you go, as long as you do not stop.

To learn without thinking is useless; to think without learning is dangerous.

A person who knows what is the right thing to do and does not do it is a coward.

You cannot tell others what they should be doing if you do not do it yourself.

Strong individuals and strong families make strong nations.

Translation of some of the sayings of Confucius



Source 4 Chinese students dress in ancient costume during a ceremony to mark the 2560th birthday of Confucius on 28 September 2009.



Source 5 People practising tai chi in an outdoor setting in modern China

INTERPRET

1 What do Sources 4 and 5 tell us about the influence of Confucius and Daoism in modern China?
2 Select two sayings of Confucius from Source 3 that interest you, and explain them in your own way. For example, rewrite them in your own words, draw a sketch or role-play a situation that illustrates the idea or behaviour that Confucius would approve of.

Buddhism

Buddhism was founded by an Indian prince, Siddhartha Gautama (born 563 BC), who became known as Buddha (meaning 'Enlightened One'). Buddha was upset by the suffering and poverty he saw as a young man, and turned his back on his wealth to search for more spiritual meaning. His teachings were brought to China from India during the first century AD and, for some periods, Buddhism was the official state religion. Teachers of Buddhism and Daoism in ancient China borrowed elements from each other, and many Chinese believe in aspects of both religions. Some historians have argued that Buddhism was accepted in ancient China at a time of disunity and weakness, following the decline of the Han Dynasty, but that its influence lessened during times of stronger rule.

Buddhism teaches that life is suffering, caused by desires. By following the Eightfold Path, followers can liberate themselves from their desires to achieve the state of Nirvana, where there is no more hurt or pain. Buddhists follow the Eightfold Path by accepting the teachings of Buddha, behaving ethically and meditating. To reach Nirvana, a person might have to be **reincarnated** many times, learning from their experiences in each life.

1. Right understanding
2. Right intention
3. Right speech
4. Right action
5. Right livelihood
6. Right effort
7. Right mindfulness
8. Right concentration

Source 6 The Eightfold Path

reincarnation
the process of being born again; to live again in another body (human or animal)

concubine
a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor

mummification
the process of preserving a dead body by preventing its natural decay; there are various forms of mummification across different societies, both artificial and natural

Death and funerary customs

Like other ancient societies, the Chinese believed in an afterlife. They believed that the burial site was the place where the spirit of the dead person 'lived', and they were usually buried with items they might need in the afterlife, such as food, clothing and weapons. Rulers had more elaborate tombs than ordinary people, and were often buried with hundreds of items including furniture and chariots. Frequently, wives and **concubines** were buried alive in the tomb, so they could accompany the ruler to the afterlife. Later, the practice was to replace living people with models made from wood or clay. Like the Egyptians, the ancient Chinese **mummified** some of their dead, although they used different processes.

It was very important for people in ancient China to honour their ancestors by observing the proper rituals at funerals. This included gift-giving to mourners and making offerings at the home shrine. The burning of 'spirit money' (known as joss paper) was also a custom of ancient China. Joss paper, originally made from bamboo or rice paper, was burned at the funeral and at special festivals, as offerings to the gods and ancestral spirits.



Source 6 In China and other Asian countries, paper money and fake items made of paper (for example, houses, cars and furniture) are still burned in honour of ancestors and deceased loved ones. In recent years, in keeping with the latest technology, paper replicas of iPads and iPhones have also been burned.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religion in ancient China and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

6.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Using bullet points, summarise your knowledge of the beliefs and values in ancient China.
2 Identify examples of continuity and change in Chinese burial and funerary customs from ancient to modern times.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why do you think the burning of joss paper would not be a tradition at Buddhist funerals in ancient China?

GO DEEPER

4 Conduct research using digital and other resources to find out more about the teachings and practices of Confucianism OR Daoism OR Buddhism. Present your findings as a written report, poster or PowerPoint presentation, including relevant sources, about its:
- origins
- main beliefs or values
- influence on attitudes or practices in ancient Chinese society
- influence and popularity in China today.

6B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE?

» Explain how beliefs in ancient China were reflected in death and funerary customs

1 Identify the three main religions or philosophies in Chinese society, and outline their key beliefs. Your response should include one paragraph for each religion. (15 marks)

2 What did people in ancient China believe about their ancestors, and how did this influence their burial rituals? (5 marks)

3 What did people in ancient China believe happened after death, and how did this influence their burial rituals? Include examples. (10 marks)

4 Identify the different types of sources about beliefs in ancient China. (For example, do we have written accounts? Artefacts?) In your response, provide specific examples. (4 marks)

5 Choose three sources about ancient Chinese beliefs from the text and answer the following questions.

- **a** Identify one strength of each of your sources. (3 marks)
- **b** Identify one limitation of each of your sources. (3 marks)
- **c** Explain what your three sources reveal about beliefs in ancient China. (10 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

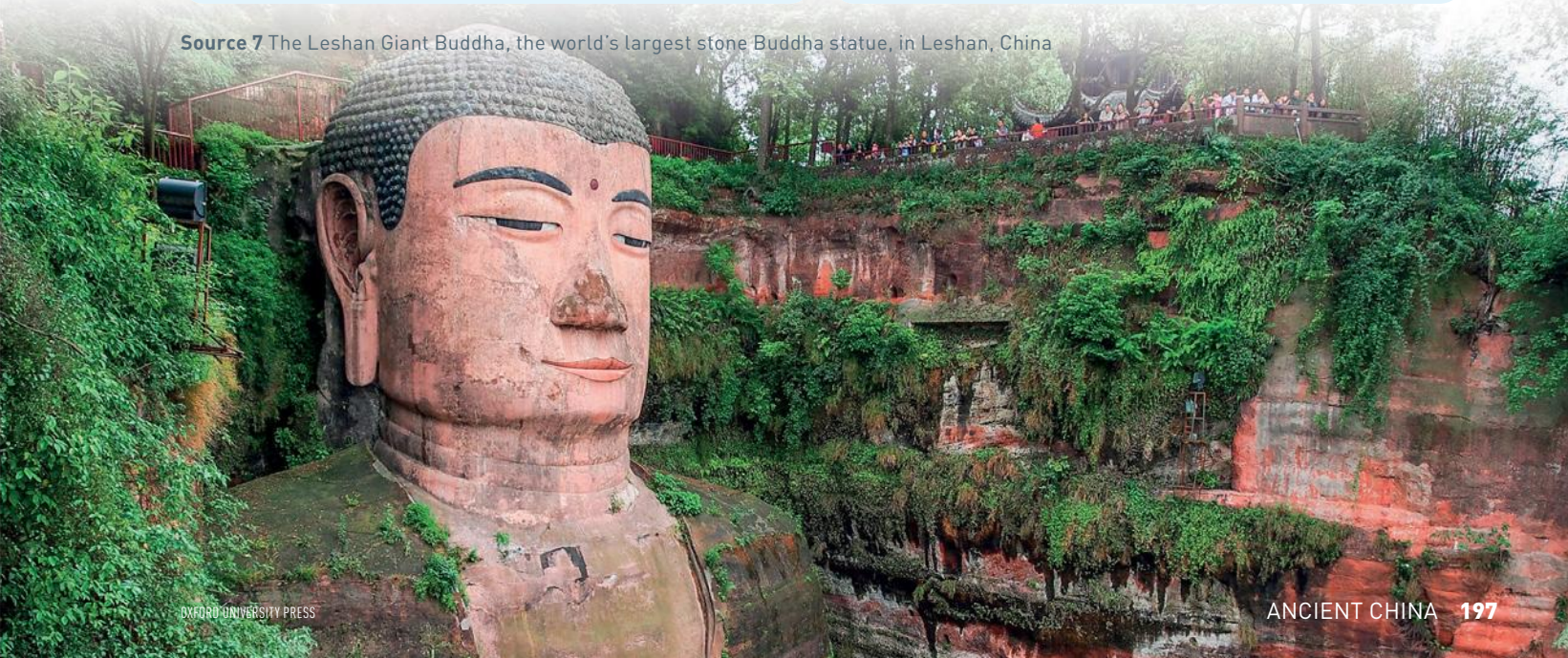
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

assess quiz
Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension



Source 7 The Leshan Giant Buddha, the world's largest stone Buddha statue, in Leshan, China

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6C HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

6.3 THE SOCIAL HIERARCHY IN CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed
- describe key groups in Chinese society.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Social groups in ancient China focused on their contribution to society, rather than their wealth, to determine their status.

Social order and harmony were highly valued in ancient China, and each social group knew what was expected of them, and how to behave with other groups. Society was dominated by loyalty to the family unit. The group was more important than the individual. Like most ancient societies, China had a strict social **hierarchy**. At the top were the wealthy and privileged – the emperor and **imperial** family. Next came the scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*). This social class arose to provide the large number of educated officials needed to govern an empire the size of China. In spite of their wealth, merchants were not next in line in the social hierarchy. That place was held by peasants and farmers (*nong*), who were considered more socially important, as they provided the food for all in the community. Next in line were the artisans and craftsmen (*gong*) who created items for general use and beauty. The merchants (*shang*), whose only role was to make money, were last on the list.

According to scholars, soldiers were excluded from this ranking of the social classes. The military was not highly valued. At times, this proved to be a weakness in China's history because cooperation was required between officials and generals to protect China against foreign invasion or internal rebellion.

hierarchy
a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance

imperial
relating to the emperor or empress

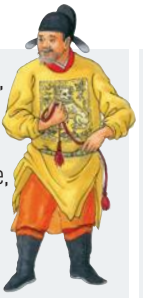
eunuch
a man who had his testicles removed as a young boy; often employed to guard the wives of rulers or emperors

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with their hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker),

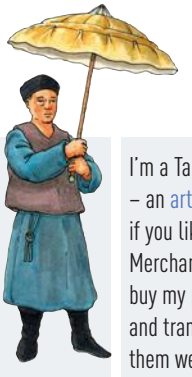
litter
a covered chair or bed carried on poles and used to transport important people such as emperors and officials



I'm the First Wife of a noble. Our palace is three storeys high and very elegant. We have lots of servants. I travel in a litter when I go out so people can't see me. I ear silk clothes and jewellery made from gold and jade. My hair is tied up on top of my head so I look taller.



I'm a Han official, known as a mandarin. I'm a scholar, of course, and I can read and write. Along with thousands of others,I had to pass an exam lasting 60 hours to become an official. I passed first time because, like most officials, I am clever. Many try to cheat, and some kill themselves if they fail the exam.



I'm one of the emperor's closest advisers, and a eunuch. The emperor trusts me because I cannot father children or threaten his relationship with his wives. My testicles were removed when I was a boy. My parents sold me to the palace because they were so poor. Some people bribe me to pass on information to the emperor as I am one of the very few who speak to him directly.



I'm a Tang potter – an artisan, if you like. Merchants buy my pots and transport them west in camel caravans and in carts pulled by oxen. For all their money, merchants are not as well respected as I am. I have skills, learnt from my father. I will pass them on to my son.

Source 1 Some of the social roles of people in ancient China

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

The emperor and imperial family



Source 2 The emperor's role in ancient China

The rulers at the top of ancient China's social structure were powerful family groups, as in ancient Egypt. A period ruled by the same family is known as a dynasty, and China was ruled by a series of dynasties for almost 4000 years. From 221 BC, when China was united under Qin Shi Huang Di, China's rulers were emperors. The personality of the emperor, his intelligence and energy (or lack of it) had a major influence on the age. Often, a dynasty ended because the ruler was corrupt, cruel or weak. A ruler had a problem if there was flood, famine or defeat in war. The people would see this as a sign from heaven that the emperor (the 'son of heaven') no longer had divine permission to rule. This idea is known as the **Mandate of Heaven**. At these times, it was considered natural that the people should rebel, and that a new dynasty would be installed.

Mandate of Heaven
a traditional Chinese belief based on the idea that the emperor was chosen to rule by the gods; the Mandate of Heaven also outlined the privileges and responsibilities of the emperor

Some dynasties, such as the Zhou Dynasty, were marked by extended conflict. Others, such as the Han and the Tang Dynasties, brought long periods of peace and prosperity to China. Later in its history, China was ruled by dynasties that came from outside China, such as the Mongol rulers of the Yuan Dynasty in the thirteenth century, and the Manchurian rulers of the Qing Dynasty, which lasted from the seventeenth to the twentieth century.

Scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*)

Chinese scholars were the administrators who ran the day-to-day government of the empire. Scholars had to pass difficult examinations (open to men only) and were schooled in the teachings of Confucius.

During some of the later Chinese dynasties, power struggles developed in the court of the emperor between the civil scholars (similar to today's public servants) and the eunuchs. Eunuchs were originally part of the emperor's palace staff, and their role was to guard his many wives. Boys were brought up specifically to be eunuchs. As children, they had their testicles removed to ensure that they would not pose a sexual threat to the emperor's wives. Living in the palace, they became close to the imperial family and some eunuchs gained great political influence. They often became the political rivals of the scholars, because both competed for influence over the emperor's decisions. Hostility from scholars also came from their resentment of the eunuchs' influence without having gone through the rigorous examinations. Eunuchs generally came from poorer, uneducated backgrounds.

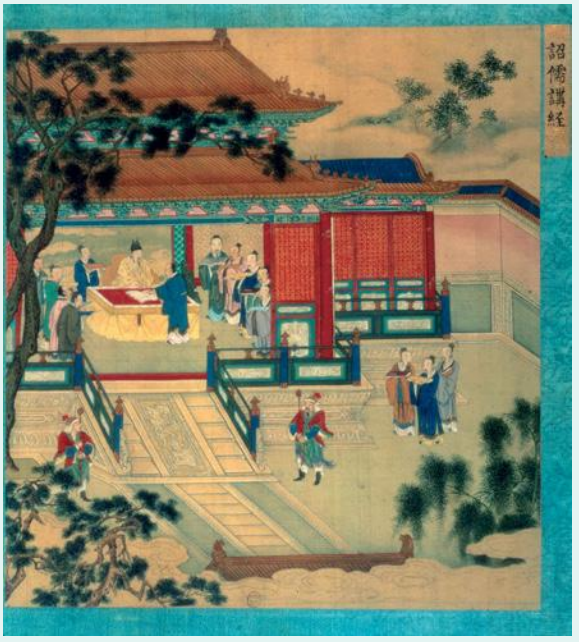
Records were kept by civil scholars, who also wrote the histories of ancient China. Generally, these records praised other civil scholars, while eunuchs were often depicted as evil and dishonest, and were blamed for periods of bad government. Many of the surviving historical accounts dealing with the eunuchs are biased. This is another example of why historians must always read their sources carefully and look for potential bias in historical reports.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Examinations to become government officials lasted from one to three days. Candidates sat alone in a small room with only a bed and desk. If they failed, they were allowed to take the examination again in three years. Some men took their first exam in their 20s and, after failing, came back again and again well into their 60s.

6.3A SOURCE STUDY

The civil scholars of ancient China



Source 3 A seventeenth-century silk painting of the last Han Emperor, Xian, showing scholars translating classical texts

INTERPRET

Look at Source 3 and answer the following questions.

1. Is this a primary or secondary source? Provide a justification for your answer.
2. Describe the scene, giving details of what is happening.
3. What evidence does this provide about the role and social status of scholars in ancient China?
4. How would the perspective of someone with this role and social status influence their writing of court records?

Peasants and farmers (*nong*)

Peasant farmers in ancient China were poor, but their role and work ethic were highly respected. They worked hard to provide the country's people with food. Planting and harvesting rice, in particular, is back-breaking work. By contrast, wealthier merchants were seen to contribute very little to society.

Land in ancient China was owned by the emperor or nobles. Farmers could live on the land in return for working it. They also had to pay heavy taxes (in the form of produce, such as rice), and provide other services such as serving in the army or labouring on building projects and in salt mines.

Artisans and craftsmen (*gong*)



Source 4 Ancient Chinese porcelain from the time of the Han Dynasty

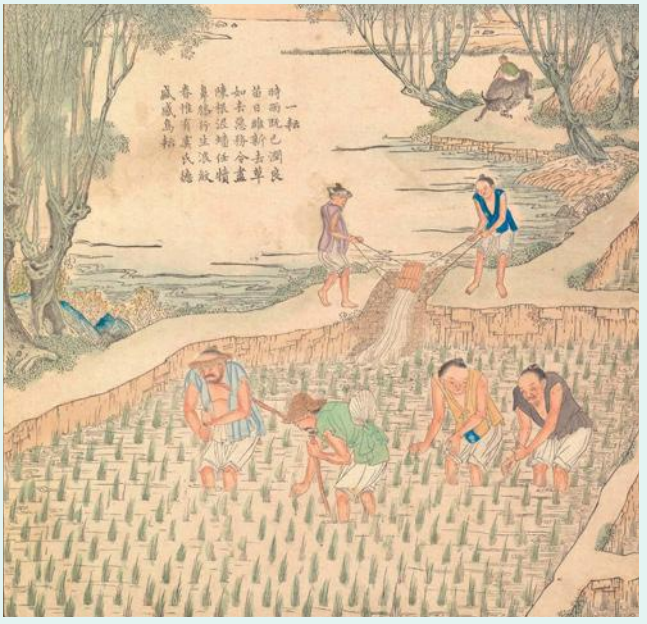
At various times in China's history, its arts and crafts were admired beyond its borders. Craftsmen were generally held in higher regard than merchants and traders. They were respected for their skills and the quality of their products. From the time of the Han Dynasty, Chinese craftsmen produced porcelain. Chinese porcelain became so well known that in many English-speaking countries, porcelain tableware has always been called 'china'. Chinese craftsmen also produced silk, and invented and produced a range of other important manufactured goods, including paper and the printing press.

Merchants (*shang*)

The merchant class included traders, animal breeders and moneylenders. They were a wealthy group, but were considered the lowest social class in ancient China. People believed that they did not contribute to the whole society but worked only for their own gain. Some merchants would buy farming land to improve their social status.

6.3B SOURCE STUDY

The life of Chinese peasant farmers



Source 5 A painting showing Chinese peasants planting rice seedlings, ankle-deep in the water of a rice paddy



Source 6 Chinese farmers in modern-day China

INTERPRET

1. Describe the scenes shown in Sources 5 and 6.
2. Is this farming activity more likely to be found in northern or southern China? (Hint: see Source Study 6.1A.)
3. Compare the images of farmers planting rice in ancient and modern China. What has changed? What has stayed the same?
4. Do you think that Source 5 is a reliable source? Why or why not?

6.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Create a concept map to summarise your knowledge about the social structure in ancient China, including:
   - the role of key social groups
   - how and why different groups were more valued or respected.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2. Draw two diagrams representing the social structure of ancient China:
   - **a** on the basis of wealth
   - **b** on the basis of 'respectable' occupations
3. Which aspects of the diagrams you created in question 2 are similar and which are different?
4. Why is it possible that written evidence from ancient China may depict eunuchs and the military negatively?
5. Chinese emperors believed they were gods or 'sons of heaven'. How would this influence their behaviour towards their people, and the attitude of the people towards the emperors?

GO DEEPER

6. Research Empress Wu Zhao, the only woman to rule in her own right in China. Write a one-page biography of Wu Zhao, including how she came to power, the length of her reign, and a brief description of her rule.

6.4 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe key groups in Chinese society
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Our understanding of many ancient societies comes from the male perspective. Even when a woman's perspective is available, it is important to remember that she still would be constrained by her society's values about men and women.

Ancient China was very much a male-dominated society. The family name and family line could only be carried on by sons. A woman and her family would always hope for a 'good' pregnancy where the baby would be a boy.

During the Han Dynasty, a well-educated woman named Ban Zhao wrote a text called *Lessons for Women*. The lessons were based on the idea that women should obey men, and their own wishes should take second place to those of men. They included this set of rules:

- As young girls, women are first meant to obey their fathers.
- As grown women, they are then meant to obey their husbands.
- As widows in later life, they are meant to obey their sons.

In ancient China, it was felt that the best age for a girl to marry was 16. Once a couple was married, there were seven acceptable reasons why a man could divorce his wife:

1 disobedience: a woman had to obey her husband and her parents-in-law
2 infertility: a woman was obliged to have children, especially boys
3 adultery: a woman had to be faithful to her husband
4 jealousy: a woman could not act in a jealous manner
5 illness: if a woman had an incurable illness, her husband could find a new wife
6 theft: if a woman stole anything, her husband could demand that she leave him
7 talking too much: a quiet wife was always preferred.

Women had more respect in families where their work was important to the survival and prosperity of the family group. In peasant families, women earned respect as workers, although they were still valued less than men. In richer families, women were seen more as servants and even entertainment for men.

The status of women in wealthy families can be understood by learning about the practice of foot binding. The introduction of foot binding for women began at the time of the Song Dynasty.



Source 7 A Tang Dynasty painting of court ladies preparing silk

6.4A SOURCE STUDY

Foot binding in ancient China

Source 8

> Imagine yourself a girl child who – for some six to ten long years, beginning at age 5 to 8 ... has her feet always bound in long strips of binding cloth night and day with no letup in order to reform them into 3-inch [7.6-centimetre] long 'golden lilies'. To make your feet thinner ... your four minor toes on each foot are pushed down around and under the balls of your feet. ... Under the constant pressure your arches have gradually been broken and bowed upward so only the back edge of your heels can support your weight ... The result is that you will never run again and can walk on the base of your heels only with difficulty. Even standing will be uncomfortable ... This self-inflicted pain in your formative years is welcome in theory as a way to get a good marriage that will help your family with a fine bride price. Your mother went through it all and helps you do the same.

From John King Fairbank, China: A New History, *Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, p. 174*



Source 9 A painting showing a young Chinese woman binding her feet with bandages

INTERPRET

1 Read Source 8 and answer the following questions:
   - **a** At what age did the process of foot binding begin?
   - **b** After the process was complete, what would be the length of a girl's foot?
   - **c** Why did girls go through with the ordeal of foot binding?

2 Compare the painting in Source 9 with the description in Source 8. Why do you think the artist who painted the image in Source 9 portrayed foot binding in this way?



Source 10 A Chinese woman who has had her feet bound



Source 11 This small red shoe was once worn by a wealthy Chinese woman.

6.4B SOURCE STUDY

Marriage in ancient China

Source 12

A wedding was arranged by parents in an effort to advance themselves socially, politically, or financially. In traditional Chinese society a girl married into her husband's family and gave up all contact with her own parents. A bride was subservient to [inferior to or below] everyone in the new household but especially to her husband's mother, for whom she toiled [worked] without rest. Wife and mother-in-law were jealous rivals for the affection of the husband/son. Publicly a husband and wife were indifferent toward each other, never openly acknowledging the existence of the other. In private the wife would have to struggle to win her husband's respect, and only through her grown sons did she have any real hope of security. No wonder she then exhibited little affection toward her son's bride, and the cycle repeated itself.

From Sterling Seagrove, Dragon Lady: The Life and Legend of the Last Empress of China, *Vintage Books, New York, 1992, p. 30*



Source 13 A modern Chinese couple wed, with Han Dynasty ceremonial rituals and wearing traditional Han Dynasty wedding clothes.

INTERPRET

1 Read Source 12 and answer the following questions.

- **a** Who arranged marriages in ancient China, and why?
- **b** How did husbands treat their wives in public?
- **c** What was the only way for a married woman to gain security?

6.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Write a short paragraph to summarise the role of women in ancient China.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 People in ancient China considered small feet to be symbols of beauty and status, but foot binding caused pain and discomfort. In groups, think about and list procedures that women and men undergo today, and the reasons they do so.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 Write a persuasive text to answer the question 'Can foot binding be justified in any way?' Begin by discussing the question at home and in class. Think about it from the point of view of your own culture and time, and from the perspective of a person living in ancient China.

6.5 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China
- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China.

The daily experiences of people in ancient China depended on whether they were male or female, wealthy or poor, and whether they had the opportunity to receive an education. It also depended on where they lived, considering the range of climates and geographical features across China; and when they lived, considering the long span of China's ancient history. However, some generalisations can be made about everyday life in ancient Chinese society.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

It was customary for an emperor to have many wives and concubines; consequently they tended to have very large families and many descendants. Researchers using genetic evidence in north-eastern China and Mongolia identified about 1.5 million men who were direct descendants of a single Qing Dynasty emperor.

The Chinese extended family

The family was the basic social unit of ancient China. It included all generations and in-laws. In wealthy households, many generations lived together. Old people were treated with great respect, especially by younger family members. The oldest male was the family head. He probably had more than one wife, in the hopes of ensuring that he would have many sons. If rich, he also had concubines. His decisions had to be obeyed, including decisions about whom and when his daughters would marry.

Lifestyles of the rich and the poor

Although many emperors lived in constant fear of being murdered or challenged for the throne, they usually enjoyed a pampered life of great luxury. Food was plentiful, as were priceless treasures and beautiful embroidered or painted silk garments. It was not unusual for emperors to have several wives and concubines.

Nobles and their families also led very privileged lives. Their palaces were likely to be two storeys or more in height, and have bathrooms and bedrooms. The price paid for such wealth and comfort was total obedience to the emperor. Leisure time might be spent drinking tea or rice wine while playing board games or being entertained by dancers and musicians. Music, thought to have special powers, was a regular part of palace life. Instruments included bronze bells, chimes, harps, flutes, drums and a stringed instrument called a zither.



Source 14 A traditional dress of the Qin Dynasty

6.5A SOURCE STUDY

Noble lifestyles



Source 14 A painting from the Tang Dynasty depicting court ladies and their maidservants

Source 15

> Although my brother is a lord, he spends all his time doing the work of his officials. A proper lord should spend his day listening to music and delighting himself with beautiful sounds.
>
> *Statement of Liu Shen, son of the Han Emperor Ching (157–141 BC)*

INTERPRET

1 Study Source 14 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** Which figures depict court ladies, and which are their servants? Explain your reasoning.
   - **b** Describe the fashion for hair and clothing among noblewomen in Tang Dynasty China, based on this source.
2 What do Sources 14 and 15 tell us about the daily life of noblemen and women in ancient China?
3 Identify three aspects of daily life that Sources 14 and 15 don't tell us about.

6.5B SOURCE STUDY

A farmer's life

The poor were mostly the peasant farmers. They wore simple clothing that was practical for farm work, made out of hemp or cotton in summer and wool in winter. Farmers typically lived in single-storey mud-brick huts with straw roofs. Usually there was only one room and sanitation was poor. Farmers used a *jiegao*, which has levers and weights, to raise water from rivers and canals. Very few could afford an ox or horse to help them plough the fields, so much of the work had to be done by hand.



Source 16 A terracotta (clay) model of farmhouses from the Han Dynasty



Source 17 A terracotta model of a grain mill from the Han Dynasty

INTERPRET

1 Based on the information provided by Source 16, describe the housing of peasant farmers.
2 Look at the model of the grain mill shown in Source 17.
   - **a** How do you think the mill was used?
   - **b** What evidence does the source provide about farming in ancient China, and about the daily lives of peasant farmers?
3 Where do you think these terracotta models may have been discovered?

Growing up in ancient China



Source 18 Before the invention of paper, people in China wrote on bamboo strips bound together in a scroll.

In farming villages, girls and boys would work – planting and harvesting in the fields, feeding animals and looking after younger brothers and sisters. Girls in poorer households would spend their childhood learning to cook, weave cloth and help around the house. Boys who could be spared from the fields would be educated in village schools or in a town. They would learn to read and write, compose essays and poetry, and spend many hours memorising the teachings of Confucius. This was their preparation for the rigorous examinations to become a scholar, with a new life as a government official if they passed. Poorer boys could also increase their social status by becoming a eunuch in the emperor's court (palace). Boys from wealthy families were educated at home by a tutor.

Although education was valued in ancient China, for much of its history the Chinese did not think it was important to educate women. In earlier dynasties, girls were not typically educated. But later, in the sixth century AD, Buddhist temples established schools for boys and girls. Here they learnt to read and write, and were taught about Buddhist ideas. Much later, during the Ming Dynasty, many women in wealthy households learnt to read and write.

Food and diet

In southern China, rice was the staple crop. It was eaten and it was made into wine. In the cooler, drier north, millet (a type of grain) and sorghum (a cereal grass) were harvested. Wheat took much longer to become part of the Chinese diet. About 1500 years ago it became a popular food, second only to rice.

Meat was expensive and was a common dish only for the wealthy. For the poor, meat was eaten on special occasions. The daily diet was simple: grains such as wheat, millet or rice mixed with soy beans, vegetables and sometimes fish. Chopsticks were used as an eating utensil in ancient China, possibly since stone-age times. They were made from bamboo, ivory or bones. In wealthy households, they were made of precious metals.

Fresh water was stored in communal wells, and cooking was done in the open. Because timber was in short supply in many parts of China, food was typically chopped into smaller pieces, which needed less heat to cook quickly, and therefore used less fuel. This resulted in the creation of meals such as stir-fries.

The diet of people in ancient China was also influenced by their beliefs. For example, in some forms of Buddhism it was forbidden to eat meat, so their protein came from foods such as soy bean curd (tofu). Eating habits were also linked with Daoist beliefs about the balance in nature – the yin and yang. Foods were categorised as 'heating' or 'cooling', and were eaten and combined in ways that were thought to preserve a balance in the body.

Tea has been drunk in China for more than 2000 years. It was first drunk for medicinal qualities, and became more of a social tradition from the time of the Tang Dynasty.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Archaeologists excavating a village in the Yangtze River Valley that had been devastated by an earthquake in about 2000 BC discovered the preserved remains of a meal still in its bowl. Scientists confirmed they had discovered 4000-year-old noodles!



Source 19 Noodles from 4000 years ago



Source 20 A warrior monk from the Shaolin Temple, in Henan province

Martial arts

Martial arts or kung fu can be traced back to the Xia Dynasty, and were originally self-defence and combat techniques practised by the military. 'Kung fu' can be translated as 'skill achieved through hard work'. Confucius considered martial arts to be one of the ideal practices, and his influence spread the practice of martial arts outside of the military.

Different schools and styles of martial arts developed over time, influenced by other aspects of Chinese culture such as religious beliefs. Martial arts took in the Daoist belief in seeking a balance of yin and yang. Kung fu masters strive to keep opposites in balance – fast and slow, sharp and gentle, loud and soft – and learn to use the *chi* (the energy force of the universe).

One of the most famous styles of kung fu originated from a travelling Buddhist monk from India. Legend has it that he reached the Shaolin Temple (a Buddhist monastery) soon after it was established in the fifth century AD. He taught martial arts to the monks to improve their health, and the temple and its warrior monks have been famous throughout China ever since.

In later dynasties, weapons and fighting techniques were modified so that kung fu became a common activity, as a sport or exercise. Various forms are now practised in China and around the world.

6.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Use a table format to summarise the daily life of nobles and farmers, including housing, diet and daily occupations.
2. What was the purpose of education in ancient China?
3. How did the lack of education for girls reflect their role in society?
4. List some ways that religions or philosophies in ancient China influenced:
   - **a** diet or eating habits
   - **b** the practice of martial arts.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. In ancient China, total obedience was given to the head of the family. Who would that be in your extended family?
6. Why do you think chopsticks are used as the main eating utensil in China? (Hint: think about the style of cooking discussed.)

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7. Read about schooling in ancient Egypt *or* Greece *or* Rome. Write a 100-word paragraph comparing the opportunities for education in ancient China and the Mediterranean society you have chosen:
   - for boys from higher status or wealthy families
   - for boys from poorer families
   - for girls.

6.6 ANCIENT CHINA'S CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Sometimes, there are long-lasting effects after an event. The first emperor's opinion of his people caused the establishment of a system of government designed to control all aspects of society.

The centralised system of government in ancient China can be traced to the Qin Dynasty and the rule of China's first emperor, Qin Shi Huang Di. When he won victory over the warring states and united China under his rule, Qin Shi Huang Di did not share the spoils of government among his relatives. Instead, he set up a centralised system of government, run by officials who were appointed on the basis of their ability. China was divided into provinces, and run by local governors appointed by the emperor. The emperor would take advice from his officials, but he had the final say in all government matters.

The concept behind this model of government is known as **legalism**. Legalism was based on the idea that people were weak and selfish by nature, and a strong central government that provided strict discipline was needed. The consequence of this model is that the state would rule over all aspects of life in ancient China. Legalism in China therefore was not like the Western idea of law as we understand it; it was all about the wishes of the emperor. This system of government did undergo some changes, but the basic structure lasted for the next 2000 years.

legalism
a philosophy that emphasises the importance of strictly obeying the law

The legacy of Qin Shi Huang Di

- Unified previously independent states to create the nation of China
- Created an efficient system of centralised government
- Standardised the written language used throughout China
- Introduced a uniform currency and a uniform system of weights and measures
- Built a network of roads, canals and bridges; regulated cartwheel widths and road widths
- Started construction of the Great Wall
- Built grand public buildings and palaces, and his great tomb at Xian



Source 21 The legacy of Qin Shi Huang Di

The original name of China's first emperor was Ying Zheng. He was the King of Qin, one of a number of rival kingdoms in China that were frequently in conflict. Following a series of wars he emerged victorious, and renamed himself Qin Shi Huang Di (meaning 'first magnificent god of the Qin'). Qin Shi Huang Di is a significant figure in Chinese history because he united the country and established the tradition of strong centralised government, which is one of the reasons for China's emergence as a major power in the modern world. The name 'China' comes directly from the Qin Dynasty.

Qin Shi Huang Di was a powerful and ruthless ruler, who could be cruel. He wanted uniformity in thoughts and ideas, and did not like it when scholars expressed different ideas about government and life. He saw past traditions, such as the teachings of Confucius, as a threat to his rule. Some ancient Chinese historians who were critical of Qin Shi Huang Di accused him of burning books that he disagreed with and burying their authors alive. More recently, historians have rejected the idea that people were buried alive by the emperor. But they do accept that the first emperor had those who criticised him killed, and that he burned the books of rival states so that only the Qin version of history survived.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Qin Shi Huang Di punished his own son for publicly expressing views that differed from those of the government. He did this by sending him to work on the Great Wall.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about whether the information in Source 22 praises or criticises the first emperor.

Discuss your ideas with a partner, determining what kind of person Qin Shi Huang Di seemed to be.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Qin Shi Huang Di was feared by his people. He taxed people heavily and thousands died working on his building programs. Strict laws were introduced, and people could be burned alive, branded or have their noses, feet or heads cut off for breaking them.

Source 22

> Under the Qin, the First Emperor's ruthless exactions [demands] of men and taxes year after year exhausted the people and the state's other resources. After 37 years as ruler of the Qin state [15 as emperor of a unified China], he suddenly died at 49 in 210 BC. His empire quickly disintegrated. Aside from unity of the known world, the First Emperor had sought mainly an elixir [a drug] of immortality for himself. His five royal journeys to sacred mountains had been part of his search.
>
> *John King Fairbank*, China: A New History, *Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, p. 57*

6.6 SOURCE STUDY

Qin Dynasty China

Source 23

> China was divided into thirty-six (later forty-two) commanderies [areas of government control, like a state] and these subdivided into prefectures [smaller areas, like local councils]. Over each commandery was placed a Civil Governor (*shou*), a Military Governor (*chun-wei*), and a third office known as an Overseer (*chien-yu-shih*), who represented the central government and helped keep the balance between the other two.
>
> *Edwin O Reischauer and John K Fairbank*, East Asia: The Great Tradition, *George Allen & Unwin, London, 1960, p. 87*



Source 24 The territorial borders of Qin Dynasty China; at its greatest extent, Qin Shi Huang Di ruled over 2 million square kilometres.

INTERPRET

1 Read Source 23 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** How was China divided?
   - **b** Who were the main government officials in each area?
   - **c** Do you think that it was a good idea to have three officials in each area? Give reasons for your answer.

2 Use the scale in Source 24 to compare the size of Qin Dynasty China to present-day China, as an estimated percentage. Share your estimate with a partner and discuss any differences.

The terracotta army

During his lifetime, Qin Shi Huang Di built an underground tomb for himself in what is now the modern-day city of Xian, near his capital city Xianyang. The tomb lay undiscovered until 1974. Like the tombs of the Egyptian pharaohs, it contained priceless treasures as well as everything the emperor would need in the afterlife. The site covers more than 10 square kilometres and has still not been fully excavated. One part that has been excavated is the spectacular terracotta army. It is thought that a total of 8000 figures were buried with Qin Shi Huang Di to protect and entertain him in the afterlife. Archaeologists estimate that 700 000 labourers worked to create the warriors and the great tomb. In 2012, archaeologists unearthed more of the life-size soldiers, along with their terracotta shields, horses and chariots (see Sources 25 to 27).

The terracotta army is still being carefully excavated. The roof that had originally covered it collapsed soon after Qin Shi Huang Di's burial. The dirt that fell in around the statues protected them for over 2000 years.



Source 25 A trench of partially excavated terracotta warriors and horses at the Terracotta Warriors and Horses Museum in the city of Xian



Source 26 Archaeologists work to excavate one of the 120 terracotta warriors unearthed in June 2012.

Source 27 Some of the excavated terracotta warriors



CASE STUDY

The Great Wall of China

Most people think that the Great Wall of China is a single wall, but in fact, it is made up of a number of walls built across different parts of northern China at different times. The first stages of connecting some of the earlier separate sections of wall were begun by Qin Shi Huang Di from 220 BC, building on, extending and connecting existing packed-earth walls that had been built during the Zhou Dynasty and earlier. The most commonly seen image of the Great Wall is the Jinshanling section of the Ming Dynasty Wall, built from AD 1368: see Source 28.

Archaeologists are still excavating sections of packed-earth wall, and beliefs about the wall have changed as new evidence has been found. In total the Great Wall was more than 8000 kilometres in length. However, if we add up all the separate sections of wall that have been discovered, the combined length is more than 21 000 kilometres.

Although the Great Wall helped to protect China's northern borders, it was not the only strategy used against the war-like, nomadic tribes to the north of China. Sometimes the Chinese dynasties would use diplomacy (make deals with tribes to prevent them from attacking) or, on other occasions, they would go to war with them.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The Great Wall of China is a key example of architectural significance. It had a great impact not only on the people at the time, but also on people in later periods.

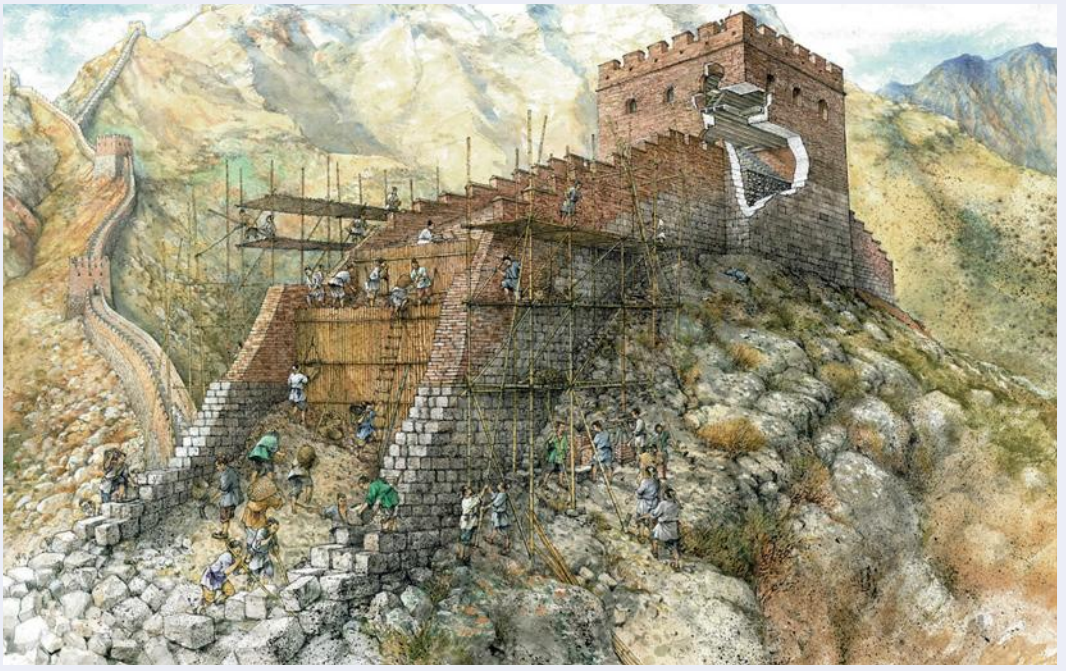
Source 28 The Jinshanling section of the Great Wall was built during the Ming Dynasty and is in the Hebei province.





Source 29 Parts of the Great Wall were made from packed earth.

The success of the Great Wall in defending northern China was limited by the strength of Chinese forces and the stability of the dynasty that held power. The Chinese understood that it was not just a matter of building a physical barrier. Diplomacy, trade and engagement with the nomads north of China went hand in hand with troops and Chinese settlements established all along the wall. The wall did help defend key parts of China from random nomadic raids, but did not halt major invasions. A weak dynasty could not be saved by the Great Wall.



Source 30 An artist's impression of construction on part of the Ming Dynasty Wall

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why is it more accurate to refer to the Great Walls, rather than the Great Wall of China?
2. Why did the dynasties over the years feel a need to repeatedly build walls?
3. What kind of social organisation do you think was needed to enter into major building programs like the walls?

6.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 In your own words, define 'legalism' as it was used in the government of ancient China.

2 What does the burial of the terracotta warriors with Qin Shi Huang Di tell us about his beliefs and fears?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Consider each of the changes made to Chinese government and society under Qin Shi Huang Di's rule, as listed in Source 21. For each one, explain why you think the change was made, and what you think the consequences would have been for ancient China.

4 What do historians need to consider when analysing written records from the Qin Dynasty?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Consider what you already know about Qin Shi Huang Di and add to your knowledge with your own research. Think about the negative and positive aspects of his rule, and find out more about his last years, including his search for immortality and the circumstances of his death. Summarise your thinking about Qin Shi Huang Di with a PMI table (Plus, Minus, Interesting).

The rule of Qin Shi Huang Di		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

GO DEEPER

6 To which social group in ancient China would you have liked to belong? Choose one from the list below:

- emperor or empress
- nobleman or nobleman's wife, son or daughter
- peasant farmer or peasant farmer's wife, son or daughter

Use information and sources from the text and your own research to present 'My life in ancient China'. Your presentation could be in the form of a series of diary entries, a letter to a friend or relative, a storyboard, or another format approved by your teacher. Include relevant sources in your presentation whenever possible as 'snapshots' from your life.

Note: Provide a brief biography to introduce your imaginary self, including your age, gender, the city or part of China where you live, a description of your family and their place in society. Also, keep a record of all the evidence you have used as a basis for the events and descriptions in your presentation. Make sure you have evaluated them for relevance and reliability.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians need to evaluate the evidence and analyse its meaning in order to explain key aspects of people, places and events of the past.



Source 31 A painting from the Tang Dynasty showing the emperor, seated, surrounded by maids of honour

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

6C CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed

1 Outline the social hierarchy in ancient China and describe the key groups. (5 marks)

2 Outline how ancient China was governed after Qin Shi Huang Di united China and declared himself emperor. (5 marks)

3 Describe the rule of Qin Shi Huang Di, including changes he made to unify Chinese society.

- **a** Outline the steps Qin Shi Huang Di took to make China easier to rule. (5 marks)
- **b** Why do you think that Qin Shi Huang Di resorted to cruelty at the same time as he made great improvements in Chinese society? (5 marks)

» Describe key groups in Chinese society

4 Describe the roles and responsibilities of the following key groups in Chinese society, and give reasons for their status:

- **a** emperors
- **b** scholars
- **c** artisans
- **d** peasant farmers. (20 marks)

5 Outline the status and role of women in ancient China. Include examples of practices that illustrate their role in Chinese society. (10 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China

6 Write a paragraph on the following aspects of everyday life in ancient China:

- **a** housing, clothing and leisure
- **b** education
- **c** food and diet. (15 marks)

7 List three everyday activities and responsibilities carried out by men, by women and by children in ancient China. (10 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China

8 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient China.

- **a** Outline his or her achievements.
- **b** Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society.
- **c** Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (20 marks)

9 Choose two sources relating to your significant individual. Assess the value of these sources to a historian studying their life. (5 marks)

Total marks [/100]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

6D HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE CHINA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

6.7 ANCIENT CHINA AT WAR

KEY CONTENT

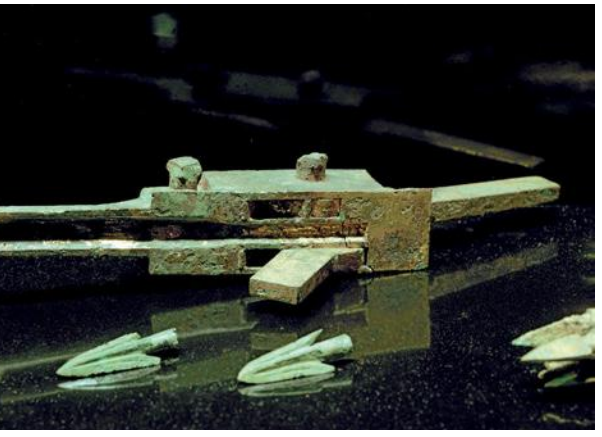
In this topic you will:

- identify conflicts within Chinese society
- explain the consequences of these conflicts for ancient China.

Throughout its long history, ancient China had a variety of contacts with other societies as it defended its borders, extended its trade with other civilisations and conquered new territories. Within ancient China, conflict marked the beginning and end of China's dynasties, brought on by either internal power struggles or foreign threats.

Internal conflicts and rebellions

Ancient China's history is marked by a series of internal wars and rebellions. Rival states and kingdoms across China were frequently at war to expand or defend their territories. As a result, Chinese armies and navies developed sophisticated weapons and military tactics, including the famous theories of the general Sun Tzu – a military leader and author of *The Art of War*, a book still used by armies around the world.



Source 1 The remains of a crossbow and bolt heads from the Han Dynasty

After the Qin kingdom's defeat of rival states, China became a unified nation. However, a number of major rebellions broke out against ruling dynasties in the centuries that followed. The Qin Dynasty itself did not last long after the death of Qin Shi Huang Di in 210 BC. His rule had been deeply unpopular because of his harsh laws and the deaths of thousands of people forced to work on his grand constructions, such as parts of the Great Wall. After Qin Shi Huang Di's death, his younger son, Qin Er Shi, became emperor, but increasing uprisings led to the overthrow of the dynasty in 206 BC. The peasant leader Liu Bang became the first Han Dynasty emperor, and was renamed Gao Zu.

As we have seen, the Mandate of Heaven meant it was accepted that there would be times when the people would and should stage a rebellion against a bad ruler. The most famous rebellions in the ancient period were the Rebellion of the Seven States against the Han Dynasty in 154 BC and the second Yellow Turban Rebellion against the Han Dynasty in AD 184.

Although each of these rebellions was different, both began as peasant rebellions, triggered by the discontent of the ordinary peasant farmers. Most often these grievances were against government taxes that were thought to be too high or unfair, hardship in the countryside due to famine following drought, or loss of life and homes after floods.

Ancient China's military strength

Armies made ancient China very strong. Its rulers used them to conquer new territory and hold back nomadic raiders from the north. The first permanent, professional army was created during the Han Dynasty, and Han Emperor Wudi greatly increased its territory through the victories of its armies. As well as expanding territory within present-day China, Wudi's army invaded territories in northern Korea in 108 BC and northern Vietnam in 111 BC, making them a part of the Han Empire. The Han and successive dynasties governed territories in Vietnam for just over 1000 years, imposing Chinese culture, religion and language. China later came under the control of the Mongols in AD 1279 and the Manchus in 1644. In this chapter we cover only the period up to the end of the Han Dynasty, which is commonly considered to mark the end of China's ancient period.



Source 2 Detail of a tapestry showing kneeling prisoners and soldiers from the time of the first emperor of the Han Dynasty

6.7 SOURCE STUDY

The expanding territory of China's ancient dynasties



Source 3 The territorial borders of some past dynasties and present-day China

INTERPRET

1 Using Source 3, write a paragraph to describe and summarise the changes to ancient China's territorial borders from the Qin Dynasty through to the Tang Dynasty.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Historians interpret meaning from historical texts before sequencing historical events and periods. Ancient societies use different terms, meaning historians often have an understanding of another language.

6.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create a timeline with the title 'Conflict in ancient China' to summarise your knowledge about this topic. Along with key dates, include information about:
- the causes of the conflicts
- the consequences of the conflicts
- the key individuals involved.

GO DEEPER

2 Find out more about the Rebellion of the Seven States or the second Yellow Turban Rebellion. Write a one-page report summarising the key events of the rebellion, including its causes and consequences.

6.8 CHINA'S CONTACTS WITH THE ANCIENT WORLD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient China and other societies
- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China
- explain the legacy of ancient China.

Since the earliest records, trade within China had existed along its rivers and vast network of canals. However, trade outside of China's borders did not begin until the Han Dynasty.

The Han Dynasty was the longest-lasting dynasty in China. It continued for nearly four centuries, from 202 BC to AD 220, broken only by a brief takeover by the Xin Dynasty. As well as the establishment of the first full-time army, the arts and sciences flourished in China during this period and there was trade and economic prosperity. Today, the Chinese people still call themselves the 'Han', reflecting this dynasty's huge impact on Chinese history.

During the rule of Han Emperor Wudi, China's influence increased through military conquest, trade and strategic alliances with other countries and foreign rulers. Emperor Wudi made allies of the tribes living in the lands surrounding China, with long-term impacts. He also sent official messengers on great journeys to make alliances with countries to the west of China. The messengers and later diplomatic missions came back with stories of strange customs and products, such as furs and large horses.



Source 4 The horses from Persia and Eastern Europe were larger stronger than the horses in China during the Han Dynasty. They were given the name 'heavenly horses'.

These so-called 'heavenly horses' from Persia and Eastern Europe were larger than the Chinese breeds of the time and they made better 'war horses'. China was able to obtain huge numbers of 'heavenly horses' from outside China, which greatly improved the strength of its army and cavalry. Emperor Wudi also sent Chinese merchants on trading expeditions that laid the foundation for trade with the West along the **Silk Roads**.

Silk Roads
a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

The Silk Roads

The Silk Roads were a network of roads heading in the same general direction, running through mountains, deserts and plains. Eventually, the Silk Roads stretched westwards from the city of Changan (Xian) to the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. There were many branches leading to places such as India (see Source 8). Few merchants travelled the entire distance. More typically, goods were exchanged with local communities along the way, who would trade with other merchant travellers. Once the Silk Roads reached the Mediterranean Sea, China came into contact with Western societies, such as ancient Rome.

Silk was ancient China's most important trade good. For a long time, only the Chinese knew how to make it. It is spun from silkworm cocoons. It became so highly prized by the people of ancient Rome that they exchanged large amounts of gold for it. Through its export of silk (and later silk-making techniques), ancient China became very wealthy.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Silk was such a valuable resource to the Chinese that people were executed if caught stealing silkworm eggs or cocoons.



Source 5 The Chinese traded silk and the Romans prized it, not knowing that it came from a silkworm.

Source 6

Goods exchanged along the Silk Roads	
From China	silk, tea, cattle, porcelain, pearls, lacquer ware, iron
To China	horses and camels, jade, gold and silver, furs, dyes, perfumes, spice

Exchange of ideas between East and West

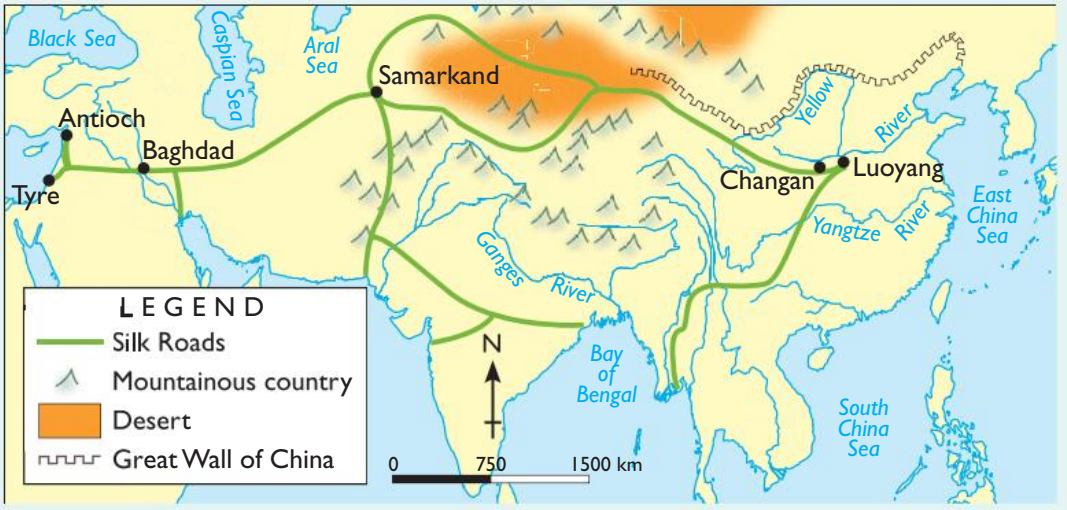
Trade between ancient China and other societies also helped the transfer of ideas between the East (civilisations across the Asian world) and the West (civilisations across the Mediterranean world). People who travelled on the Silk Roads from east or west were exposed to different cultures and religions. It was along this road that metalworking technologies and Buddhism were introduced into China. It was also the route followed by those who passed China's silk-making secrets to the West. In addition, the route was the means by which terrible diseases were introduced to new populations, such as the bubonic plague in medieval times.

The Silk Roads

Source 7

There were some who ... have seen a host of men [spirits] coming towards them and, suspecting they were robbers, returning, have gone hopelessly astray ... Even by daylight men hear these spirit voices ... For this reason bands of travellers keep very close together. Before they go to sleep they set up a sign pointing in the direction in which they have to travel. Round the necks of all their beasts they fasten little bells, so that by listening to the sound they may prevent them from straying off the path.

Translated extract from Marco Polo, The Travels (c. 1254–1324), *describing the Silk Roads crossing*



Source 8 The main routes of the Silk Roads



Source 9 A fifteenth-century artist's impression of the Silk Roads; the painting is titled *Abduction of a lady with her porcelain*

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

INTERPRET

1 Examine Source 7.
   - **a** What were some of the dangers for merchants travelling the Silk Roads?
   - **b** Why do you think merchants continued to travel the Silk Roads despite these dangers?

2 Study Source 8 and complete the following activities.
   - **a** Use the scale to estimate the length of the Silk Roads from Changan to Tyre on the Mediterranean coast, and then check your estimate using digital resources.
   - **b** Use an atlas to identify the modern-day countries on the main routes and offshoots of the Silk Roads.

3 Look at Source 9.
   - **a** The goods being transported on the Silk Roads in this case are a princess's dowry rather than trade goods. (A dowry is money or goods that the bride's family brings to the husband.) Describe the scene, identifying the princess, her dowry and her guards.
   - **b** What does this painting reveal about the exchange of cultures along the Silk Roads?

Ancient China's legacy

Sir Francis Bacon, a seventeenth-century English scholar, thought that the magnetic compass, gunpowder and printing were the three most important inventions that changed the world. Each had a significant impact on societies around the globe. They made possible the voyages of discovery, affected the outcome of wars and transformed the spread of information. All were invented in China, along with other significant inventions and discoveries. Like the ancient Egyptians, the ancient Chinese were skilled scientists, mathematicians and astronomers.

Magnetic compass

About 2000 years ago, the Chinese noted that a magnetic rock (called a lodestone) always pointed the same way (north–south) when suspended on a string or floated in water. It was then discovered that by rubbing fine metal pointers on a lodestone, its magnetic properties were transferred to the pointers. It is unknown when this knowledge was used to create the first magnetic compass, but it is thought that the concept was brought to Europe by the tenth century AD, through Arab traders travelling along the Silk Roads. Until then, consulting the stars was the only way of working out directions at sea, so the magnetic compass revolutionised the way sailors plotted their courses.



Source 10 Two magnetic compasses made by the ancient Chinese

Gunpowder

Around AD 850, a Chinese scientist made a mixture he hoped would give him everlasting life. Instead, it exploded, burning his beard. He had accidentally discovered gunpowder. Fifty years later, gunpowder was being used by the Chinese as a powerful weapon in warfare, with the development of bombs, cannons and rockets. It allowed the Chinese to keep Mongol invaders out of their territories for a time. However, the Mongols were eventually able to use gunpowder against the Chinese and establish control over China. Like the compass, knowledge of gunpowder eventually reached Europe by way of the Silk Roads.



Source 11 Fireworks – a more peaceful use of gunpowder, and possibly its first use in ancient China

Paper and printing

The Chinese first wrote on silk or strips of bamboo. By the end of the first century AD, however, a thin paper was being used. The royal eunuch Cai Lun (*c.* AD 50–121) is usually given credit for this invention, making a paper pulp with mashed bamboo and mulberry bark. Later, pulp was made by mashing together bark, rags, plant stalks and water. Bamboo trays were dipped into the pulp until their fine grids were fully coated. When partially dry, the paper was gently peeled off and hung up to dry.

Books were printed in China centuries before the invention of printing in Europe. The Chinese used the block method. Flat wooden blocks were carved so that the characters or illustration to be printed stood higher than the rest of the block. When paper was pressed onto the inked block, only these higher parts printed. The details to be printed were carved in reverse so they would print the right way on the paper.



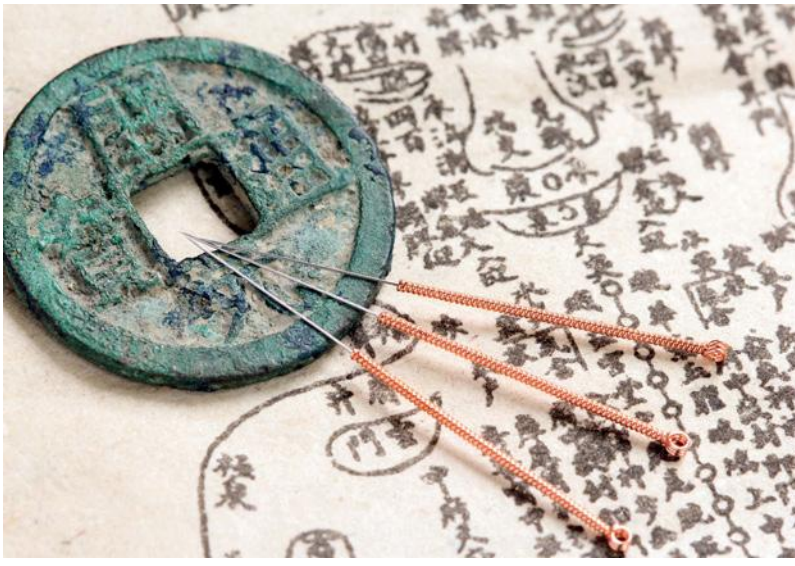
Source 12 Part of a page from the *Diamond Sutra*, the earliest surviving printed book; this Buddhist text was printed around AD 868 using the block method. It was made 500 years before the first book (the Bible) was printed in Europe.

Other Chinese inventions and discoveries

Other inventions and discoveries from ancient China also spread to other societies through trade and other contacts. For example:

- the first seismograph (a device to detect earthquakes), made by the astronomer Zhang Heng (AD 78–139), who is also said to have been the first to use a grid system on maps
- cast iron, first made around 600 BC
- the rudder (before this time, Egyptians and Greeks used steering oars on their boats)
- mechanical clocks (made in China six centuries earlier than in Europe)
- acupuncture (a treatment that involves pushing small needles into the body to treat illness and promote health) and herbal medicines
- matches, the umbrella, the kite, the wheelbarrow.

Source 13 Acupuncture is part of traditional Chinese medicine. Needles are inserted into pressure points to relieve pain and other ailments.



Source 14 Cast iron has been used for more than 2500 years in China, for items such as woks and teapots.



6.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What were the Silk Roads and how did they get their name?
2. How did trade along the Silk Roads increase the prosperity of ancient China?
3. What did Francis Bacon consider to be world-changing inventions and why?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Why do you think there are extensive written records that provide evidence about ancient China?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5. Research ways of making either paper or a simple magnetic compass. Create either of these at home or in class, and write a brief report to describe your method, experience and the result. Include photos or sketches in your report.

GO DEEPER

6. Conduct research on the rule of Han Emperor Wudi to find out more about his achievements. Write a one-page persuasive text to argue that he is one of the most significant individuals in ancient China.
7. Find out more about one of the inventions or discoveries listed on the previous page that particularly interests you. Share your knowledge about this Chinese invention or discovery with members of your class.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians often learn about societies by first gathering a wide range of information. After this, they can choose an area of interest to research in more depth.

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HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE CHINA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify conflicts within Chinese society

1 Identify the reasons why the following types of conflicts occurred within ancient China:

- **a** warfare between rival states
- **b** rebellions against dynasties. (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these conflicts for ancient China

2 What were the consequences of the conflicts you identified in question 1? Include examples. (5 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

3 Identify territories outside China that were invaded by China's military during the Han Dynasty. (2 marks)

4 Identify and describe the trade route that connected East and West during ancient times, including examples of goods that were typically exchanged. (10 marks)

5 What other types of exchanges were made between East and West as a result of this trade route? (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient China and other societies

6 What were the consequences of trading contacts between East and West, for China and other ancient societies? Include examples. (10 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China

7 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in China and the ancient world.

- **a** Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society, as well as other ancient societies. (5 marks)
- **b** Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (10 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient China

8 Explain the legacy of ancient China, including the impact of significant discoveries and inventions.

- **a** Identify three discoveries or inventions from ancient China. (3 marks)
- **b** Explain how the world might be different today without these discoveries or inventions. (15 marks)

Total marks [/80]

6D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

PART D



The intricate ceiling in the Vatican Library. Vatican City is the centre of the Roman Catholic Church, and is situated in the city of Rome, Italy.



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:

7 THE VIKINGS

CHAPTER

8 MEDIEVAL EUROPE

CHAPTER

obook-only chapter

9 THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

CHAPTER

obook-only chapter

10 RENAISSANCE ITALY

CHAPTER

THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

While societies continued to operate, the political systems shifted from large empires to smaller territories.

0.1 INTRODUCTION

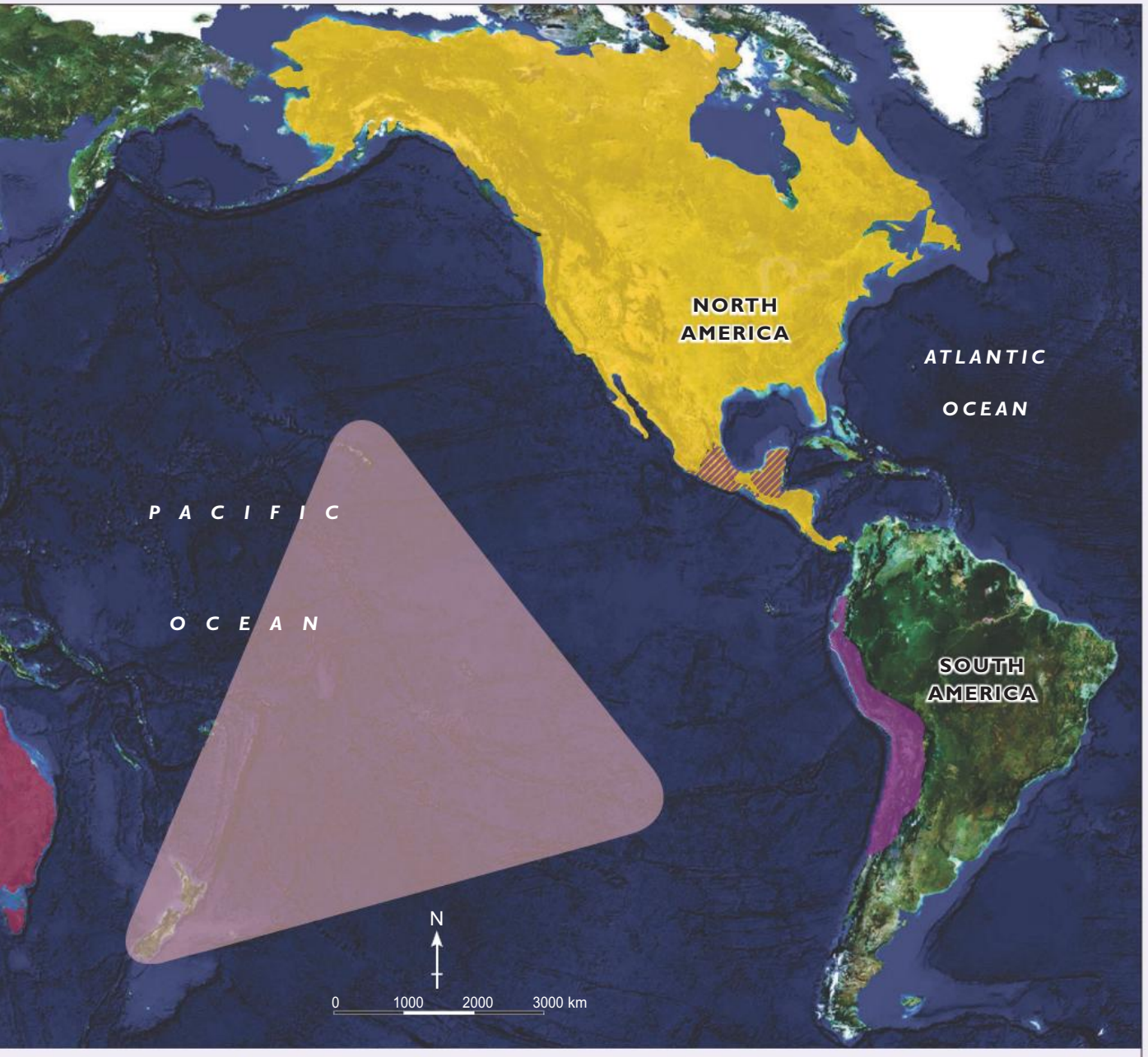
The period from *c.* AD 650 to *c.* 1750 marked the end of the ancient world and the beginning of the modern world. It was a time of great change. New societies and civilisations started and new religions emerged and spread. Traditional ways of thinking about the world were challenged as new ideas developed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



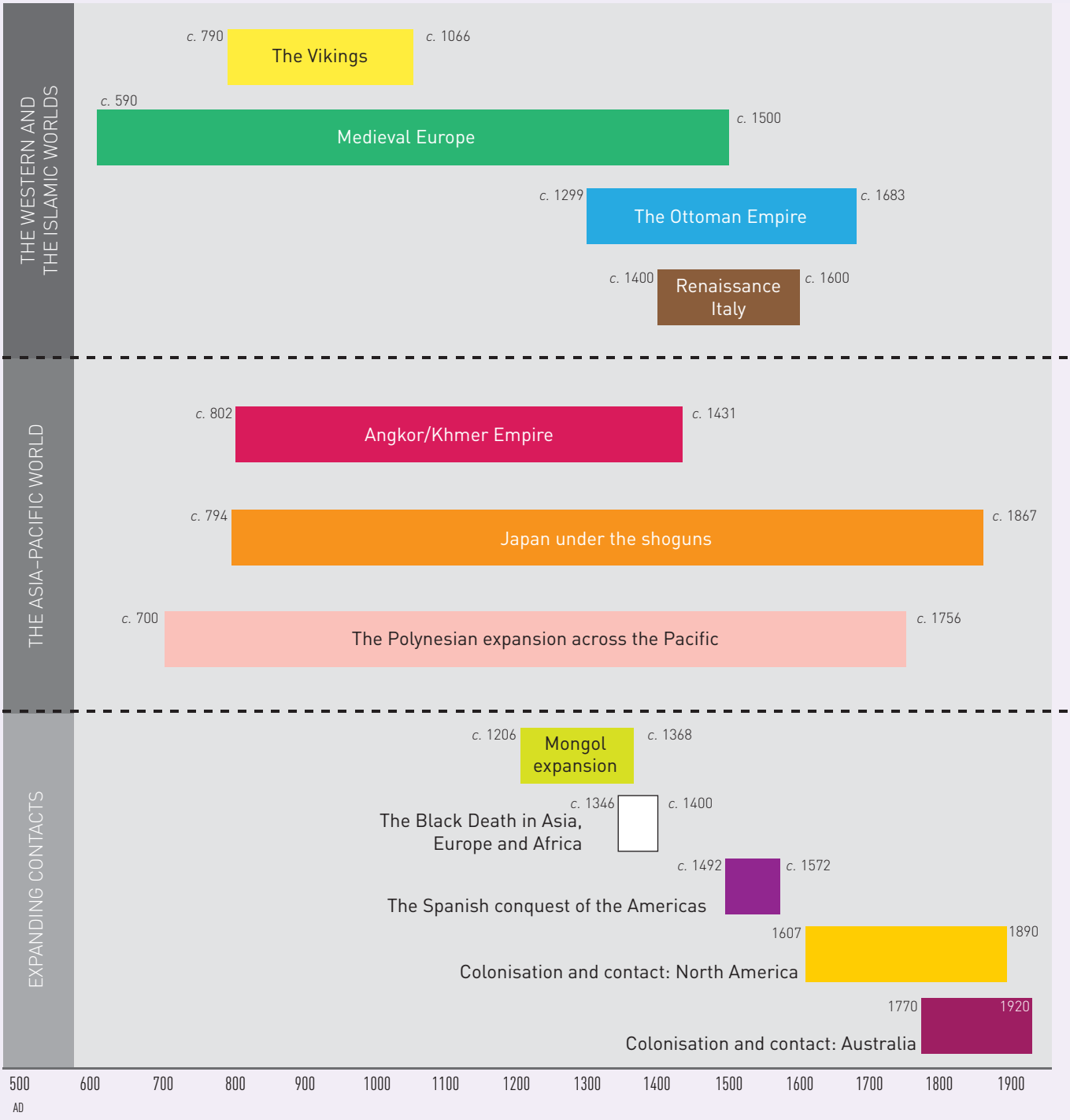
In ancient times, much of Europe and Asia was under the control of powerful empires. During this period, many of these ancient empires collapsed because of the pressures and costs of wars, corrupt governments or migration. The fall of these powerful empires left room for different groups of people to 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 between groups who competed for new territories.

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



Source 1 A satellite image of Earth showing the location and size of key civilisations and societies that can be studied in 'The ancient to the modern world'



Source 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 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 more than 700 years. Although people worshipped their emperors as gods, the shoguns 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, and conflicts, and were dispossessed of their traditional lands.

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

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

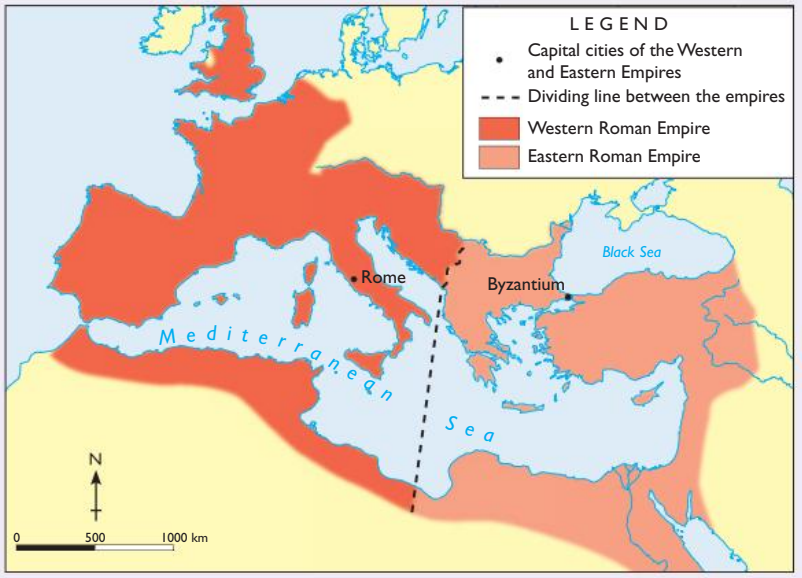
0.2 THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE ROMAN WORLD

Empires collapse for a number of reasons, including wars, natural disasters, invasions, disease, food shortages, government corruption and poor leadership. The Roman Empire collapsed because of 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 extended from Britain to northern Africa, and from modern-day Portugal to modern-day Iraq. After seizing power in AD 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 3). But even this drastic action did not provide the stability that Diocletian hoped for. In the fourth century AD, rival emperors competed for power, while tribal peoples – including the Vandals, Goths and Huns – attacked the empire's frontiers.

Source 3 The division of the Roman Empire



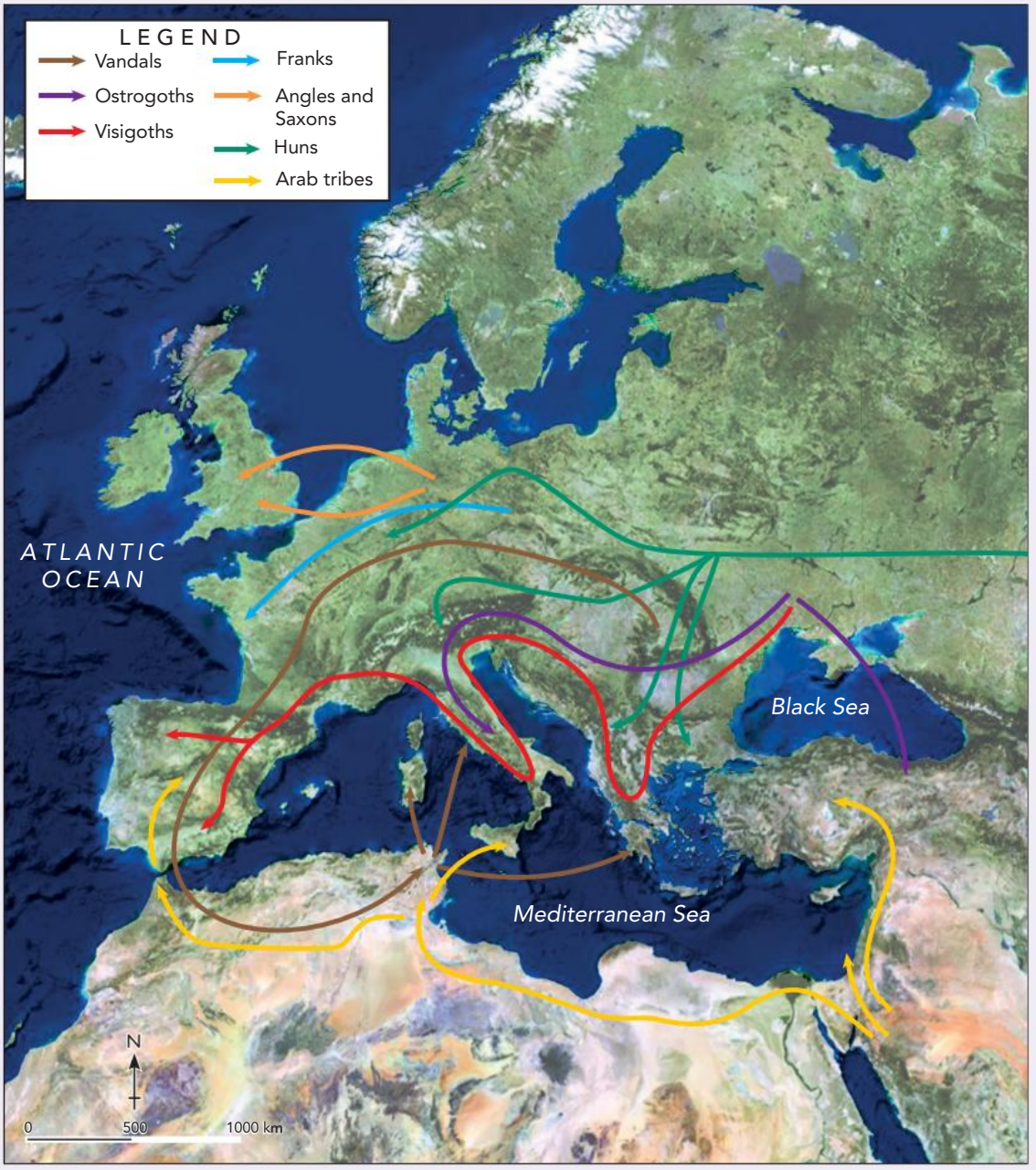
The end of Rome's control in the West

After the death of Emperor Constantine in AD 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 – the Romans called these people 'barbarians' (which means 'foreigner'). Meanwhile, other groups of barbarians were attacking Roman settlements. In AD 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, continued 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 5 shows the movements of different groups across Europe in the fourth and fifth centuries.



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



Source 5 A satellite image showing the approximate movements of tribal groups across Europe during the fourth and fifth centuries

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 AD 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 6 shows the regions across Europe, Asia Minor and Africa that were Christian or Muslim lands.



Source 6 Christian and Muslim lands in the early eleventh century

Source 7 An eagle-shaped brooch from the Kingdom of the Visigoths



0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What was the role of religion at this time?

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

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Examine Source 5 and write a statement that outlines the movement of peoples across Europe in the fourth and fifth centuries AD.

GO DEEPER

4 Conduct research to find out about one of the tribal groups in Source 5. Where did they originate and where did they travel to and settle? What were key aspects of their culture and way of life?

0.3 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, 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 tied to his land, and so were not allowed to move away from his manor land where they lived.

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

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

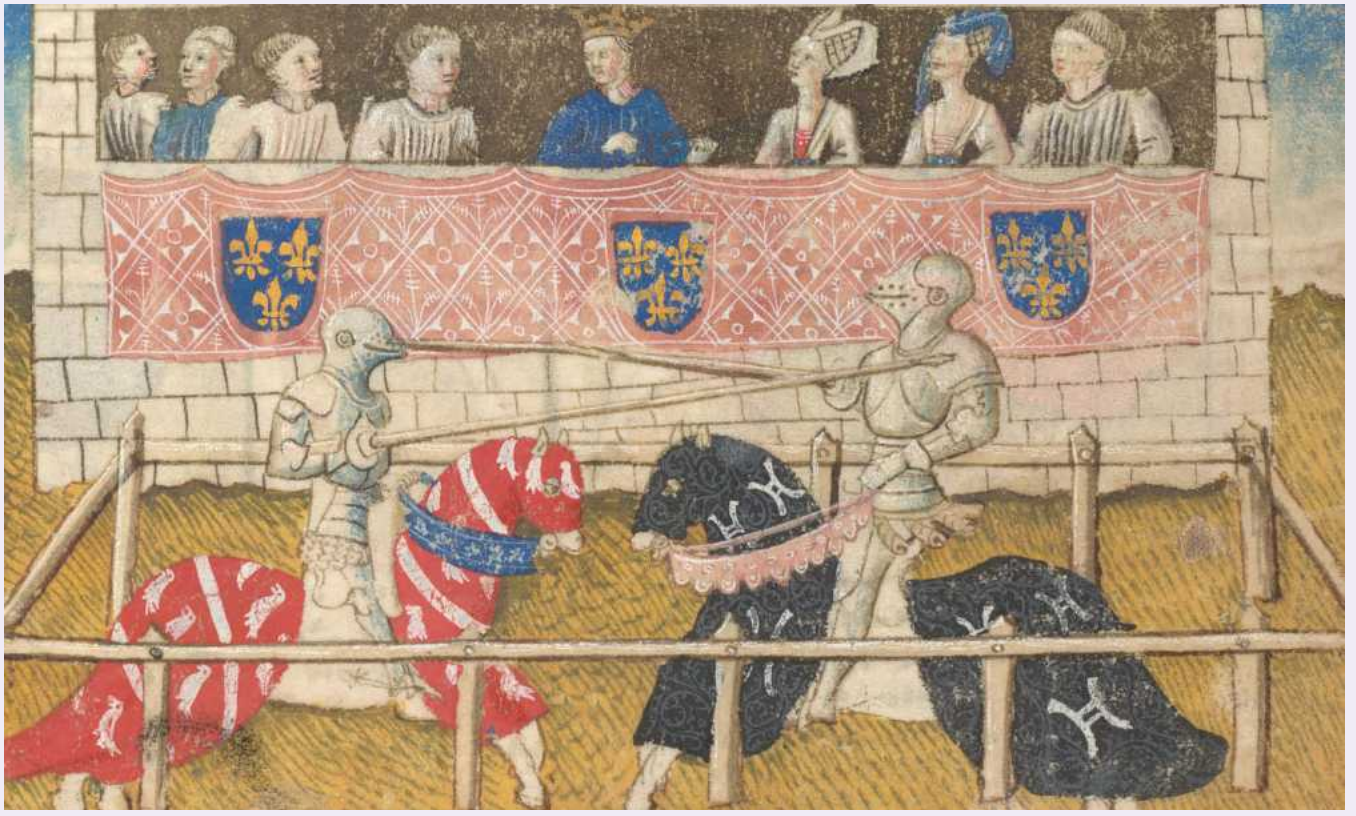


Source 8 An illustration depicting a peasant working on his lord's land to fulfil his feudal obligations

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.

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 (a plot of land)

knight
a medieval warrior of Europe, who typically pledged his services to a lord (sometimes the king) in exchange for a fief



Source 9 An illustration from a fifteenth-century manuscript showing two knights jousting

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, but religious rivalry and intolerance were recurring themes. Some conflicts 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.

Holy Land
the territory in today's Middle East now mostly made up of Israel and parts of Palestine

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 led to 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 Roads** were a network of more than 6500 kilometres of roads connecting Asia and Europe, and became vital trade routes between the East and West. During the fourteenth century, Mongol rulers protected the routes and ensured safe passage for merchants, which helped trade.

By the thirteenth century, trading ports in modern-day Italy – such as Venice, Genoa and Florence – had become busy commercial centres. The **Renaissance** was a time when classical learning from ancient Greece and Rome flourished in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This 'rebirth', which centred on these prosperous Italian cities, was not only the result of a rediscovery of learning from ancient Greece and Rome, but it was also due to links with the Eastern world via the Silk Roads.

Trade could be a way of spreading disease. During the fourteenth 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 Roads and sea routes from east to west.

Silk Roads
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

Renaissance
literally meaning 'rebirth'; the revival of art and literature under the influence of classical models, in the fourteenth to sixteenth centuries

Black Death
a deadly outbreak of plague that spread across Asia, Europe and Africa during the fourteenth century, killing millions of people



Source 10 A fourteenth-century artist's impression showing the father and uncle of Italian explorer Marco Polo travelling across Asia on the Silk Roads



Source 11 Medieval coins

Voyages of discovery

In the fifteenth and sixteenth 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 Roads was becoming slow and expensive, mainly because the power of the Mongol Empire had weakened and it could no longer protect travellers along the routes.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The growth of international voyages contributed to increased global trade, changing the food and tools that were typically found in European societies.

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 sailed to 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, Asia and the Pacific.



Source 12 A nineteenth-century painting showing Christopher Columbus landing in the Americas

0.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Draw 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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Find a map of the Silk Roads online. Explain the routes taken by traders, and the types of goods traded both ways between the East and West.

3 Locate 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.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Research to find out more about the 'age of exploration' that began in the fifteenth 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.

GO DEEPER

6 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 (1307–77) and the Chinese explorer Zheng He (1371–1435). Present a one-page summary outlining key achievements and challenges your individual overcame.

0.4 THE EMERGENCE OF NEW IDEAS

From around the late thirteenth 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 fourteenth century to the sixteenth century. It was centred on 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 for 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 the Silk Roads. As a consequence of these new influences, people began to work out ways of thinking for themselves, rather than just accepting the Church's teachings.

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.

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

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'.



Source 13 Detail from a 1490 illustration of the city of Florence

New ideas about the potential of human ability

humanism
a system or way of thinking in which human values, reason and interests are given priority over competing systems

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 dominating 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 follow Church teachings and rules, 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.

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 14 Botticelli's *Birth of Venus*

The Scientific Revolution

Scientific Revolution
a change in thinking among sixteenth- and seventeenth-century European scholars that placed a new focus on the laws of the natural world

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 '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 sixteenth century and continued after the Renaissance into the seventeenth 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-fifteenth century.

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



Source 15 Leonardo da Vinci's sketches and notes from his anatomy studies

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.

Enlightenment
a school of French-inspired thinking that spread across Europe in the eighteenth century; its view was that reason, tolerance and equality should replace superstition, cruelty and injustice

Important thinkers of the Enlightenment included the French writers Voltaire and Rousseau, the English philosopher John Locke and the Scottish thinker David Hume. 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.

0.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is meant by the term 'humanism'?
2 What were three significant advancements during the Scientific Revolution?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 How did humanism challenge religious beliefs?
4 Why do you think the Scientific Revolution was seen as a threat by some religious groups?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 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. Display your findings on a poster, creating a gallery for the class to read and learn about the achievements of other individuals.



Source 16 Detail from Michelangelo's sculpture *David*

0.5 LINKS BETWEEN THE WESTERN AND THE ISLAMIC WORLD

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Although the French croissant (crescent) we know today was first made in the mid-nineteenth 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.

Although Western Europe and the Islamic world developed separately, between *c.* AD 590 and 1683, there were links between the two and their histories 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.

From the end of the eighth 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 seventeenth century, the Islamic Ottoman Empire expanded west and ruled over Greece and parts of Eastern Europe. Peoples from the Western and Islamic worlds lived on 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 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.

0.5 SOURCE STUDY



Source 17 Significant individuals from the Western and Islamic worlds: Viking explorer Leif Eriksson, Emperor Charlemagne, Ottoman Sultan Suleiman I and 'Renaissance man' Leonardo da Vinci

INTERPRET

1 Identify similarities and differences between the portrayals of the individuals in Source 17.

0.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What were the Crusades?
2 What was the legacy of the Crusades?

0.6 BELIEF SYSTEMS AND RELIGIONS

The belief systems and religious teachings in each of the societies studied in the Western and Islamic worlds influenced almost every aspect of life. This topic 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 and weapons.

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



Source 18 An artist's impression of the chief Viking god, Odin (left), feasting with the spirits of Viking war heroes in Valhalla

Christian beliefs in medieval Europe

In medieval Europe, people's understanding of the world was dominated by their Christian beliefs. Christianity and the power of the Church also influenced the way that history was recorded. Christianity was based on the teachings of Jesus Christ as recorded in the New Testament 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 19 A fourteenth-century painting showing 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 Koran.

According to the Koran, 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, performed 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.



Source 20 An eighteenth-century painting showing Turks at prayer in a mosque

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

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 the 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 the German monk 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.

Reformation
a movement that began in Europe in the sixteenth century when the scholastic monk Martin Luther publicly challenged the Catholic Church; it shifted the balance of power in Europe away from dominant control by the Church



Source 21 A statue of Martin Luther in Eisleben, Germany

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religion and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

0.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How did the Viking belief system differ from Christianity?
2 What were three requirements of Muslims in the Ottoman Empire?
3 What movements challenged the Church during the Renaissance?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why do you think religion contributed to conflict between East and West?

0.7 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.



Source 22 An artist's impression of a *thing* held every year at the Lögberg (Law Rock) in Iceland

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*.

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 twelfth 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.

Feudalism in medieval Europe

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.

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) on 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 23 Under the feudal system, a noble swore 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 was 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.



Source 24
A seventeenth-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.

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 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 **harem** had considerable political influence. Slavery was also an important feature of Ottoman society – one in five people in its capital, Istanbul, was a slave.

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**).

harem
during the Ottoman Empire; the separate part of a Muslim household reserved for wives, concubines and female servants

guild
group of people all working in the same trade (e.g. butchers, tailors, cobblers) who band together for their common interests

0.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 **a** 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.

b Draw a Venn diagram to outline similarities and differences in the government, laws and social structure of two of the societies discussed in this topic.

GO DEEPER

2 The Reformation movement of the sixteenth century divided Christians in Europe into two groups – Protestants and Catholics. Research to find out the beliefs of each group and the role played by Martin Luther in the Reformation.



Source 1 High mountains and narrow inland waterways were a feature of the landscape of the Viking homelands.

7

THE VIKINGS

Towards the end of the eighth century, Norsemen ('men from the north') began carrying out violent raids across northern Europe, terrifying many people in the region. During these lightning raids, they attacked monasteries and towns, killing countless 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 AD 1000, the Vikings were settling in many of the places they had raided, and most had stopped worshipping traditional Norse gods and had adopted Christianity.

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WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF VIKING SOCIETY AND WAY OF LIFE? 7A

In this section you will:

» locate the Viking homelands

» identify the geographical features that helped shape Viking society and history

» using a range of sources, 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 7A

WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION? 7B

In this section you will:

» identify the extent of Viking exploration and trade

» identify the regions conquered and/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.

CASE STUDY: WERE THE VIKINGS THE FIRST EUROPEANS TO FIND AND SETTLE NORTH AMERICA?

CHECKPOINT 7B

WHICH SOCIETIES DID THE VIKINGS CONQUER AND HOW WERE THE PEOPLE THERE AFFECTED? 7C

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 Norwegian (Viking) and Norman invasions of England in 1066

» investigate and assess the role of significant individuals involved in the expansion of Viking settlement and influence

» use sources to identify different perspectives on the chosen individuals

» discuss how the Vikings have influenced the world today.

CHECKPOINT 7C

THE VIKINGS – A TIMELINE



Source 2 Viking helmets such as this were commonly worn on raids.

TIMELINE

780 790 800 840 860 870

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

AD 787
Vikings first attack England.

AD 799
Viking raids begin in France.

AD 795
Viking raids begin in Ireland and Scotland.

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

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

AD 865
The Viking 'Great Army' lands in England.

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

AD 870
Vikings from Sweden begin to visit Russia.



Source 3 An artist's impression of a Viking longboat carrying warriors to a raid

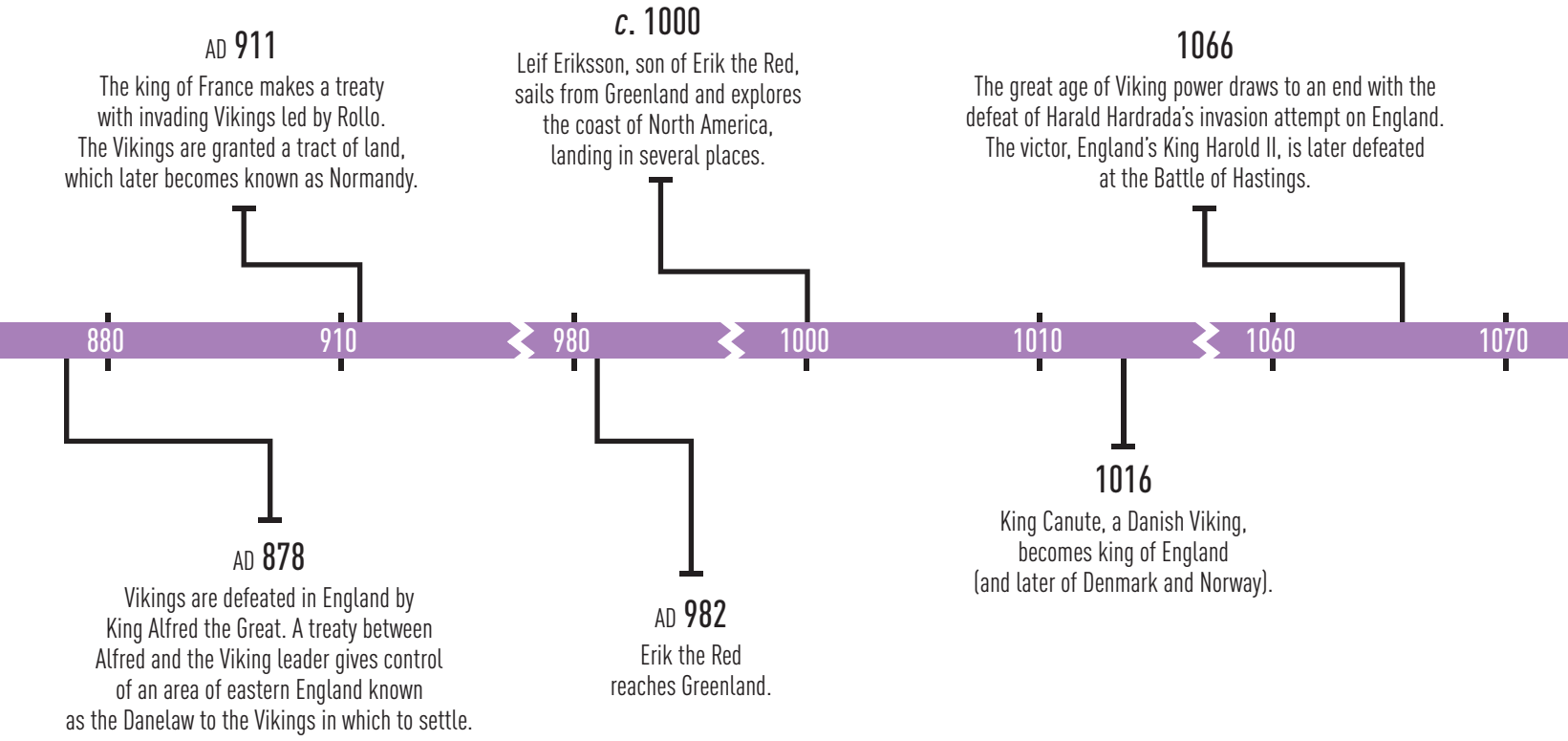
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Source 4 A statue of Leif Eriksson in Reykjavik, the capital of Iceland



Source 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.



TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

7A WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF VIKING SOCIETY AND WAY OF LIFE?

7.1 THE VIKING HOMELANDS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate the Viking homelands
- identify the geographical features that helped shape Viking society and history.



Source 1 The location of the Viking homelands

The Viking homelands were located in northern Europe, in parts of modern-day Scandinavia (see Source 1). 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 until around AD 790 – the beginning of what is called the Viking Age.

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. Only narrow strips of land on the coast or beside the fjords were suitable for farming.

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.

Source 2 A typical landscape in many parts of Scandinavia

7.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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

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7.2 VIKING SOCIETY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, outline key social, cultural, economic and political features of 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.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

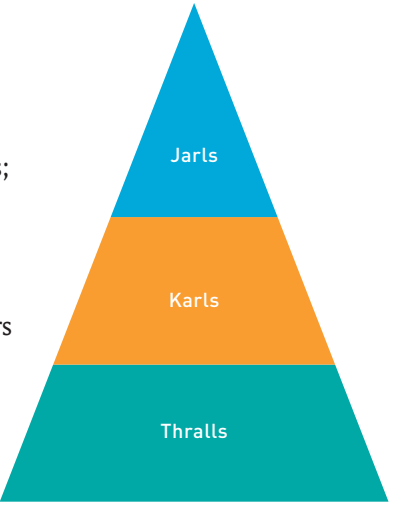
The Vikings used words that were different from the words we use in English today. Historians are careful to use specific terms and concepts when possible, to differentiate between societies.

Viking social structure

Although there were exceptions, Viking society was generally 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.

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 3 The structure of Viking society

7.2A SOURCE STUDY

The roles of a Viking *karl*

Source 4

> 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).*

Source 5 An artist's impression of the dual roles of a Viking *karl*



INTERPRET

1. What are the two roles of a Viking *karl*, as presented in Source 4 and Source 5?
2. What do these sources reveal about 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 4 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 legal 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. Iceland was the only Viking community to have a national *thing*, known as the *Althing*. It was the first parliament in the world.

Viking laws were not written down until the twelfth 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** (see Source 6).

saga
a long story (sometimes mixed with poetry) about heroes who achieved great things and fought noble battles; often a mix of real events, legends and myths

The Vikings generally 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 it was believed that 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.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Viking legal systems were important for maintaining peace within their society. Particular importance was placed on reinforcing societal norms through spoken forms such as the stories they told.

The law of the Vikings

Source 6

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

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Sources can provide insight into a society. It can be difficult for historians when the source is dramatised or developed for entertainment. They must consider the purpose of the source and then determine which parts are fact and which might be exaggerated or embellished.

Source 7 A dragon head on the prow (front end) of a replica Viking longship in Norway



INTERPRET

According to the saga:

1. What are the age limits for a Viking warrior?
2. What is the most important characteristic of life on board a Viking ship?
3. List the difficulties that could be faced by Viking warriors.
4. Why do you think that Viking law dictated that no prisoners were to be taken in battle? What other guideline in Source 6 might be the reason?
5. What are the limitations of this source for a historian studying Viking laws?

Economy and trade

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

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**. Later, goods were bought and sold with coins. Coins found by archaeologists in Sweden are evidence that Vikings traded as far as modern-day Russia and Central Asia. We investigate Viking trade in section 7B.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The development of societies meant there was a need to pursue trade for goods. This in turn exposed Viking societies to new ideas, broadening their cultural practices.

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 9 is an example of the distinctive Viking style, with spirals ending in wolf heads. Jewellery was highly decorative, frequently using symbols from Viking mythology and religion. The Vikings were also expert shipbuilders and woodcarvers (see Source 8).

7.2C SOURCE STUDY

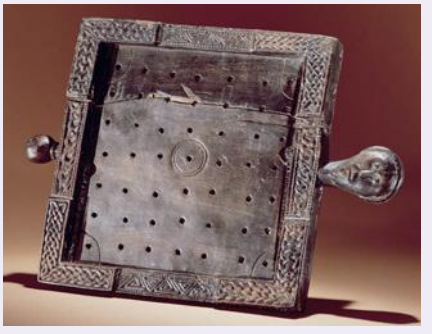
Viking culture



Source 8 The prow (front) of a Viking ship



Source 9 An eleventh-century silver armlet, featuring a spiral design common in Viking work



Source 10 A wooden game board thought to have been used by the Vikings to play a chess-like game, known as *hnefatafl*

INTERPRET

1 What do Sources 8 to 10 reveal about Viking society?

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the designs in Sources 8 to 10 and what they reveal about Viking society.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

7.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Outline the Viking social structure. Which was the biggest social class?
2 How were Viking laws remembered and communicated? Explain the reasons for this.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 List the different ways being sent away from your community would affect you. How would it have affected an eighth-century Viking?

7.3 VIKING BELIEFS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- discuss the role of Norse gods in Viking society.

Vikings worshipped many different gods, although these beliefs largely died out once many converted to Christianity towards the end of the ninth 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 11). Some of the stories about the gods of Viking mythology are outlined in Source 12.

Source 11

> 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 [killed] 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*

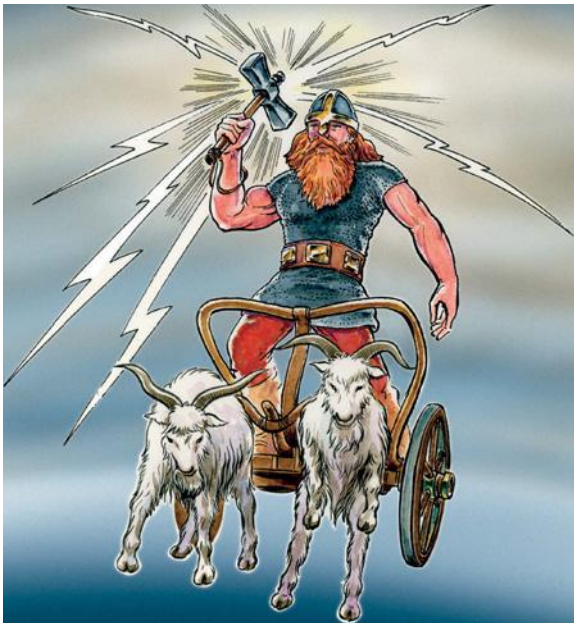
The Vikings believed that different gods were responsible for different areas of daily life. There were gods for harvests, love, family, fertility and war. It is thought that the Vikings made animal or human sacrifices to the gods to get something they needed, such as a good harvest or success in a battle. The chief of the gods is Odin, who has an eight-legged horse and is protected by two wolves. 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 12 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.

Source 13 Thor, the god of Thunder, in his goat-drawn chariot





Source 14 Odin, chief of the gods, with his eight-legged horse and two wolves

Days of the week

Many of the English names for the days of the week come from the Norse and Old English languages (see Source 15). Tuesday was named after Tiwes, who was the god of war; Wednesday was named after Odin (who was also known as Wodin); Thursday was named after Thor; and Friday was named after Odin's wife, Freya.

English	Norse	Meaning
Sunday	*Sunnandæg*	Sun's day
Monday	*Monandæg*	Moon's day
Tuesday	*Tiwesdæg*	Tiwes' day
Wednesday	*Wodnesdæg*	Wodin's day
Thursday	*Ðunresdæg*	Thor's day
Friday	*Frigedæg*	Freya's day
Saturday	*Sæterdæg*	Saturn's day

Source 15 English and Norse words for days of the week

7.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 AND ANALYSE

3 Compare the Viking creation myth in Source 11 with other creation stories, from the Bible or from the Dreaming stories of Aboriginal Australians. How are the stories similar? How do they differ?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 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.

GO DEEPER

5 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.

7.4 EVERYDAY LIFE IN THE VIKING WORLD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

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

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 keep animals and smoke fish, the workshops of village craftsmen, and an open area where markets were held.

Some Vikings lived in towns and cities, either in their homelands or in foreign territories they had conquered and settled. 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 16 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.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Vikings are often identified as seafaring warriors, but there were many experiences of Viking groups who remained at home. It is important to consider all groups in society when understanding people from the past.

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

7.4A SOURCE STUDY

Viking town and village



Source 17 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 18 A reconstruction of a street scene in a Viking town, from the Jorvik Viking Centre, in York, England

INTERPRET

1 Describe the scenes shown in Sources 17 and 18, 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 18?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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

Longhouses

Longhouses were rectangular buildings with rounded ends. Most longhouses were around 5 metres wide and 12 metres long. The king or the most important *jarls* in a Viking community lived in decorated longhouses that were around 30 to 60 metres long. Remnants of the longest known longhouse were found near Lofoten, in Norway. This longhouse was 83 metres long (see Source 16). 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.

Longhouses were made of local materials, 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 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. The fireplace provided warmth, light and a means to cook, but it made the longhouse very smoky. 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 had a separate kitchen and storeroom, and partitioned sleeping places.

There was not much furniture, often no more than a table and some benches covered in animal skins or with cloth bags filled with duck or goose feathers. (The English word 'doona' comes from the Norse word *dunn*, meaning 'feather down'.) Toilets were holes in the ground outside, as shown in Source 20. They may have been dug near wells that provided drinking water.

7.4B SOURCE STUDY

Living in a longhouse



Source 19 The interior of a reconstructed longhouse, at L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland, Canada, where an eleventh-century Viking settlement was discovered in the 1960s



Source 20 A reproduction of a Viking toilet, exhibited at the Jorvik Viking Centre, in York, England

INTERPRET

1 Describe the interior of the longhouse shown in Source 19, and then use your observations to explain why longhouses would have been dark and smelly.
2 Considering both Sources 19 and 20, what health problems may have resulted from Viking living conditions?

Food and diet

Fish and meat formed the basis of most Viking meals. Vikings ate mutton, goat, horse, 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 this particular Viking was not a great vegetable eater, instead living mainly on meat and grains such as bran. The fossilised excrement also contains traces of several hundred parasite eggs, which means that this person's stomach and intestines were full of worms.



Source 21 The simple and typical diet of Vikings



Source 22 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.

longship
a type of ship used by the Vikings to transport warriors on attack-and-raid missions



Source 23 A 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, and 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 learnt about 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 24 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 25 A reconstruction of the inside of a Viking home, showing a woman spinning wool while seated at a weaving loom

7.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Why were Viking women more independent than women in other societies of the time?
5. 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.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. 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, 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.

GO DEEPER

7. 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 a range of sources, explaining what the evidence reveals.

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

7A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 12 marks = 450 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» 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 the geographical features that helped shape Viking society and history

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

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

» Using a range of sources, 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 what the evidence reveals. (8 marks)

Key feature of Viking society	Sources	What the evidence reveals
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. (12 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]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

7B WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION?

7.5 THE EXTENT OF VIKING TRADE AND EXPANSION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the extent of Viking exploration and trade
- explain how and why Viking expansion occurred, including developments in weaponry and shipbuilding technologies.

Silk Roads
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

Viking explorers, raiders and traders travelled great distances over land and sea. Source 3 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 Roads**. Up until the late eighth 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 feared, as they pushed outwards from their various homelands. Source 2 shows the directions the Vikings travelled in raids around Britain, Ireland, and southern and eastern Europe, and the areas they settled and colonised, from the eighth to the eleventh century. It also shows the direction of Viking exploration and settlement around the North Atlantic Ocean.



Source 1 Reproductions of authentic Viking armour, including helmets and chain mail on show at a battle re-enactment in Iceland

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

There are many objective facts when studying history, such as building materials or the language used by a society. However, often other issues, such as motives for particular actions, are unclear, meaning that historians have different interpretations.

Why did the Vikings become raiders?

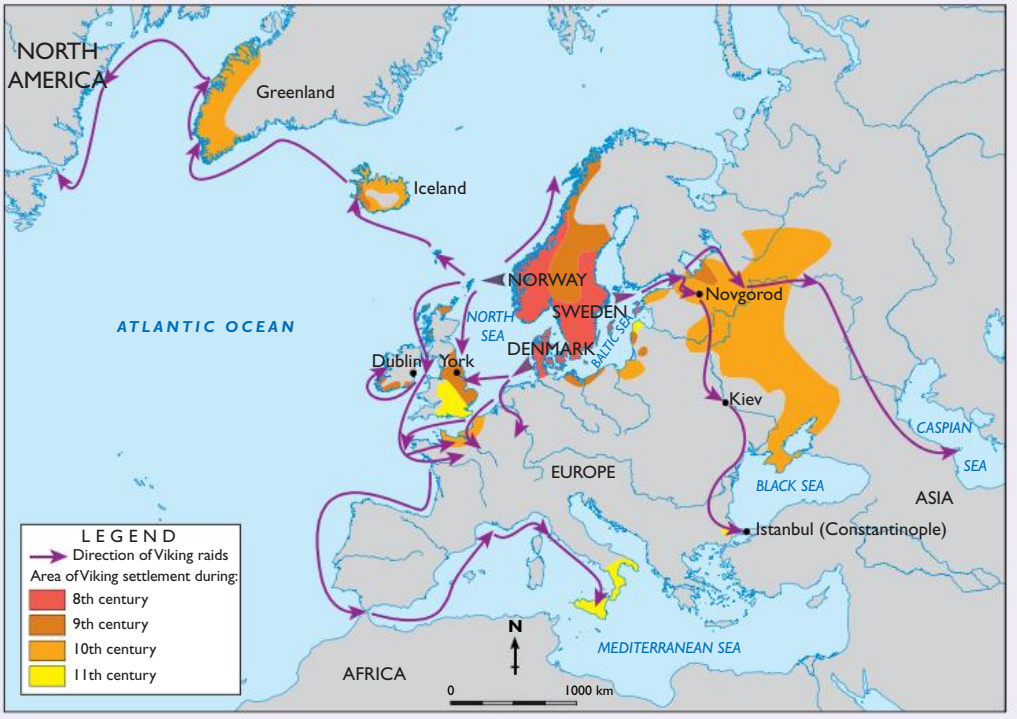
Historians still argue about what motivated the Vikings to change from traders to raiders. Several reasons have been suggested, including the following.

- *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 eighth 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.

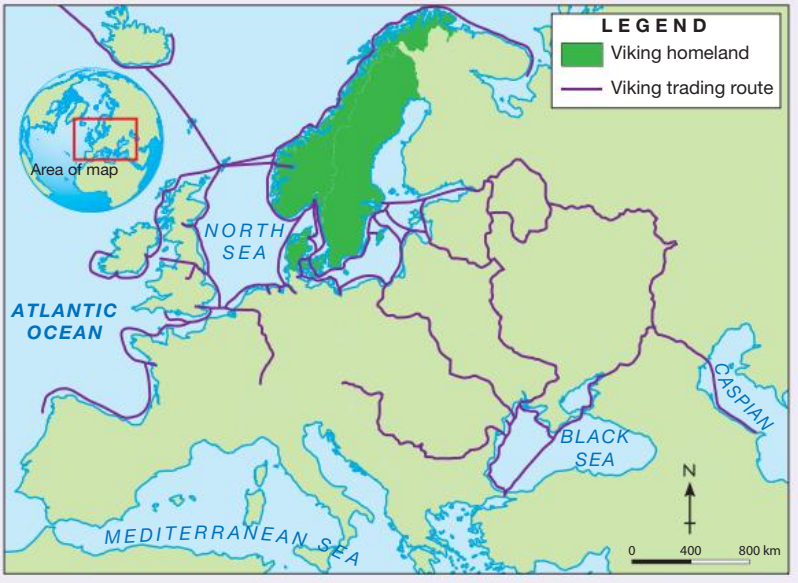
- *Desire for wealth and glory:* Historians also argue that the change in Viking behaviour could have been linked to a desire for quick and easy wealth. *Jarls* and kings could use stolen riches to reward their men and increase their influence and power. Some historians believe the Vikings were also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

7.5 SOURCE STUDY

The extent of Viking trade and expansion



Source 2 The direction of various Viking raids to the east and west from different Viking homelands, and areas settled by Vikings from the eighth to the eleventh century



Source 3 Major Viking trade routes

INTERPRET

1 Use Sources 2 and 3 and an atlas or online map to list five modern-day countries:
   - **a** that are in areas where the Vikings traded
   - **b** where the Vikings established settlements.

2 What do these maps suggest about the extent of Viking trade?

7.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 justify your reasoning.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Vikings were typically raiders, but as they travelled further from home for their attacks, they needed to change their tactics and build settlements. Gradually, the focus of attacks changed from plunder to conquest.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
a collection of stories and poems that tells the history of the Anglo-Saxon people

7.6 VIKING RAIDS AND SETTLEMENTS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **identify the regions conquered and/or settled by the Vikings**
- **explain how and why Viking expansion occurred, including developments in weaponry and shipbuilding technologies**
- **outline what sources reveal about different perspectives on the Vikings.**

According to the ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle***, AD 787 was the year of the first Viking attack on England. Three ships of 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 island of Lindisfarne, off the English coast, was attacked. Viking raiders 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 AD 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 4 Viking weapons



Source 5 The remains of the monastery in Lindisfarne, Northumberland, England

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The penalty for not paying taxes to the Viking rulers in Ireland during the eighth 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.

Source 6

> 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 twelfth century*

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.



Source 7 Viking statue in Jarrow, England, one of the first places in Britain to be attacked by Vikings

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 shiploads 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. In AD 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 7C.

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 AD 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.

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.

Danegeld
a land tax charged in England, paid to Vikings so they wouldn't attack

7.6 SOURCE STUDY

Viking raids

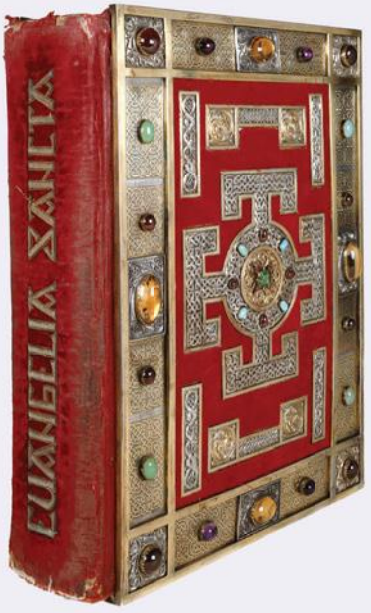
Source 8

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

Source 9

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 11 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

1. Describe the artefacts shown in Sources 10 and 11.
2. What evidence do Sources 8 to 11 provide about what motivated the Vikings' raids in the years AD 841 and AD 842?
3. Suggest why a Viking raider might have left the treasure shown in Source 11 buried underground. Why might he not have returned to retrieve the treasure?

7.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 from the purpose of later raids in the ninth century?
3. Explain why the Viking Rollo was given a large area of land in France.

7.7 VIKING RAIDERS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

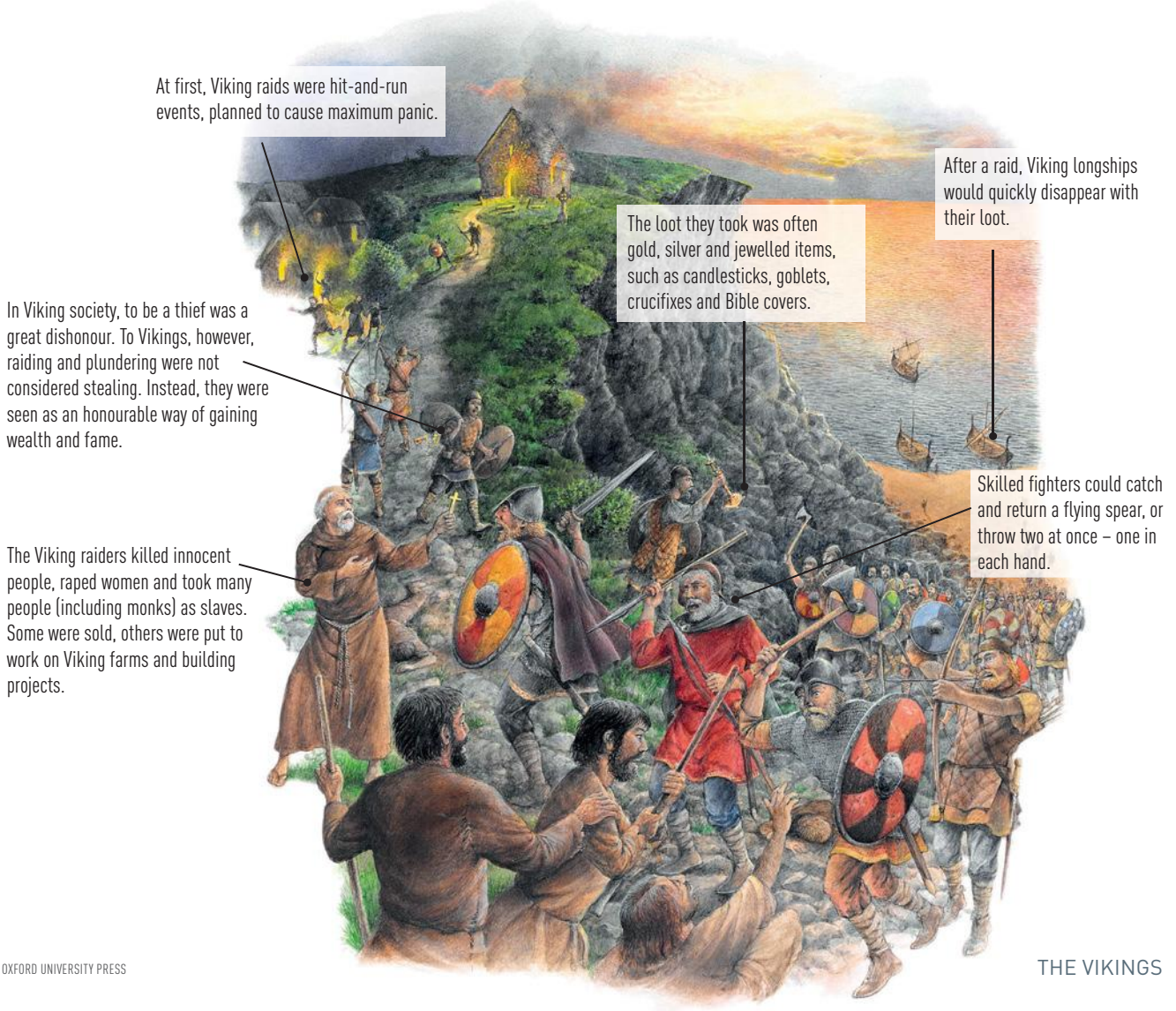
- explain how and why Viking expansion occurred, including developments in weaponry and shipbuilding technologies
- outline what sources reveal about different perspectives on the Vikings.

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 great 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***. 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.

berserker
fierce Viking fighter who fought clad in the skins of bears or wolves (the word *berserker* means 'bear coat')

Source 12 An artist's impression of a Viking raid on an English monastery



Viking *berserkers*

Source 13

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 twelfth-century Danish historian Saxo Grammaticus*

Source 14

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*



Source 15 A twelfth-century chess piece showing a Viking *berserker* biting his shield; this is one of the famous Lewis Chessmen – pieces of a chess set that was found on an island in Scotland. It is thought they belonged to a trader travelling from Norway to Ireland.



Source 16 A sixth-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*.

INTERPRET

1. Using evidence from Sources 13 and 14, describe the behaviour of the *berserkers*.
2. Describe the artefacts shown in Sources 15 and 16. Do they support or contradict the evidence provided in Sources 13 and 14?
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?

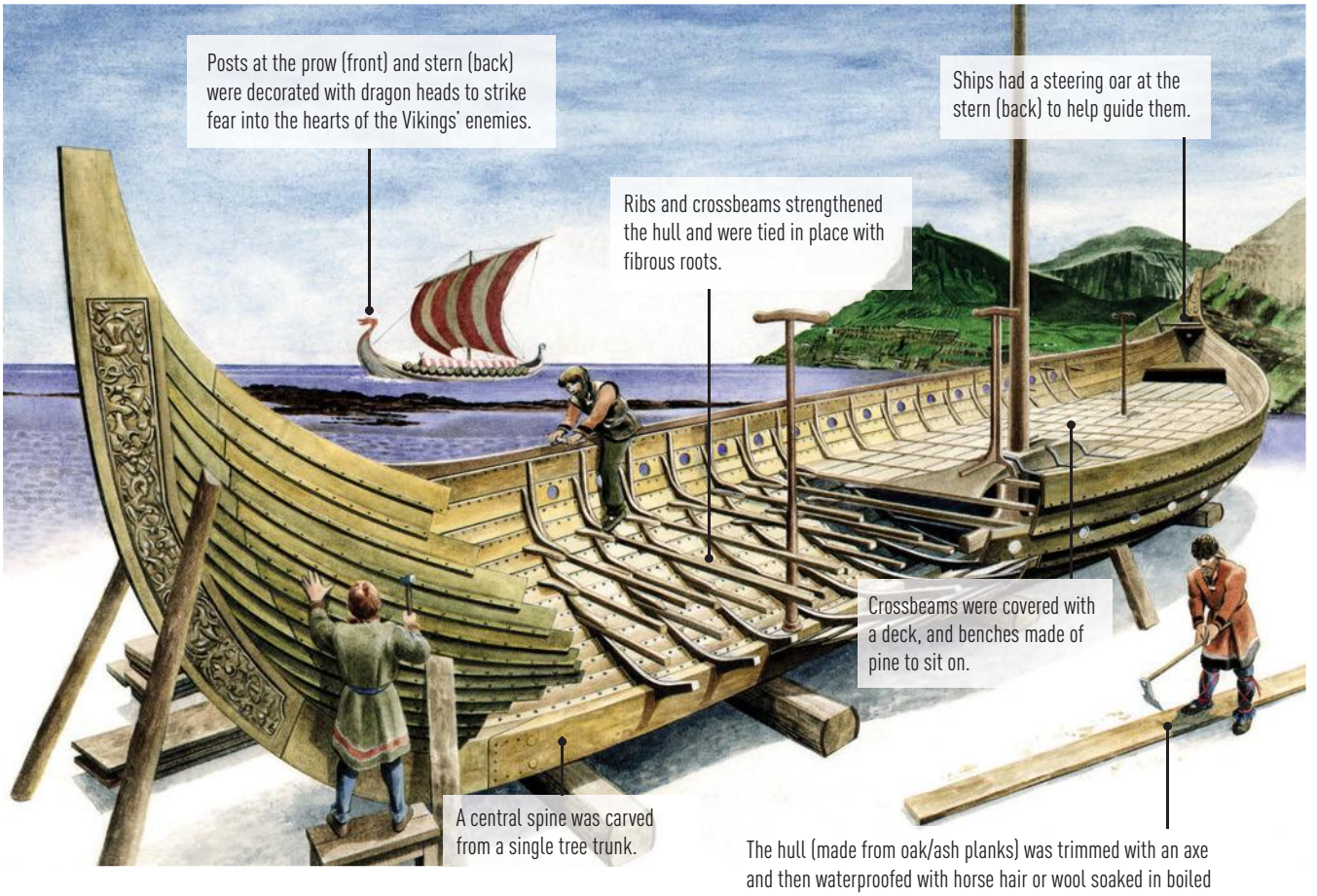
Viking longships: built for raiding

The longships gave Viking raiders great advantages when they travelled long distances and executed lightning raids. Longships were long and thin. They could carry 100 warriors, 68 of whom were oarsmen. Being so light, longships were able to be carried or dragged overland. 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 water-resistant. 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 carved at the prow (front) and stern (back) of a longship, helped to heighten the terror for raid victims. Vikings also believed that the dragon heads would frighten away evil spirits or monsters during sea crossings.

Source 17 An artist's impression of Viking shipbuilders constructing a longship



7.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain how the design of longships helped the Vikings successfully execute their lightning raids.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

2 Write or tell the story of the Viking raid illustrated in Source 12 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.

GO DEEPER

3 Research the Lewis Chessmen. Describe them, including details of the materials used to create the pieces. What do the Lewis Chessmen indicate about Vikings and leisure? How does this compare or contrast with the Vikings as raiders and attackers? Present your findings as an archaeological site report including images.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Independent research can often reveal a different aspect of the topic being studied. It's important to consider what we do know about a society, and then try to find evidence to shed light on the lesser known aspects.

7.8 VIKING EXPLORERS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the regions conquered and/or settled by the Vikings
- discuss the theory that Vikings discovered America.

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 fourteenth 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.

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



SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the ruins and geographic landscape in Source 19.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

Source 19 Remnants of the eastern settlement on Greenland, founded by Erik the Red

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Source 20 The ruins of a Viking church in Greenland

Viking settlements in Iceland and Greenland

Viking travellers reached Iceland in AD 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 AD 930, about 50 000 Vikings were living in Iceland.

Erik Thorvaldsson, known as Erik 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 found 'Greenland', a name he hoped would tempt new settlers. In AD 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 18), 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-thirteenth century. Fewer ships visited the island and so the settlers became more isolated.

7.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What was one of the consequences of the Vikings punishing crime by exile?

2 Why was Greenland eventually abandoned by the Viking settlers?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Explain why Erik the Red called the land he discovered 'Greenland'.

CASE STUDY

Were the Vikings the first Europeans to find and settle North America?

There is a long-held belief that, in 1492, the Italian explorer Christopher Columbus was the first European to reach America and that Spain established the first settlements in the 'New World'. However, this view has been contested among historians and archaeologists, and new knowledge has continued to emerge in recent years to support the view that Vikings beat Columbus to the Americas by almost 500 years.

In AD 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.

Around AD 1000, 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. After landing at Baffin Island and at Labrador, Leif sailed further south to a more hospitable region. The *Greenlanders Saga* (Source 21) 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 21

> ... 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 22 An artist's impression of Leif Eriksson and his crew landing in Newfoundland, Canada, in 1001

Historians cannot say for certain exactly where Leif Eriksson's expedition landed in North America, but most agree it was probably somewhere on the east coast of Canada – possibly in Newfoundland. After Leif returned to Greenland, his brother and other family members made further trips to the settlement he had established. Leif died in 1020, having never visited the settlement again. 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.

Archaeological evidence of Viking settlements in North America

There is conclusive evidence of Viking settlement in Newfoundland, with the discovery in 1963 of the remains of eight sod buildings in a place now called L'Anse aux Meadows. **Radiocarbon dating** of charcoal found at the site indicates it was inhabited around AD 1000.

In 2016, Professor Sarah Parcak used satellite technology to identify a site that her team believed was a Viking settlement at Point Rosee in Newfoundland, an island off the east coast of North America. However, since then, the Point Rosee find has itself been contested. Further investigation of the site has not revealed conclusive evidence for the original claim.

Historians and archaeologists have also speculated about the finds by a Canadian team in 2012 at the southern end of Baffin Island, which lies between Greenland and the Canadian mainland. There are arguments about whether the remains of textiles found there can be linked to the Vikings or were of local Native American origin. This investigation is ongoing.

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



Source 23 The heritage-listed site of L'Anse aux Meadows, in Newfoundland, Canada (with its reconstructed dwellings)

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is Leif Eriksson famous for?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 What was the significance of the archaeologists' discovery at L'Anse aux Meadows?

GO DEEPER

3 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?

7B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS LED TO VIKING EXPANSION?

» Identify the extent of Viking exploration and trade

1 Identify five modern countries that the Viking merchants and explorers reached. (5 marks)

» Identify the regions conquered and/or settled by the Vikings

2 Outline the areas settled by Vikings by the eleventh century. (5 marks)

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

3 Explain why Vikings began to raid surrounding lands in the eighth century. What do you think was the main reason? (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 sources throughout the text, including those below. What do the sources reveal about Viking culture? Consider how the perspective of the person who created a source affects its interpretation. (10 marks)

Source 24

> 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 ninth century*

Source 25

> 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 [/40]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

- **Checkpoint** — A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section
- **Rich task** — A write-in worksheet for the Rich task

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

- **Teacher support** — Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas
- **Answers** — Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

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7C WHICH SOCIETIES DID THE VIKINGS CONQUER AND HOW WERE THE PEOPLE THERE AFFECTED?

7.9 IMPACT OF THE VIKINGS IN ENGLAND

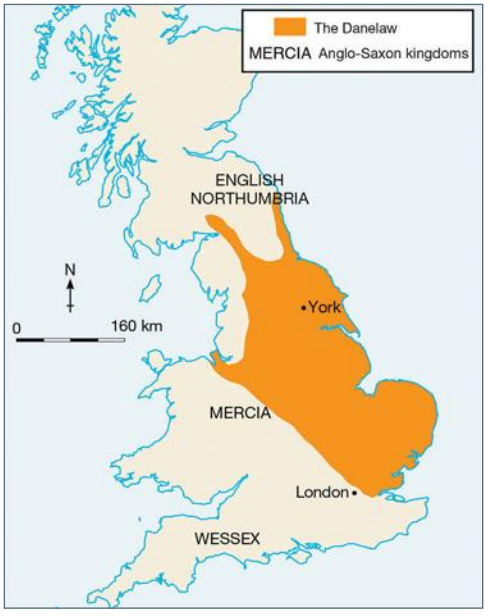
KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

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

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

When the Vikings' Great Army arrived in AD 865, England was a number of separate kingdoms. King Alfred (the Great), who ruled the kingdom of Wessex, resisted attacks from Danish Vikings. By AD 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.



Source 1 The area of the Danelaw in AD 878 and some Anglo-Saxon kingdoms

The last Viking ruler of the Danelaw was Erik Bloodaxe. He was driven from the Viking capital of Jorvik in AD 954, and areas in northern England formerly controlled by the Vikings returned to English rule. Yet rebellions and attacks from Scandinavia continued over the next 100 years. A Danish king, Sweyn Forkbeard, briefly ruled England in 1013–14 before an English king retook the throne. Then in 1016, Canute, the 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.

7.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 Research King Alfred's life, including his family background, role in fighting the Danes, reform of laws and promotion of learning. Write an obituary highlighting his key achievements and successes.

GO DEEPER

4 Research to find out the names and territories of England's kingdoms in the ninth century. Which of these names still exist today?

7.10 THE RACE FOR THE ENGLISH CROWN

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

The year 1066 was marked by several contenders for rule over England. Each felt he had a strong claim to the throne, and each had significant support.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **discuss the significance of the Viking and Norman invasions of England in 1066**
- **investigate and assess the role of significant individuals involved in the expansion of Viking settlement and influence**
- **use sources to identify different perspectives on the chosen individuals.**

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 1). But only a few weeks later, after the Battle of Hastings, England would be ruled by William of Normandy, a descendant of the Viking Rollo.



Source 2 A stained-glass window showing an image of Harald Hardrada (*c.* 1015–66)



Source 3 Duke William of Normandy (1028–87)



Source 4 Edgar Atheling (1052–1125)



Source 5 Harold Godwinson (*c.* 1020–66)

Who should be king?

In 1066, Edward the Confessor was the king of England, but the most powerful man in England was Earl Harold Godwinson, Edward's brother-in-law and most senior advisor. Edward had no children, so when he died, an assembly of nobles (called the Witan) met to decide who would succeed him. There were four candidates, discussed below.

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 extensive experience in battle and was a renowned soldier of his time.

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 claimed 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 and Harold had sworn to support William's claim to the English throne. This story was denied by Harold Godwinson.

Edgar Atheling

Edgar Atheling was born in Hungary, in 1052, to 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 returned to England in 1057 and was 14 when Edward 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 had joined his father in a rebellion against Edward. Some question whether Edward would 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.

Two battles for the throne

The Witan chose Harold Godwinson 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 right winds to enable them to sail their ships north to England 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.

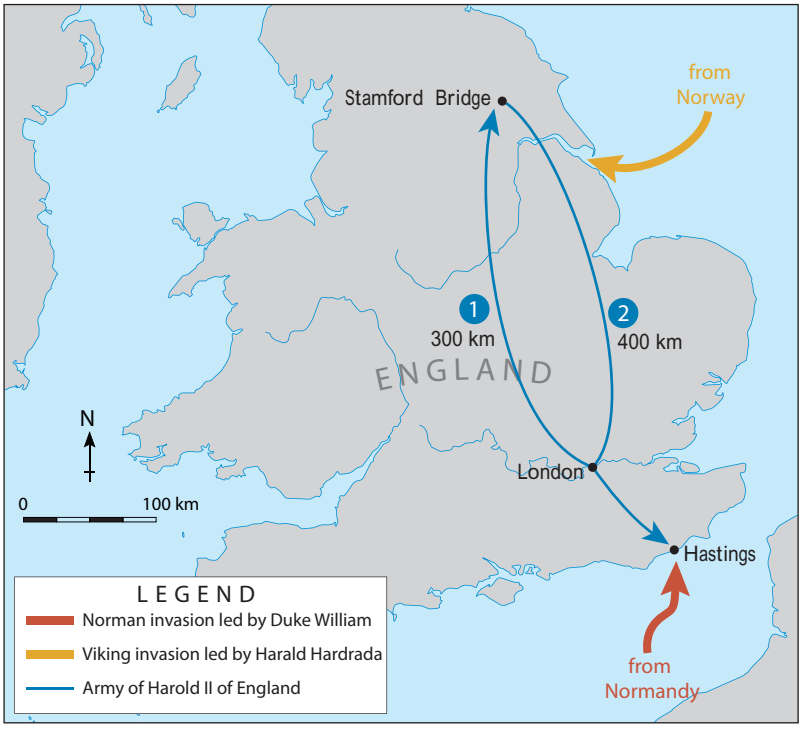
The Battle of Stamford Bridge

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.

As Harold and his army celebrated a great victory, 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

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 9am on 14 October 1066, 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.



Source 6 The sites of the two invasions that King Harold II faced in 1066

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.

During the battle, William had three horses killed under him and 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 while protecting their king. Then Harold himself was killed. Some reports suggest he was hit in the eye by one of the falling arrows; others suggest 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. Norman lords replaced Anglo-Saxon lords and became established as England's ruling class.

7.10 SOURCE STUDY

The Battle of Hastings

Sources 7 and 8 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.



Source 7 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry; Harold swears an oath on holy relics that he will accept William as King of England.



Source 8 The death of Harold, as shown in the Bayeux Tapestry; he is shown plucking an arrow from his eye, and then being killed by a Norman knight.

INTERPRET

1 Whose perspective of the battle does the Bayeux Tapestry represent? Suggest why the scene shown in Source 8 would be significant for them.

2 Why do you think Bishop Odo ordered the story of the battle to be told in pictures rather than words?

7.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create a timeline of the Norwegian (Viking) and Norman invasions of England in 1066.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 What impact did Harald Hardrada's landing in September 1066 have on Harold's defence?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 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.

7.11 THE LEGACY OF THE VIKINGS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- discuss how the Vikings have influenced the world today.

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 twelfth century. Although Vikings no longer spread terror from the northern seas, their influence on European culture continued in a variety of ways.

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.



Source 10 A hobbit house from the movie *The Lord of the Rings*, built into the earth like Viking longhouses



Source 9 A battle scene from the movie *The Lord of the Rings*

Viking influences on the English language

Many words we use today are Norse in origin, such as 'anger', 'scream', 'egg' and 'give'. As we have already seen, the names of the days of the week have their roots in Norse and in Old English. Place names in Normandy, Russia, Ireland and England can tell us where Vikings settled. In areas of England that were 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 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, as noted in the case study, the first Europeans to reach North America.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Vikings and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?



Source 11 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry



Source 12 The restored Viking burial ship from Oseberg; the original ship was built in AD 820 and discovered in Norway in 1903.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Visual sources can explain historical events. Historians often interpret evidence and recreate it in a suitable format for their intended audience.

7.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic to summarise the legacies of the Vikings in the modern world.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

2 Research to find images of scenes from the Bayeux Tapestry (see Source 11). Select three scenes, and write a story in the form of an epic or saga, depicting what is shown. Include details on the clothing and weapons of the two armies, but also include elements of mythology.

GO DEEPER

3 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.

7C

CHECKPOINT

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

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» 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 Norwegian (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 andsignificance of the two invasions of England in 1066. (10 marks)

b Then write a paragraph to discuss the significance of the invasions both for England and for the invaders. (5 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 the expansion of Viking settlement and influence

4 Choose a significant Viking leader or explorer and assess their role during the Viking Age. (5 marks)

» Use sources to identify different perspectives on the chosen individuals

5 a For the person you chose in question 4, identify sources that provide different perspectives about their achievements and the events in their lives. Explain the different perspectives.

b Suggest which sources about their lives historians find most reliable, and outline the interpretation of events in their lives that is most commonly believed. (10 marks)

» Discuss how the Vikings have influenced the world today

6 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]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1 The World Heritage–listed castle in Harlech, Wales, was built in the thirteenth century.

8

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.

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WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE? 8A

In this section you will:

» identify the extent and key sites of medieval Europe

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of medieval European society

» identify the roles and relationships of key groups in medieval European society, using a range of sources

» outline the main features of military and defence systems, or towns, cities and commerce, and describe the way they changed or remained the same

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

» using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals.

CHECKPOINT 8A

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE? 8B

In this section you will:

» describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society

» outline the main features of crime and punishment, and describe the ways in which they changed or remained the same.

CHECKPOINT 8B

WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE? 8C

In this section you will:

» identify and describe some significant developments and/or cultural achievements of medieval Europe, including architecture, art, medieval manuscripts, literature and music

» explain the changing relations between Islam and the West during the medieval period, including the Crusades

» using a range of sources, outline what is revealed about different perspectives on the Crusades

» using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals

» discuss how medieval Europe has influenced the world today.

CASE STUDY: RICHARD I, SALADIN AND THE THIRD CRUSADE

CHECKPOINT 8C

MEDIEVAL EUROPE – A TIMELINE



TIMELINE

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

AD 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

Source 2 An eighth-century depiction of Charlemagne





Source 3 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry showing the army of William, Duke of Normandy, crossing the English Channel to attack England

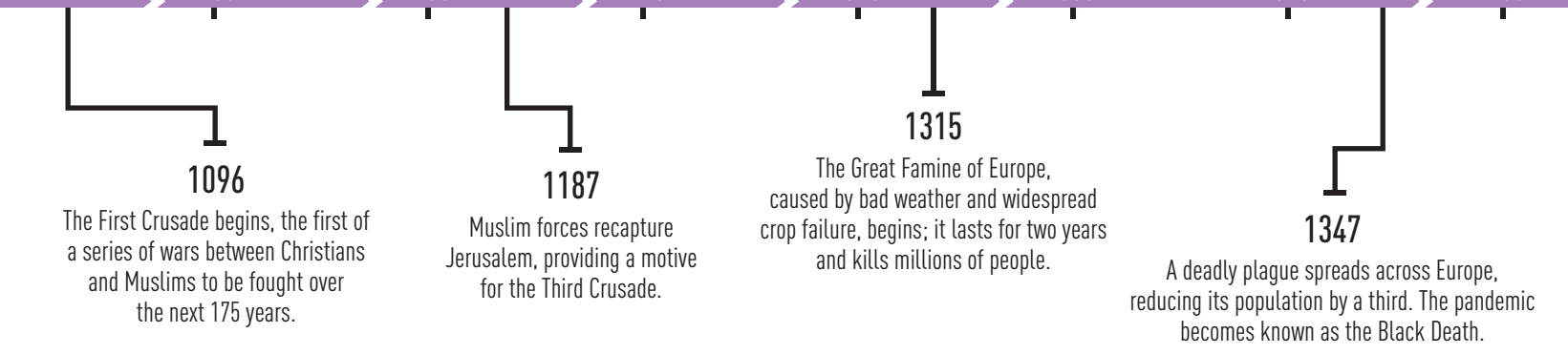


Source 4 A fourteenth-century illustration of the Crusaders' assault on Jerusalem in 1099



Source 5 An artist's impression of King John of England reluctantly signing the Magna Carta





1099
The Crusaders capture the holy city of Jerusalem.

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.

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.

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.

1337
The Hundred Years' War starts between England and France.

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

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

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

8A WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

8.1 THE EXTENT OF MEDIEVAL EUROPE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the extent and key sites of medieval Europe
- using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Despite the collapse of the Roman Empire, kingdoms and empires continued to flourish across Europe. Wars continued, while religion changed.

barbarian
a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders

Franks
a group of Germanic tribes occupying lands in what is now Germany during the third century AD

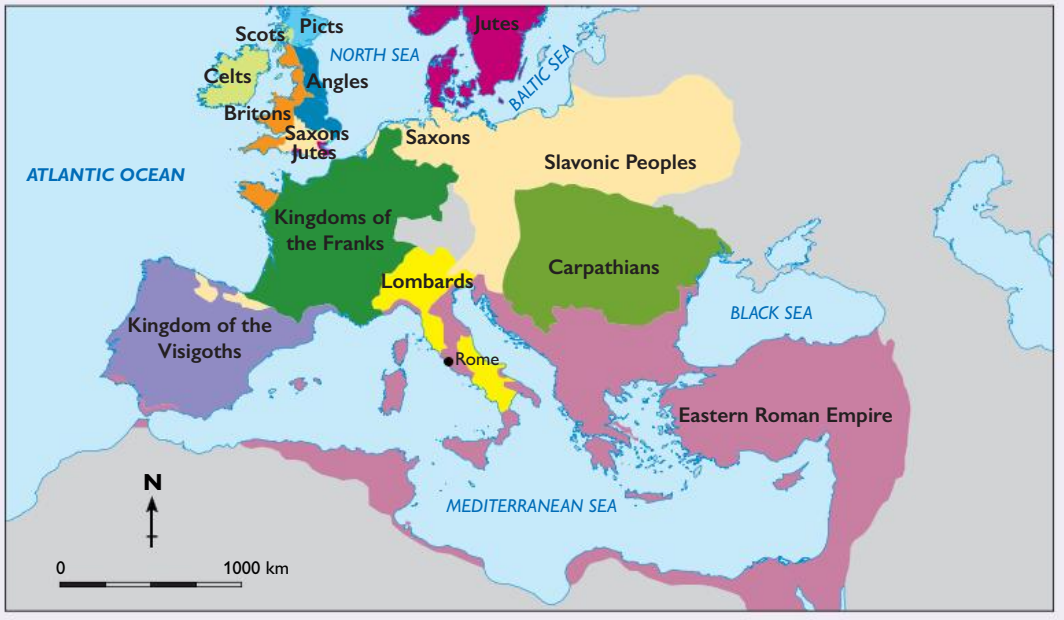
The collapse of the Roman Empire in Western Europe in AD 476 led to the end of a relatively peaceful period. With Rome's armies no longer in control, **barbarian** tribes invaded and settled in previously Roman-held regions. Over time, leaders from these tribes established their own kingdoms and empires. Sources 1 and 2 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**, a group of Germanic tribes from central Europe.

8.1A SOURCE STUDY

Medieval Europe around AD 600 and 1500



Source 1
Europe, c. AD 600

In the sixth century, a Frankish king named Clovis (*c.* AD 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 AD 496, Clovis became a Christian. In the early eighth 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.

Gaul
an ancient region of Europe, now parts of modern-day France, Belgium, the south Netherlands, south-west Germany and northern Italy

Charlemagne: king of the Franks

In AD 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 AD 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'.

Charlemagne's son Louis the Pious and his grandson Charles the Bald ruled an empire increasingly at war with itself. By AD 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 (see Source 4), a member of Charlemagne's close inner circle. His accounts were written at the request of Charlemagne's son Louis.



Source 3 This ninth-century painting shows Charlemagne being crowned Emperor by Pope Leo III.



Source 2 Europe, *c.* 1500

INTERPRET

1 Use Sources 1 and 2 and an atlas or online map 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. Copy and complete the first two columns of the table below.

b Copy and complete the table by identifying the countries or empires that controlled the same territories around 1500.

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

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about how Charlemagne is portrayed in Source 4.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Source 4

> [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 Einhard's Life of Charles the Great

The Normans

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 eleventh century

Saxons
a people that inhabited parts of central and northern Germany from Roman times, many of whom conquered and settled much of southern England in the fifth and sixth centuries

Domesday Book
a detailed record of the extent, value, ownership, and liabilities of land in England, made in 1086 by order of William I

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
a collection of stories and poems that tells the history of the Anglo-Saxon people

From the late eighth 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 AD 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 descendants, William of Normandy, became 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.

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 6). It was so brutal that records made 16 years later in the ***Domesday Book*** showed large areas of the north were still empty.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

'Medieval Europe' is a loose label used to describe a changing, varied collection of stories about the past. As students of history, it is important to remember that it was not a single place or time.



Source 5 A scene from the Bayeux Tapestry, showing William, Duke of Normandy (left) leading his troops at the Battle of Hastings

8.1B SOURCE STUDY

King William's 'harrying of the north'

Source 6

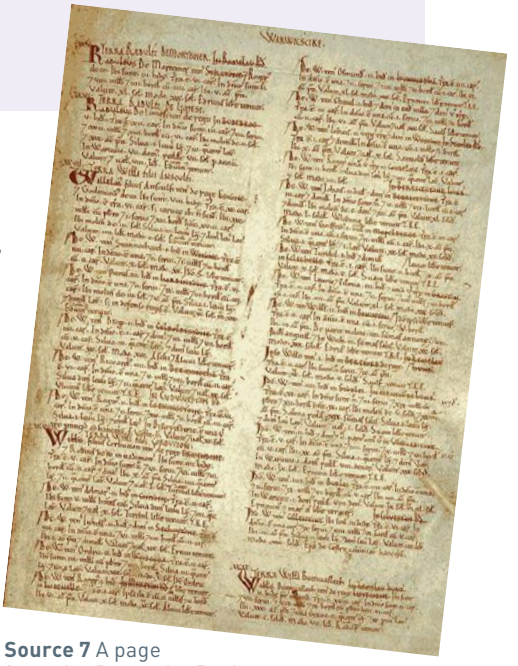
> He cut down [killed] many in his vengeance [for revenge]. He destroyed the homes of others ... In his anger he commanded that all crops and herds, property, and food of every kind should be collected together and burnt, so that the whole region north of the Humber [a river in northern England] might 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

1 According to Source 6, 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 7 A page from the *Domesday Book*

8.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 What was the purpose of the *Domesday Book*?
4 What types of information were gathered by the king's officials for the *Domesday Book*? Discuss how this might be used by historians today.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 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.

GO DEEPER

6 The *Domesday Book* has also been known as the King's 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'.

8.2 THE FEUDAL SYSTEM IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline key cultural, economic and political features medieval European society
- identify the roles and relationships of key groups in medieval European society, using a range of sources.

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

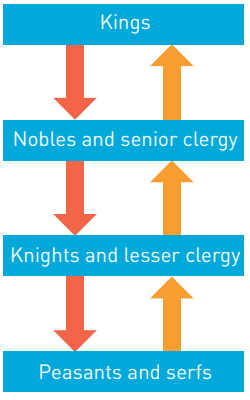
Feudalism was introduced across different parts of Western Europe between the eighth and eleventh centuries. It was a social system based on rights and obligations between different groups, as outlined in Source 8. In Western Europe, the feudal system shaped societies until the early sixteenth century.

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 so they 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.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Feudalism established more than social and political structures – it also ensured loyalty and obedience to the king. With everyone except the king answering to a lord, an effective system of control was in place to maximise the king's wealth and power.



Source 8 In a feudal system, all members of society have both rights and obligations.



Source 9 A twelfth-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 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.

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 (a plot of land)

Social groups in the feudal system

The king

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.



Source 10 The king was at the top of the feudal hierarchy.

The nobles

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. A noble 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.



Source 11 The nobles were granted lands by the king.

The sub-tenants and knights

The sub-tenants kept some lands for themselves, known as the demesne. 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 their 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.



Source 12 Knights offered military support to the nobles.

The peasants and serfs

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 13 Peasants and serfs supplied most of the physical labour and produced food. They were the lowest ranked in the feudal system.

8.2 SOURCE STUDY

Social roles under feudalism

Source 14

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.

Barbara Tuchman, A Distant Mirror: The Calamitous Fourteenth Century, *Papermac, 1989, p. 172*



Source 15 A medieval illustration 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

1. Describe the scene in Source 15, and identify the social groups that are depicted. Explain your reasoning.
2. What are the strengths of Source 14 for understanding the feudal system in medieval Europe?
3. What does Source 14 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.

8.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Define the following terms: vassal, fief, manor lands, demesne.
2. 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?
3. Copy Source 8 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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Why did peasants agree to work on a lord's manor and pay him taxes?
5. Explain why knights were an important group in medieval society.

8.3 THE MEDIEVAL CASTLE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of military and defence systems, or towns, cities and commerce, and describe the way they changed or remained the same.



Source 16 Chepstow Castle in Gwent, Wales, is the oldest surviving stone castle in Britain. Building of Chepstow started in 1067.

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.

Developments in castle design

Motte-and-bailey castles	Early stone castles	Concentric castles
		
Source 17 Motte-and-bailey castles were made of wood.	**Source 18** Castles made of stone offered more protection than the older castles made of wood.	**Source 19** Concentric barriers meant layers of protection against attackers.
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 (called a palisade) 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.	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 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.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Castles underwent many design changes through the medieval period. As technology evolved, so too did castles. Several key terms describe different parts of castles, equipping historians with language to sequence developments across time.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the developments in castle design and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

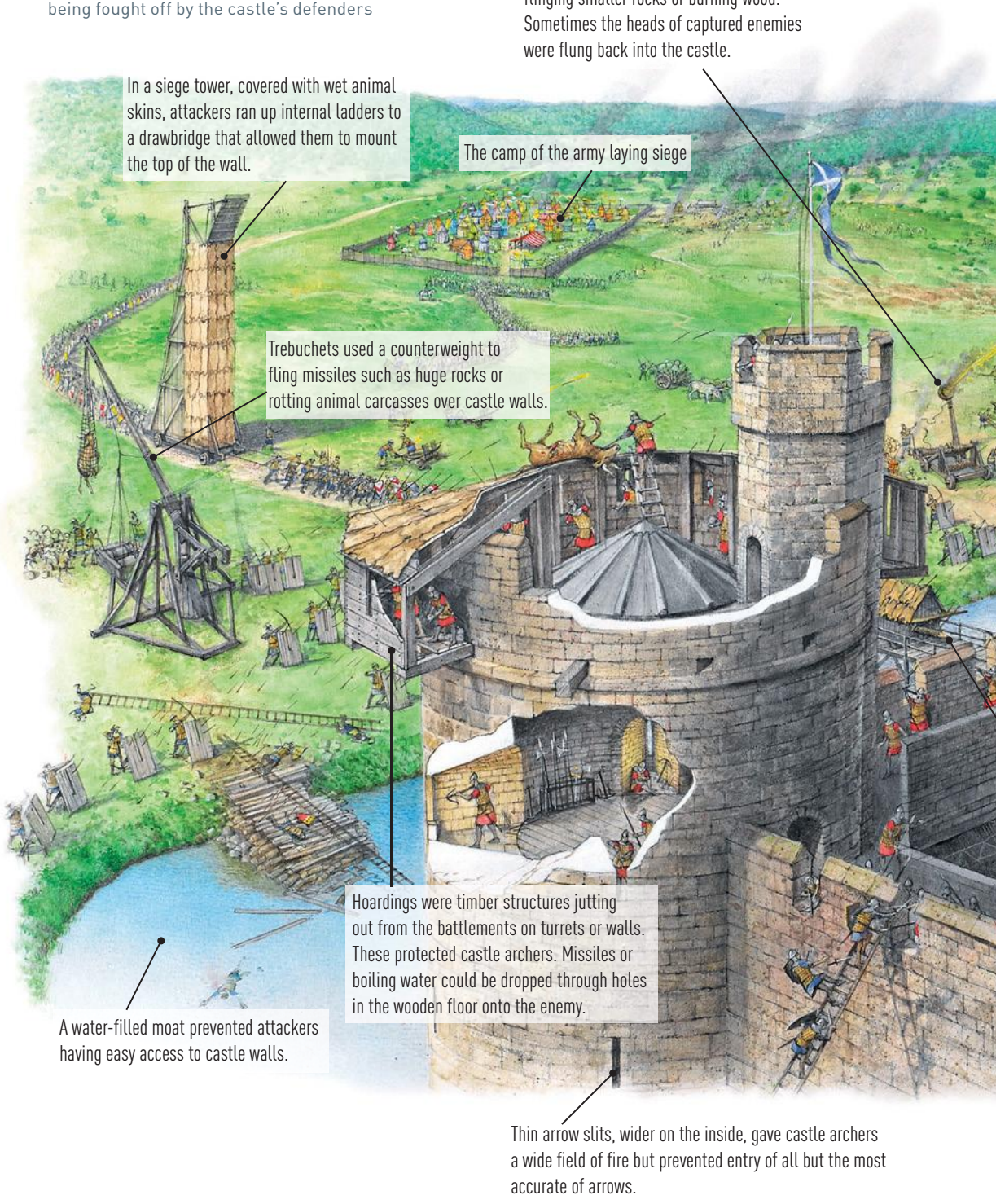
When a hostile army was approaching a castle and a siege seemed likely, servants and villagers who had gone there for protection would often be expelled from the castle to make food supplies last longer for the defenders. Depending on the mood of the approaching attackers, these people might be allowed to leave safely or might be slaughtered!

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.

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.

Source 20 An artist's impression of an attacking army laying siege to a castle, and being fought off by the castle's defenders



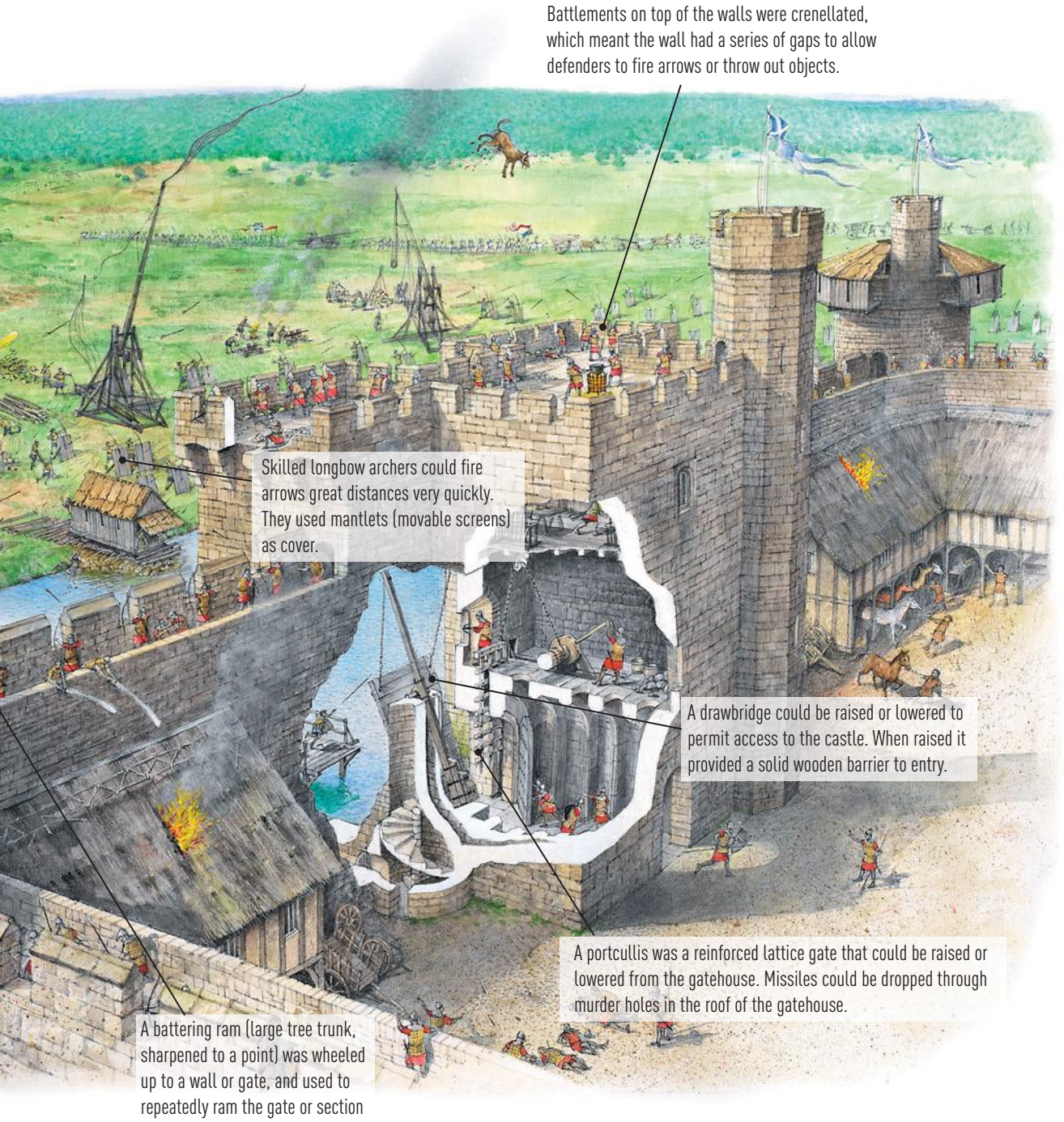
8.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. 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. Explain why each of these requirements would be important.



8.4 KNIGHTS AND MEDIEVAL WARFARE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline the main features of military and defence systems, or towns, cities and commerce, and describe the way they changed or remained the same.**

cavalry
soldiers who fight on horseback

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.

chain mail
a form of armour made up of hundreds of interlinking metal rings

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 40 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 are the familiar 'suits of armour'. Only the very rich could afford a full suit of armour, such as that shown in Source 21. Others wore chain mail reinforced with plate armour at the points where the knight was most likely to be struck in battle.

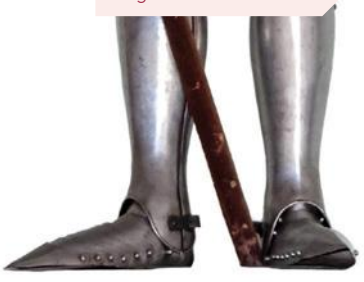


1. A metal helmet with a cloth padding worn beneath the helmet
2. A metal hood laced to the helmet; chain mail shirt; a breast plate; a padded undergarment that helped to absorb the shock of heavy blows
3. Plate armour on the arms and leather gloves or iron gauntlets (gloves)
4. Metal leggings; knee-guards; and overlapping layers of metal covering the feet

Source 21 Armour worn by medieval knights from the 1300s

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.



The mounted knight in battle

Source 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.
>
> *George Holmes (ed.),* Oxford Illustrated History of Medieval Europe, *OUP, 1988, p. 122*



Source 23 An illustration from a French manuscript, from the twelfth or thirteenth century, showing a battle between knights

INTERPRET

1. Read Source 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 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 22 can you identify in Source 23?

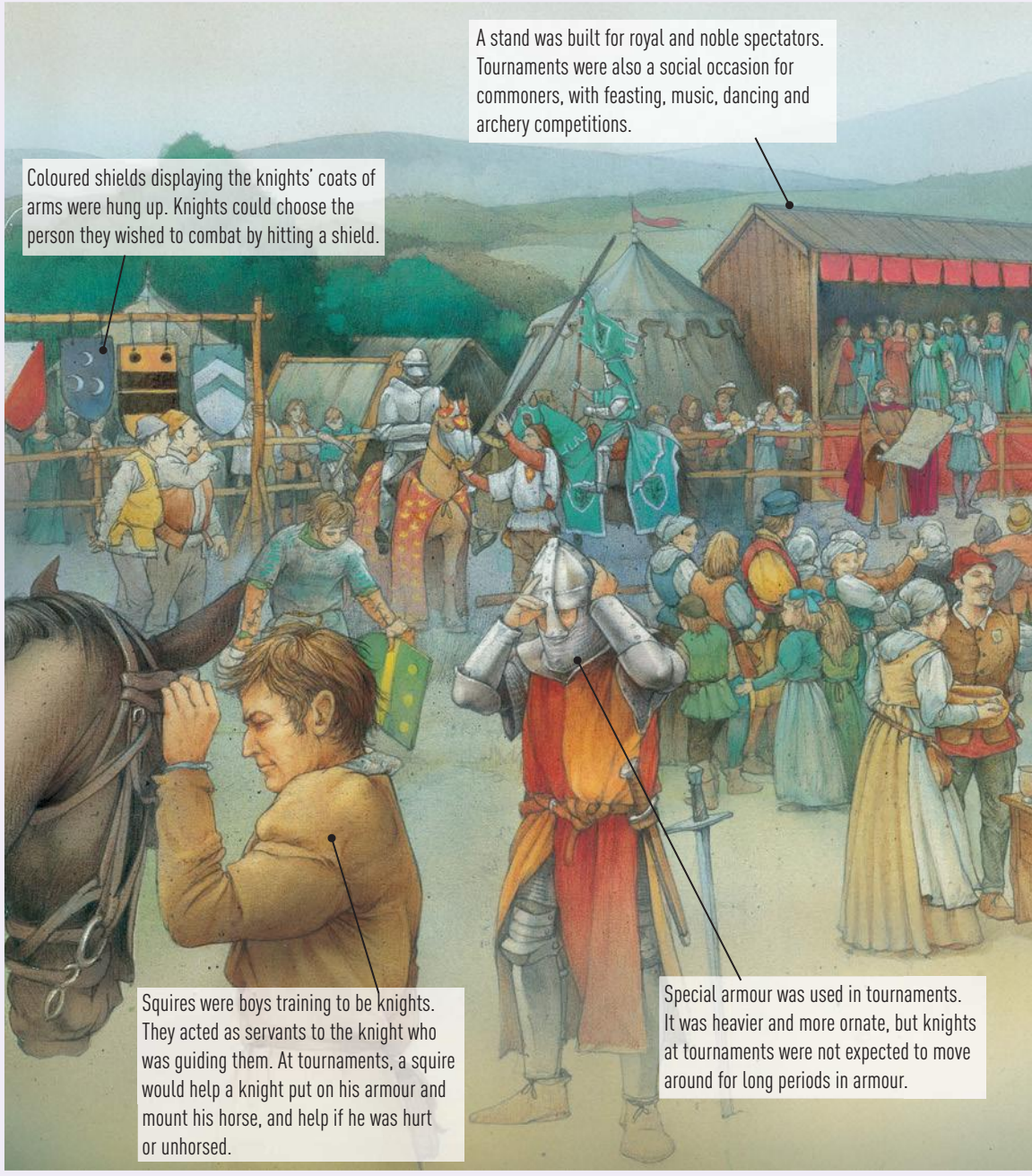
Tournaments

Tournaments were held so that knights could practise and display their fighting skills. The earliest tournaments in the eleventh century took the form of wild 'battles' between two teams of up to 100 knights. Fighting took place in the open countryside, using 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 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.

joust
a medieval sporting contest in which two opponents on horseback (often knights) fought with wooden poles known as lances

8.4B SOURCE STUDY

A medieval tournament



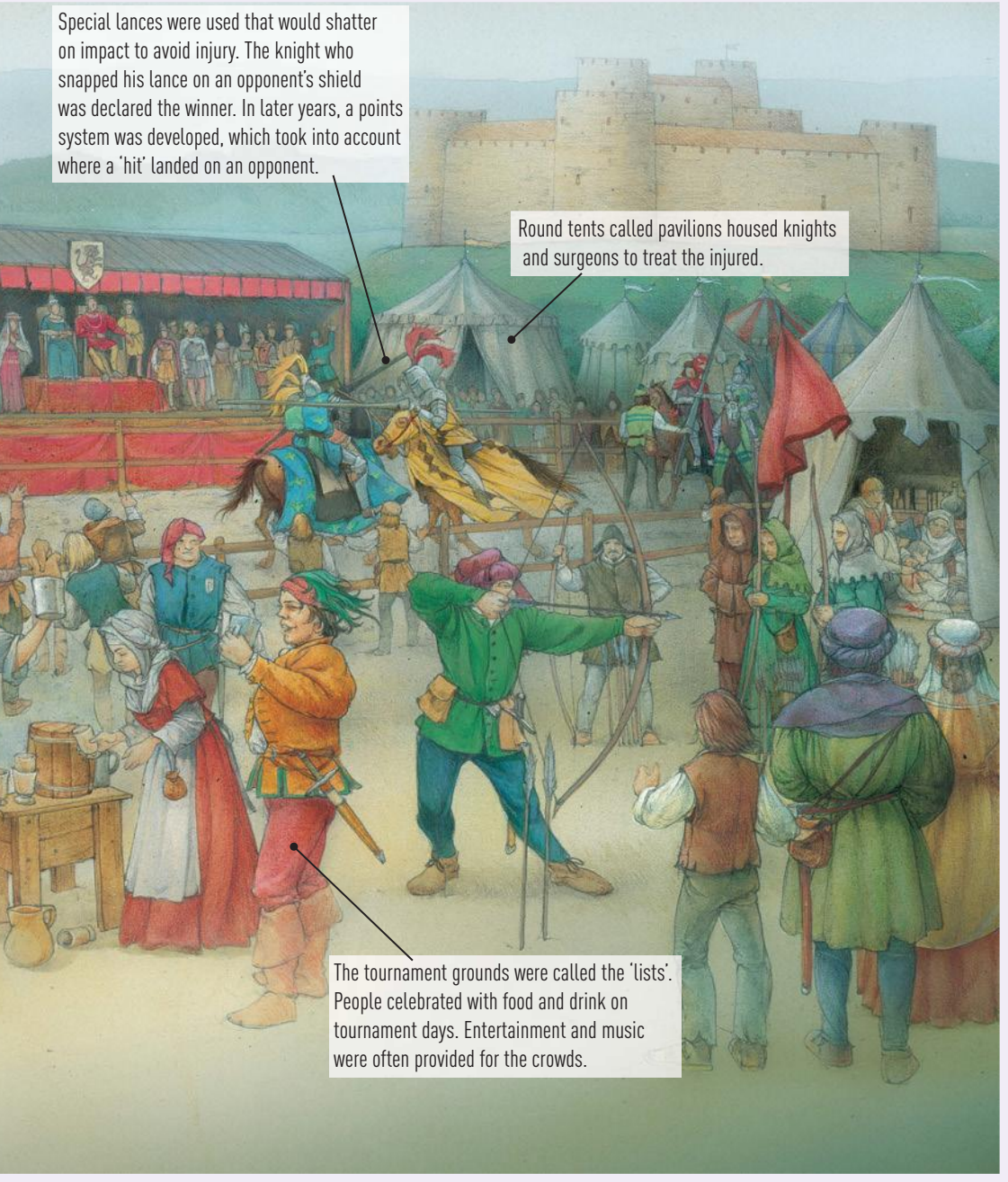
Source 24 A modern artist's impression of a medieval tournament

The changing nature of medieval warfare

The change from chain mail to full-body armour had several flow-on effects. It made shields less important. Consequently, swords and ways of using them also began to change. Knights could use larger and heavier swords, carried using both hands, to bash their opponents rather than cut or stab. Other weapons, shown in Source 25, could also be used more easily. The age of the mounted knight came to an end in the fifteenth 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.



Source 25 An illustration of various medieval weapons



INTERPRET

1 What modern events does the illustration in Source 24 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 each society that sit in 'VIP boxes'.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

When the French captured English archers, they would cut off the archer's first two fingers. This meant that they could not fire their bows and would be useless in battle. Therefore, 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.

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.

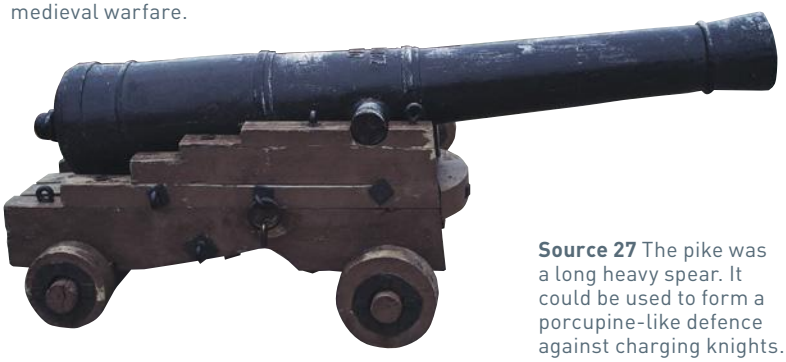
A skilled archer armed with a longbow could shoot an arrow every few seconds. These arrows would travel over a long distance. A great advantage for English armies in this period was the quality of their longbow archers. At the battles of Poitiers and Agincourt, fought in the fourteenth and fifteenth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

Gunpowder

Gunpowder reached Europe from China during the thirteenth or fourteenth 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 muskets could kill charging knights at a distance, which meant that armies could fight each other without getting close. 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.

As a result of these changed methods of warfare, knights became less important. By the middle of the sixteenth century, knights in armour were still fighting in tournaments but were 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.

Source 26 Gunpowder, used with cannons and muskets, changed medieval warfare.





Source 27 The pike was a long heavy spear. It could be used to form a porcupine-like defence against charging knights.

8.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic 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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 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? Devise a modern code of chivalry.

GO DEEPER

3 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?

8.5 THE GROWTH OF TOWNS, CITIES AND COMMERCE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of military and defence systems, or towns, cities and commerce, and describe the way they changed or remained the same.

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.

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

A variety of trades and crafts emerged in towns. People working in specialist occupations 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. Members paid a fee to be in a guild, and in times of hardship or sickness would be taken care of by the guild. Townswomen had more independence than women in villages. As well as looking after the household, they helped their husbands in their trade or craft. Sometimes, a widow took over her husband's trade after his death.

Over time, many towns grew into cities. By 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 expanded in towns across Europe, moneylending, banks and financial record-keeping increased. Loans allowed people to buy and trade more goods, which boosted the economies of towns. Some merchant families became so wealthy they lent money to kings and royal families. Many invested in the construction of large public buildings, palaces and works of art for their towns.

As towns became larger, townspeople became wealthier, and they began to want more independence from the nobles who 'owned' town land. 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.

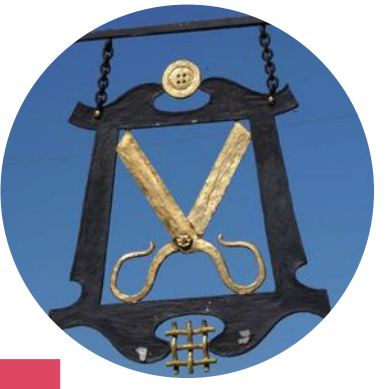
SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The establishment of castles meant people were grouped in one area around them, forming a town. This created a need for more services and trade, which in turn attracted more people. Growth of towns and cities became a constant cycle.

guild
group of people all working in the same trade (e.g. butchers, tailors, cobblers) who band together for their common interests

pilgrim
a person who travels to a place of religious significance in the hope this will see prayers answered or sins forgiven



Source 28 A medieval guild sign indicating a tailor's shop

8.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain why towns started growing across medieval Europe.
2 Why would a peasant prefer to resettle and live in a town?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 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.

8.6 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CHURCH IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **identify ways in which the Catholic Church influenced life in medieval Europe.**

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

In medieval Europe, the Church controlled every aspect of society. There was no separation between religion and government, meaning that Church leaders had significant influence over kings and feudal lords.

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 most powerful Christian church at the time, and the only church in Western Europe.



Source 29
An illustration from a manuscript, *c.* 1500, showing the common beliefs held in medieval Europe about the fate of people who had not earned a place in heaven

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the illustration shown in Source 29.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

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. In general, there seems to have been 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 Catholic 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 AD 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.



Source 30 Thirteenth-century stone church, Sweden

By the middle of the eleventh century, the Church was a well-organised hierarchy. Each country had a number of archbishops and bishops, and these powerful men were advisers of kings. This power extended to determining how and why history was recorded. Bishops had the authority to **excommunicate** any Christian who did not follow Church law, and it was believed that this meant 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: 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 compulsory donation was known as a **tithe**. In most parishes, it was also the Church that established the schools.

excommunicate
to officially exclude a person from being part of the Catholic Church community and all that this entailed from a spiritual point of view (e.g. being able to participate in communion, confession)

tithe
a tax paid to support the Church and clergy (equivalent to one-tenth of a person's annual produce or earnings)

8.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What is a tithe and why would people be willing to pay it?
2. What was the purpose of paintings such as the one shown in Source 29?
3. Give an example of the pope's authority among kings and princes.

GO DEEPER

4. 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 from 1337 to 1453
   - the Black Death, the plague that reached Europe in 1347.

   Use sources to describe the nature of your chosen event, and how it affected both ordinary people and society as a whole, including the role of religion in society's response.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians gather facts about people, places and events, but also analyse the relationship between their area of research and other factors in society. The significance of religion in medieval Europe means that historians can consult Church records to find out more about events of the past, whereas many churches today would provide limited information on news and current events.

8A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT WERE THE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES ACROSS MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Identify the extent and key sites of medieval Europe

1 List the main groups that ruled Europe around AD 600. (5 marks)

2 How had borders of European kingdoms and empires changed by around 1500? Include reference to important cities. (5 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of medieval European society

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)

» Identify the roles and relationships of key groups in medieval European society, using a range of sources

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

5 Use a labelled diagram to show the feudal rights and obligations that different groups in society owed to each other in medieval times. (5 marks)

» Outline the main features of military and defence systems, or towns, cities and commerce, and describe the way they changed or remained the same

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

7 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)

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

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

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

» Using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals

10 Identify a significant individual of medieval Europe. 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 [/70]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

8B WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

8.7 DAILY LIFE FOR NOBLE FAMILIES

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Life in medieval Europe was difficult for many. A person's social class at birth determined whether their family owned land or worked on it. Wealthier families enjoyed luxuries that differentiated them from the peasants and serfs working their land.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the people and activities shown in Source 1.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society.**

Life in Norman castles centred on the keep, the main fortified building (see Source 2). A typical day for a nobleman's family began at sunrise. Servants would already be 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, the 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 the kitchen staff and young pages. Her personal servants were her ladies-in-waiting.

8.7 SOURCE STUDY

A nobleman's life

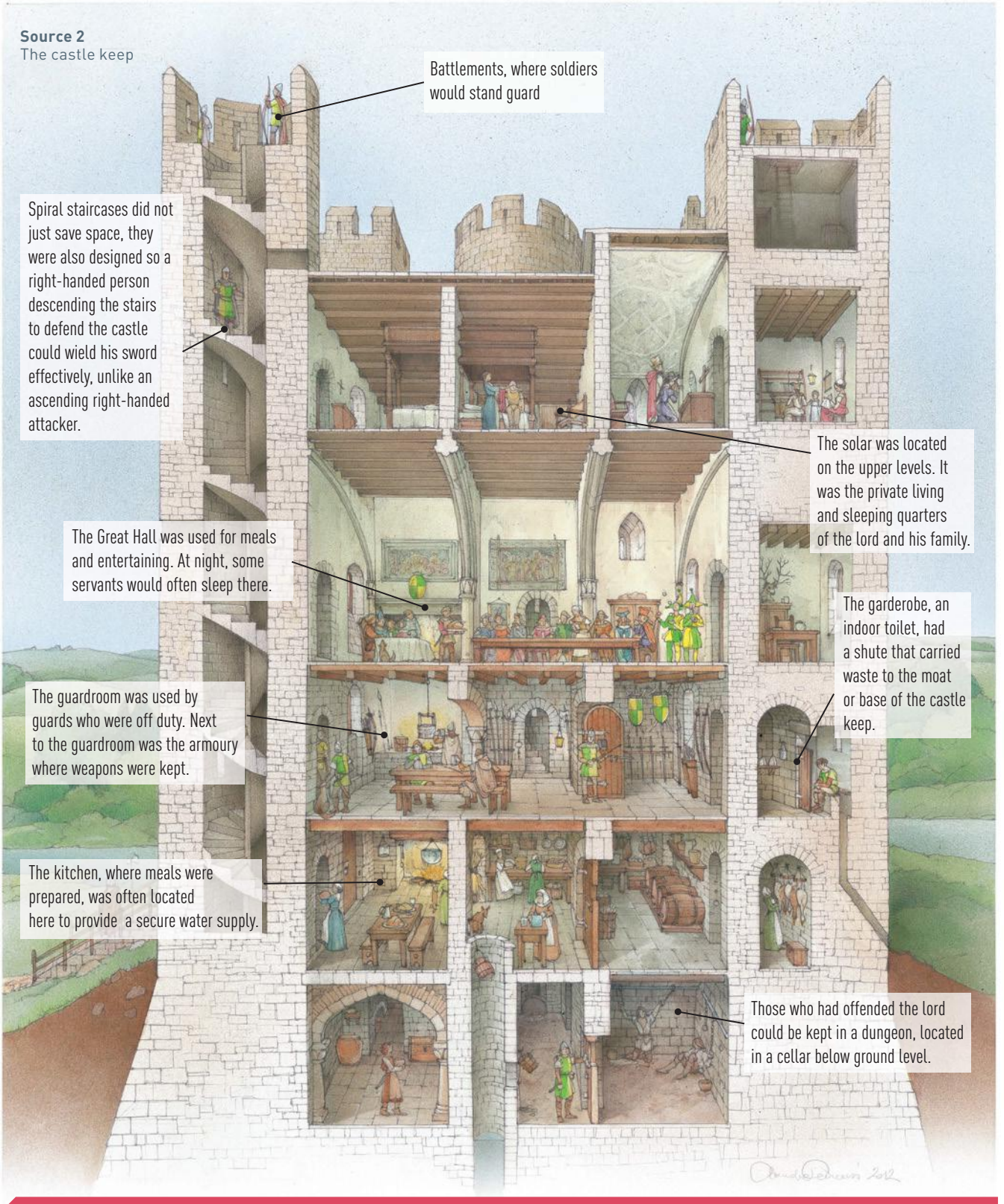


Source 1 A fourteenth-century illustration depicting a hunting party of nobles

INTERPRET

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

Source 2
The castle keep



8.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4. Imagine you are a member of a noble family. Write a letter to friend in another country, inviting them to stay with you. Outline the key features of the home they will enjoy and activities you'll do when they visit.

8.8 LIFE ON A FEUDAL MANOR

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

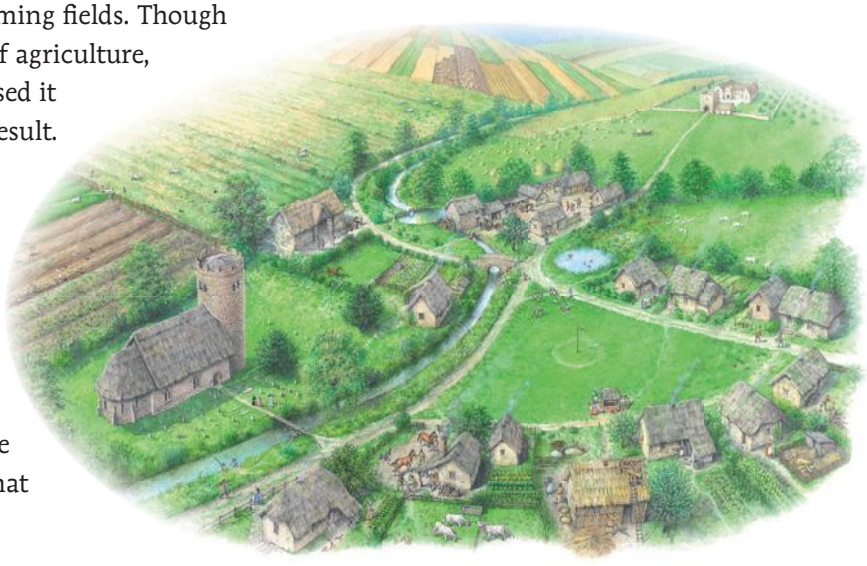
- describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society.

In medieval Europe, about 90 per cent of the population lived and worked in small villages on a lord's manor lands. 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 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 fertilise 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.



Source 3 A modern artist's impression of a typical feudal manor

Source 4 Occupations and roles of people living on a feudal manor

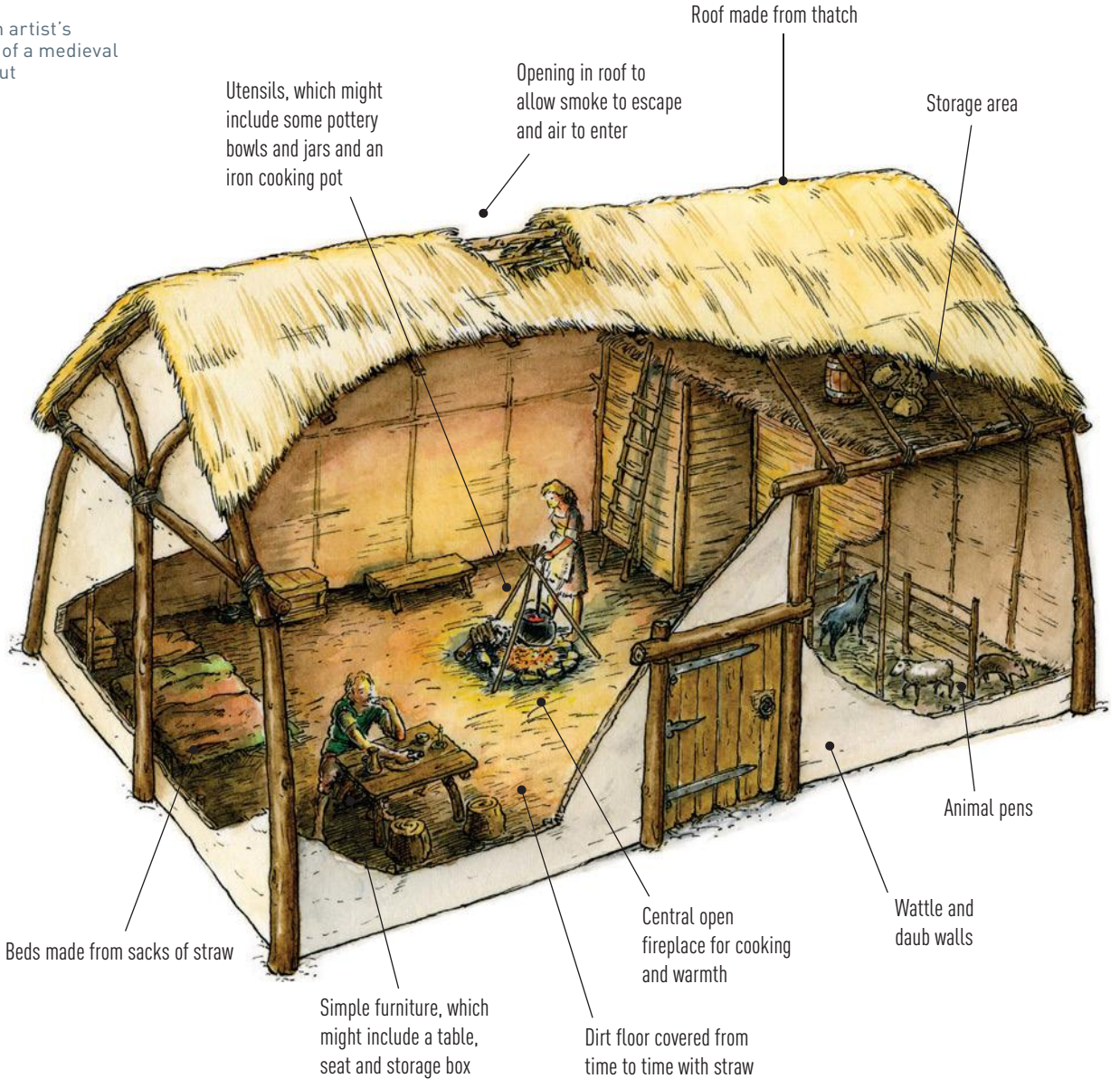
Steward	Appointed by the lord of the manor to keep the accounts, preside at the manor courts when the lord was away, and organise farm work on the manor
Bailiff	Appointed by the lord to manage the farm work in the village
Reeve	One of the peasants, elected each year for this difficult and unpopular job: to make sure people were at work on time, carried out their duties, and gave their proper share of produce to the lord
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, keeping 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	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 that could be folded away after meals, a chest for storage and straw-filled mattresses for sleeping. 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 feed 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.

Source 5 An artist's impression of a medieval peasant's hut



8.8 SOURCE STUDY

A peasant woman's life



Source 6 A thirteenth-century illustration of a peasant woman milking a cow, in England



Source 7 A fourteenth-century illustration showing a woman throwing corn to hens and chickens



Source 8 A fourteenth-century illustration of a woman spinning wool

INTERPRET

1. What do Sources 6 to 8 reveal about the role of women in medieval Europe?
2. What are the limitations of these sources for historians studying women in medieval Europe?
3. 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.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Sources are great for suggesting information, but historians have to draw conclusions and infer meaning about the past. It is important for historians to consider the origin and purpose of sources to be aware of any bias they might contain.

8.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Based on the information in the text, label a sketch or copy of Source 3 to show as many features of a feudal manor as possible, including people working at their occupations.
2. What was the role of the miller and how was he paid for his work?
3. Draw a Venn diagram detailing the similarities and differences between the daily tasks for peasant men and peasant women.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Which role in society would have been the most difficult in terms of physical labour? Justify your response.
5. Which role in society would have been the most difficult in terms of maintaining strong relationships in the town or village? Provide a reason for your answer.
6. Why was it important to leave some fields fallow?

8.9 LIFE IN MEDIEVAL TOWNS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society.**

STRANGE BUT TRUE

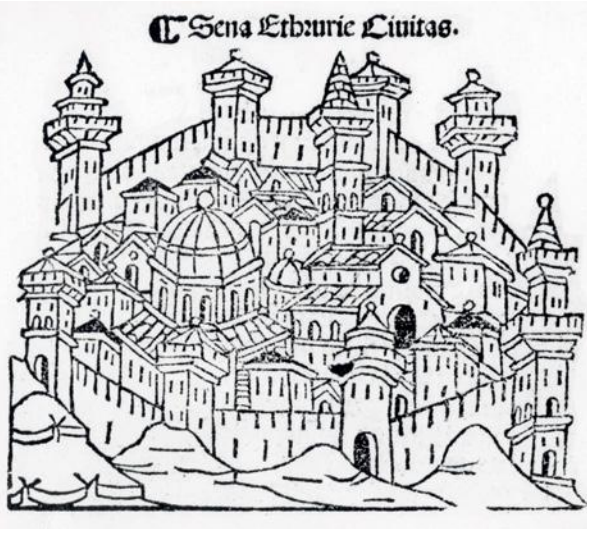
When emptying urine out of an upper window, householders shouted the warning *Gardez-l'eau* (French for 'Look out for the water'). In English, this soon changed to 'Gardey loo', which gives us one of today's slang words for a toilet – the loo!

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 storeys 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.



Source 9 A narrow street in the medieval town of Siena, Italy



Source 10 A woodcut from the fifteenth century showing a view of Siena, Italy

Fire was also a constant danger in a medieval town, since buildings were made of wood until the fourteenth 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.

8.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is known about medieval towns?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

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

GO DEEPER

3 Conduct research to create a photo montage of modern-day images of Siena, a city that has preserved many of its medieval characteristics.

- **a** Identify key landmarks of Siena which are shown in Source 10 and still exist.
- **b** 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.

8.10 MEDIEVAL CHILDHOOD AND EDUCATION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society.

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 thirteenth 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. Girls would learn sewing and cooking skills from their mothers, and may also be required to help on the land in busy times. 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 male students could later attend university. Universities such as Oxford and Cambridge in England and La Sorbonne in Paris were all founded between the eleventh and thirteenth 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** to a lord. He would also learn to sing, dance, play a musical instrument, and wrestle and fight. At the age of 14, 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 learnt 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. In towns, boys could also become apprentices, at the age of 10, to learn a trade from a master craftsman.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Education as we understand it today was only considered important for some children in society. Children's chances of receiving an education depended on their gender and social status. There was an expectation that fate couldn't be changed, so the view by most was that education was not required for all people.

page
a boy in the personal service of a knight or lord



Source 11 An illustration from an early-fifteenth-century French manuscript, decorated with gold or silver; it shows a school lesson.

8.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 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.

8.11 MEDIEVAL FOOD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society.**

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 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; different sweet and savoury dishes were all laid out together.

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.

trencher
a thick slice of bread used as a plate or platter

Source 12 Eating habits of the rich and poor in medieval Europe

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



8.11 SOURCE STUDY

Medieval banquets



Source 14 A fifteenth-century illustration of a banquet

Source 15

> 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.
>
> *Robbie L. Cranch, 'Herbs for a Medieval Feast',*
> The Herb Companion, *December/January 1991, pp. 14–23*

INTERPRET

1. Source 15 describes a twelfth-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 14. Based on the information in the text and your observations, list the similarities and differences between medieval and modern banquets.

8.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What were spices 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.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4. Design a menu fit for a king at a medieval banquet.

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.

8.12 MEDIEVAL CRIME AND PUNISHMENT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of crime and punishment, and describe the ways in which they changed or remained the same.

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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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

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 16). 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.



Source 16 A common punishment for a minor crime was being put in the stocks, usually in a public place for humiliation. These medieval stocks are still on display in the centre of Woodstock, a town in England.

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** or witchcraft were dealt with by Church courts. The king's court heard charges of **treason**. 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 he was still alive, and then pulling out his intestines while he watched. Finally, his body was cut into four pieces.

heresy
doing or saying something that is in serious conflict with the teachings of an established religion, particularly the medieval Catholic Church

treason
the act of betraying one's own country or ruler

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:

- The accused carried a red-hot iron bar for several paces, or plunged 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.
- The accused was 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, or the person they represented, was deemed to be the person who was telling the truth.

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

8.12 SOURCE STUDY

Medieval punishments



Source 17 A fifteenth-century illustration of a beheading



Source 18 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 19 A fourteenth-century illustration showing a monk and a nun in stocks

INTERPRET

1 Examine Sources 17 and 18. What possible crimes could lead to these punishments?

2 What do the punishments shown in Sources 18 and 19 have in common?

Changes to the medieval justice system

By the twelfth 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 thirteenth 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 the 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'. The Magna Carta also abolished trial by ordeal.

8.12 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What was the purpose of punishment in medieval society?
2. Which medieval crimes are still considered crimes today? Which are not?
3. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of the introduction of trial by jury.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Why do you think beheadings were reserved for punishment of people in the upper ranks of society?
5. Were any of the methods used for trial by ordeal able to fairly determine guilt or innocence?

GO DEEPER

6. The ducking stool was a common punishment for women. Research to find out what this involved, and the accusations that could lead to this punishment.
7. 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?



8B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Describe everyday life of men, women and children in medieval European society

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 (20 marks)

2 How did life vary depending on gender and social status? (10 marks)

» Outline the main features of crime and punishment, and describe the ways in which they changed or remained the same

3 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)

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

5 Use Source 20 to explain the principle of a 'trial by ordeal'. Give other examples of trial by ordeal. (5 marks)

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



Source 20 A painting from 1471 showing a woman undergoing a trial by ordeal to prove the innocence of her dead husband

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

» 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
A write-in worksheet for the Rich task

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

8C WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?



Source 1 A stained-glass window in the Notre Dame Cathedral, in Paris; the images in the windows were used to convey biblical stories and religious messages, at a time when few people could read.

illuminated manuscript
a document written by hand, decorated with gold, silver or colourful designs



Source 2 A page from a fifteenth-century illuminated manuscript records the Gospel of John.

8.13 MEDIEVAL ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify and describe some significant developments and/or cultural achievements of medieval Europe, including architecture, art, medieval manuscripts, literature and music.

A rich legacy of art has survived from medieval times, including stained-glass windows and paintings; sculptures; jewellery and religious artefacts; embroideries and tapestries; **illuminated manuscripts**.

Illuminated manuscripts

Before the invention of the printing press, 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 not many other people could read and write. They wrote on parchments made from sheepskin or calfskin. Hand-copying a book could take years 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.

Illuminated manuscripts include ornate works of art. They feature painted illustrations decorated with gold and silver. 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 medieval times, cathedrals were busy places where services were held around the clock, and people came often to ask for God's blessing.

Literature

Latin was used in schools, church services and for commerce. From the twelfth 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.

Most surviving sources of evidence for medieval music 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 woodwind instruments such as flutes, recorders and types of bagpipes.

8.13 SOURCE STUDY

Christine de Pizan

Source 3

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 woman 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 4 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

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?

8.13 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What was the purpose of stained-glass windows in churches and cathedrals?
2. Why were illuminated manuscripts so expensive to create?

GO DEEPER

3. Search online for `medieval chant'. Listen to recordings of the types of chants sung in churches and monasteries in the Middle Ages. What was this chanting known as and why?

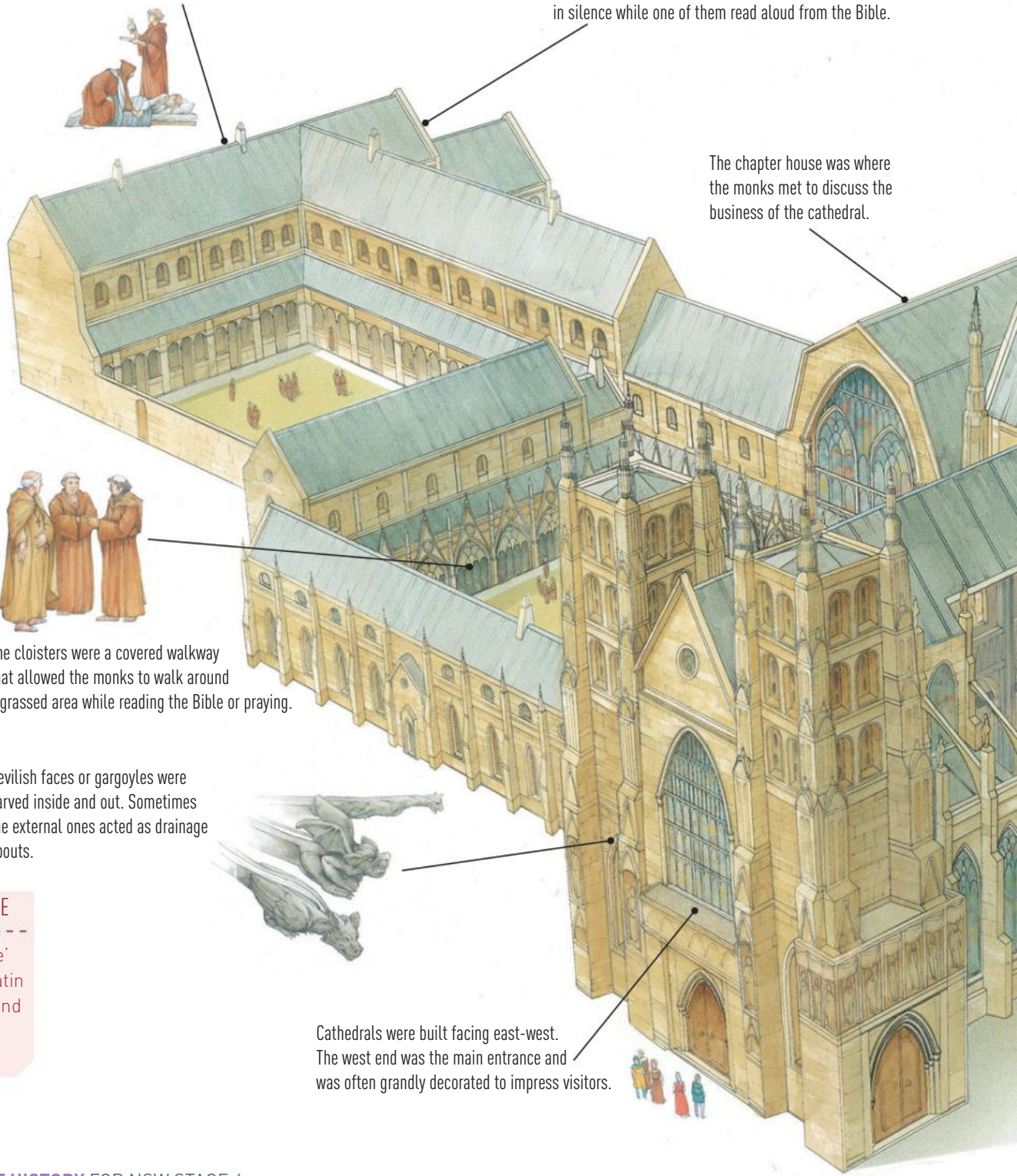
8.14 MEDIEVAL CATHEDRALS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **identify and describe some significant developments and/or cultural achievements of medieval Europe, including architecture, art, medieval manuscripts, literature and music.**

Source 5 An artist's impression of a medieval cathedral



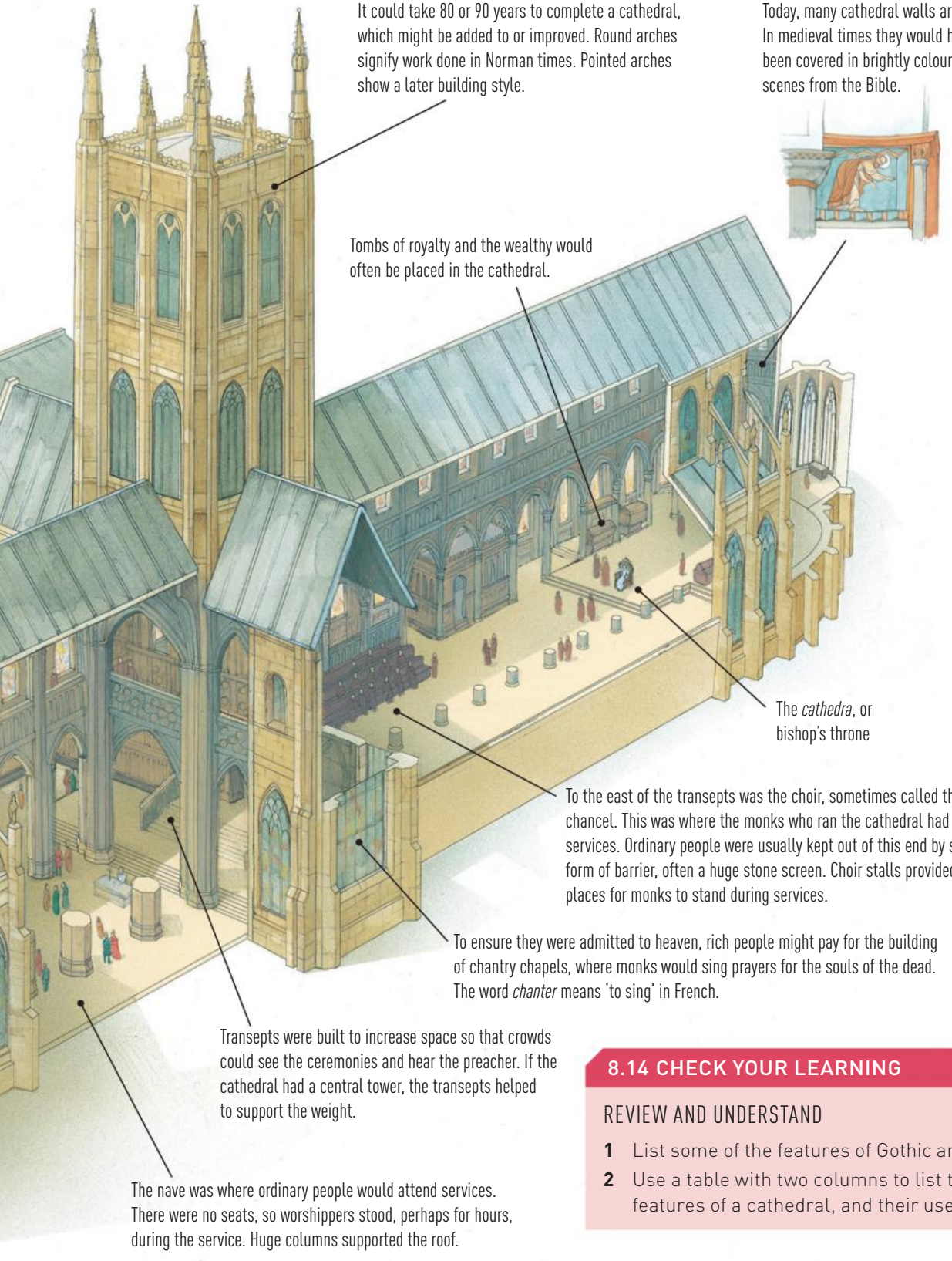
STRANGE BUT TRUE

The word 'gargoyle' is related to the Latin word for 'throat', and the English word 'gargle'.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

Gothic
a style of architecture common in western Europe from the twelfth to the sixteenth centuries characterised by features such as pointed arches, vaults, and flying buttresses

Gothic architecture was commonly used in the design of cathedrals. This style of architecture originated in France during the twelfth century and was popular across Europe until the sixteenth century. Features of Gothic architecture include the use of pointed arches and large windows, ornate decorative patterns and tall spires.



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.

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

Tombs of royalty and the wealthy would often be placed in the cathedral.

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.

8.14 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 List some of the features of Gothic architecture.
2 Use a table with two columns to list the different areas or features of a cathedral, and their use or purpose.

8.15 THE CRUSADES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the changing relations between Islam and the West during the medieval period, including the Crusades
- using a range of sources, outline what is revealed about different perspectives on the Crusades
- using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals.

Byzantine Empire
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)

Crusades
a series of eight wars fought by Christians and Muslims between 1096 and 1291 over control of the Holy Land

By the beginning of the eleventh 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 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 eight military campaigns that are classified as Crusades. Not all of them were equally important or even reached the Holy Land. In this topic we focus on some of the most famous events of the First Crusade (1096–99) and of the Third Crusade (1189–92), and the key people involved in these campaigns.



Source 6 Jerusalem, with the Dome of the Rock in the foreground; 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.

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 guarantee 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 the Muslims and Jews they could find in the city. The massacre was acknowledged by the Crusaders themselves and may have been a deliberate and calculated decision. The Crusaders wanted to create a sense of fear to help maintain their future hold on power. The actual numbers killed are contested, but both medieval Christian writers and modern historians agree that the Crusader massacre was unusually brutal even by the standards of the time.

The Crusaders 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Historians view the Crusades very differently depending on their perspective. The Crusades were a religious war, with each side believing their religion to be the one truth.

8.15A SOURCE STUDY

The routes taken by Crusaders to the Holy Land



Source 7 The extent of Christian and Muslim lands in 1095, and the main routes of the First Crusade (1096–99) and Third Crusade (1189–92)

INTERPRET

1 Examine Source 7 and identify the starting points of people joining the First Crusade and Third Crusade, the countries they passed through, and their destinations.

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 on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean in the Battle of Hattin 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.

The Third Crusade

After Saladin took 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 was between Saladin and Richard I of England (Richard the 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 by the Crusaders.

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.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religious conflict and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

8.15 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Find out why Christians, Muslims and Jews continue to regard the Dome of the Rock as a sacred place. Do they all have a legitimate claim to the Dome of the Rock being religiously significant? Give reasons for your answer.

GO DEEPER

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

Perspectives on Saladin and the Crusades



Source 8 A fifteenth-century illustration of Saladin by an Italian artist



Source 9 A portrait of Saladin drawn by an Arabian artist, *c.* 1180

Source 10

> 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 11

> 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

1. Are Sources 8 and 9 primary or secondary sources? Describe how each source depicts Saladin, and suggest how it reflects the perspective of its creator.
2. According to Source 10, what is Pope Urban II asking his listeners to do? 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?

CASE STUDY

Richard I, Saladin and the Third Crusade

The Third Crusade is perhaps the best known of the Crusades. Its place in public memory has a lot to do with the historical image of two of its most famous figures: Saladin and King Richard I.

The image and the idea of both Saladin and Richard I were used at different times in Syria and Britain to promote nationalism and particular ideas about history, in order to advance the political ideas of the day. This is reflected in the statue of each leader, constructed in an important public place. Richard's is outside the British Houses of Parliament in Westminster; it was originally created for the Great Exhibition in 1851 and was a focus of national pride. Saladin's is outside the historic Citadel of Damascus in the capital of Syria; it was unveiled in 1993, on the 800th anniversary of Saladin's death, as a celebration of Syrian national pride and Arab independence.

historiography
the study of how the past has been recorded and remembered, and why different versions have sometimes been created

Saladin was almost forgotten in the **historiography** of the Arab world in the medieval period. By contrast, in Britain and France both Saladin and Richard were well remembered. One explanation as to why European accounts preserved Saladin's story is the influence of the Church and religion in the construction of historical accounts. For many Christians, the outcome of the Crusades (or any conflict) was believed to be God's will. In Europe, Saladin was said to have displayed the qualities that the Church expected from its Christian Crusaders. For Church writers, if Saladin could defeat King Richard, who was seen as one of the great Christian kings, then Saladin must have shared those qualities.

This chivalrous and noble Saladin again gained popularity through the nineteenth-century novels of Sir Walter Scott. This image of Saladin has since been reinforced in films. In both the 1954 film *King Richard and the Crusaders* and Ridley Scott's 2005 film *Kingdom of Heaven*, Saladin is portrayed as a noble character, wise and honourable. King Richard is often called 'Richard the Lionheart' or 'good King Richard'. He has also been depicted favourably in films about the tales of Robin Hood.



Source 12 A bronze statue of Saladin in Damascus, Syria, in commemoration of his victory over the Crusaders in 1175 at the Battle of Hattin

From the twentieth century and especially the postcolonial period after the Second World War, the Arab world looked for historical examples that symbolised the ability of Arab countries to assert themselves against European powers. Saladin, or the idea and image of Saladin, met the need for a symbol of the power of Arab unity. The fact is that Saladin did unify parts of the Arab world in the twelfth century, but initially this was achieved by fighting other Arab leaders. However, the emphasis was placed on the end result and unity.

The unveiling of Saladin's statue in 1993 came at a time when Syria wanted to be seen as a leader of the united Arab world. Elements of the design of the statue reinforce aspects of this political and historical message. Not only is Saladin more than life size, at his feet are two of the European Crusader nobles who were taken prisoner by Saladin at the battle of Hattin. The image is one of Arab dominance.

In much the same way, the idea of King Richard as a symbol of English strength, courage and chivalry – using strength for good – was cultivated in public history and social memory with novels and plays. The stories of Richard's role in the Third Crusade were used to define English character in contrast with the European kings who also took part in the Crusade. It was a way of suggesting to generations of British, and especially English, school students that to be English was to be different and somehow better than their European neighbours.



Source 13 A bronze statue of King Richard I outside the British Parliament

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

EVALUATE AND CREATE

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'.

GO DEEPER

2 Use this case study, along with 8.15B Source Study, to investigate how factual evidence is not always the only reason certain versions of the past are taught or particular statues erected. Consider whether, based on the evidence, the ideas of Richard and Saladin represented by the statues are historically fair. Then, using these skills and concepts, start to look at and research the statues and monuments near you. When were they put up? Who funded them? Note the wording of any inscriptions, and who was involved in the unveiling. Try to look beyond the obvious and consider context, motive and perspective.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians must provide a balanced overview when explaining and communicating about the past. It's important to develop skills in presenting all sides of an argument, although historians will usually emphasise what they believe to be the strongest interpretation based on the evidence.

8.16 MEDIEVAL EUROPE'S INFLUENCE ON THE WORLD TODAY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **discuss how medieval Europe has influenced the world today.**

Source 14 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

Law and government

Australia's parliament can be traced back to the thirteenth 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 consisted of two groups. The nobles met in one place and the ordinary people (commoners) in another. This arrangement 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 judgments) in court decisions had their origins in medieval Europe. They continue to be a key part of Western justice systems.

Towns, cities and commerce

Increasing trade and commerce in medieval Europe led to the growth of towns and cities, where people could 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 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 originated in medieval Europe.

The English language

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

- Old English, the language of the Anglo-Saxons, with Germanic roots
- Latin, the language of ancient Rome and the Catholic Church
- Old Norse, the language of the Vikings
- French, established by the Normans as the language of nobles.

8.16 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Arrange the words in Source 14 in columns under the following headings: Government, Church, Law, Fashion, Food, Arts, Military, Names.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 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.

WHAT SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS TOOK PLACE IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE?

» Identify and describe some significant developments and/or cultural achievements of 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. (6 marks)

2 What was the purpose of music in medieval Europe? Name some of the instruments from the period that are still used today. (4 marks)

3 Identify an important development in writing in the twelfth century. Identify different types of literature produced in medieval times. (5 marks)

4 Describe the materials and methods used to create illuminated manuscripts. (5 marks)

5 Describe the architectural features of a cathedral, and explain the different uses of the building, in medieval times. (10 marks)

» Explain the changing relations between Islam and the West during the medieval period, including the Crusades

6 What events in the early eleventh century sparked the Church's call for a crusade to the Holy Land? (2 marks)

7 Outline the key events and results of the First Crusade and the Third Crusade. (8 marks)

» Using a range of sources, outline what is revealed about different perspectives on the Crusades

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? (5 marks)

» Using a range of sources, investigate and assess the role of significant medieval individuals

9 Identify a significant individual involved in the Crusades, and assess the importance of their role in the medieval world. (20 marks)

» Discuss how medieval Europe has influenced the world today

10 Identify and describe two ideas, or other aspects of culture, that originated in medieval Europe and have continuing influence in the modern world. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/70]

8C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

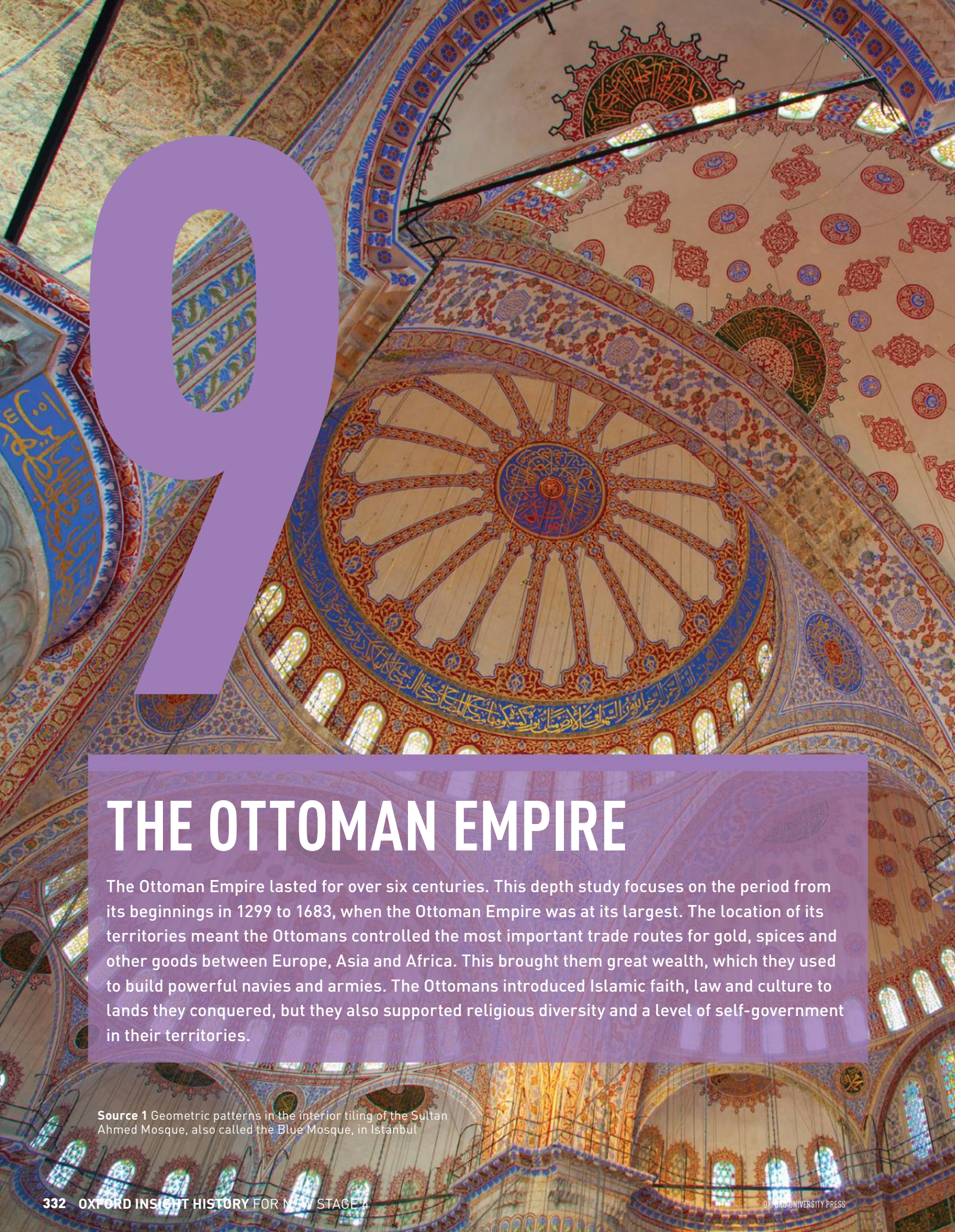
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



9

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 largest. 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.

Source 1 Geometric patterns in the interior tiling of the Sultan Ahmed Mosque, also called the Blue Mosque, in Istanbul

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS



obook-only chapter

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 9A

In this section you will:

» identify key sites and the extent of the Ottoman Empire during this period

» 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 9A

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE? 9B

In this section you will:

» identify and describe significant developments and/or cultural achievements of the Ottoman Empire in art and architecture

» 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

» using a range of sources, outline what these sources reveal about different perspectives on the Ottoman Empire

» discuss how the Ottoman Empire has influenced the world today.

CASE STUDY: THE SIEGE AND FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE

CHECKPOINT 9B

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE – A TIMELINE



Source 2 An illustration from a seventeenth-century Arabic manuscript, depicting the Ottomans

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 3 Osman I, first ruler of the Ottoman Dynasty

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS



Source 4 A sixteenth century Ottoman miniature showing Ottoman troops departing for their campaign against the Hungarians in 1526



Source 5 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

Source 6 The Topkapi Palace in Istanbul



TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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? What does this reveal about their lives?
4. Which Ottoman sultan ruled for the longest period – Mehmed II or Suleiman I?

9A HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

9.1 THE ORIGINS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND EXTENT OF ITS TERRITORIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify key sites and the extent of the Ottoman Empire during this period.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Changes such as moving from one region to another can have an impact on factors in society such as religion and language. This can then affect systems of government and relationships with other groups.

Byzantine Empire 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)

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 1 Detail from an illustration showing Ottoman troops on the attack in the fifteenth 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 fifteenth and sixteenth 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. This famous siege is explored in a case study later in this chapter. 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 2 shows the extent of the Ottoman Empire in 1683.

Balkans
a region in south-eastern Europe lying south of the Balkan Mountains

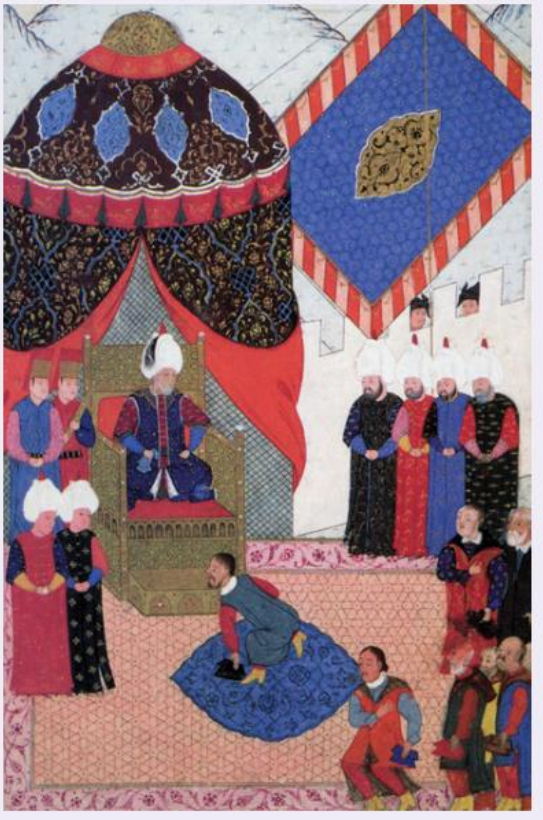
sultan
the ultimate ruler during the Ottoman Empire, who exercised complete political, military, religious, judicial and social authority and control

9.1 SOURCE STUDY

The extent of the Ottoman Empire



Source 2 The Ottoman Empire in 1683



Source 3 A sixteenth-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

1 Use an atlas or online map to identify the modern-day countries with territories that were ruled by the Ottomans in 1683.
2 What does the evidence in Source 3 reveal about the relationship of the Ottoman Empire and its vassal states?

9.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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

9.2 THE RULE OF THE SULTAN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Ottoman Empire.**

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

The Ottoman Empire flourished over a long period of time. While the title of its leader – 'sultan' – remained the same, there were considerable changes to the role of the sultan.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the illustration in Source 4.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

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 as he chose. Every decree or law came from him. He was also supreme military commander and the Islamic religious leader, responsible only to God. Below the sultan were the officials who administered the empire (see Source 5).



Source 4 An illustration of a sultan and his court, *c.* 1330

The Ottoman Empire stopped expanding after the reign of Suleiman I in the sixteenth 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 sixteenth and mid-seventeenth centuries, the sultanas (mothers and wives of sultans) were involved in decision-making. Although they did not have official titles, they still had real political power.

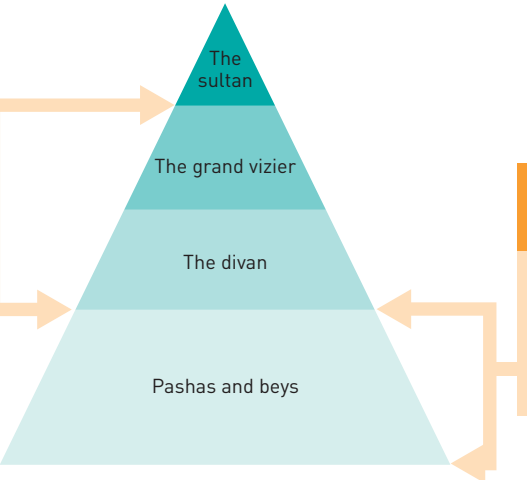
The role of the sultan continued to change during the seventeenth century. More power was exercised by the **grand viziers** and the **divan**. They deliberated on important matters of state. The sultan's role became one of approving laws and policies, rather than making them.

grand vizier
the chief minister and highest official under the sultan during the Ottoman Empire

divan
the council of officials and administrative officers during the Ottoman Empire

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, 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 5 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 fourteenth to the sixteenth 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 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.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Often when studying history, we are confronted with practices that are vastly different from today's societies. It is important to consider the historical context so we can understand the thinking and way of life of people in the past.

fratricide
the killing of one's own brothers or sisters; a strategy used by sultans during the Ottoman Empire to hang on to power



Source 6 A portrait of Mehmed II



Source 7 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.

9.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic 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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Explain the three ways of ensuring the Ottoman succession, identifying the strengths and weaknesses of each.
4 What does the sultanate reveal about the Ottoman Empire?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 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.

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.

9.3 OTTOMAN SOCIETY AND ECONOMY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

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

Silk Roads
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

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.



Source 8 The courtyard of an old caravanserai in Turkey

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 to 1520, acted to secure these trade routes, which were part of the **Silk Roads**. 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, which came from Iran. Egypt's agriculture and commerce added considerable wealth to the empire.

Traders transported their goods using caravans (processions of animals). Villages paid less tax in return for protecting sections of a trade route. The Ottomans also built a series of **caravanserais** along major trade routes, to protect merchants from robbers.

caravanserai
an inn with a large courtyard where caravans of camels or other pack animals could be sheltered for the night

Devşirme

During the fifteenth and sixteenth 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 boys were sent to Istanbul, where they received the best education the state could provide. They were then appointed as government officials or as **Janissaries**.

devşirme
the practice of taking the brightest boys from non-Muslim families, converting them to Islam and training them for the military or civil service of the Ottoman Empire

Janissary
a member of a sultan's elite military guard during the Ottoman Empire

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.



Source 9 A sixteenth-century illustration of Ottoman Janissaries

The system of *devşirme* cut boys off from contact with their families, 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*.

9.3 SOURCE STUDY

Devşirme



Source 10 An illustration from a sixteenth-century manuscript showing a Janissary recruiting for Sultan Suleiman I

INTERPRET

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 10.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the scene depicted in Source 10 and what it suggests about *devşirme*.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Women in the Ottoman Empire



Source 11 An eighteenth-century European artist's portrayal of Roxelana and Sultan Suleiman I

Women in the Ottoman Empire had fewer rights than men. However, they generally enjoyed more rights than women in many other places at the time and participated actively in society. Ottoman women 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 bride often had not seen her groom before the wedding. A man had to pay his future wife's family a **brideprice**, 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

One of the most powerful influences in Sultan Suleiman I's life was his wife Roxelana. 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**. 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.

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

concubine
a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor

9.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Why did the Ottoman Empire control major trade routes?
2. What was the purpose of the caravanserais and how did they assist with trade?
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 *devșirme*?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. How true is it to say that women were treated well in the Ottoman Empire?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. 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 *devșirme*. Write the dialogue that might have taken place between a young boy and his parents in either a Muslim or Christian family.

GO DEEPER

7. 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. Include reference to at least two primary sources.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

It can be difficult to find primary sources when conducting research, so it is important to consult a range of resources such as books and websites.

9.4 LIFE IN AN OTTOMAN CITY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline key cultural, economic and political features of the Ottoman Empire
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the Ottoman Empire.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

When studying past societies, it is important to engage with specific historical terms and concepts. There are often unique aspects of life that don't have a direct translation into English.

bazaar
a market selling spices, food, books, clothes and crafts

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 6 years old, girls and boys attended lessons at their *mahal* school. In Muslim schools, children were taught to read the Koran (the holy book of Islam) and learned Islamic beliefs. Children learnt by memorising.

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 seventh 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 fourteenth 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 his people.



Source 12 Spices for sale at the Spice Bazaar in Istanbul

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 more than 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 13 The Grand Bazaar, Istanbul

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 sixteenth 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 seventeenth 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Coffee drinking was still virtually unknown in Europe at the end of the sixteenth 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!

9.4 SOURCE STUDY

Coffee houses

Source 14
A nineteenth-century European painting of the interior of a coffee house in Istanbul



Source 15
A modern Turkish coffee house



INTERPRET

1 What does the evidence in Sources 14 and 15 reveal 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 usually 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 16 A selection of Turkish foods, including a variety of dips typically eaten with flat breads

Sport

The popular sports in 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 12 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 17 Oil wrestling is still a popular sport in Turkey.

9.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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. What was the function of the bazaar?
4. Which group in Ottoman society did not take part in the social pastime of visiting coffee houses?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Explain the *waqf* system and say why it was an important part of Ottoman society.
6. Why were sports such as archery, horse riding and oil wrestling popular in the Ottoman Empire?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7. Imagine you are living in sixteenth-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.

9.5 LIFE IN THE SULTAN'S PALACE

harem
during the Ottoman Empire; the separate part of a Muslim household reserved for wives, concubines, and female servants

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the Ottoman Empire.**



Source 18 The entrance to the harem at the Topkapi Palace



Source 19 Inside the sultan's harem at the Topkapi Palace

From the mid-fifteenth to the mid-nineteenth centuries, Ottoman sultans lived in the Topkapi Palace in Istanbul (see Source 18). 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.

The Topkapi Palace 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 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**, which was the separate living quarters of the women. The word *harem* means 'forbidden' because men – other than the head of the household – were forbidden from entering 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

At the palace, hundreds of cooks worked 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. 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Topkapi Palace had 10 kitchens. By the seventeenth century, 1300 kitchen staff fed up to 10 000 people a day.

9.5 SOURCE STUDY

Palace food

Source 20

> 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 21 An illustration of an Ottoman banquet being given by a chief pasha to the Janissaries in 1578

INTERPRET

1. Refer to Source 20. Create 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. Is Source 20 a reliable source? Why or why not?
3. Describe the banquet scene depicted in Source 21. Identify the utensils being used, and suggest the types of foods that might have been served, based on the information in the text.
4. What are the limitations of Source 21 for historians studying Ottoman banquets?

9.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

When studying past societies, always consider the purpose of sources and be aware of any bias they might contain.

9A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 1 mark = a sentence

» 5 marks = a paragraph

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

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

» Identify key sites and the extent of the Ottoman Empire during this period

1 Outline the extent of the Ottoman Empire in 1683, including reference to modern-day countries that formed part of the empire back then. (3 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. (4 marks)

4 Who were these people in the 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. (3 marks)

7 Explain the key features of the most significant economic activity in the Ottoman Empire, and what the sultans did to protect it. (5 marks)

8 Explain the term *devşirme*. What does this indicate about society? (3 marks)

9 What rights did women have in Ottoman society? (5 marks)

10 Explain the term 'harem' and describe the sultan's harem. (3 marks)

» 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? (5 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. (4 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

9B WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE?

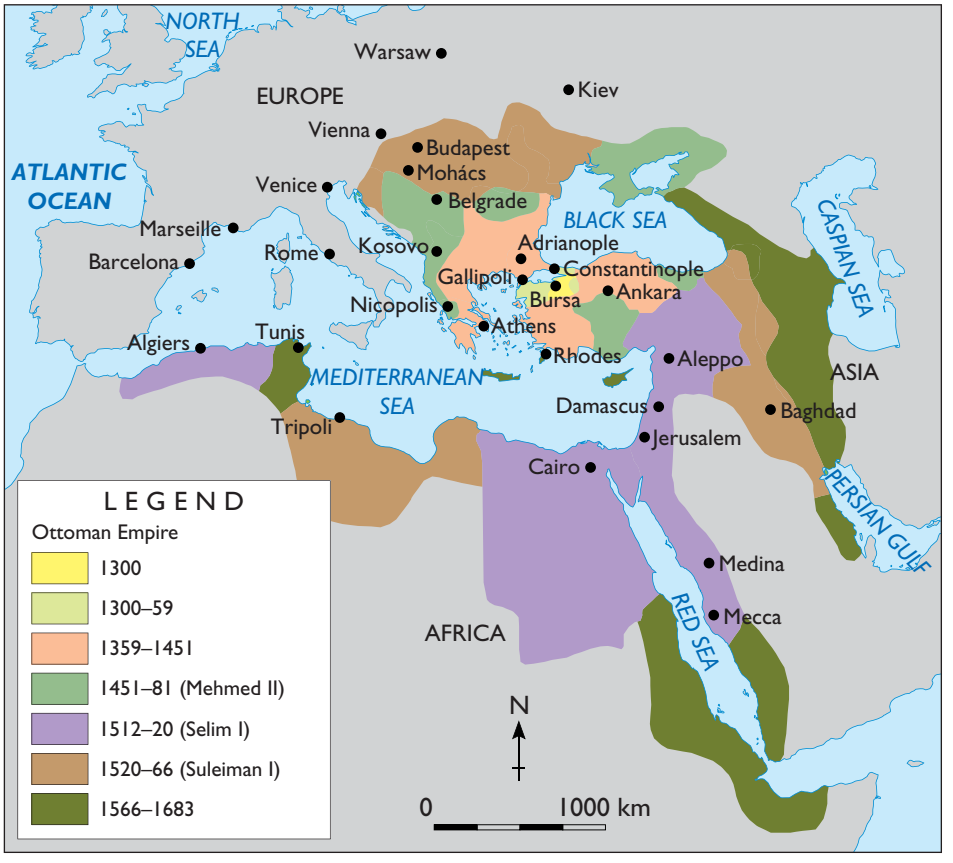
9.6 EVENTS THAT LED TO EXPANSION OF THE EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- 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
- using a range of sources, outline what these sources reveal about different perspectives on the Ottoman Empire.

The tiny tribal area ruled by Osman I in 1299 expanded to a vast empire, as shown in Source 1, because of the success of the Ottomans' campaigns. Key events that led to this expansion are explored on the following pages.



Source 1 The expansion of the Ottoman Empire from 1300 to 1683

Events during the rule of Orhan (1324–60) and Murad I (1360–89)

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 Adrianople in 1361.

After the introduction of gunpowder, new weapons were developed in the late fourteenth 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.

9.6 SOURCE STUDY

A Serbian perspective on the Battle of Kosovo

martyr
someone who dies for upholding a faith or belief

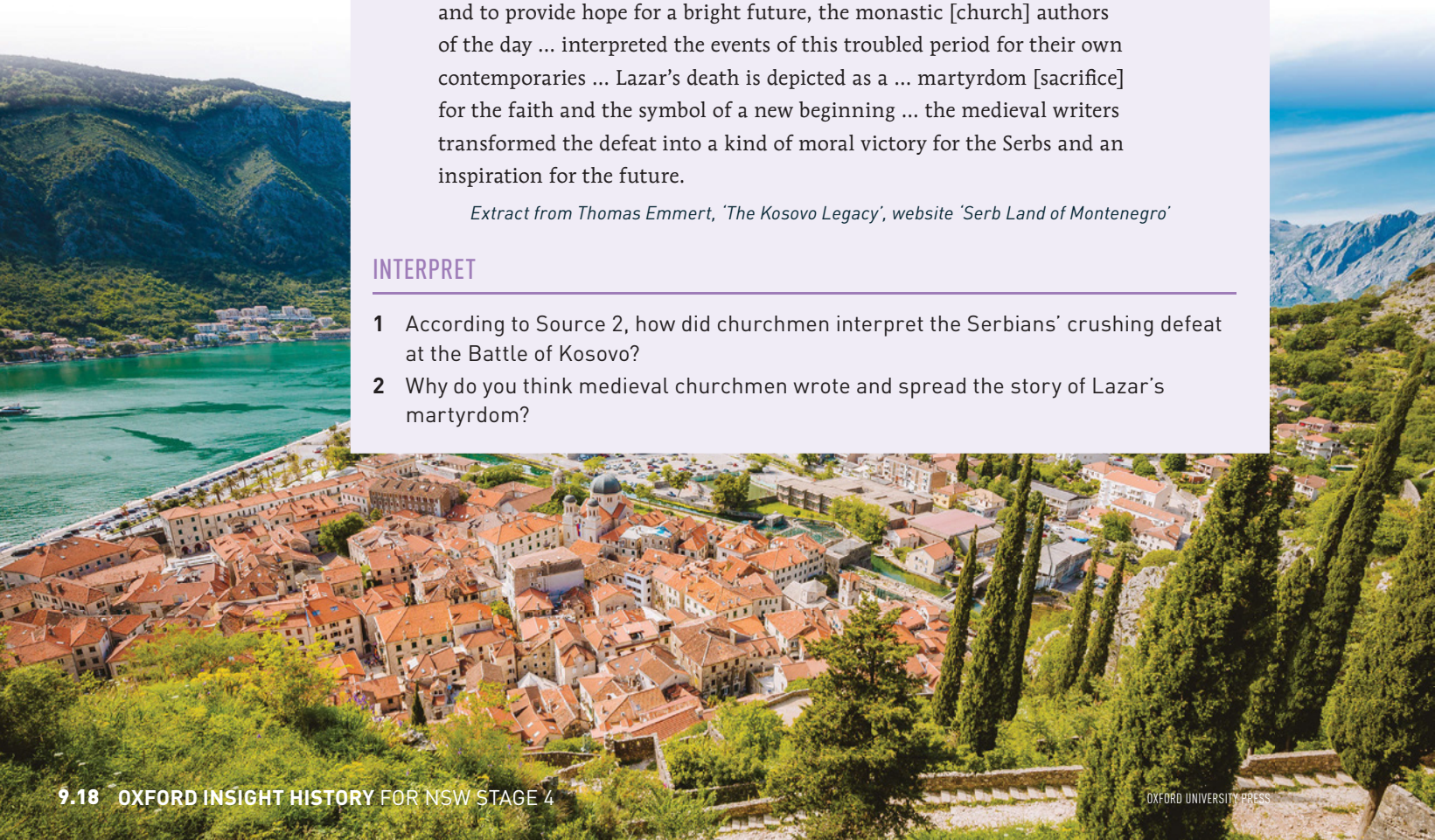
The Battle of Kosovo is an example of the importance of understanding context and perspective. After the battle, the defeated Serbians were understandably feeling like a beaten people. Therefore, Serbian churchmen and poets created the myth that Prince Lazar had died not as a defeated warrior but as a holy **martyr**. The battle has also been portrayed by the Serbs as a kind of victory because it weakened the Ottoman army and slowed their advance into Europe.

Source 2

> 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

1 According to Source 2, 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?



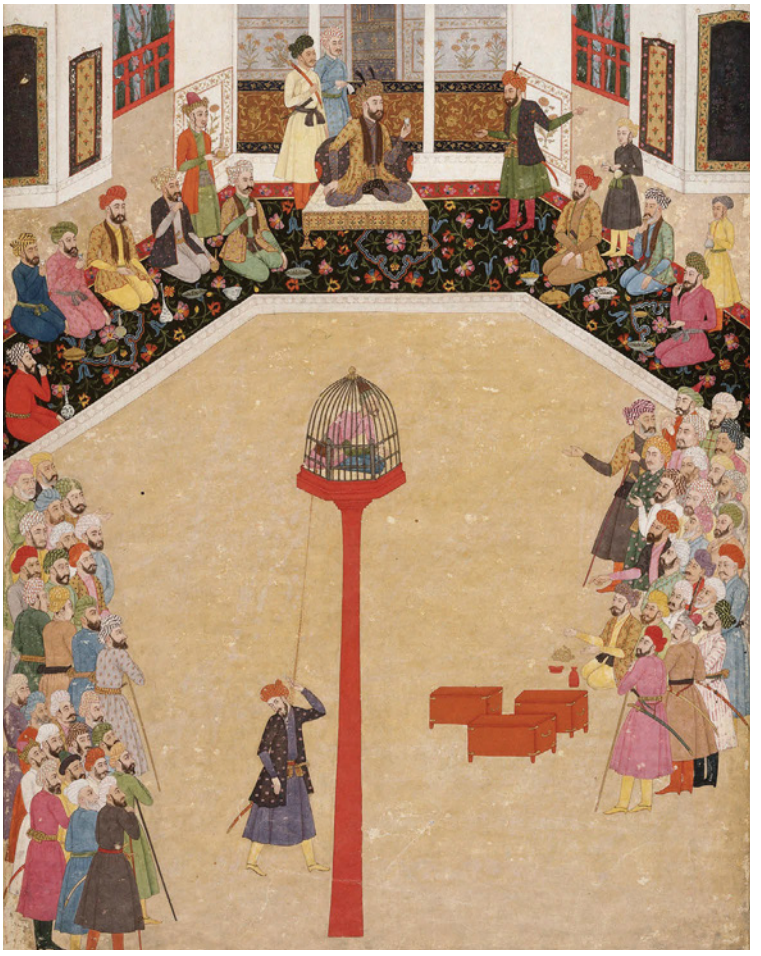
OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

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 3 A seventeenth-century picture by a Mughal artist, showing the imprisonment of Bayezid I by Tamerlane

Events during the rule of Mehmed II (1451–81)

Mehmed II (the Conqueror) is most famous for capturing Constantinople in 1453, (see the case study in this chapter), 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.

Events during the rule of Selim I (1512–20)

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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

History is usually recorded by the victors, with little opportunity to hear from the defeated party. Sometimes metaphors are used to convey meaning, which can lead to different interpretations of the same event.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During his 8-year reign, Selim I ordered 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 Suleiman I (1520–66)

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.

9.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Use an atlas and a blank map of Ottoman territories (find one online) 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 the expansion of the Ottoman Empire, from its beginnings until 1299.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. Create a table with two columns: one column summarising the events that strengthened and expanded the influence of the Ottoman Empire, and one column summarising the events that held it back.

GO DEEPER

4. Choose one of the Ottoman sultans and 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'.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians need to communicate in a variety of forms, including oral presentations. Throughout history, key figures have had to inform others of events through speeches.



Source 4 Sultan Osman I



Source 5 Sultan Mehmed II



Source 6 Sultan Selim I



Source 7 Sultan Suleiman I

The siege and fall of Constantinople

CASE STUDY

By 1453, the once great city of Constantinople was 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. This is perhaps the main reason why its fall has been seen as symbolically significant.

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 cannons to batter the city walls. The cannons came in various sizes, but the largest required a team of 60 oxen to be hauled on a wagon, and fired cannonballs weighing 550 kilograms.

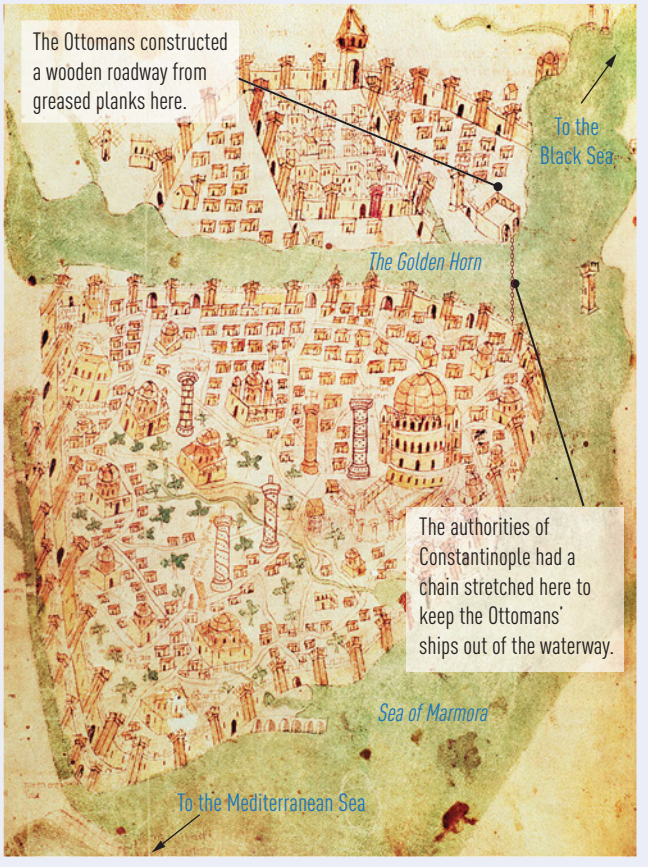
A waterway known as the Golden Horn protected the northern wall of the main part of the city of Constantinople. Constantine's forces had run a huge iron chain across the eastern mouth of the Horn to prevent enemy ships from entering the waterway. To bypass this, Mehmed II ordered his men to construct 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.

Fighting was fierce, but when a party of about 50 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 Hagia Sophia. This was later turned into a Muslim mosque, called the Ayasofya.

Mehmed II wanted to make Constantinople, or Istanbul as it was now 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 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.

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.



Source 8 This map of Constantinople was created in *c.* 1450. The labels explain the Ottomans' tactics during their siege of the city.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The fall of Constantinople marked a significant change in the region, with the sultan developing a religiously diverse city.

There is ongoing historical debate about the significance of the siege and fall of Constantinople. Because it occurred just before the birth of Renaissance Italy, some historians have made a direct 'cause and effect' link between the two. The evidence for this link is that texts from the libraries of Constantinople, especially works about the ideas of Plato and Aristotle, had not previously been available in Italy. They arrived with teachers and scholars who fled Constantinople as refugees, initially in the face of the Ottoman threat and then after the fall of the city. These older classical Greek ways of thinking were rediscovered and, it is suggested by some historians, helped ignite the Renaissance. This, in turn contributed to the Age of Exploration.

CASE STUDY: SOURCE STUDY

The fall of Constantinople

Source 9

> 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 10

> ... 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*



Source 11 A painting, created in 1903, showing the army of Mehmed II approaching Constantinople

INTERPRET

1. According to Source 9, 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 11.
3. Read Source 10 carefully. What do you think the ringing of the tocsin indicated?
4. Why might Sources 9 and 10 have more value to historians than Source 11?

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How did Emperor Constantine XI try to stop Ottoman ships from sailing into the Golden Horn?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2. What do the actions of Mehmed II after the fall of Constantinople reveal about his leadership?

9.7 THE OTTOMANS AND THE PEOPLE THEY CONQUERED

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

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

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

The Ottomans expanded into many regions, but conquered peoples would have felt invaded at the time, even if they were in a better position under Ottoman rule.

When a land was conquered by the Ottomans, many ordinary people were better off under the new rulers. Ottoman officials often took back local lands and revenues under central state control 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 paid for mosques and other public buildings, fountains, and soup kitchens for the poor.

The Ottomans were 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 convert if they surrendered. Many Greek Orthodox subjects welcomed the Ottomans because they were allowed 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.



Source 12 The spiritual leader of the Greek Orthodox Christian Church still resides in Istanbul.

Many types of Muslims lived within Ottoman lands. The sultans were followers of the Sunni branch of Islam. However, they supported Shia Muslim shrines and refurbished them during the sixteenth century. The sultans took considerable pains to ensure the safety of all pilgrims travelling to Mecca and Medina on **pilgrimage**. They ensured there was sufficient food for people in towns that became crowded at the time of the festival.

Many Christians, as well as Muslims, supported Ottoman rulers for the riches, positions and power that could be gained. Under *devşirme*, conquered Christian communities gave 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* could attain appointments as high as grand vizier. The elite Janissary corps was almost entirely made up of men from Christian families.

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

9.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Explain Ottoman policies towards people of other religions living within the empire. Give specific examples.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Why do you think many ordinary people would have been content under the rule of the Ottomans?

3 Which groups would have feared or resented the rule of the Ottomans? Justify your response.

GO DEEPER

4 Research the Ottomans' 'millet' system. What were its features and which communities used it?

9.8 OTTOMAN ARTS AND ARCHITECTURE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify and describe significant developments and/or cultural achievements of the Ottoman Empire in art and architecture.

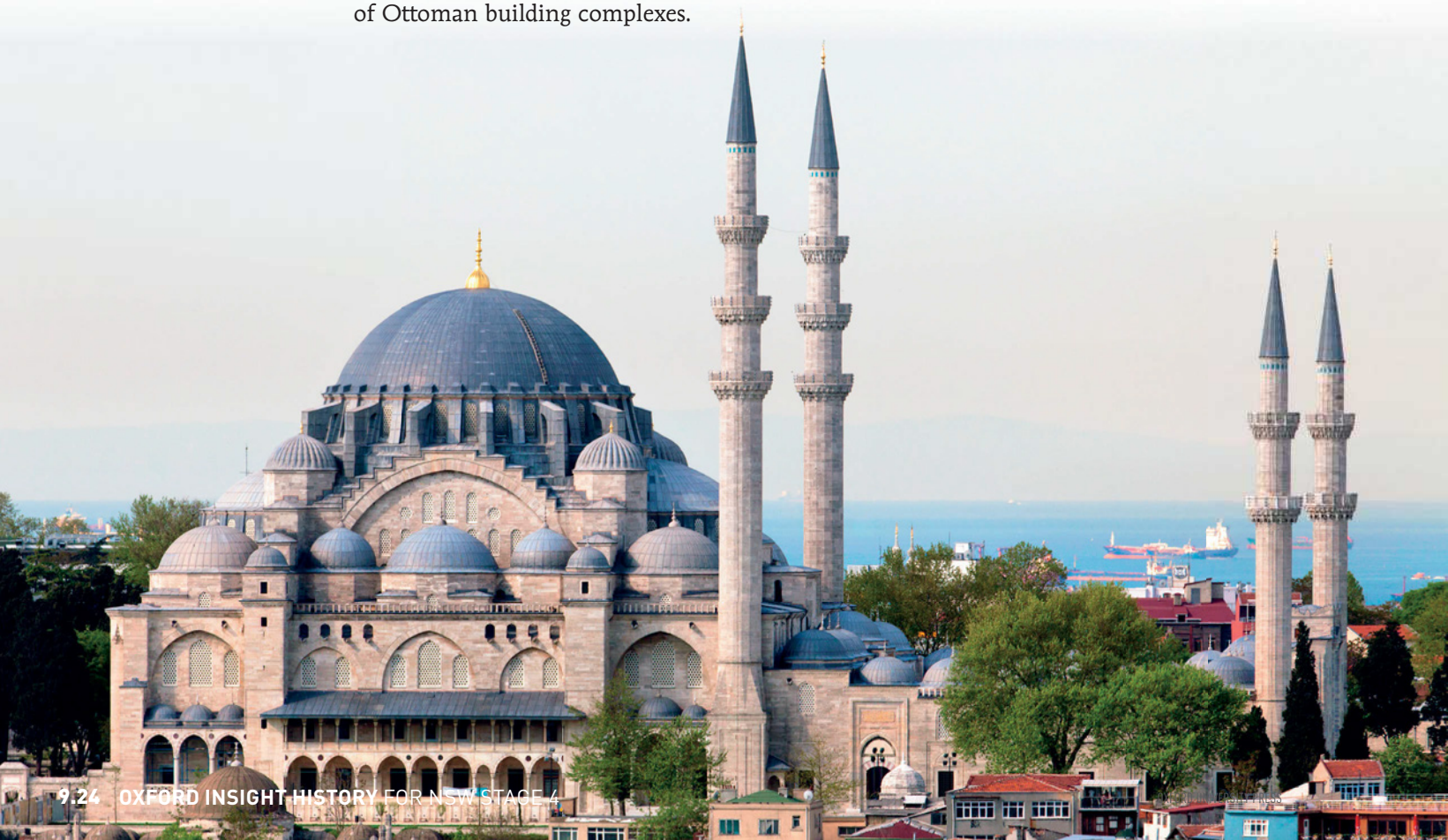
The period from about 1450 to 1680 is seen as a golden age of artistic creativity in the Ottoman Empire. Architecture, literature and fine arts flourished.

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.

Source 13 The Süleymaniye mosque in Istanbul, Turkey



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.

The development of literature in the Ottoman Empire was limited because there were few printed books. The printing press with movable type was developed in Western Europe in the mid-fifteenth century, but no books were printed in the Ottoman language until 1726. Printing was viewed as a 'Christian invention', and copying the Koran (the holy book of Islam) by hand was regarded as a way of earning religious merit.



Source 14 An Ottoman miniature showing the Battle of Mohács between the Ottomans and the Hungarians in 1526

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 Koran 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 (see the picture of the Blue Mosque at the start of this chapter). 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 15 An example of Ottoman calligraphy, the monogram of Sultan Murat III

9.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. What does the art, architecture and literature of the Ottoman Empire reveal about their society?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5. Research examples of Islamic geometric design. Then create your own geometrically designed page incorporating the first letter of your name.

GO DEEPER

6. Conduct research to create a brochure or website advertising an itinerary for a modern tour of Istanbul, visiting the city's mosques, bazaars, the ancient walls and other notable features.

9.9 THE DECLINE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE AND LEGACY OF THE OTTOMANS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- discuss how the Ottoman Empire has influenced the world today.

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 Ottomans' 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 the First World War (1914–18).

Key factors in the decline of the empire



Source 16 An artist's impression of the Battle of Lepanto

Age of Exploration
a period starting in the early fifteenth century and continuing to the seventeenth century during which Europeans explored Africa, the Americas, Asia and Oceania

conservative
opposed to change

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 Americas 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** 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 nineteenth 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'.

The legacy of the Ottomans

Although the Ottomans usually did not force their subject peoples to convert to Islam, some of the conquered regions 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 negative 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 came almost exclusively 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 and 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 nineteenth 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.



Source 17 Albanian refugees who were forced to flee from Kosovo in 1999



Source 18 The Turkish flag with an image of Ataturk

9.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What were the key factors in the decline of the Ottoman Empire?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Devise an infographic to show the short-term and long-term consequences of Ottoman rule for the peoples whose lands were once part of the Ottoman empire.

3 Why do historians describe a 'decline' of the Ottoman Empire rather than a 'fall' (like the fall of Constantinople in 1453)?

GO DEEPER

4 Conduct research to outline the key factors and events leading to the collapse of the Ottoman Empire during the First World War. Use at least two primary sources as supporting evidence in your response.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Ottoman Empire and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

9B

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

CHECKPOINT

» Identify and describe significant developments and/or cultural achievements of the Ottoman Empire in art and architecture

1 Describe significant cultural achievements of the Ottomans in the following areas:

- **a** architecture
- **b** literature
- **c** art and calligraphy. (3 marks)

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

2 Explain the significant events that expanded and strengthened the Ottoman Empire. (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 topic 9.3. (5 marks)

» Using a range of sources, outline what these sources reveal about different perspectives on the Ottoman Empire

5 Read Source 19. Explain the value and limitations of this source. To do this, compare this perspective on the Ottomans with your knowledge of the way that people who were ruled over were treated. (5 marks)



Source 20 A portrait of János Hunyadi

Source 19

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 ...

From a letter written by Hungarian general János Hunyadi to the Pope in 1448, quoted in Pál Fodor, 'Hungarian Perceptions of the Ottoman Empire', Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

6 Albania was conquered by the Ottomans in 1478 and was subject to Ottoman rule for almost 500 years. Read Source 21 then answer the following questions.

a What are the two perspectives about Ottoman rule of the Albanian people? (2 marks)

b What do Albanians today blame the Ottomans for? (1 mark)

c What development among Albanian people led to the version of history that portrays Ottoman Turks 'simply as enemies of Albanians'? (2 marks)

d From your knowledge of Ottoman society, explain how Albanians became grand viziers. (2 marks)

Source 21

> [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 ...'
>
> *Gjergj Erebara, 'Albanians Question "Negative" View of Ottomans', 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]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1 Florence, with the Cathedral of Santa Maria Del Fiore, famous for its dome

10

RENAISSANCE ITALY

The Renaissance is the term used for a period in Europe's history that saw a great deal of change and a flowering of new ideas. The Renaissance period began in Italy in the fifteenth century and lasted until the seventeenth 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.

obook-only chapter



HOW WAS SOCIETY IN ITALY ORGANISED DURING THE RENAISSANCE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 10A

In this section you will:

» explain why this period is known as the Renaissance
» identify on a map the city-states of Italy during this 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.

CHECKPOINT 10A

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF RENAISSANCE ITALY? 10B

In this section you will:

» using a range of sources, investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements of Renaissance Italy
» describe how patronage of wealthy families encouraged these developments and/or cultural achievements
» investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals
» explain how ideas from Renaissance Italy spread to the rest of Europe and outline its legacy.

CASE STUDY: LEONARDO DA VINCI

CHECKPOINT 10B

RENAISSANCE ITALY – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE

1434
The Medicis – a powerful family of bankers, politicians, monarchs and religious figures – gain 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 return in 1512 and their dynasty continues until the eighteenth century.

1501
The city of Florence commissions Michelangelo's sculpture of David. It is completed in 1504.

1430 1440 1450 1490 1500



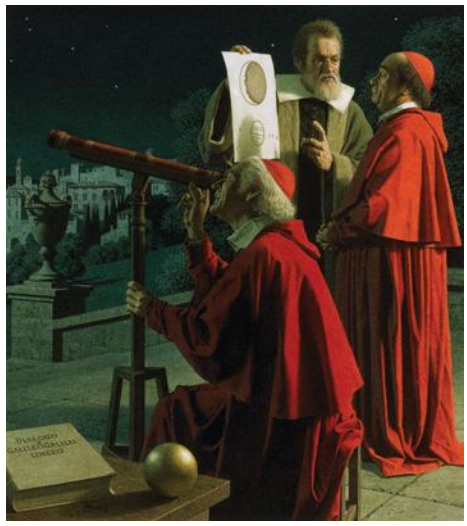
Source 2
The dome of the cathedral in Florence

Source 3
Desiderius Erasmus, a Dutch theologian, was critical of established religions.





Source 4 Andreas Vesalius, considered to be the founder of modern anatomy



Source 5 A painting of Galileo explaining his observations about the Moon



Source 6 The *Mona Lisa*, believed to have been painted between 1503 and 1506



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 writes his 95 Theses.

1519
Leonardo da Vinci dies. He leaves behind paintings such as the *Mona Lisa* and *The Last Supper*.

1543
Nicolas Copernicus, a 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*.

1528
Baldassare Castiglione publishes *The Book of the Courtier*.

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 publishes a book confirming Copernicus's theory that the Earth revolves around the sun.

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Identify three fields or subjects where there was advancement during the Renaissance.
2. 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.
3. How long was it between the publication of Copernicus's theory and its confirmation by Galileo?

10A HOW WAS SOCIETY IN ITALY ORGANISED DURING THE RENAISSANCE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Renaissance Italy has many place names that remain today. However, there are different terms and concepts to describe their political organisation because the modern country of Italy didn't exist at the time.

city-state
an independent settlement made up of an inner fortified city, surrounded by houses; this built centre was surrounded by houses and farmland

Silk Roads
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

10.1 CITY-STATES AND SOCIETY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain why this period is known as the Renaissance**
- **identify on a map the city-states of Italy during this period.**

During the 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.

A combination of wealth and outside influences led to the 'rebirth' (or, in French, *renaissance*) of interest in the art, architecture and ideas of ancient times. 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, explore new ideas and participate in the general revival of interest in ancient Greece and Rome. Trade, notably via the **Silk Roads**, 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 1 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, including the Renaissance historians and artists.

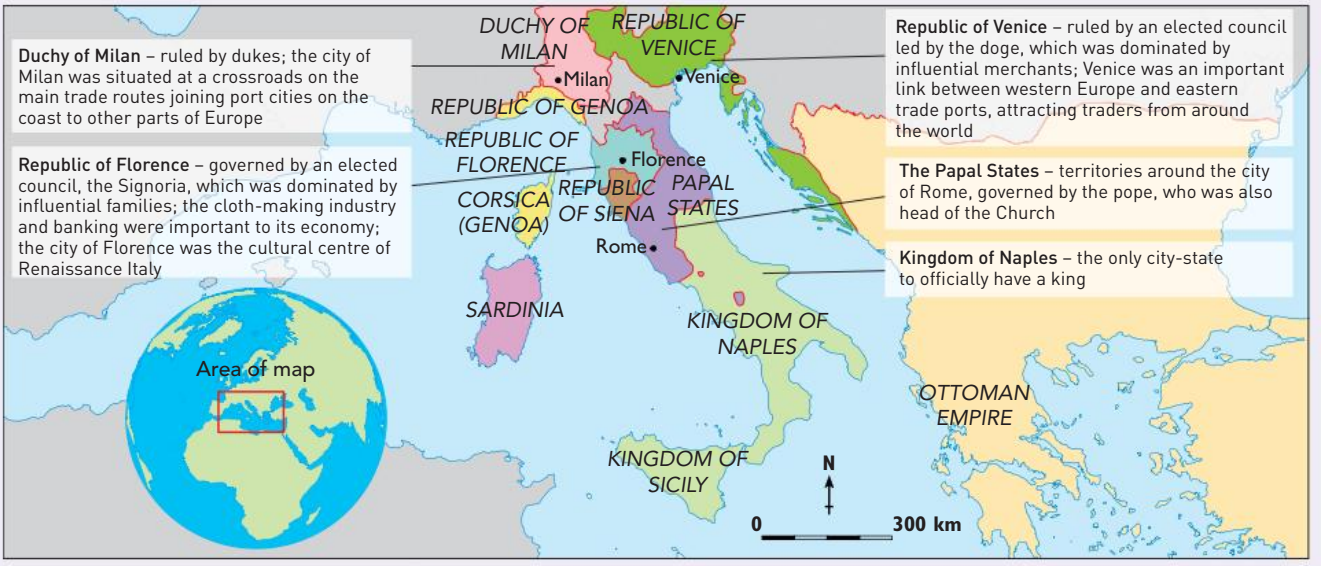
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Lower in the social order of towns and cities were the skilled craftsmen or **artisans**, followed by shopkeepers, unskilled workers and unemployed people. The unskilled workers and unemployed are thought to have made up around a third of the urban population. Away from the towns and cities, around 90 per cent of the population were peasants who worked on the land.

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metal worker)

10.1 SOURCE STUDY

City-states and society in Renaissance Italy



Source 2 The main city-states in Renaissance Italy



Source 3 A fifteenth-century illustration of an Italian merchant

INTERPRET

1 With reference to Source 2, 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 fifteenth-century merchant in Source 3. What does it tell you about the wealth and status of merchants in Renaissance Italy?

10.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 What would be some of the strengths and challenges of having separate city-states rather than one unified country?

10.2 IDEAS AND EVENTS INFLUENCING THE RENAISSANCE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain why this period is known as the Renaissance
- investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The Renaissance came about due to a number of factors contributing to growth and development in society. These combined factors caused the ultimate effect of rebirth in a number of disciplines.

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

manor
a unit of land for a feudal lord, consisting of a lord's demesne and lands rented to tenants

barbarian
a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders

monk
a man dedicated to the religious life

monastery
a place where monks live

manuscript
a document written by hand on animal skin or parchment

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The invention of printing was probably the most important factor contributing to the spread of Renaissance culture and ideas across Europe.

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** 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 – about a third of the population of Europe at that time. Workers became more scarce as the death toll mounted. They took the opportunity to move 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.

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** that monks had copied by hand. Most of the manuscripts were written in Latin and 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. It meant that 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. By 1500, there were over a thousand printers in Europe, across 270 cities, and around 40 000 titles had been published.

These were 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.



Source 4 An artist's impression of Johannes Gutenberg at his printing press

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.

humanism
a system or way of thinking in which human values, reason and interests are given priority

Key thinkers of the humanist movement

Francesco Petrarch (1304–74) 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. Renaissance historian Leonardo Bruni was heavily influenced by Petrarch's example.



Source 5 Francesco Petrarch

Giovanni (Pico) della Mirandola (1463–94) 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 6 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 7 Baldassare Castiglione

10.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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. What were the ideas of key humanist thinkers?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Compare the views of humanists and ordinary people in the medieval era with regard to how life should be lived.
6. Which groups in society would have been concerned about the developments in the Renaissance?

10.3 DAILY LIFE IN RENAISSANCE ITALY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Renaissance Italy.**

SPOTLIGHT

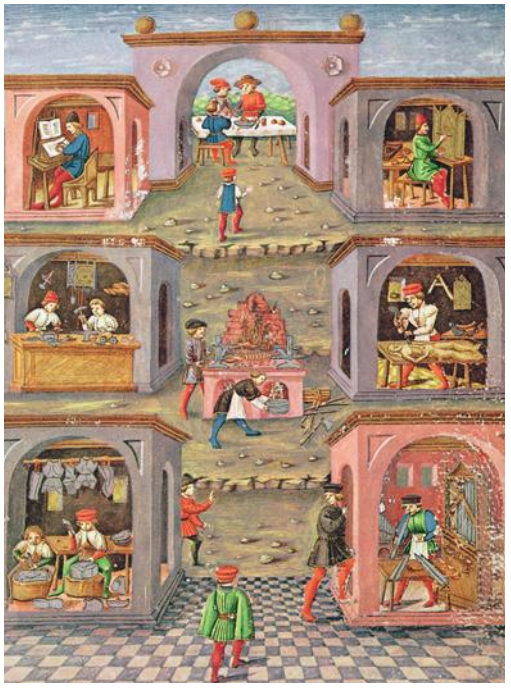
PERSPECTIVES

No society has a perfect experience for everyone. Life during the Renaissance varied depending on social status, gender and geographic location.

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.

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 in 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.



Source 8 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.

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.

Daily life for nobles and the wealthy

Wealthy nobles lived in great luxury. 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'). Wealthy families had beautiful homes in the city, as well as country villas with gardens, orchards, statues and fountains. They entertained guests at feasts, with music and poetry.

The role of women

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 8.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

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 and have children. 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. **Dowries** were very important during this period. Often, rich families would arrange a daughter's future marriage when she was still very young. By 16, most girls from wealthy families were married to men who were considerably older than they were.

Education

Peasant children did not receive a formal education. However, education of boys in higher social groups became increasingly common. While girls were usually instructed in household tasks, boys in towns could become apprentices. They would learn a craft or trade from a master craftsman. Boys could 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 were educated by a tutor at home and studied subjects such as Latin, Greek, history, mathematics, astronomy, poetry and music.

dowry
an amount of property or money given by a bride's family to her husband on their marriage

10.3 SOURCE STUDY

Life for nobles and workers in Renaissance Italy



Source 9 A sixteenth-century painting of the wealthy nobleman Lorenzo de' Medici inspecting a model of his villa being constructed



Source 10 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

INTERPRET

1 What do Sources 9 and 10 reveal about the life of the wealthy in Renaissance Italy?
2 Describe the scene shown in Source 11. What does it tell you about the daily life of a craftsman's family?
3 Refer to Sources 9 to 11. Describe the similarities and differences between the clothing and dwellings of noblemen and workers.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

A challenge for historians is that often sources only exist for the noble classes, making it difficult to learn about life for the poor. This is a significant gap in the evidence.



Source 11 A fifteenth-century artist's impression of a craftsman and his family

10.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Who were the *popolo minuto* and the *popolo grasso*?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 How did the life of women contradict the freedom that was experienced by other people in society?

GO DEEPER

3 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.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

History is often written from a man's perspective, so gaining insight into the life of women can reveal a deeper understanding of the society.

10.4 RENAISSANCE FLORENCE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe key economic and political features of Renaissance Italy
- discuss the relationships between rulers and ruled in Florence
- investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals.



Source 12 The front and back of a thirteenth-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 12). The florin was admired for the purity of the gold it was made from, and it 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 was 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.

10.4A SOURCE STUDY

Renaissance Florence



Source 13
An illustration from 1490 showing a complete view of Florence in that year



Source 14 A view of modern-day Florence

INTERPRET

1 Examine Sources 13 and 14. On the basis of these sources, what features of Florence have remained unchanged since 1490? What has changed?
2 What activity is shown in the bottom left-hand corner of Source 13? 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 15 and 16. Florence had 21 guilds. Seven of these were more highly regarded, with rich and powerful members (see Source 17). These members were often patrons of artists, or held positions in the government.

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 18.



Source 15 Coat of arms for the Guild of Physicians and Apothecaries



Source 16 Coat of arms for the Guild of Stone and Wood Masters

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Guilds were significant in developing skilled workers and ensuring quality control. The regulation of work and hours paved the way for modern working conditions.

Source 17 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)

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 used by painters to create paints of different colours.

Source 18 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.



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 when there was a security issue in the city.

Even though Florence was a republic (a government of elected representatives), by the fifteenth century a great deal of power was held by 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.



Source 19 Cosimo de' Medici (1389–1464)



Source 20 Lorenzo de' Medici (1449–92)

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 had 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 both became popes. His great-granddaughter Catherine became Queen of France by marrying into the royal family of France.

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 keep 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.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about why the men in the portraits might be dressed in red.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Power plays: the Pazzi Conspiracy

Other influential families in Florence plotted to get rid of the Medicis. 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

There has been much debate over the centuries about whether or not Machiavelli wanted his readers to take *The Prince* seriously. Some think that by seeming to support oppressive rulers, Machiavelli was in fact trying to show how bad they were.

Niccolò Machiavelli

Niccolò Machiavelli 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 main idea is that although it is better to be a good and virtuous ruler, the reality is that most men are not good. A ruler needs to use deceit and cruelty to stay in power for the good of his people.

10.4B SOURCE STUDY

The Prince

Source 21

> 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, pp.100–1*



Source 22 Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527)

INTERPRET

1 What are the main ideas in Source 21? Rewrite them in your own words.
2 Do you agree with these ideas? Give reasons for your response.

10.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Which group of people was eligible for election to the *Signoria*? Who was excluded?
2 Which two businesses were key to the wealth of Florence during the fifteenth century?
3 Where did Niccolò Machiavelli get his inspiration for *The Prince*?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 How did powerful people like the Medicis challenge the new thinking of the Renaissance?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Design your own coat of arms that represents a 'trade' pursued by one or more members of your family.

GO DEEPER

6 Investigate some significant individuals of Renaissance Florence. 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.

10A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 to 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

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? (3 marks)

2 Where was the Renaissance centred in Europe, and why? (2 marks)

» Identify on a map the city-states of Italy during this period

3 Identify the five dominant city-states in Italy during the Renaissance, giving a brief outline of their geographic location. (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? (3 marks)

8 Who was eligible to govern and to vote in Renaissance Florence? Who was excluded from voting or governing? (4 marks)

9 Who were the actual rulers of Florence for much of the Renaissance period? (3 marks)

» Investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals

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. (15 marks)

Total marks [/60]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

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10B WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF RENAISSANCE ITALY?

10.5 RENAISSANCE SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements of Renaissance Italy
- investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals.

SPOTLIGHT

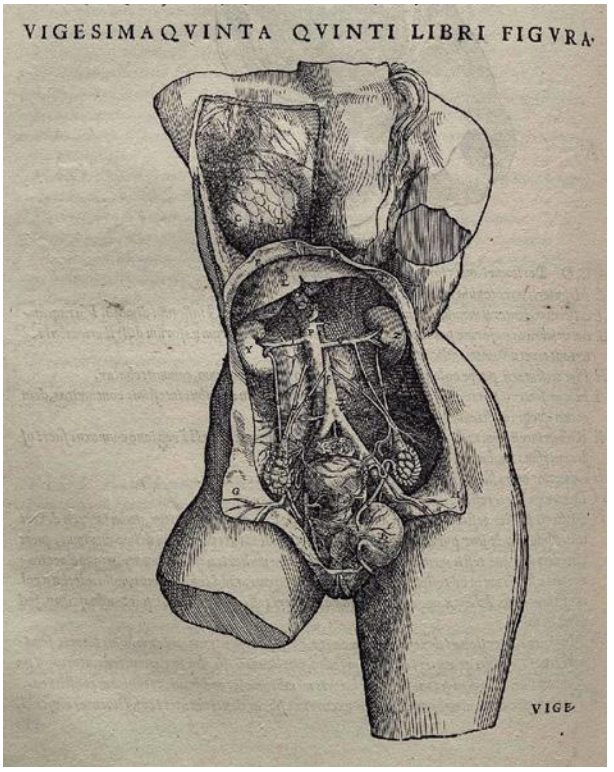
EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

The Renaissance was a difficult time for scientists, who had to seek approval to breach regulations imposed by the Church. Society had looked to religion for reason, which made it difficult when scientists wanted to turn to logic and reason.

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 were inspired to apply ancient Greek methods of logic and reasoning to explain the natural world. This put scholars into conflict with the Church and its interpretation of natural phenomena. The work of three men in particular had a lasting effect on science and medicine. They were Andreas Vesalius, Nicolas Copernicus and Galileo Galilei.

Andreas Vesalius

Andreas Vesalius (1514–64) is regarded as the founder of modern human anatomy (body structure). At the beginning of the Renaissance, the main medical textbook was based on the work of a Roman physician of Greek ancestry, Aelius Galen (AD 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.



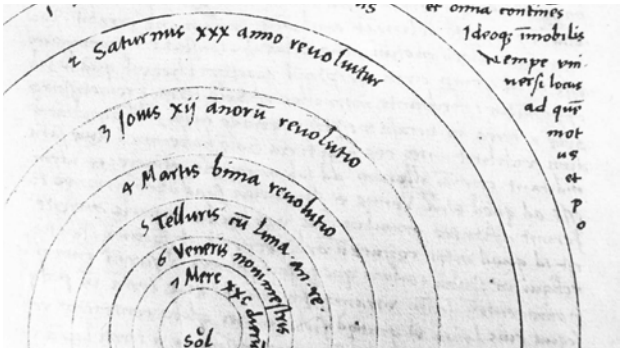
Source 1 An anatomical diagram of a man's abdominal cavity, with the intestines removed to show the organs; from Andreas Vesalius's *De humani corporis fabrica*

heresy
doing or saying something that is in serious conflict with the teachings of an established religion, particularly the medieval Catholic Church

excommunicate
to officially exclude a person from being part of the Catholic Church community and all that this entailed from a spiritual point of view (e.g. being able to participate in communion, confession)

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**. Because of this, Copernicus delayed the publication of his book until a few hours before he died, in 1543.



Source 2 A fragment of Copernicus's work on his theory of heliocentrism



Source 3 An artist's impression of Galileo appearing before Church officials in 1633

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. Galileo 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.

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 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.

10.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. 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 at the time and in the centuries following the Renaissance? What impact did this person's discoveries have on the modern world?

GO DEEPER

4. 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.

10.6 RENAISSANCE ART

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements of Renaissance Italy
- describe how patronage of wealthy families encouraged these developments and/or cultural achievements
- investigate and assess the importance of significant individuals.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Before the Renaissance, art was practical in nature with a focus on functional items such as furniture. During the Renaissance, there was a return to elaborate styles inspired by the Romans and Greeks, with influences from the new ideas of the time.

During the Italian Renaissance, artists adopted new techniques, materials and subject matter. The most famous Renaissance artists include Leonardo da Vinci (see case study), 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.

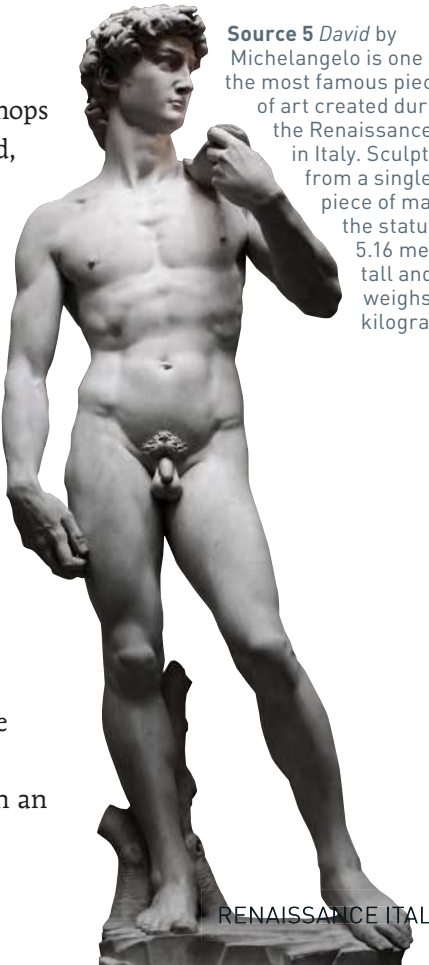
The changing role of the artist

Before the Renaissance, many artists and sculptors in Europe were 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.



Source 4 Self-portrait of Raphael, painted in 1506

The leading painters and sculptors of Renaissance Italy established workshops where 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 speciality.



Source 5 *David* by Michelangelo is one of the most famous pieces of art created during the Renaissance in Italy. Sculpted from a single piece of marble, the statue is 5.16 metres tall and weighs 5660 kilograms.

The importance of patrons

Patrons played a very significant role in artists' lives, and they also influenced the kind of history that was produced by the Renaissance historians. 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 historical accounts, 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 historical accounts and artworks. 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 18 in topic 10.4). Florence's ruling council and other governing bodies commissioned works to beautify government buildings or rooms. The statue of *David* by Michelangelo (Source 5) was commissioned by the city of Florence in 1501.

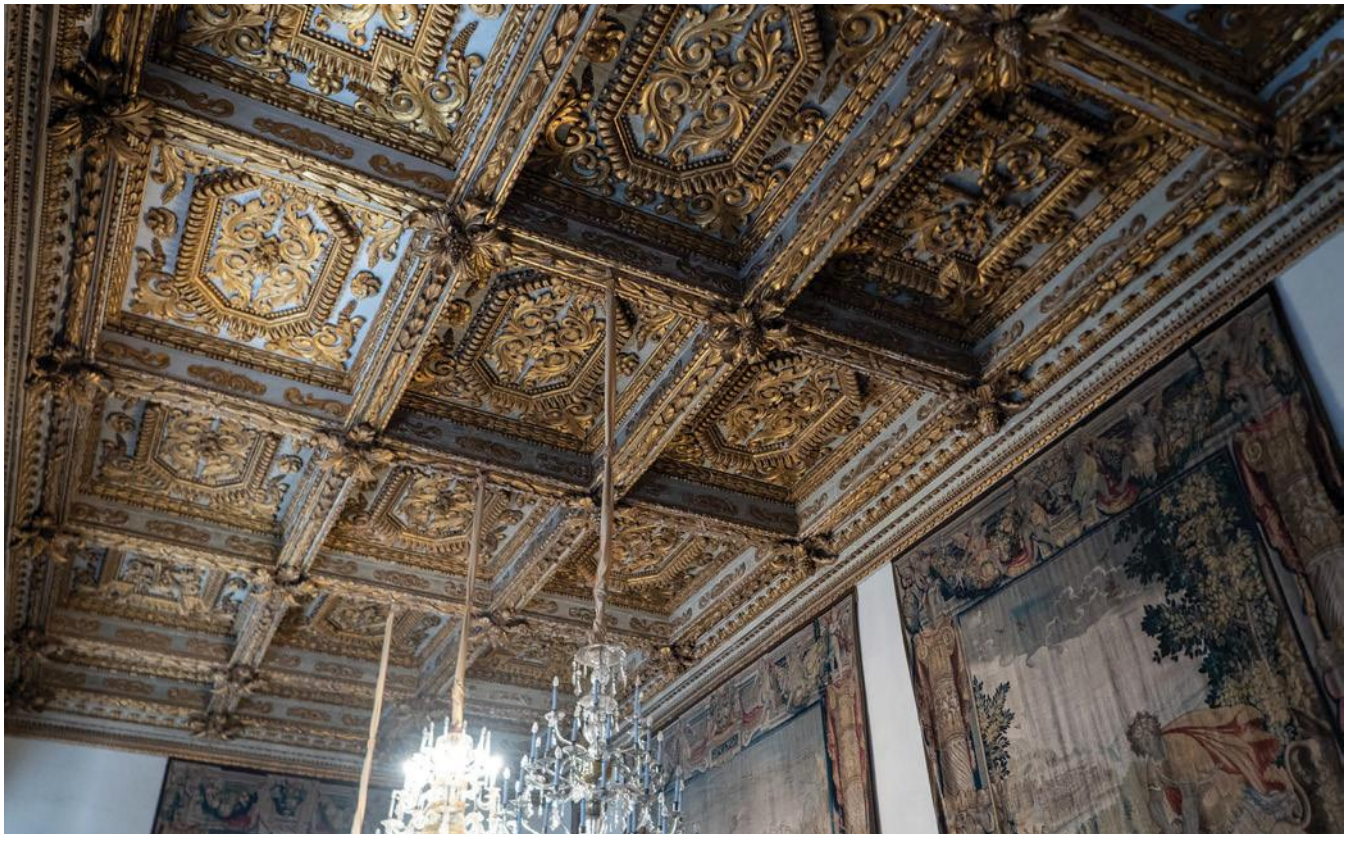
But the Roman Catholic Church was by far the greatest patron of the arts in Renaissance Italy. The Church commissioned cathedrals and churches, and statues and paintings for their interiors. Popes commissioned decorations for their residences, their own portraits, and even sculptures for their own elaborate tombs. Michelangelo's most famous Church commission was the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican, painted between 1508 and 1512, for Pope Julius II.

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 only as a hand reaching down from the clouds.



Source 6 The 'Creation of Adam', a detail from the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel



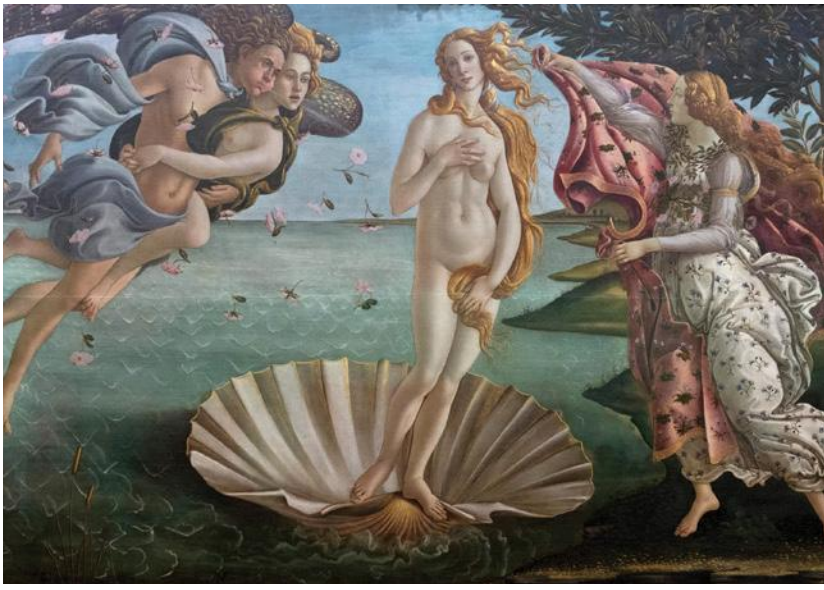
Source 7 Highly decorated interior of the Palazzo Medici. The Medicis were great patrons of Florence's artists.

Developments in Renaissance art

Art in the medieval era was almost exclusively religious in theme. In the Renaissance, 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 lifelike 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 8). 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 8 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 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.

naturalism
(in art and literature) a style and theory of representation based on the accurate depiction of details in nature

perspective
(in art) the representation of three-dimensional objects on a two-dimensional surface that gives the accurate impression of their height, width, depth, and position in relation to each other

chiaroscuro
(in art) the treatment of light and shade in drawing and painting

10.6 SOURCE STUDY

Developments in Renaissance art



Source 9 A twelfth-century stone relief depicting biblical figures



Source 10 Michelangelo's sculpture *The Drunkenness of Bacchus*, created in 1497; it depicts Bacchus, the Roman god of wine and pleasure.



Source 11 A fresco by Pietro Perugino, *The Giving of the Keys to Saint Peter*, painted in 1481

INTERPRET

1. Study Sources 9 and 10. Describe the similarities and differences between these examples of medieval and Renaissance sculpture, commenting on the subject matter and style of the works.
2. Identify the techniques used by the artist in Source 11.
3. Find examples of Greek and Roman sculptures. Compare them to the figures in Sources 9 and 10. What evidence is there to suggest ancient influence on the Renaissance?

10.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Research Brunelleschi's dome in the Florence Cathedral and explain why it was a significant achievement in Renaissance architecture.

Leonardo da Vinci

CASE STUDY

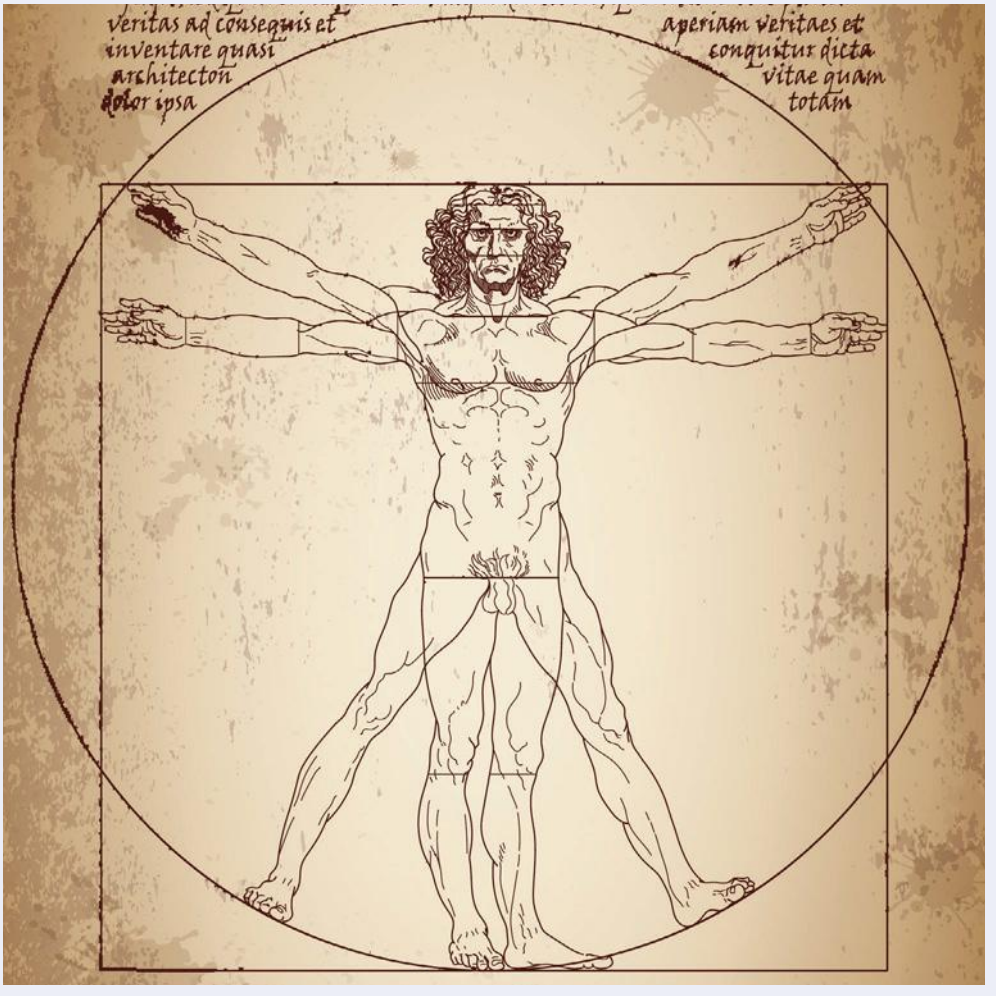
Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was the ideal 'Renaissance man'. Perhaps more than any other individual, he is associated in the popular imagination with the idea of the Renaissance. His paintings, such as *The Last Supper* and the *Mona Lisa*, are known and studied throughout the world. But as well as 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.



Source 12
A self-portrait of Leonardo da Vinci, 1512

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 called an 'air screw' that would enable humans to fly (see Source 15).

Today Leonardo would be called a polymath, which means someone who has wide knowledge across many different fields of learning.



Source 13
In Leonardo's drawing of the Vitruvian Man, he studied the relationship between the human body and geometry.

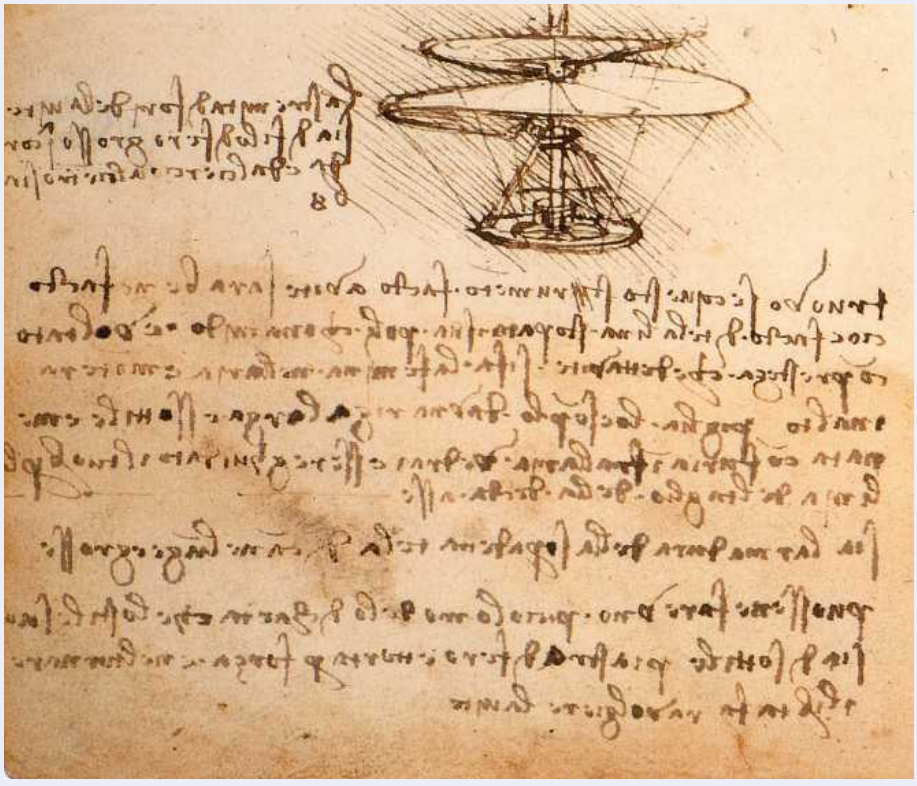
STRANGE BUT TRUE

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.

Source 14

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.

Giorgio Vasari, Lives of the Artists, *1550*, *E. L. Seeley (trans.), Noonday Press, New York, 1965*



Source 15 A drawing of an 'air screw' in one of Leonardo's notebooks

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

When conveying important information about the past, historians often use visual sources to enhance understanding. They engage with explanation about materials and techniques as well as the purpose of artefacts.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Read Source 14. Then find two other written sources about Leonardo. According to the sources, what were his characteristics and abilities?

2 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.

GO DEEPER

3 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 give names and dates for his most significant works of art and for major projects he undertook. Create a portfolio showcasing four of his most outstanding achievements, providing an image, description and explanation of the area of expertise.

10.7 THE LEGACY OF RENAISSANCE ITALY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how ideas from Renaissance Italy spread to the rest of Europe and outline its legacy.

The cultural developments and ideas of Renaissance Italy spread through Holland, England, Germany and France, aided by the printing press.

Renaissance art and architecture

Techniques developed by painters and sculptors in Renaissance Italy influenced artists in northern Europe. They studied the Italian masters, and learnt 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. 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 are still read today. *The Book of the Courtier* was translated into six languages and influenced many European courts after the Renaissance. The questions Machiavelli raised in his book *The Prince* are still discussed today, especially by those studying politics and philosophy.

Humanist ideas

Humanism 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 lead 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. It tapped into people's anger about corruption in the Church and became a bestseller. Corrupt behaviour in the Church was causing many people to become increasingly disillusioned with the Church.



Source 16 Niccolò Machiavelli

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The word 'Machiavellian' is used to describe a person in business or politics who will do anything to gain and hold onto power.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

The Reformation is a key example of learned people disputing a historical source. In this case, interpretation of the Bible was disputed, resulting in different branches of Christianity emerging.

Source 17
An artist's impression of Martin Luther posting his '95 Theses' on a church 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 also wanted to reform the Church. Like Erasmus, Luther believed a 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. Luther did not set out to establish a separate Church; he wanted a major reform of the Catholic Church.

In 1517, Luther nailed a copy of his essay 'The 95 theses on the power and efficacy of indulgences' (now commonly called the '95 Theses') on a church door. The essay was widely published and distributed 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 humanist scholars.

Henry's daughter Elizabeth (1533–1603) was tutored by a Renaissance scholar. Her prosperous and stable reign was the height of the period known as the English Renaissance, which was important for poetry, music and drama. Shakespeare, considered by many to be the greatest dramatist of all time, was a key figure. 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 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 led to the European exploration and settlement of the Americas.

Age of Exploration
a period from the early fifteenth century to the seventeenth century during which Europeans explored Africa, the Americas, Asia and Oceania

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Renaissance and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

10.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic to summarise the legacy of Renaissance Italy.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Explain what you think is the most important legacy of the Renaissance.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 Create a dossier titled 'How Renaissance ideas and developments have affected my life', with a range of examples outlined. Share your ideas in a class discussion.

10B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE MOST SIGNIFICANT DEVELOPMENTS AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF RENAISSANCE ITALY?

» Using a range of sources, investigate and explain the importance of significant achievements of 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 5 (Michelangelo's *David*) or Source 8 (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 of wealthy families encouraged these developments and/or cultural 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 the 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 and outline its legacy

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)

7 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]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

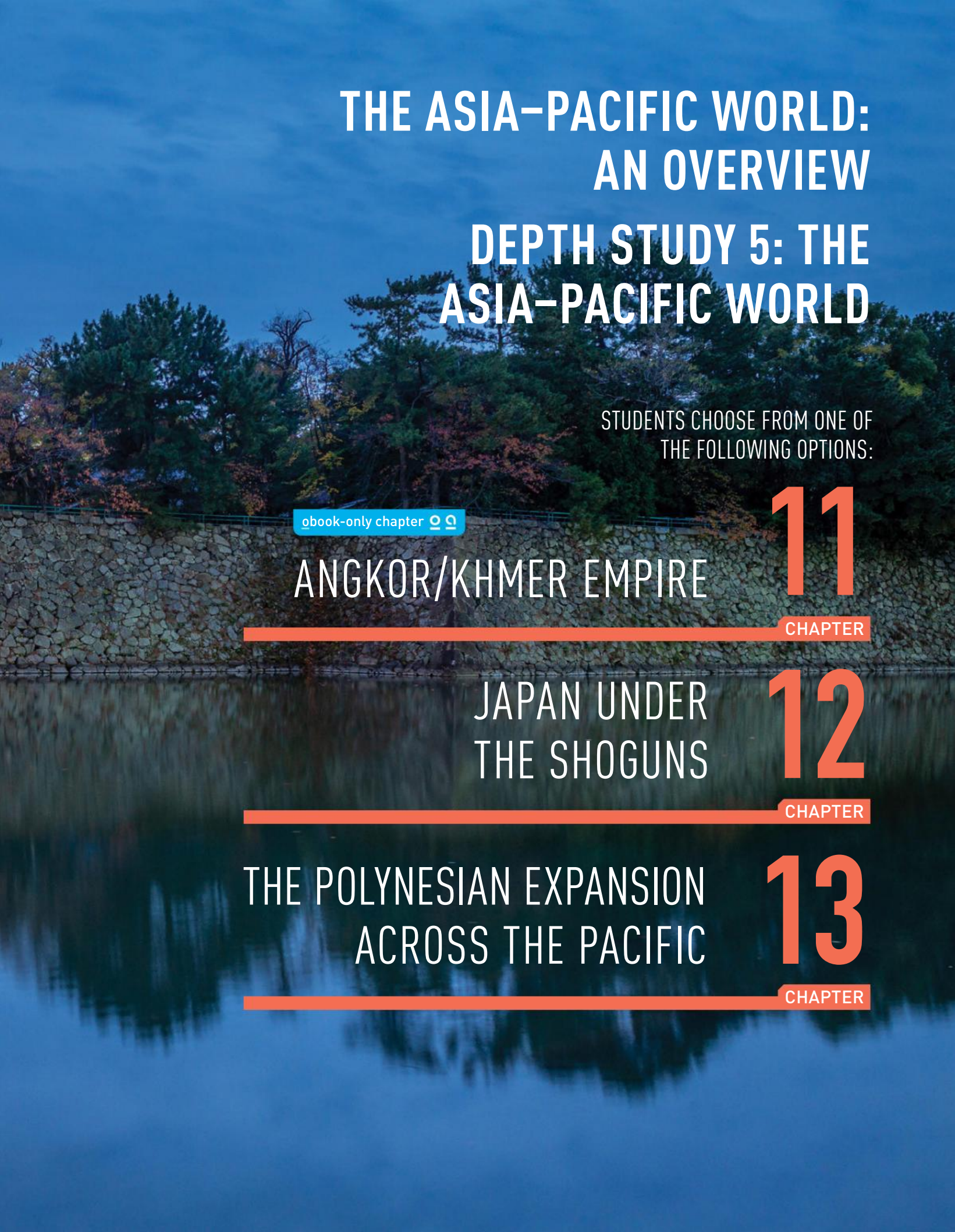
Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

PART



Nagoya Castle, completed in 1615 by the shogun Tokugawa Ieyasu



THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 5: THE ASIA–PACIFIC WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

obook-only chapter

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 twentieth century is said to have been the 'American Century' and the late nineteenth 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.



Source 1 Carved stone faces decorate the Bayon Temple in Angkor Thom, once the capital of the Khmer Empire.



Source 2 The first shogun of Japan, Minamoto no Yoritomo; the shoguns, not the emperors, were the real rulers of Japan for centuries.



Source 3 Māori warriors performed a war dance called a *haka* when they were about to fight their enemies.

Source 4 Many Polynesian societies made representations of their gods in the form of large wooden *tikis*.



0.1 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.

Gods and spirits of the Polynesians

The Polynesian 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 believed to be 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.

From the early nineteenth 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 in an effort to make them more 'civilised'. In many cases they destroyed traditional belief systems and replaced them with Christianity.

polytheism
a belief in many gods

Shintoism, Buddhism and Confucianism in Japan

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 fifth century, Buddhism was introduced to Japan from China. From this point on, Shinto and Buddhism coexisted. In the eighth century, Buddhism became the state religion and Buddhist temples were constructed. **Confucianism** was also introduced from China between the sixth and ninth centuries, which had a positive impact on Japanese ethics and politics. Finally, Christianity was brought to Japan in 1549 by 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 seventeenth century. The ban was not lifted until the late nineteenth century.

Confucianism
a code of behaviour founded by the Chinese thinker K'ung Ch'iu (known as Confucius) in the early fifth century BC; Confucius believed his ideas would help maintain order and respect within families, relationships and the society itself



Source 5 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. However, the Khmer people later came to worship Hindu gods. Hinduism first developed in India and was introduced to the Khmer from the ninth 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 twelfth 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.

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Outline similarities and differences in the beliefs and religious practices of people of two of the societies studied in 'The Asia–Pacific world'.

0.2 GOVERNMENTS, LAWS AND SOCIAL STRUCTURES

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

Although their cultures were quite distinct, the societies we are studying in the Asia–Pacific world were all organised according to strict **hierarchies**. 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.

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

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.



Source 6 A sculpture of Jayavarman VII, who ruled the Khmer Empire in the twelfth century



Source 7 The fighting abilities of the samurai, the warrior class in medieval Japan, were important to the shogun's power.

Rule of the Japanese shoguns

For more than a 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 the shogun in 1603 after defeating rival clans. His descendants ruled Japan for the next 264 years, until the Meiji Restoration 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.

clan
a group of people linked and united in their aims and behaviours by the knowledge (or a belief) that they share common ancestors

shogun
a title given to Japan's top military rulers between the twelfth and nineteenth centuries

emperor
ruler of an empire

samurai
a Japanese medieval warrior

daimyo
a Japanese warlord

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

tapu
a Māori spiritual and social code central to traditional society, related to respect for people, natural resources and the environment

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.

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 8 A nineteenth-century painting of a Māori chief

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Outline similarities and differences in the government, laws and social structure of two of the societies studied in 'The Asia–Pacific world'.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at Source 8.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 1 Angkor Wat is the largest Hindu temple complex in the world.

11

THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE

For more than 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 Cambodia. 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 of 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.



obook-only chapter

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 11A

In this section you will:

» identify key sites and the extent of the Angkor/Khmer Empire during this period

» describe the status and power of the king

» identify the roles and relationships of key groups in the Angkor/Khmer society

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire

» explain how the wealth from trade and agriculture contributed to the rise of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

» describe everyday life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire.

CHECKPOINT 11A

WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE? 11B

In this section you will:

» using a range of sources and the site of Angkor as an historical source, describe what it reveals 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.

CASE STUDY: THE BREAKDOWN OF THE WATER MANAGEMENT SYSTEM AND THE FALL OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE

CHECKPOINT 11B

REFERENCE GUIDE

Key term	Definition
Angkor	The first capital city of the Khmer Empire. This city was 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 on 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 more than 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 twelfth 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

100 BC – AD 500

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. AD 500–700

The power and authority of Funan declines; a neighbouring kingdom in the north, known as Chenla, gains control of the region.

c. AD 700–800

Chenla breaks apart; smaller kingdoms compete for power and control.

AD 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.

AD 877

Indravarman I, the nephew of Jayavarman II, becomes king; he establishes his court at Hariharalaya, and builds one of the first Khmer temples, Preah Ko, there; the East Baray reservoir is built.

AD 889

Yasovarman I becomes king; he establishes the first official capital of the Khmer Empire, Yasodharapura, now called Angkor.

Source 2 A modern-day view of Cambodia, showing the landscape of the region where the Khmer Empire was established



Source 3 A twelfth-century statue of the Hindu god Shiva at Angkor Wat



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Source 4 A stone carving showing Khmer troops going into battle

Source 5 A stone carving on the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom shows a Khmer king at his royal palace.



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.

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.

***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

AD 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.

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 Angkor Wat built?

11A HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

11.1 THE GEOGRAPHY AND ORIGINS OF THE KHMER EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **identify key sites and the extent of the Angkor/Khmer Empire during this period.**

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Climate and natural features are key factors in determining where societies emerge and the types of crops they can grow.

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.

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).



Source 1 A map of modern-day South-East Asia, showing the territory of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

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 200 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.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at Sources 2 and 3.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

11.1 SOURCE STUDY

The natural features of the territory of the Khmer Empire



Source 2 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 3 Floating houses and villages surrounding Tonle Sap today; some are similar to those that would have existed during the time of the Khmer Empire.



Source 4 Rice production continues today in Cambodia. These farmers are harvesting rice in a field close to Angkor Wat.

INTERPRET

1 Use the sources to explain how geographical location and the natural features of the landscape influenced the way society developed within the Khmer Empire.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

As the Khmer Empire developed and evolved, influences from nearby cultures contributed to their language and lifestyle. Many words overlap with other Asian societies, and this influence is also evident in religious, philosophical and political concepts.

Indianisation
the spread of culture, traditions and spiritual beliefs beyond their traditional home in India to other countries around the world

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

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 kingdom as Funan and the second as Chenla.

The kingdom of Funan

Indian culture was a great influence on the Khmer people in Funan. At the time, India was a highly developed society and its merchants travelled great distances to trade. As well as exchanging goods along a section of the Silk Roads, Indian merchants 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 also 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 5), 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 fourth 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 sixth century.



Source 5 A map of part of South-East Asia, showing the locations of Funan, Chenla and Champa

The kingdom of Chenla

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 eighth century, the kingdoms of Chenla broke down into a number of competing kingdoms, each fighting for control. The Khmer Empire was born in AD 802 when a local leader, who ruled as Jayavarman II, took control and forced these rival kingdoms to unite.

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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 AD 790, when he was about 20 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** were rewarded with land or political positions for their work. This system helped maintain the political and religious stability of the Khmer Empire.

courtier
person who serves the king in an administrative role



Source 6 Sdok Kok Thom Temple, an eleventh-century Khmer temple in Thailand

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)'.

11.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

GO DEEPER

4. 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.

11.2 KHMER SOCIETY, CULTURE AND GOVERNMENT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the status and power of the king
- identify the roles and relationships of key groups in the Angkor/Khmer society
- outline key cultural, economic and political features of life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire
- explain how the wealth from trade and agriculture contributed to the rise of the Angkor/Khmer Empire.

SPOTLIGHT

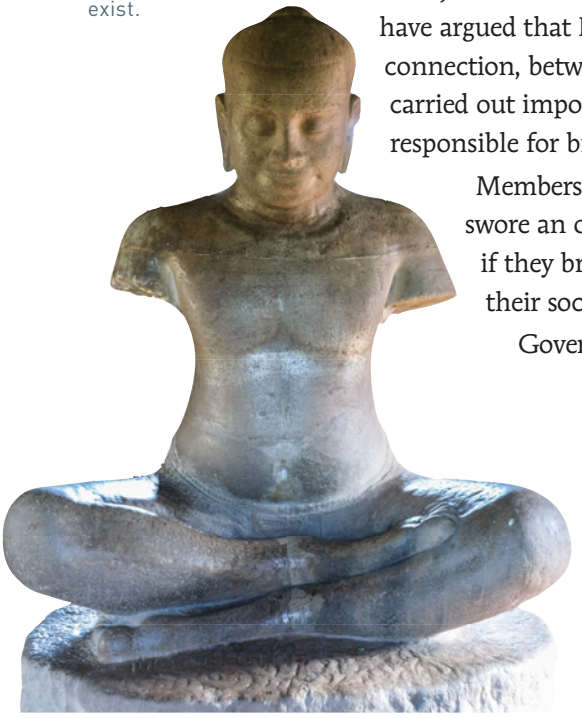
PERSPECTIVES

Much of what we know about Angkor/Khmer society is from official sources, meaning that the voice of the ordinary person is largely unheard. Historians must take care to understand that the information we have contains bias from the ruling class.

From the sources available, historians have found that the Khmer Empire had a strict social hierarchy. The people in each social group had certain rights and particular duties. However, there is much that historians do not know 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 Khmer 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

Source 7 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.



At the very top of Khmer society was the king, who served as both the political and religious leader. In AD 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 that 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, he 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. Disputes 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 their feet, hands or nose. A common method of settling a dispute between two people was to place them 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.

Nobles and officials

The next most powerful group in the social hierarchy was 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.

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)

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 be required to serve in the military or provide labour for building projects if ordered by the king.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the portrayal of slaves in Source 8 and what this reveals about their society.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

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.



Source 8 A stone carving in the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom showing slaves captured during a war being transported in restraints

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]'.

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, 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 thirteenth 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** 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.



Source 9 Engraving at Angkor Wat showing two queens or goddesses

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

11.2 SOURCE STUDY

Khmer trade



Source 10 A detail from a stone carving in the wall of the Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom showing fish being traded at a busy market

INTERPRET

1 Examine Source 10. Describe the activities being depicted, and the dress, jewellery and hairstyles of the figures.
2 What are the limitations of this source for a historian studying Khmer society?

A warrior culture

Despite its peaceful trading activities, at its heart the Khmer Empire 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.

Khmer soldiers trained using a martial art known as *bokator* (meaning 'pounding the lion'). *Bokator* imitated the movements of trees and animals. It was linked to religious beliefs, which guided its rules.



Source 11 Modern-day *bokator* fighters in Cambodia demonstrating a fighting technique

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.

Sanskrit
an ancient language of India and the language used in documenting the holy books of Hinduism

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 three particular 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). 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 that is also the sacred language of Hinduism.

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.



Source 12 At Angkor Wat, a Hindu priest (known as a *pundit*) makes offerings at a shrine to the Hindu god Shiva.

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 towards 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 thirteenth century. It remains the official religion of Cambodia today.



Source 13 The Bayon Temple at Angkor Thom was built by Jayavarman VII as the official state temple of Mahayana Buddhism. It is decorated with more than 200 stone faces.

11.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Explain the value of the archaeological evidence for Khmer society. Consider what we can learn about society from the images and architecture.
5. Identify three problems with the evidence available to historians.

GO DEEPER

6. 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.

11.3 DAILY LIFE IN THE KHMER EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe everyday life in the Angkor/Khmer Empire.

Very little is known about most people's day-to-day lives in the Khmer Empire, other than insights from Zhou Daguan's *The Customs of Cambodia*, written in the thirteenth century. Zhou observed the daily lives of both the rich and poor during his year in Angkor.

Daily life for the rich and poor

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 ponds, which were a shared source of fish.

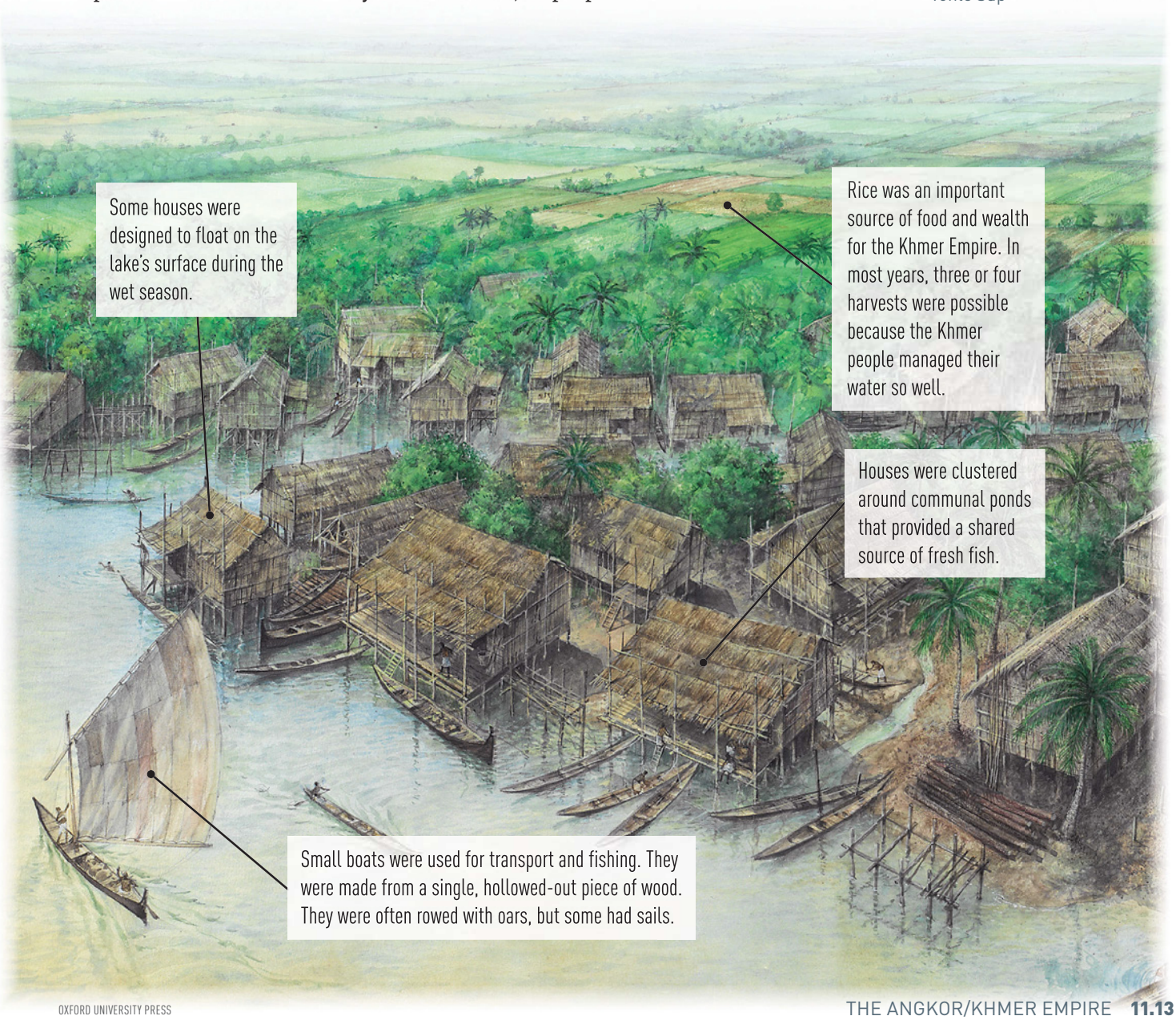
Ordinary people slept on bamboo mats laid on wooden floors, but rich people might sleep on low beds. There was very little furniture, so people sat on mats or animal hides.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Due to the work of Zhou Daguan, we learn not only of daily life for the rich and poor, but also how the Khmer people were perceived by a foreigner.

Source 14 An artist's impression of daily life on Tonle Sap



concubine
a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor

The king lived in his palace with several wives and 3000 to 5000 **concubines**. 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, with a roof made from 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.

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 could be wrapped. Richer people would wear clothes 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. Women 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 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.

Source 15 An artist's impression of mealtime in the Khmer Empire; the top image shows a peasant household, and the bottom image shows a noble household.

Daily life in the Khmer Empire – the writings of Zhou Daguan

Source 16

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, *Peter Harris (trans.), Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 50*

Source 17

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, *Peter Harris (trans.), Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 50*

Source 18

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, *Peter Harris (trans.), Silkworm Books, 2007, p. 76*

INTERPRET

1. According to Source 16, how does the king's clothing and appearance differ from the clothing and appearances of ordinary people?
2. Source 17 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 18. List the materials used to make the pots, dishes and cutlery in 'ordinary families'.
4. Do you think these are reliable sources? Provide a justification for your answer.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

The information contained within a source is important, but so is the purpose of the source as this can reveal a particular bias. Zhou Daguan was a diplomat, so he had no reason to exaggerate the facts.

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 19 A stone carving showing female dancers, at Angkor Wat

11.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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'.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Examine Source 15, 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.

11A

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Identify key sites and the extent of the Angkor/Khmer Empire during this period

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. (5 marks)

» Identify the roles and relationships of key groups in the 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? (10 marks)

4 What is known about the roles of women in the Khmer Empire? (5 marks)

» Outline key cultural, economic and political features of life in 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? (5 marks)

7 What evidence suggests a strong warrior culture in the Khmer Empire? Who and how did the Khmers fight? (5 marks)

8 Explain the belief systems or religions that influenced Khmer society. Where did they originate? (5 marks)

» Explain how the wealth from 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 everyday life for people in the Angkor/Khmer Empire. Include details about the housing, diet and clothing of a noble and of a peasant farmer, as well as their typical daily activities. (20 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

11B WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE?

11.4 ACHIEVEMENTS IN WATER MANAGEMENT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources and the site of Angkor as an historical source, describe what it reveals about Angkor/Khmer life and culture, including the construction of the temples, the system of water management, religion and agriculture.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

The need for water continued to be essential to society, but rather than needing to settle beside rivers, advancement in technology meant the water could be brought further inland.

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

The Khmers constructed ***barays*** 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. 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.

baray
a reservoir of water (such as a pool or artificial lake)

It is thought that when the Khmer Empire was at the height of its power, 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Indravarman I, who ruled the Khmer Empire from AD 877 to AD 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'.



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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.

11.4 SOURCE STUDY

Water management for agriculture



Source 1 Part of a reservoir known as the West Baray, constructed by the Khmer in the eleventh century



Source 2 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

1 Sources 1 and 2 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?

11.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 What do the *barays* suggest about the overlap between religious life and food production?

11.5 ACHIEVEMENTS IN TEMPLE BUILDING

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources and the site of Angkor as an historical source, describe what it reveals about Angkor/Khmer life and culture, including the construction of the temples, the system of water management, religion and agriculture.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

A significant primary source for studying societies is their architecture. Historians still need to consider the origin and purpose, which can give insight into foreign influences or aspects of society that were important, such as religion.

Angkor Wat is the most famous temple in Cambodia. Its image is featured on Cambodia's national flag (see Source 5). 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, which were 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 3). The Khmer also used temples as official state buildings and as sites of tombs for kings. Sometimes temples also served as astronomical observatories, as was the case with the Angkor Wat.



Source 3 A linga (polished stone) within the walls of Angkor Wat



Source 4 The temple of Angkor Wat



Source 5 The national flag of Cambodia featuring an image 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 tenth 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 6 The 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 was reached, each new layer of stone on either side would be offset so that it jutted 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 other temples, indicating they were originally brightly painted and would have looked quite differently from the plain stone that is seen today.



Source 7 An intricate stone carving of kala, a mythical creature representing the Hindu god Shiva, found at the temple of Banteay Srei

11.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why were Khmer temples built? What purposes could they serve?
2 Outline the main materials used to build Khmer temples.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why are temples the only buildings that remain from the time of the Khmer Empire?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Research 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.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians write for different audiences. It's an important skill to develop an understanding of a topic and translate it into different formats to communicate in a range of styles.

11.6 REASONS FOR THE DECLINE OF THE KHMER EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline theories about the decline of Angkor and assess which factors were most significant
- explain the significance of Angkor today.



Source 8 After the fall of the Khmer Empire, many temples and buildings, such as Ta Prohm, were reclaimed by the forest. The Khmer people continued to visit, but the buildings were hidden from the outside world until 1860.

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-east 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 Khmers' 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

As we have seen, the Khmer people were highly skilled in water management and farming. These skills allowed them to dominate the region and to thrive. As well as being vital for agriculture, water was also crucial for trade, travel and communication, so the breakdown of the system had major consequences. The reasons for the breakdown and the role it played in the decline of the empire are explored more fully in the case study for this chapter.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

The lasting nature of the buildings of Angkor Wat indicate the success of the Khmer kings. Historians dispute this, and also the reasons for the decline of the empire.

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 great. 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 thirteenth century was a time of religious upheaval in the Khmer Empire. Kings changed the state religions according to their own 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 an ancient form of Buddhism called Theravada, known as the 'School of the Elders'. It was most likely 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.

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 increased economic hardship for the country and its people. This form of Buddhism focused on attaining enlightenment as individuals rather than through the worship of higher beings. It was this aspect in particular that contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire. A departure from the Hindu ideology of the king as *devaraja* meant that there was no motivation for the people to serve the king as a divine entity. Additionally temples, as residences of the gods, were no longer needed; instead, Buddhist monks 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.



Source 9 Buddhist monks at Angkor Wat

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 Angkor Wat. It contains Buddhist statuary from the fifteenth to the nineteenth 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.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about Angkor Wat and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?



Source 10 A photograph taken in 1912 showing some of the ruins of the Bayon Temple before restoration work began



Source 11 A restoration team at work at Angkor Wat

11.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Outline the technological, religious and economic theories about the decline of the Khmer Empire.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Why do you think the change from one type of Buddhism to another contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire?

3 Visit the website of the UNESCO World Heritage List, and read the section on Angkor that explains why the site has 'Outstanding Universal Value'. Explain these reasons in your own words.

GO DEEPER

4 Research to locate and identify relevant sources related to Angkor Wat and the Bayon Temple. Construct a table similar to the one below to organise your thoughts and direct your research.

	Site 1 – 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?		

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

It is important to gather information from a wide variety of sources, evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of each before presenting a balanced overview of the topic.

5 Using the information from your research, 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.

CASE STUDY

The breakdown of the water management system and the fall of the Angkor/Khmer Empire

Over the past 10 years, archaeologists and historians have argued that the Angkor/Khmer Empire had already begun to decline at the time of the building of Angkor Wat in the twelfth century, when it was seemingly at the height of its power and influence. Recently found evidence suggests that long-term environmental factors may have contributed to the decline.

As we have seen, the water management system built by the Khmer people was an essential part of the empire's success. This system depended on the monsoon rains of the wet season that flooded the Mekong River system. Archaeologists and historians have presented evidence of a weakening of the vital monsoon rains late in the twelfth century, based on tree-ring samples indicating lower average monsoon rainfall. They also point to archaeological evidence of adjustments made to the irrigation and water management systems to cope with reduced average rainfall, along with damage periodically done by brief but sudden and extreme flooding. In other words, a shift in the pattern of climate resulted in more extreme weather events.

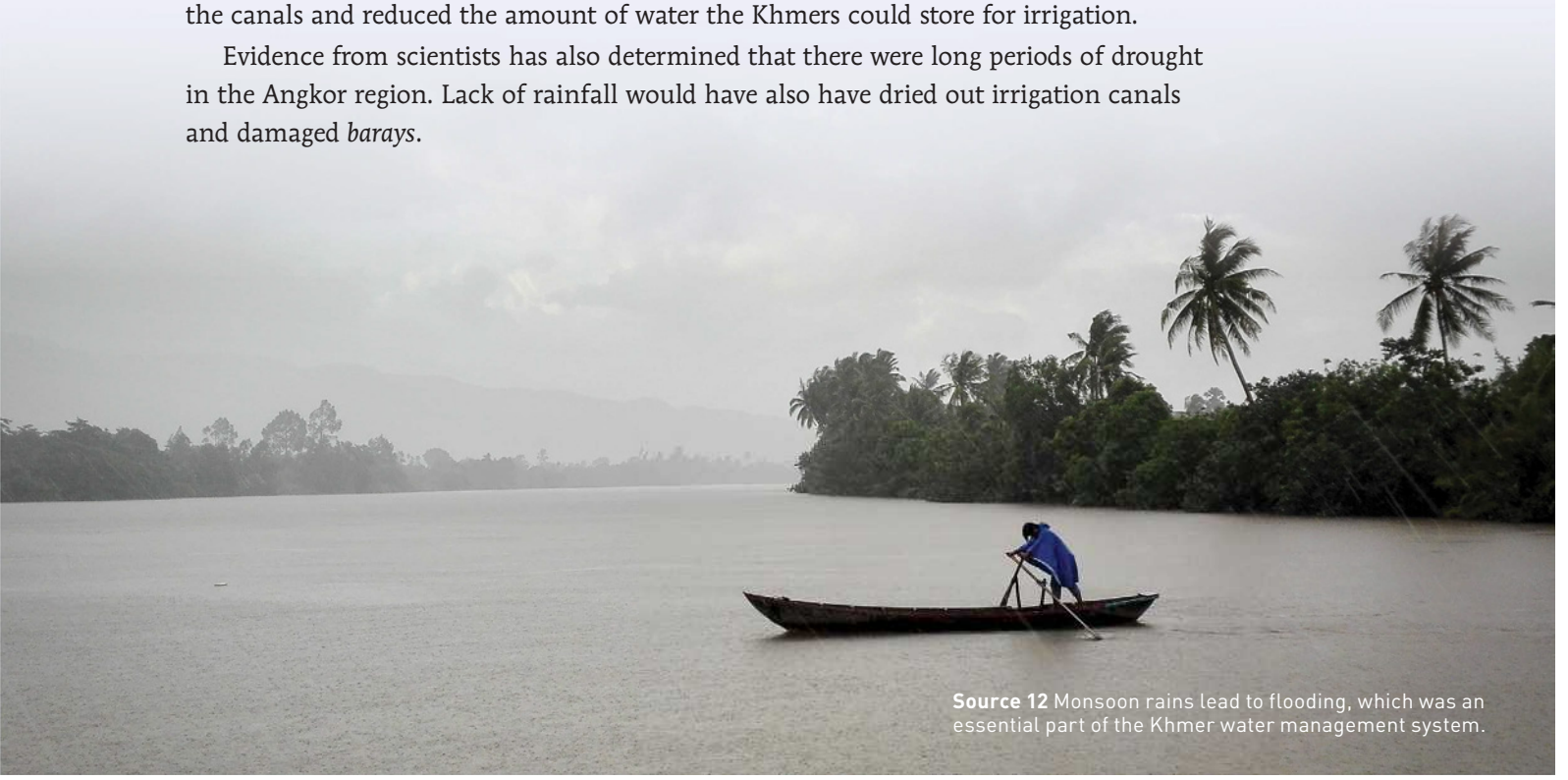
Because the water management systems and reliable monsoon rains were vital for food production, trade and travel, they were all badly affected by changes in the local environment, such as the clearing of forests for farming. As forest areas were cut down in the heavily populated areas to the north and 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*.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

With water being crucial to all aspects of life, the breakdown of the water management system was significant, contributing to the end of the empire.



Source 12 Monsoon rains lead to flooding, which was an essential part of the Khmer water management system.

Historians believe that, from the thirteenth century onwards, 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.

The collapse of the once powerful empire appears to have been due to a combination of factors, including local climate change and over-development that was not environmentally sustainable.



Source 13 The breakdown of the water management system from the thirteenth century may have contributed to the decline of the Khmer Empire. Today, this farm close to Tonle Sap once again has a reliable source of water.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What evidence did historians and archaeologists offer to support their claims that there was a decline in the vital monsoon rains in the late twelfth century?
2. Outline the sequence of events that followed the decline in monsoon rainfall and how they contributed to the collapse of Khmer society.
3. Explain how deforestation (cutting down forests) might have affected Khmer agriculture and trade.

11B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT WERE THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE ANGKOR/ KHMER EMPIRE AND WHY DID IT DECLINE?

» Using a range of sources and the site of Angkor as an historical source, describe what it reveals 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. (15 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. (10 marks)

Total marks [/35]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

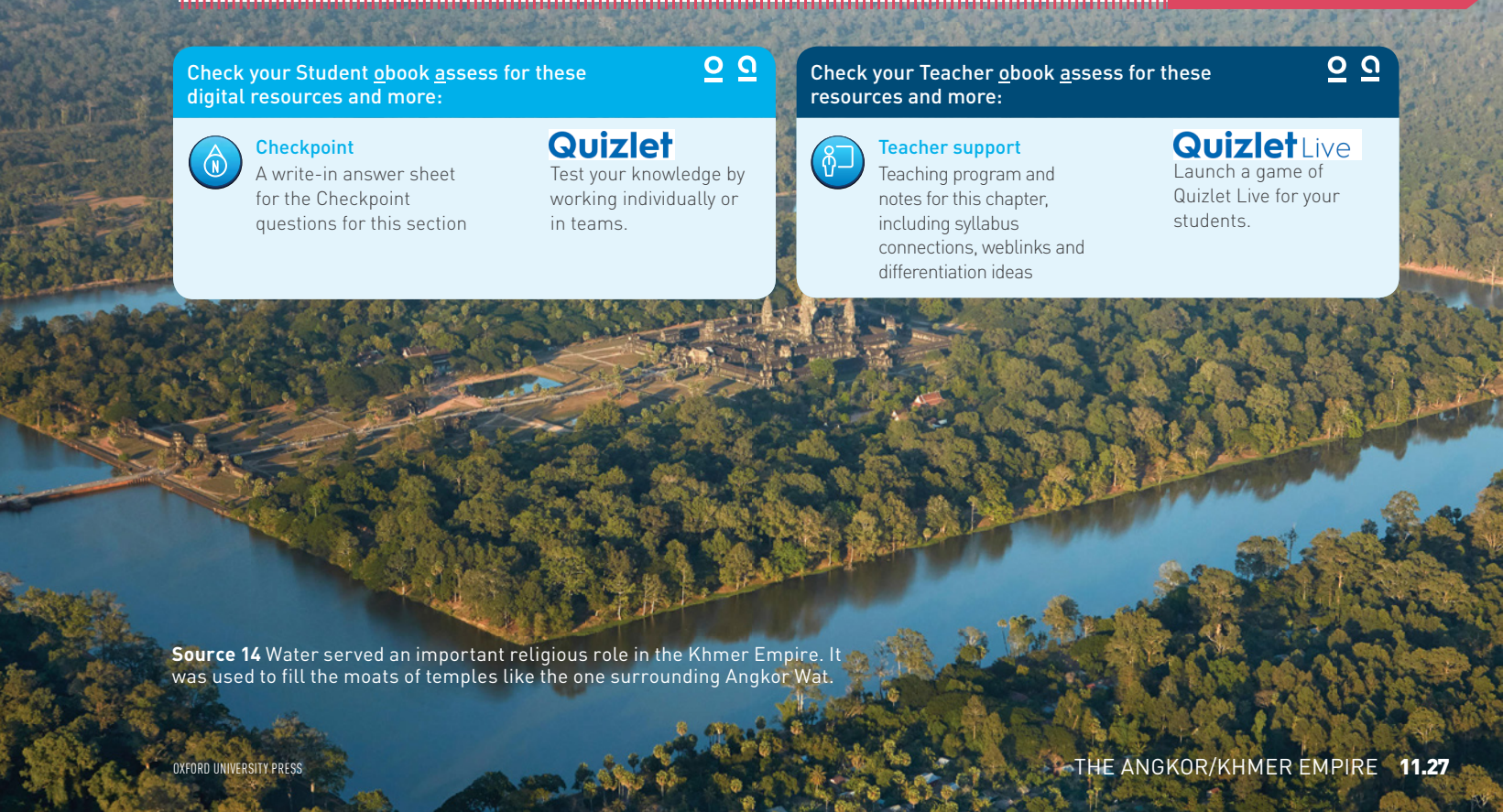
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

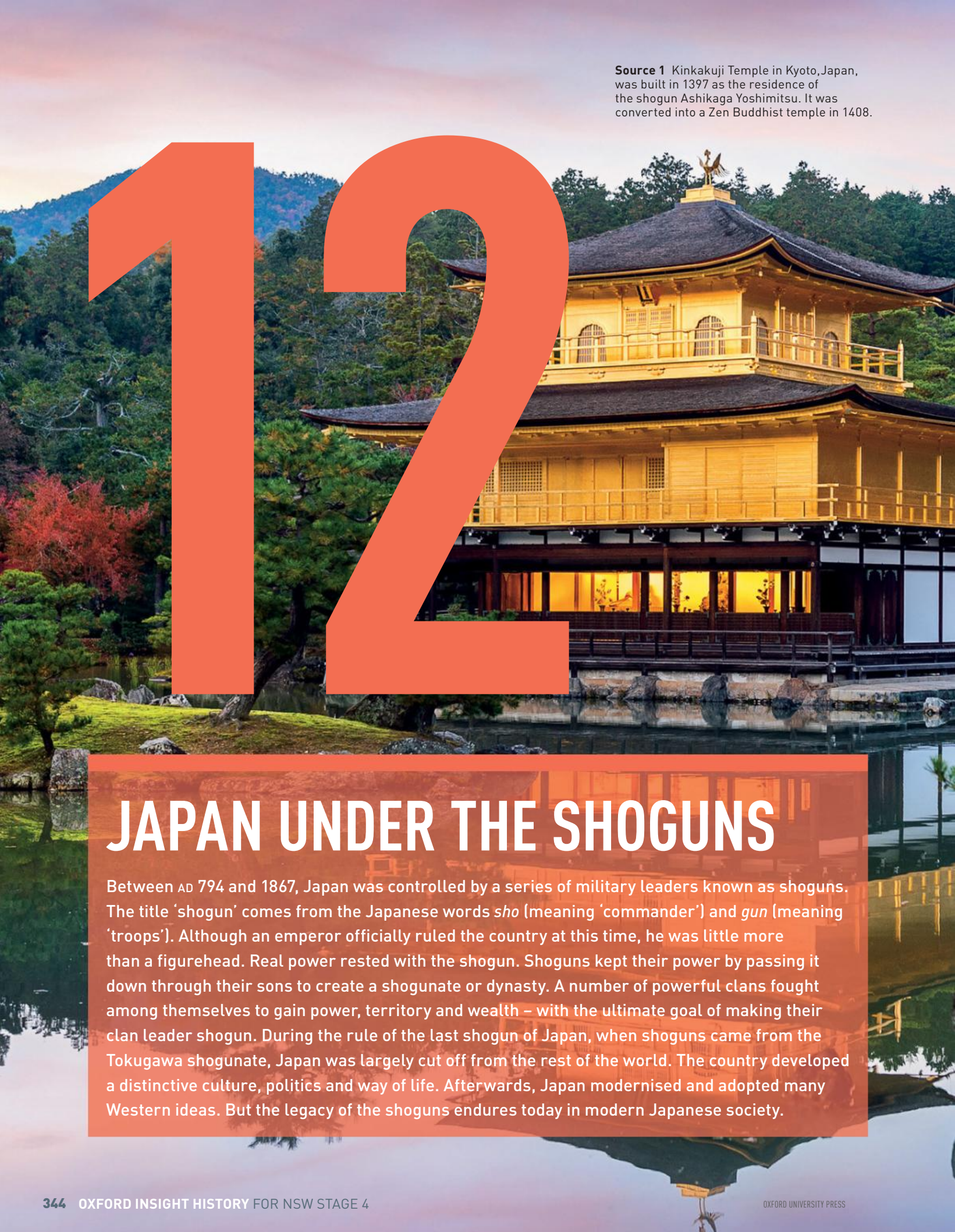
Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 14 Water served an important religious role in the Khmer Empire. It was used to fill the moats of temples like the one surrounding Angkor Wat.



Source 1 Kinkakuji Temple in Kyoto, Japan, was built in 1397 as the residence of the shogun Ashikaga Yoshimitsu. It was converted into a Zen Buddhist temple in 1408.

12

JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

Between AD 794 and 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 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.

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HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 12A

In this section you will:

» sequence the Nara and Heian periods and the Kamakura, Muromachi and Tokugawa shogunates

» identify key places in Japan during this period

» identify the roles and relationships of key groups in this society using sources

» outline key cultural, economic and political features of Japanese society, including the increasing power of the shogun

» describe how the Japanese used land and forests as resources

» outline the Tokugawa shogunate's policies on forestry and land use

» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Japan under the shoguns.

CASE STUDY: THE SAMURAI AND THE CODE OF *BUSHIDO*

CHECKPOINT 12A

HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS? 12B

In this section you will:

» outline how the Tokugawa shogunate took control of Japan by AD 1603

» 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 from AD 1639

» 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 the shogunate

» explain how the shogunate influenced modern Japan.

CHECKPOINT 12B

A note on names

In this chapter, Japanese names will be presented using the traditional Japanese convention of family name first and then the given name second. Therefore, the famous shogun whose given name was Ieyasu and family name was Tokugawa, will be referred to as Tokugawa Ieyasu.

JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS – A TIMELINE



Source 2 A Japanese screen print of fighting between samurai

TIMELINE

AD 794
Start of the Heian period; the imperial court moves to Heian-kyo (later known as Kyoto).

1333
The Kamakura shogunate is overthrown by the emperor.

1467
Warring States period begins, as the influence of the Ashikaga shogunate declines.

710 — 790 — 1180 — 1330 — 1460 — 1540

AD 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 3 The Buddhist temple at Nara was first constructed in AD 752 and rebuilt in the eighteenth century.



Source 4 A statue of Tokugawa Ieyasu, founder of the Tokugawa shogunate



Source 5
Commodore Matthew Perry

1573
End of the Warring States period and of the Ashikaga shogunate; start of the 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

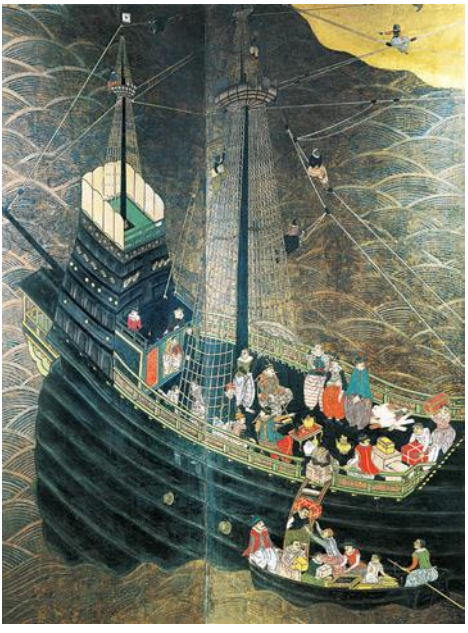
1543
First contact between Europeans and Japanese; Western firearms are introduced, and trading between European and Japanese merchants begins.

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, ending Japan's *sakoku* period.

1867
Tokugawa Yoshinobu steps down; he hands power to Emperor Meiji, restoring the imperial regime.



Source 6
A sixteenth-century screen print showing Portuguese traders unloading their goods in Japan

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How long did the following periods in Japanese history last?
   - **a** the start to the end of shogun rule
   - **b** the Tokugawa shogunate
   - **c** Japan's isolation from the West.

2 Name four Tokugawa shoguns and give an example of each shogun's achievements or policies.

12A HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

12.1 JAPAN'S GEOGRAPHY AND ITS HISTORY OF WARRING CLANS

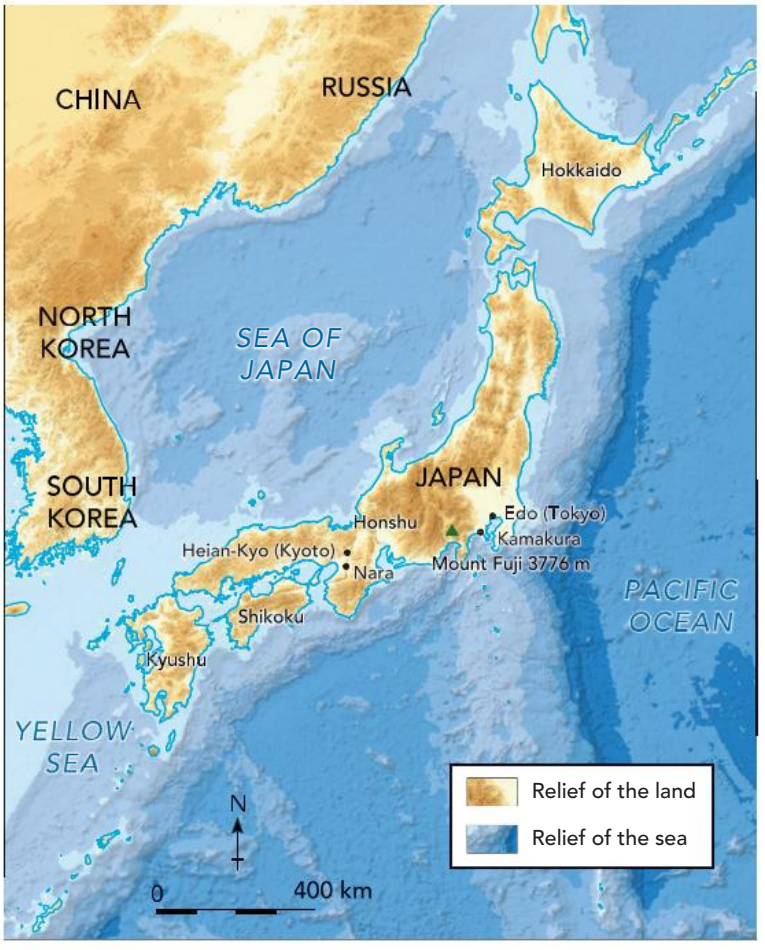
KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- sequence the Nara and Heian periods and the Kamakura, Muromachi and Tokugawa shogunates
- identify key places in Japan during this period.

clan
a group of people linked and united in their aims and behaviours by the knowledge (or a belief) that they share

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.



Source 1 Japan is a chain of islands. The peaks of underwater mountain ranges form the islands on the surface of the Pacific Ocean.

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 an important part of the diet in modern-day Japan.

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 thirteenth century were not successful. This was despite the best efforts of China's mighty Yuan Dynasty led by the Mongol warrior Kublai Khan.

Japan's geographical isolation

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 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Japan's limited contact with other societies shaped its unique culture and way of life.

Confucianism
a code of behaviour founded by the Chinese thinker K'ung Ch'iu (known as Confucius) in the early fifth century BC; Confucius believed his ideas would help maintain order and respect within families, relationships and the society itself

12.1 SOURCE STUDY

The natural features of Japan



Source 2 A typical landscape of Japan; Mount Fuji is the large snow-capped mountain in the background.

INTERPRET

1 Describe the natural features of the Japanese landscape shown in Source 2.

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').

samurai
a Japanese medieval warrior

In the fifth 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 seventh century, the Yamato chiefs came to be known as emperors 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 AD 710, the emperor established a new capital at Nara. In AD 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 twelfth century onwards.

shogun
a title given to Japan's top military rulers between the twelfth and nineteenth centuries

The rise of the shoguns

Warring between rival clans was common 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 became the first shogun of Japan and it was he, rather than the emperor, who 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 ruled Japan while the emperor and his court lived in isolation with no real power.

shogunate
the office, rule or dynasty of a shogun in medieval Japan



Source 3 An illustration showing 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 valuable items 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 new '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.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

When evaluating the life of a significant individual, historians often encounter vastly different interpretations. A crucial skill is in reading widely and finding middle ground through common elements in different sources.

12.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

EVALUATE AND CREATE

1 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.

GO DEEPER

2 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. Present your findings as a 300-word report and include at least two images with captions.

12.2 THE SOCIETY AND ECONOMY OF JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the roles and relationships of key groups in this society using sources
- outline key cultural, economic and political features of Japanese society, including the increasing power of the shogun
- describe how the Japanese used land and forests as resources
- outline the Tokugawa shogunate's policies on forestry and land use.

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**, merchants and traders, and the two outcast groups (the *eta* and *hinin*). 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 of use. Merchants wore clothes made of intricately woven materials and silks, reflecting their wealth.



Source 4 A cloth merchant with his customers, *c.* 1880

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Studying history can be like studying a new language, with many specific terms arising in particular topics. These are often unique terms without a direct translation in modern English, which is why historians adopt and use them.

daimyo
a Japanese lord

artisan
a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)



Source 5 A samurai, 1864

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 6 A carpenter, *c.* 1880s

geisha
a Japanese hostess trained to entertain men with conversation, dance and song

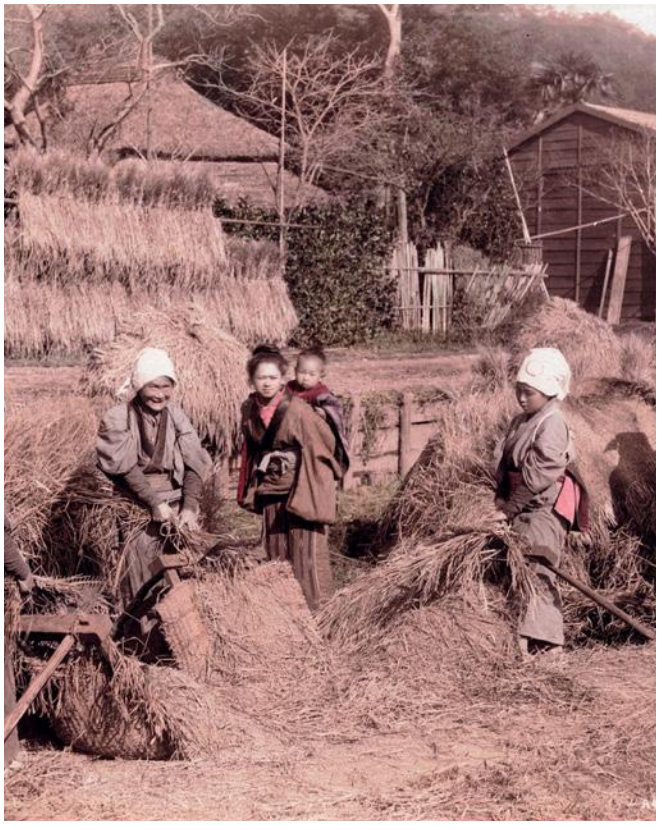
The role of women

STRANGE BUT TRUE

There are a number of accounts of female samurai. Women who became samurai could rise above the ranks of peasants, but were always beneath male samurai.

In Japan during the rule of the shoguns, women were considered 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 if she 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**. 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 7 Japanese peasant farmers, *c.* 1860s



Source 8 An eighteenth-century Japanese painting of two women reading a book

12.2 SOURCE STUDY

The role of women in Japan during the time of the shoguns

Source 9

> 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.

Ekiken Kaibara, Greater Learning for Women *(written c. 1700), translated in* Women and Wisdom of Japan, *John Murray, London, 1907, pp. 37–8*

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Even though sources will always be useful for studying some aspects of ancient societies, they have limitations and are therefore most effective when corroborated by a range of other sources.

INTERPRET

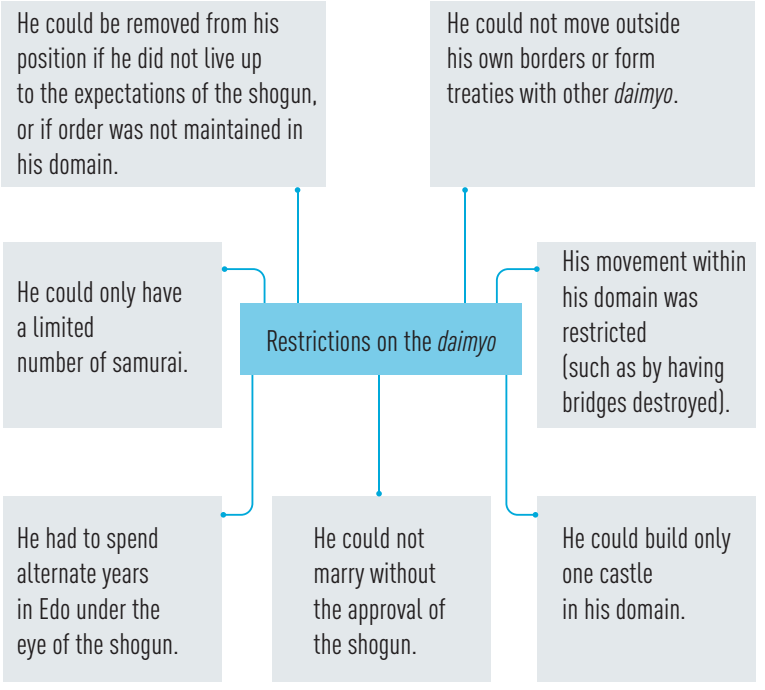
1 What does Source 9 suggest about where women went to live after they were married?
2 What does the source reveal about the role of women in Japan during the time of the shoguns?
3 What are the limitations of this source as evidence of the lives of women?

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 **feudalism**. 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 10).

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services



Source 10 Some of the restrictions placed on the *daimyo* by shogun Tokugawa Ieyasu

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the power and influence of the *daimyo* in comparison with the shogun.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

The growth of urban society

The base in the domain of each *daimyo* was the castle. By 1615, more than 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 farmland 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.



Source 11 Himeji Castle is more than 400 years old. A winding path from the gate to the keep was designed to slow down invaders.

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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 for 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.



Source 12 Japanese cedar forests were strictly managed in the Tokugawa period.

12.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Order the 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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. 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.

GO DEEPER

6. Find out more about the outcast groups of Japanese society: the *eta* ('much filth') and *hinin* ('non-persons'). What were their roles in society?

CASE STUDY:

The samurai and the code of *bushido*

bushido
the code of behaviour of the Japanese samurai warrior that required honour, loyalty (even to death), good living, thrift and martial arts skill

The samurai and their role in Japanese society are sometimes loosely compared to the feudal society and the role of the knights in medieval Europe. There are some similarities but on closer examination, the samurai and the guiding principles of ***bushido*** are unique and are important for understanding some of the key aspects of Japanese thinking. It is, for example, impossible to understand the behaviour of the Japanese army during the Second World War without understanding the legacy of the samurai and the code of *bushido*.

The so-called code of *bushido* or 'ways of the warrior' was in fact a collective term for a number of codes or guidelines for the conduct of samurai warriors. It originated during the Edo period, from around 1600, and was a set of moral values based on aspects of Confucianism, Buddhism and Shinto. *Bushido* involved loyalty to superiors unto death, physical courage and the refinement of martial arts skills.

During training, samurai were expected to withstand many physical challenges, such as walking barefoot through snow or going long periods without food. According to *bushido*, the 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, he was expected to commit ritual suicide. It was thought that by taking his life in this way, the samurai and his family would be spared public shame and disgrace.



Source 13 A Japanese samurai on horseback in full armour



Source 14 A European knight on horseback in full armour

During the Tokugawa period, many of the principles about the role of different classes and their obligations became part of the law of the land. When Shinto finally became the official state religion of Japan at the time of the Meiji Restoration from 1868, many of the principles of *bushido* also became part of government organisation and regulation. In terms of continuity, aspects of the code then survived the Meiji Restoration and even lasted into the twentieth century when some of them became part of the Imperial Japanese Army's Field Service Code during the Second World War. Japanese officers in that war carried samurai swords into battle.

The ideas of the samurai and *bushido* were used during the nineteenth century by nationalists to help create a distinctive sense of national identity in Japan as the country modernised. One such nationalist was Nitobe Inazo, who published a book in 1899 called *Bushido: The Soul of Japan,* in which he listed the eight virtues of the Code of *Bushido:*

1 righteousness
2 heroic courage
3 benevolence and compassion
4 respect
5 honesty
6 honour
7 duty and loyalty
8 self-control.



Source 15 The samurai's sword became the symbol of his status and honour.

These virtues could be seen as admirable. However, duty and loyalty could be extended to mean unthinking obedience, and this resulted in the worst aspects of *bushido*.

Many of these virtues were also significantly corrupted during the Showa period, before and during the Second World War, when the idea of *bushido* was exploited for the ambitions of the Japanese militarists and ultra-nationalists. Virtue was no longer about doing the right thing or displaying 'benevolence and compassion', it became all about loyalty to the emperor and obedience to all orders from above. To question authority meant that you were disloyal. If you were disloyal, you had failed in your duty and you therefore lacked honour and no longer deserved respect. In other words, the eight virtues were all condensed into two:

- the authority of the emperor
- obedience to all orders handed down from above.

This made assassination and murder, then war crimes and crimes against humanity, possible by people who believed that they were acting honourably as long as they were obedient to the emperor's will.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

GO DEEPER

1 Research and create a presentation about the samurai. Include information and sources about their training, armour and fighting style. Include an explanation of specific terms such as *bushido*, *seppuku* and *ronin*.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the illustration in Source 15.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

During the Tokugawa period, the rituals and training for every samurai began at the age of 5 years. Young samurai learnt fighting and military skills, as well as reading, writing, calligraphy, etiquette and public service. By the age of 15, the samurai had finished their training. This was recognised at a formal ceremony.

12.3 CULTURE AND EVERYDAY LIFE IN JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline key cultural, economic and political features of Japanese society, including the increasing power of the shogun
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Japan under the shoguns.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Shinto and Buddhism provide very different frameworks for living, and for remembering ancestors after they died.

Shinto
a Japanese religion dating from the early eighth century and incorporating the worship of ancestors and nature spirits and a belief in sacred power (*kami*) in both living and non-living things

Buddhism
a widespread Asian religion or philosophy, founded by Siddartha Gautama in north-east India in the fifth century BC

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, such as the sun, hills, lakes, mountains, rivers and trees, 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.



Source 16 A nineteenth-century print showing followers of Shinto leaving offerings of food at a shrine

Buddhism arrived in Japan from China in the sixth 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.

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.

Source 17 Sushi is made using raw fish.



Food and diet

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 fourteenth and fifteenth 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.

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 18 *Bunraku* (puppet plays) developed over a long time to become a popular form of entertainment.

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.

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.

12.3 SOURCE STUDY

Everyday life in Japan under the shoguns



Source 19 A nineteenth-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 20 A nineteenth-century illustration of a Japanese family eating



Source 21 An eighteenth-century painting of a *daimyo* being groomed by servants

INTERPRET

1. Find an image of a sumo wrestling competition today. Compare it with Source 19. Note what has changed about sumo wrestling and what has remained the same.
2. Observe the style of family dining shown in Source 20. 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 21. How does it differ from the clothing worn by people in the other social groups?

12.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. How do Shinto followers ward off evil spirits?
2. How did sushi originate?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. Explain why samurai in the Tokugawa shogunate had to be well educated.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4. Conduct research to present a short report or speech 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)?

GO DEEPER

5. 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.

12A

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS JAPANESE SOCIETY ORGANISED DURING THE RULE OF THE SHOGUNS AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Sequence the Nara and Heian periods and the Kamakura, Muromachi and Tokugawa shogunates

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. (12 marks)

- Azuchi–Momoyama period
- Heian period
- Kamakura period
- Muromachi shogunate
- Nara period
- Tokugawa shogunate

» Identify key places in Japan during this period

2 Identify three cities that served as capitals during this period (3 marks).

» Identify the roles and relationships of key groups in this society using sources

3 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)

4 Identify ways in which women were subordinate to men in Japan when shoguns ruled. (5 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? (3 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. (5 marks)

» Describe how the Japanese used land and forests as resources

8 How did the Japanese use timber in the past? (2 marks)

» Outline the Tokugawa shogunate's policies on forestry and land use

9 What policies did the Tokugawa shoguns put in place to manage forest resources? (3 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Japan under the shoguns

10 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. (15 marks)

- food and clothing
- leisure activities
- education.

Total marks [/55]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Rich task
Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

12B HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS?

12.4 EARLY RULE AND STRENGTHENING OF FEUDALISM

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline how the Tokugawa shogunate took control of Japan by AD 1603**
- **describe how the Tokugawa shoguns revived the feudal system in Japan.**

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Over time, political adjustments are often made to maintain stability. In the case of the shogunate, there was a shift from military to bureaucratic service.

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 Hideyoshi's death, Tokugawa Ieyasu became shogun.

Policies to strengthen feudalism

Ieyasu had spent much of his life at war and in 1603, his priority as the new shogun was to maintain a stable government and social order. In order to do this, Ieyasu moved to strengthen Japan's feudal system. 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.

Source 1 A seventeenth-century illustration of a samurai armed with a bow and arrow



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.

12.4 SOURCE STUDY

Policies to strengthen feudalism

Source 2

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 3 A litter was used to transport wealthy Japanese people in the nineteenth century.

INTERPRET

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'.

12.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Imagine you are a reporter visiting Japan during the Tokugawa shogunate. Describe the social and political changes that have taken place and present an opinion on whether the changes are positive or negative.

12.5 TOKUGAWA POLICIES TO ISOLATE JAPAN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how foreign trade was controlled by the Tokugawa shoguns
- explain why the Tokugawa shoguns isolated Japan from the rest of the world from AD 1639.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

First contact always highlights the opposing views of different groups. Usually both societies perceive their way of life to be superior and while aspects of other cultures might be adopted, resistance and conflict often ensue.

The 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 (a Catholic order). The Jesuits set up a mission in Japan to convert the Japanese from their traditional religious beliefs to Christianity. By 1570, more than 30 000 Japanese had become Christians. European traders were welcomed by the *daimyo* because 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 4

> 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*

sakoku
means 'the locked country'; Japan's foreign policy during the Tokugawa shogunate (1633–1853) that forbade any Japanese person to leave Japan, or any foreigner to enter it

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 saw 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.



Source 5 A screen painting, *The Portuguese Arriving in Japan*, depicting early contact between European traders and the Japanese

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***. 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 remained in place until the arrival of the American Commodore Matthew Perry in 1853. Source 6 summarises the reasoning behind the introduction of the 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 reflected 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.

12.5 SOURCE STUDY

Isolating Japan from foreign influence

Source 6

> 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 ...
>
> *Constantine Vaporis*, Voices of Early Modern Japan, *Westview Press, 2013, p. 207*

Source 7 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 ...

Arthur Tiedermann, Modern Japan, *D. Van Norstand Co., Princeton, New Jersey, 1962, pp. 103–4*

INTERPRET

1. According to Source 6, 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?

The Tokugawa shogunate will display its strength by controlling what happens in Japan. We will control what comes into Japan from outside.

Foreign merchants will be limited to certain parts of the country. They will not be allowed to go anywhere they choose.

All of this is good for the Japanese, therefore our policy will be enforced with harsh penalties for those who break the rules.



There was so much death, destruction and waste during the Warring States period. My greatest challenge is to keep the peace and maintain order.

Foreign Christian priests will not be allowed to preach and influence the Japanese people. The people need to be loyal to Japan, not to a foreign god with a chief priest who lives far away and knows nothing of the country.

Source 8 Tokugawa Iemitsu's reasoning for the introduction of the *sakoku* policy

12.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Match these dates and events.

1543	Closure edict is issued.
1614	First contact is made between Europeans and Japanese.
1636	Japan's isolation period ends.
1853	Christianity is banned.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

2 Read Source 8. If you were one of shogun Iemitsu's advisers, what would you advise about the policy of isolation? Consider the following points:

- 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?

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12.6 THE END OF THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- 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 the shogunate
- explain how the shogunate influenced modern Japan.

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, relating to both internal and external pressures for change.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The end of feudalism in Japan contributed to rapid change in society. Isolation ended, with trade opening up and changes to the administration being made to ensure stability.

Internal pressures for change

From the 1840s, the policy of isolating Japan was increasingly questioned by 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.

12.6A SOURCE STUDY

Internal pressures undermining Tokugawa authority

Source 9

> 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.
>
> *Arthur Tiedermann,* Modern Japan, *D. Van Norstand Co., Princeton, New Jersey, 1962, pp. 15–16*

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Sources provide historians with a wealth of information. A key skill is extracting meaning from the evidence to explain what it reveals about the society.

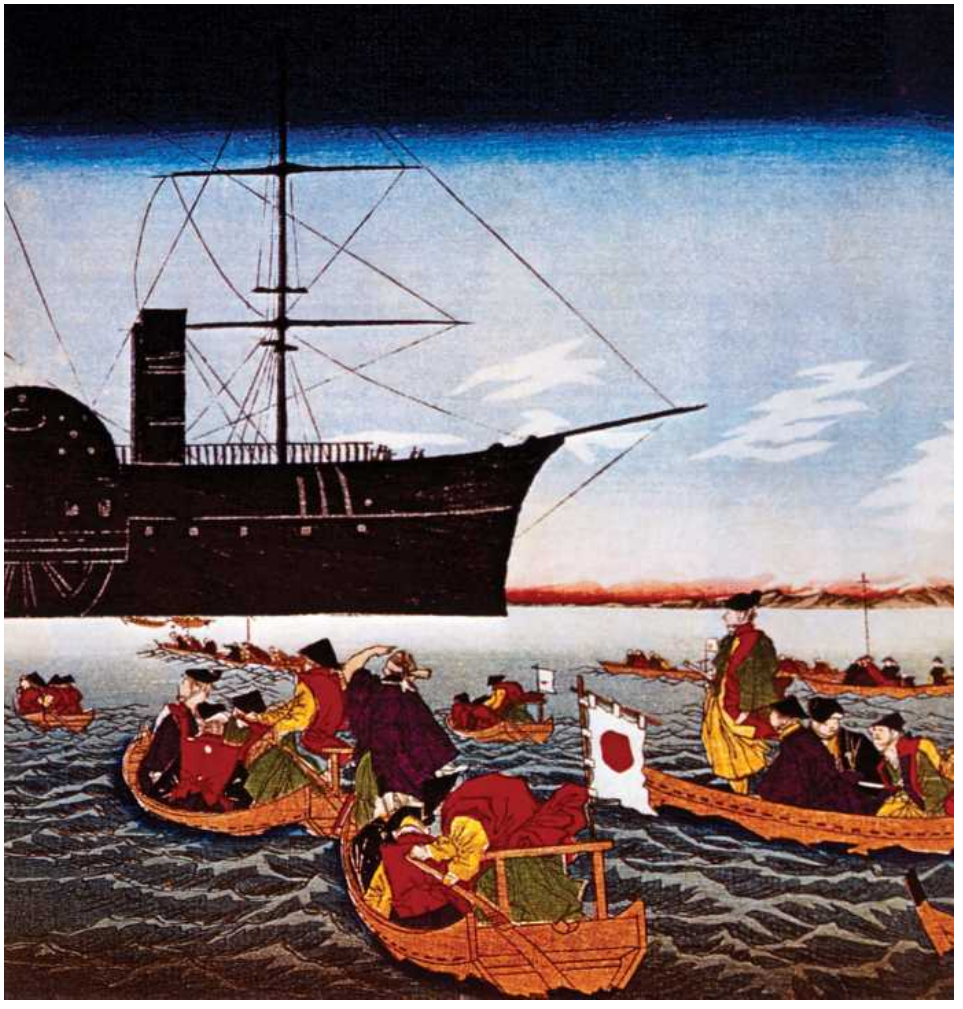
INTERPRET

1 Read Source 9. Explain why there was a change to the 'period of economic expansion and prosperity' in the first century of Tokugawa rule.
2 What evidence does Source 9 provide about why peasants were unhappy with the shogun and *daimyo* in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries? Why were the samurai 'increasingly impatient'?
3 Discuss how the Tokugawa shogunate may have contributed to its own decline.

External pressures for change

In the mid-nineteenth 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, with much larger warships, to hear the shogun's reply. 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.



Source 10 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'.

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.

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 11 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 1894–95, gaining the island of Taiwan, and a war against Russia in 1904–05.

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.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about Japan and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

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 Coal production in Japan, 1875–1913

Year	Train track laid (kilometres)
1872	29
1883	386
1887	1030
1894	3380
1904	7564
1914	11 426

Source 13 Length of train tracks laid in Japan, 1872–1914

12.6B SOURCE STUDY

Modernising and Westernising Japan



Source 14 Japanese soldiers landing in China during the Sino-Japanese War, 1894–95



Source 15 An artist's impression of the Tokyo terminus of the new Tokyo–Yokohama railway, built in 1872 with the aid of foreign engineers

INTERPRET

1 Examine Sources 14 and 15. 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Conflicts such as the Opium War between China and Britain are interpreted very differently depending on the individual bias of the researcher. It's important to understand the differing perspectives to make a reasoned judgment based on the evidence.

12.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 By the end of the nineteenth 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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Gifts brought by the Americans to the Japanese in 1854 included guns and ammunition, a telegraph, a telescope, lifeboats, farming tools, standard US measures, whiskey and wine, tea, stoves, books about science and new discoveries, and a miniature locomotive, coach and track. What does this reveal about American interests in 1854?
5 Create line graphs based on the figures in Sources 12 and 13. Write a statement about what is shown by the graphs.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6 In small groups, 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.

GO DEEPER

7 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. Research to find out 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? Include examples of opposing views, providing the strengths and weaknesses of each account.

12B

HOW WAS JAPAN RULED UNDER THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNS?

» Outline how the Tokugawa shogunate took control of Japan by AD 1603

1 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. (6 marks)

3 What other policy tried to maintain social order in Japan? Refer to sources in your response. (5 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 from AD 1639

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 nineteenth century? (5 marks)

» Assess the importance of Western influence on the decline of the shogunate

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 to justify your choices. (4 marks)

» Explain how the shogunate influenced modern Japan

10 Create an infographic to summarise how the policies of the Tokugawa shoguns have influenced modern Japan. (10 marks)

11 Discuss this statement: 'The story of how Japan became modern begins not in 1868, but in 1603'. (10 marks)

Total marks [/60]

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

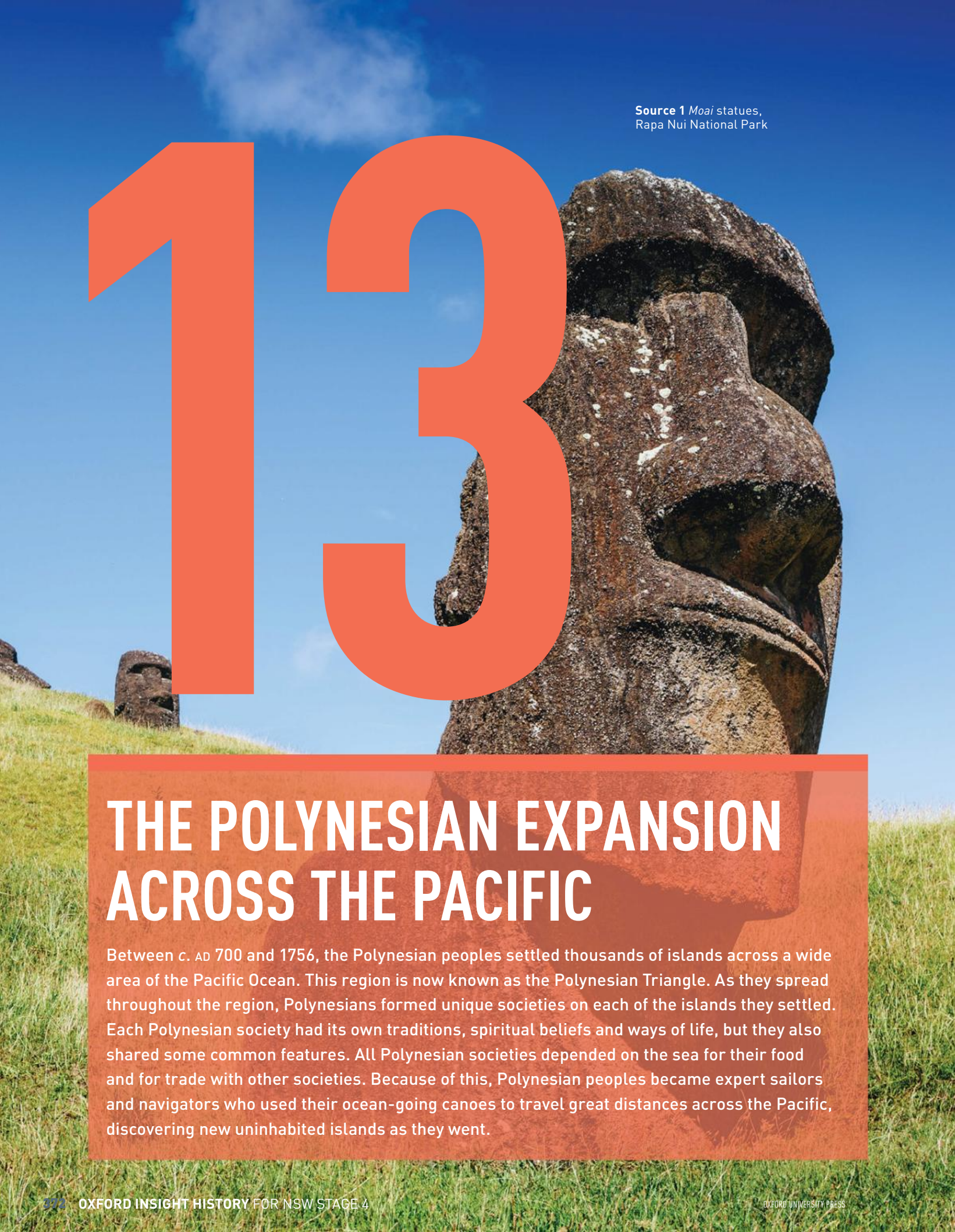
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

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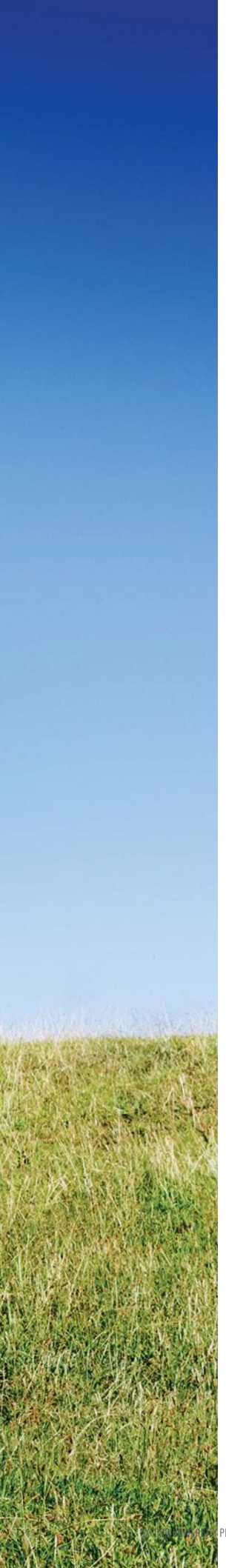


Source 1 *Moai* statues, Rapa Nui National Park

13

THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC

Between *c.* AD 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? 13A

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 of Polynesia
» use sources to describe the *moai* of Easter Island
» assess uses of environmental resources on Easter Island.

CASE STUDY: THE *MOAI* OF EASTER ISLAND

CHECKPOINT 13A

HOW WAS MĀORI SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 13B

In this section you will:

» describe the social, cultural, economic and political features of Māori society
» using a range of sources, describe the cultural achievements of Māori society
» describe and assess the use of environmental resources in Māori society
» describe everyday life in Māori society.

CHECKPOINT 13B

THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC – A TIMELINE



Source 2 Lapita pottery

TIMELINE

c. 1500 BC
Evidence from discoveries of Lapita pottery suggests the ancestors of Polynesian peoples reach the Bismarck Archipelago, north of New Guinea.

c. 1000 BC
Samoa is settled.

c. AD 950
Māori myth suggests Chief Kupe sails to New Zealand and names it 'Aotearoa'.

c. 1150
Māori myth suggests the Polynesian explorers Toi and Whatonga arrive in Aotearoa.

4000 | 3000 | 2000 | 1000 | BC | AD | 1000 | 1100 | 12

c. 4000 BC
The ancestors of Polynesian peoples begin to move east from China and South-East Asia into Polynesia.

c. AD 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. 1000
Humans are degrading Easter Island's environment. Deforestation is occurring.



Source 3 Moai on Easter Island (Rapa Nui)

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Source 4
A 19th-century artist's impression of the arrival of the Great Fleet in Aotearoa (New

c. 1350
According to myth, the Great Fleet arrives and Māori people begin to settle in Aotearoa.

1722
First European contact with the Rapa Nui people. Dutch Admiral Jacob Roggeveen names Rapa Nui 'Easter Island'.

c. 1600
As resources run out on Easter Island, there is warring between clans and the people practise cannibalism.

200 1300 1400 1500 1600 1700 1800

c. 1400
Most species of the moa, a flightless bird of New Zealand, are extinct after being hunted as a source of food.

1642
The Dutch explorer Abel Tasman claims Aotearoa, or 'New Zealand', for Holland.



Source 5
Moas were hunted to extinction.

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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:
   - **a** Easter Island
   - **b** Hawaii
   - **c** New Zealand
   - **d** Samoa

3 Which Polynesian societies are associated with each of the following?
   - **a** cannibalism
   - **b** the Great Fleet
   - **c** moa
   - **d** *moai*

13A HOW DID POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES SPREAD ACROSS THE PACIFIC AND WHERE DID THEY SETTLE?

13.1 GEOGRAPHY AND NATURAL FEATURES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the geographic extent and natural features of Polynesia
- locate the Pacific regions settled by the Polynesians.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

There are many cultures and ethnicities within Polynesia. Specific historical terms and concepts assist historians with understanding the unique aspects of each society.

anthropologist
a person who specialises in the study of human behaviour and the physical, social and cultural developments of humans

Polynesian Triangle
a region of the Pacific Ocean with three island groups at its corners: Hawaii, Easter Island (also known as Rapa Nui) and New Zealand

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 the islands in the central and south Pacific Ocean. **Anthropologists** 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.

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 are 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.

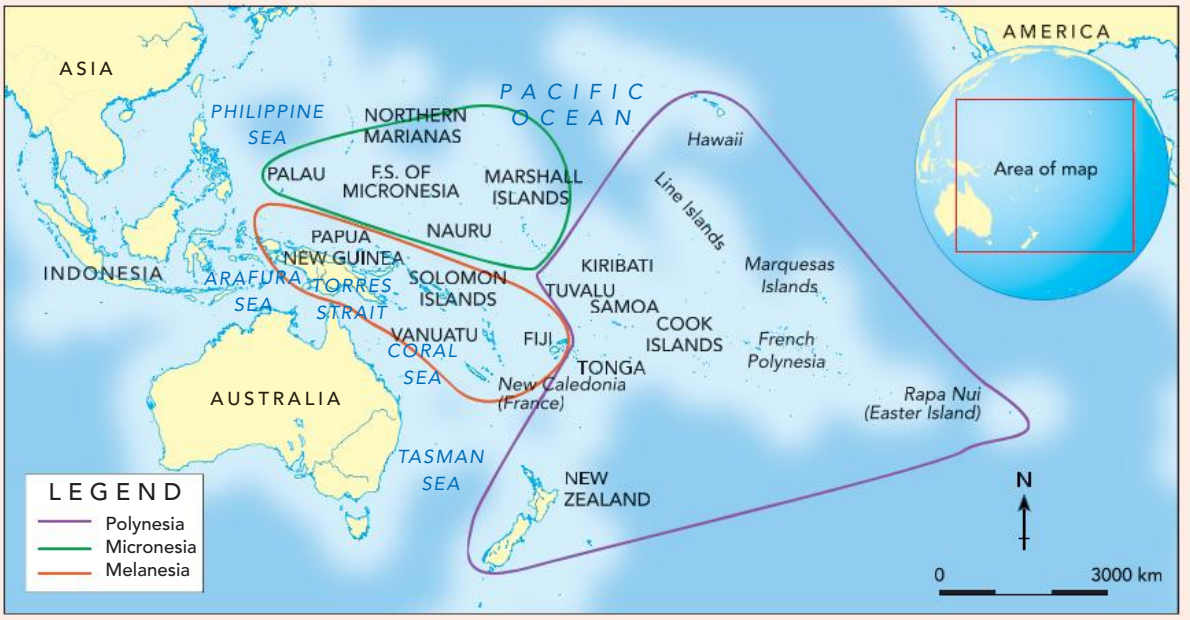


Source 1 Crater of the volcano Rano Kau on Rapa Nui (Easter Island)

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13.1 SOURCE STUDY

The geography and natural features of Polynesia



Source 2 The areas of the three cultural groupings in Oceania, which includes all the islands in the central and south Pacific Ocean



Source 3 Namu atoll in the Marshall Islands



Source 4 South Bay and the Seaward Kaikouru Mountains, South Island, New Zealand

INTERPRET

1. Examine Source 2. 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 3 and 4 show the natural environments of different parts of Polynesia. Suggest how the different environments would have affected people's ways of life.

13.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What are the boundaries of the Polynesian Triangle?
2. What are the different climates and natural features on the islands of Polynesia?

GO DEEPER

3. In a pair or small 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.

13.2 THEORIES ABOUT POLYNESIAN EXPANSION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline theories about the origin and spread of Polynesian settlers throughout the Pacific.**

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Both the origins and movement of Polynesian peoples are disputed by historians. Unlike for many other ancient societies, written accounts are limited, meaning that historians have to make educated guesses.

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)?

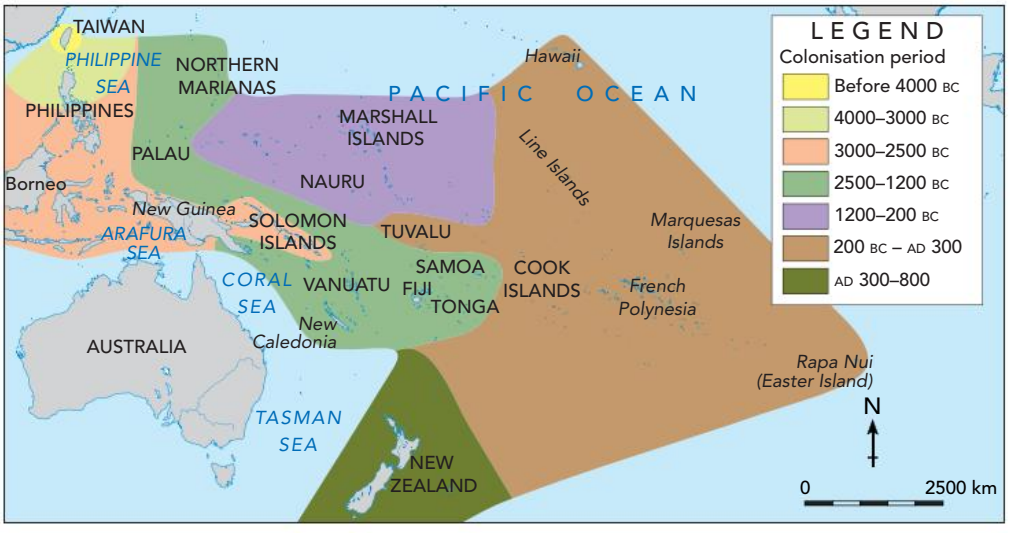
Some historians say that Polynesian settlers originated from South America, possibly from modern-day Peru. They say the settlers floated across the ocean on rafts made from balsa wood, which was common in that area. Historians who support this idea believe regular wind patterns and ocean currents would 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 carved stone moai on Easter Island (see Sources 5 and 6).

Source 5 *Moai* on Easter Island





Source 6 A Mayan stone statue in Central America; the Mayans were a powerful Central American civilisation in ancient times



Source 7 Most historians now believe Polynesian settlers colonised the islands of the Pacific in the order shown in this map.

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Recent archaeological evidence, however, has supported an opposing view – that Polynesian settlers had travelled from the east. 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 8 A Polynesian rat

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.

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 tell us about the canoes that brought the first settlers to New Zealand to a place called Hawaiki, which may have been 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Polynesian rat is 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Historians have always held theories about Polynesian expansion. As technology has improved, historians have continued to hold these theories, but scientific techniques have changed our understanding, providing more insight into the society.

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

DNA testing
the examination of DNA used to explore links between ancient remains in order to support historical theories



Source 9 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.



Source 10 Replicas of Polynesian double-hulled, ocean-going canoes; similar boats would have been used by early voyagers to cross the Pacific Ocean.

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 subject to 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 domesticated plants and animals, including taro, bananas, coconuts, pigs, chickens and dogs.

13.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4. 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.

GO DEEPER

5. Find a traditional Māori story, or a 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?

13.3 COMMON FEATURES OF POLYNESIAN SOCIETIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the different societies of Polynesia
- use sources to describe the *moai* of Easter Island
- assess uses of environmental resources on Easter Island.

Polynesian societies developed in many ways that are similar:

- Polynesian languages are closely related and contain many similar words (see Source 12).
- 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 12 Some words are similar across Polynesian languages

English word	Tahitian word	Hawaiian word	Māori word
person	*ta'ata*	*kanaka*	*tāngata*
eye	*mata*	*maka*	*mata*
wind	*mata'i*	*makani*	*matangi*

13.3A SOURCE STUDY

Common features of Polynesian societies



Source 13 Sketch made by French explorer Dumont D'Urville in the 1800s, showing a traditional Tongan tattoo



Source 14 Wooden figure representing the god Ku Kaili in Hawaii

INTERPRET

1 How could historians use sources such as Source 13 and 14 to investigate Polynesian cultures?

2 For each source, write three inquiry questions. Use these words to start your questions: who, what, where, when, why and how.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The close proximity of the Polynesian societies to each other, combined with the topography, caused the development of similar languages, industry and religious beliefs.



Source 11 Kumara is the Māori name for this variety of sweet potato.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

There are approximately 40 Polynesian languages spoken today. The oldest and most widely spoken of these is Samoan. Aside from formal and informal language, ceremonial speech is also used for special occasions.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about Sources 13 and 14 to determine what they reveal about Polynesian cultures.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

The society and culture of Easter Island



Source 15 Easter Island is only about 25 kilometres long, and 12 kilometres wide; it is almost triangular in shape. It is a territory of Chile, but is 3600 kilometres to the west of Chile.

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 more than 3000 kilometres from the coast of South America. The island was first settled by the Rapa Nui people around AD 300. It was renamed 'Easter Island' by European explorers.

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 (see the case study later in this chapter).

Social organisation and grouping

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 means '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.



Source 16 Nineteenth-century illustrations of Rapa Nui people

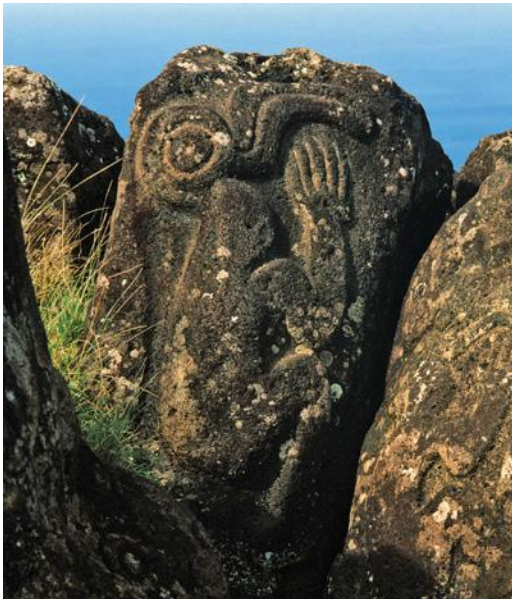
Rapa Nui society has been classified by anthropologists as an 'open chiefdom'. This means that the power and the authority of the chief depends on his political connections and the support of a strong group of warriors. The island population was divided into classes: the chiefs, priests and warriors 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, fishers, 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 stonemasons, tool makers and engineers who were responsible for making and putting up the *moai*.

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.



Source 17 A Birdman motif carved on rocks on Easter Island

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. 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, 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!'

13.3B SOURCE STUDY

The use of Easter Island's natural resources

Source 18

> 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.
>
> *Jared Diamond*, Collapse: How Societies Choose to Fail or Survive, *Penguin Books, London, 2006, p. 107*

INTERPRET

1. Create an infographic to outline the 'immediate consequences' of deforestation on Easter Island, according to Source 18.
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.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

The different islands in Hawaii created a variety of cultures and groupings, which, in addition to class hierarchies, meant they had very different experiences.

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 its 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.



Source 19 A painting of King Kamehameha I

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.

kava
a drink made from the crushed roots of the kava plant (a relative of the pepper family)

One of the most important Samoan ceremonies was the kava ceremony. It is still important today (see Source 20). **Kava** is a drink made from the dried roots of the kava plant. The roots are mixed with water in a special bowl and strained using ritual techniques. The resulting drink has 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, such as at the election of a new chief or when welcoming guests.



Source 20 A Samoan kava ceremony

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.

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.

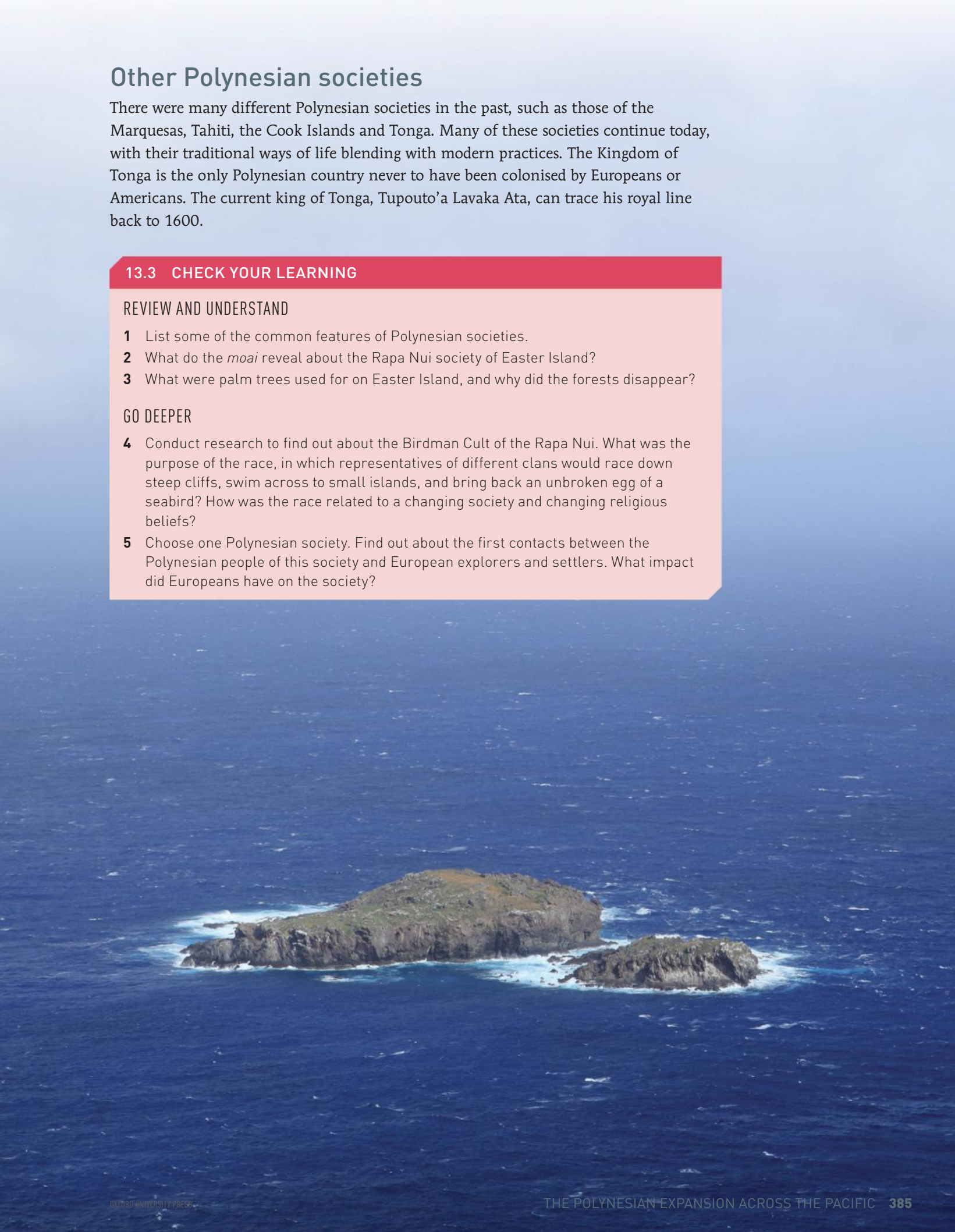
13.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. List some of the common features of Polynesian societies.
2. What do the *moai* reveal about the Rapa Nui society of Easter Island?
3. What were palm trees used for on Easter Island, and why did the forests disappear?

GO DEEPER

4. Conduct research to find out about the Birdman Cult of the Rapa Nui. What was the purpose of the race, 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?
5. Choose 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?



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CASE STUDY

The *moai* of Easter Island

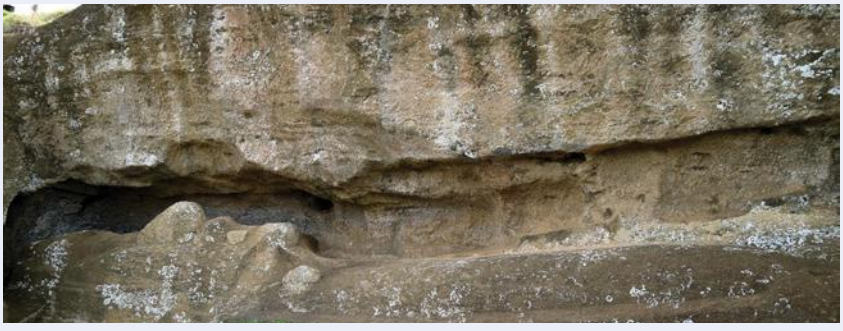
More than 800 giant stone statues, or *moai,* have been found on Easter Island. The largest of these is almost 10 metres high and weighs 75 tonnes. It is generally acknowledged that carving, moving and erecting these huge statues was a feature of islander life for about 300 years, from AD 1200. The Rapa 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 (see Source 21).

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, for unknown reasons.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

How the statues were put in place is one of the most contested and controversial aspects of the *moai*. Over the years a range of explanations has been offered, but it has only been in the last few decades that advances in technology have made it possible to approach a plausible explanation. Nevertheless, the investigation is ongoing.



Source 21 Unfinished *moai* at the Rano Raraku quarry on Easter Island



Source 22 Some of the *moai* on Easter Island; each statue is carved from stone, with coral originally used for the eyes.

How were the *moai* put in place?

Perhaps the most fantastic and least likely explanation for just how the *moai* were put in place came from Eric von Daniken who, in his book *Chariots of the Gods,* described the construction of the *moai* as 'impossible' without aliens and their technology. Von Daniken also suggested that aliens built the Great Pyramid of Cheops in ancient Egypt. However, the most likely explanation is the one that is most reasonable and logical, so as historians, we need to look at the evidence and try to find an answer.

Like the building of Great Pyramid, there is archaeological evidence of a long history of the carving, transport and erection of the Easter Island *moai*. It didn't start suddenly, as the arrival of aliens would suggest. Researchers from the University of Hawaii who, unlike von Daniken, have expertise in both Polynesian studies and archaeology, have used satellite imaging to discover over 32 kilometres of roads radiating from the Rano Ranaku quarry, where the *moai* were carved, to the coast where they were erected. The same University of Hawaii researchers also used experimental archaeology, using the tools and technology available to the Easter Islanders to both carve and transport the *moai*. The logical explanation, which is supported by archaeological evidence, is that the Rapa Nui used a combination of rollers, sleds and ropes to move these huge statues. These researchers have also linked their theory to the Easter Island legend in the oral history that said that the *moai* 'walked'.



Source 23 The archaeological experiment of how the *moai* statues might have 'walked' to their positions on the coast

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the statues in Source 22.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

EVALUATE AND CREATE

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.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Effective explanations and communication don't rely on historians always having the right answer. It is often important to express a range of theories, supporting them with evidence, before determining which is the most credible. Therefore, historians must be able to present a variety of viewpoints.

13A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

» 5 marks = a paragraph

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

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? (3 marks)

2 Identify the different types of environments within Polynesia and provide examples of their natural features. (6 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. (6 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. (8 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 of 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. (12 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 What does evidence reveal about 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. (5 marks)

» Assess uses 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 [/60]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

- **Checkpoint** — A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section
- **Rich task** — A write-in worksheet for the Rich task

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

- **Teacher support** — Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas
- **Rich task** — Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

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13B HOW WAS MĀORI SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

13.4 MĀORI SETTLEMENT, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the social, cultural, economic and political features of Māori society
- using a range of sources, describe the cultural achievements of Māori society
- describe and assess the use of environmental resources in Māori society.

The Māori call New Zealand 'Aotearoa', meaning 'land of the long white cloud'. The islands of New Zealand were some of the last to be settled by the Polynesians. Historians believe that the first Polynesian explorers arrived between AD 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.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Oral traditions have long been accepted as a historical narrative. However, there are times when the archaeological record disputes the understanding of the oral evidence, with each providing a different perspective.

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 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 1 A nineteenth-century artist's impression of the arrival of the Great Fleet in Aotearoa (New Zealand)



Source 3 A Māori greenstone *tiki*, traditionally worn around the neck to bring good luck to its wearer

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 2

> 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.
>
> *'Historical Influences: Māori and the Economy', Te Puni Kōkir (in section 'For Maori Future Makers')*



Source 4 Māori elder Hiria Hape greets Catherine, Duchess of Cambridge, with the *hongi* in New Zealand, 2014.

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.

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.

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***.

haka
a ceremonial Māori dance involving chanting and vigorous movement

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.

13.4A SOURCE STUDY

The Māori warrior culture



Source 5 Canoe paddlers performing a series of *haka* on Waitangi Day, New Zealand's national day



Source 6 A nineteenth-century print showing a Māori war canoe

INTERPRET

1 Examine Sources 5 and 6. What do these sources suggest about continuity and change in Māori society, from the nineteenth century to the modern day?

The use of *tapu*

tapu
a Māori spiritual and social code central to traditional society, related to respect for people, natural resources and the environment

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 the English 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, the early Māori people were more closely linked to their environment than the later European arrivals. However, as the extinction of the moa illustrates, the early Māori did have a huge impact on the environment of New Zealand.

Extinction of native species

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

A remarkable feature of Māori culture is the introduction of the *rāhui* for the protection of the environment. This system of managing natural resources ensures that native wildlife are still protected today.

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 numbers 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 7 An artist's impression of early Māori settlers hunting a giant species of the moa, a flightless bird



Source 8 A skeleton of a moa, estimated to be 5000 years old

The use of *rāhui* to conserve natural resources

The Māori learnt 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 native wildlife.

13.4B SOURCE STUDY

The use of *rāhui* to conserve resources

Source 9

> 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*.
>
> *Hirini Moko Mead,* Tikanga Māori: Living by Māori Values, *2003*

INTERPRET

1 What resource does the *rāhui* described in Source 9 aim to protect?
2 How does the chief signal that the *rāhui* was in place?
3 Do you think this is a reliable source of information? Why or why not?

13.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 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

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Draw a 'social pyramid' that shows the five classes in Māori society.
5 What evidence is there that Māori cultures respected their environment?

GO DEEPER

6 Find out about tattooing in Māori culture. How were traditional Māori body markings made, and what was their significance?

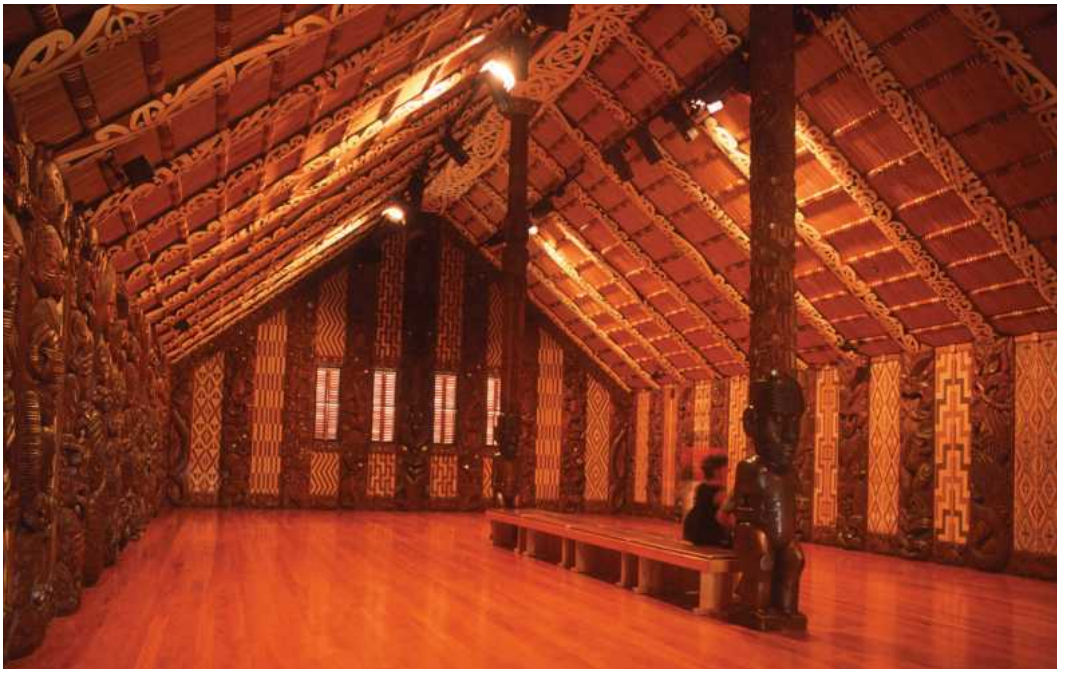
13.5 DAILY LIFE IN A MĀORI VILLAGE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe everyday life in Māori society.

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.



Source 10 The centre of every Māori village was the meeting house, or *whare runanga*, where ceremonies and meetings were held.

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.



Source 11 Food being prepared for cooking in a *hāngi* pit

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.

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*, were also passed down from the older generation. Teaching took place in a special school building or just a selected space in the village.

Genealogy 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 12). 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 their genealogy.

genealogy
the study of family history and lineage over time



Source 12 Wi Huata tells the history of his family going back 50 generations; he uses a *rākau whakapapa* (genealogy staff).



Source 13 Traditional Māori carvings often show the *haka* position.

Māori carvings and *tā moko*

Carvings in wood, bone and greenstone, and *tā moko* (tattooing) markings, are all important art forms for Māori people. In the past, Māori 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.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

It is important to consider the origin and purpose of sources before drawing conclusions. A source may not always be reliable, but it is always useful or of value to the topic.

13.5 SOURCE STUDY

Daily life in a Māori village



Source 14 An illustration of a village on Rotorua Lake, drawn by George French Angas in 1847



Source 15 *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

1 Both of these sources are artistic interpretations. Why might a historian need to be cautious when using these sources as evidence?

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

It is important to access reputable sources when conducting research, particularly when searching for images. Historians must distinguish between popular sites and those that demonstrate academic engagement or credibility.

13.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What is a *hāngi*?
2 Why is genealogy particularly important in Māori society?
3 Explain the purpose of a *rākau whakapapa*.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Research to find out more about Māori carving and *tā moko*, and look at some examples. 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 design for street art.

13B

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)

» Using a range of sources, describe the cultural achievements of Māori society

5 Use sources to describe these aspects of Māori culture:

- *haka*
- *rāhui*
- *tapu.* (6 marks)

» 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 that became extinct or declined in numbers after the Māori arrived in New Zealand
- the practice of *rāhui*. (5 marks)

» Describe everyday 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*. (5 marks)

Total marks [/50]

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

» 5 marks = a paragraph

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

PART F



The Plaza de Armas in Cusco, Peru, shows its complex history with a statue of the Incan Emperor Pachacuti in front of a Catholic church.



EXPANDING CONTACTS: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 6: EXPANDING CONTACTS

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

obook-only chapter

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 thirteenth 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** in the sixteenth century
- the more recent experiences of contact and colonisation between the British Empire and the Indigenous peoples of Australia and North America from the seventeenth to the nineteenth centuries.

In Chapter 15 'The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa', you have the opportunity to investigate the origins and spread of the great plague and other diseases known as the **Black Death**, and how this affected societies across the world.

conquistador
a Spanish word for soldier; a conqueror, especially one of the Spanish conquerors of the Americas in the sixteenth century

Black Death
a deadly outbreak of diseases that spread across Asia, Europe and Africa during the fourteenth century, killing millions of people



Source 1 A nineteenth-century illustration of a First Nation American village during a smallpox epidemic

0.1 WHY DID SOME SOCIETIES RISE AND DOMINATE OTHERS?

Writers and historians have offered 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.

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.

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 peoples who came into contact with European explorers, colonisers, traders and settlers.



Source 2 The Mongols were able to defeat their enemies because of their greater numbers, highly disciplined army and skilled use of the longbow.

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 Mongol dominance.

The influence of social organisation can also be seen in the development of European banking, government, industry and commerce. These developments meant that Spain, Britain and other European countries were able to finance professional armies and navies.

Supplanting societies

For much of human history, whenever a group of people moved, they moved onto land that was occupied by other people and became a **supplanting society**. That means 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. 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 peoples who had lived there for many centuries before the Europeans arrived.

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

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Why do you think European diseases had such a devastating impact on Indigenous peoples in Australia, North America and South America?
2 How would social organisation have helped Genghis Khan achieve dominance?

0.2 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 for taking their land.



Source 3 A modern-day Mongolian shaman making an offering to the spirits

shaman
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

flagellants
a group of radical Christians during the Black Death who whipped themselves to gain God's forgiveness for their sins

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 were 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 which, along with other diseases, was 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 4 A woodcut dating from 1493 showing a pair of flagellants; during the Black Death in Europe, flagellants travelled from town to town publicly flogging themselves.

For periods throughout the fourteenth 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

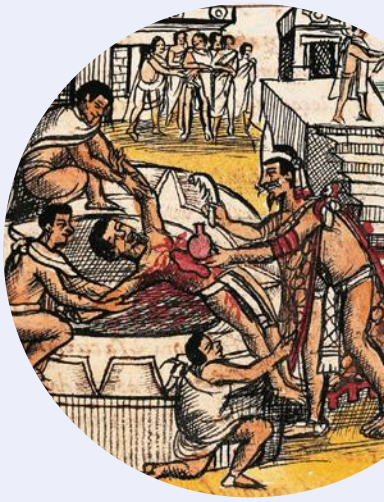
By the fifteenth century, the Mongol Empire had broken apart, which made existing overland trade routes such as the Silk Roads less safe for travellers. The search for new trade routes from Europe to the East began, marking the start of an age of exploration and discovery, as explorers set sail across uncharted oceans.

In 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed west seeking a safer and more direct passage to Asia. He was the first European to see 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 trying to convert the Indigenous people 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 viewed 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 5 A sixteenth-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, First Nation American peoples of North America and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia had developed rich cultures of their own. Across the continent of North America, there were diverse tribal groups, which meant there was 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, Indigenous peoples also had a spiritual connection with the land. The **Dreaming** is Aboriginal 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 in storytelling, song, dance and art. As in North America, the European colonisers did not understand that separating Indigenous peoples from their land was also separating them from their culture and history.

Dreaming
the Australian Aboriginal intellectual and spiritual framework for understanding and interpreting the world and the place of humans; offers an explanation for creation, the natural world, history and rules for living



Source 6 Dreaming Stories of Australia's Aboriginal peoples are expressed through storytelling, song, dance and paintings, such as this artwork.

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Compare Sources 3, 4, 5 and 6. Identify three ways spiritual beliefs differed among societies.

0.3 CONSEQUENCES OF EXPANDING CONTACTS

Each chapter in 'Expanding contacts' explores events that had significant impacts on individuals, communities, countries and empires, and on the way the world developed.

Governing the expanding Mongol Empire

khan
the title given to a leader of a Mongol tribe; and (during the thirteenth century) to the ruler of the entire Mongol Empire

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.

Yasa
a written code of law created by Genghis Khan that applied across all regions of the 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** 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*** was introduced. At its peak, the *Yasa* applied to 100 million people.

Social and political legacies of the Black Death

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

Some of the most important legacies of the Black Death were the social and political changes that resulted from it. The diseases 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, a worker's 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. This study is even more relevant in the twenty-first century as we address the history of the COVID-19 pandemic



Source 7 *The Dance of Death*, painted by Johannes de Castuo *c.* 1490, shows a victim of the Black Death being escorted to his grave.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the impact the Black Death had on communities. Would people have been scared and protective, or would they have wanted to help each other?

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Consequences of the Spanish conquest of the Americas

The Spanish conquest of the Americas 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 were brought from Africa to work on plantations and in mines. This was the beginning of the transatlantic slave trade that would continue until midway through the nineteenth century.

The Americas were also an important source of crops for Spain and for Europe. Many crops that are common 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.



Source 8
Australian Aboriginal people gather to receive blankets to mark the birthday of Britain's Queen Victoria in 1890, a little over a century after the first British colonisers arrived in Australia.

0.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

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 areas. Consider the impact from the perspectives of:

- Indigenous peoples
- European colonisers
- the British Empire
- the development of the modern world.

Present your ideas to the class.

14



Source 1 These ruins in the Gobi Desert in Mongolia are all that remains of the great city of Karakorum, once the capital of the Mongolian Empire.

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, the Silk 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.

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obook-only chapter

HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE? 14A

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 and impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East
» outline the organisation of Genghis Khan's Mongol army.

CASE STUDY: TEMUJIN (GENGHIS KHAN)

CHECKPOINT 14A

WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION? 14B

In this section you will:

» describe the life and 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
» using a range of sources, describe how the Mongols treated conquered peoples
» using a range of sources, 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 14B

MONGOL EXPANSION – A TIMELINE



Source 2 A recreation of a Mongol cavalry charge

TIMELINE

1180 | 1200 | 1210 | 1220 | 1230 | 1240

1185
Temujin (later known as Genghis Khan) becomes leader of his Mongol tribe at the age of 18.

1206
Genghis Khan becomes ruler of all Mongol tribes, marking the beginning of the Mongol Empire.

1215
Mongol forces invade the Jin Dynasty capital Zhongdu (the site of Beijing).

1218
Mongol forces capture the capital of the Khwarezm Empire in central Asia.

1227
Genghis Khan dies.

1229
Ogodei, son of Genghis, becomes Great Khan.

1237
Mongol forces begin their attacks on Russia and Eastern Europe.

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 3 A fourteenth-century illustration of Genghis Khan in his tent, at the time he was declared the supreme leader in 1206

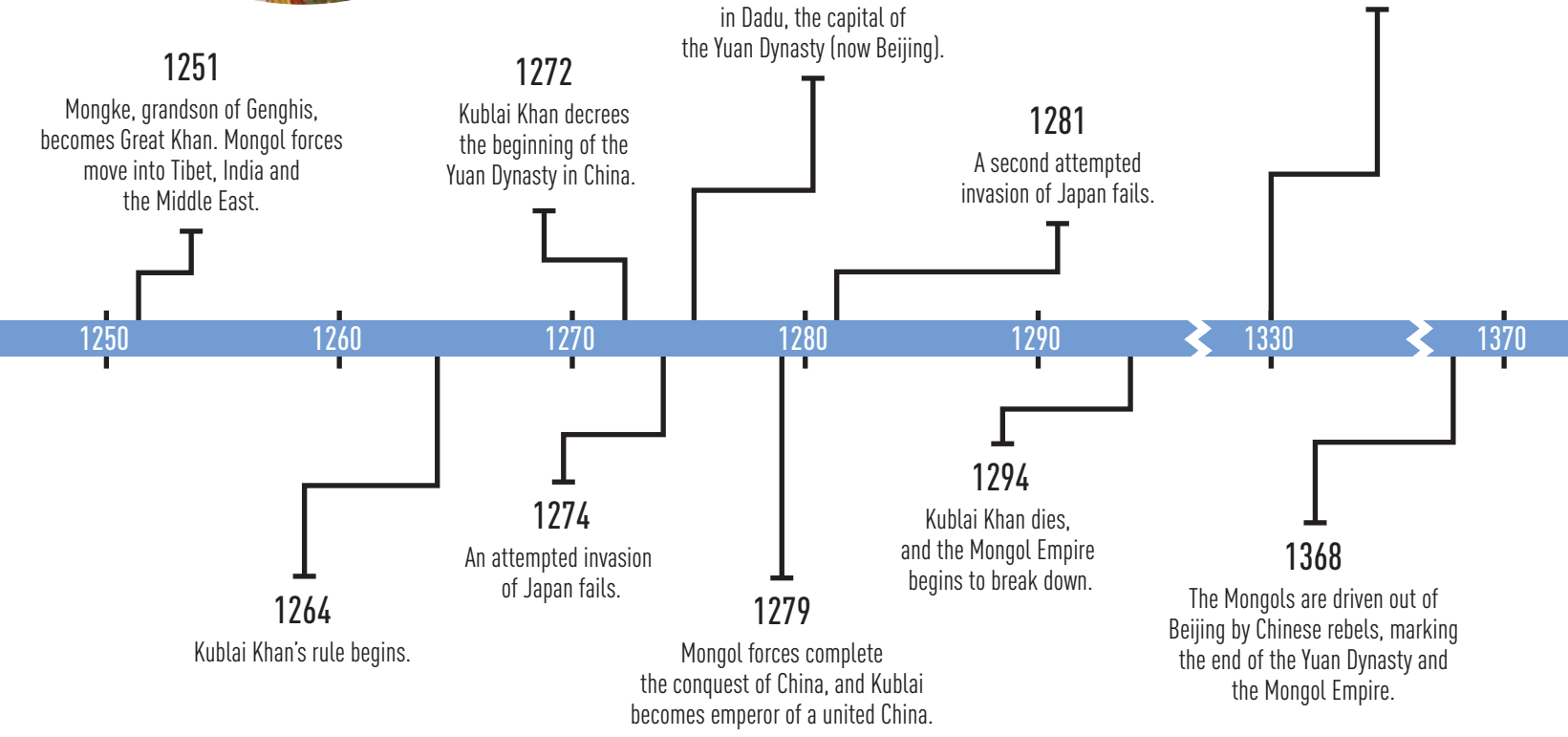
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Source 4 Mongke Khan, who was responsible for the continued growth of the Mongol Empire



Source 5 Japanese illustration showing samurai defending Japan against Mongolian invaders





Source 6 Yurts (traditional round tents) in modern day Mongolia

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

14A HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

14.1 THE MONGOL HOMELANDS AND NOMADIC LIFESTYLE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic 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.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Historians use specific historical terms and concepts to differentiate between societies. It is important to learn the meaning of these terms to improve your understanding of history.

steppe
an expansive stretch of grassland (without trees) typically found in places such as Siberia and Mongolia

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)

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 2). It is a harsh environment, with extreme temperatures. The summers are hot and dry, and 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 this environment, the Mongols were **nomads**. They lived in tribal groups, moving together in response to the seasons. They grazed their animals 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.



Source 1 The Mongolian Eurasian Steppe today

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the landscape in Source 1.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

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They lived in large, circular tents – called *gers* or **yurts** – that could be taken apart and moved from season to season (see Source 3). 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 from a cooking fire escape.

yurt
a Mongolian circular tent, with a wooden frame and felt walls (also known as a *ger*)

14.1A SOURCE STUDY

The Mongol homelands and nomadic lifestyle



Source 2 The extent of the Eastern Eurasian Steppe and the Mongol homelands

Source 3 Yurts are still used by Mongols today.



INTERPRET

1. Use the scale in Source 2 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 2 includes the boundaries of modern-day countries. Use an atlas or the internet to identify the countries close to the Mongol homelands.
3. Explain how climate and natural features of the Mongol homeland influenced the lifestyle of the early Mongols. In your answer, refer to Source 2 and Source 3.

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 just 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 last 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**, men often abducted women during raids.

clan
a group of people linked and united in their aims and behaviours by the knowledge (or a belief) that they share common ancestors

khan
the title given to a leader of a Mongol tribe; and (during the thirteenth century) to the ruler of the entire Mongol Empire

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

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

While many societies value gold or jewellery as an indication of wealth, the Mongolian value placed on sheep and horses reveals much about the importance of livestock.

The Mongols' 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 flocks of sheep and goats. Female horses (mares) provided milk, which was the Mongols' 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

shaman
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

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 place in Mongol society. Their role was to speak with the spirits on behalf of the people, bless the herds and young children, and predict the future. This was done by burning the shoulder blade of a sheep and examining the cracks that resulted. Because of their practical knowledge of their environment, they were able to create 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 practised in China. Some converted to Islam after encounters with Muslim merchants from Persia. Some Mongol tribes practised an early version of Christianity called Nestorianism.



Source 4 A shaman performing a ceremony on a mountain top in western Mongolia

Source 5 A female archer from Mongolia taking part in a *Naadam* – a traditional games festival



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.

14.1B SOURCE STUDY

Animals in Mongol society



Source 6 Milking goats in Mongolia



Source 7 A woman shearing a goat in Inner Mongolia, China



Source 8 Cooking a goat in a yurt



Source 9 Mongolian women riding a bull cart during the summer migration

INTERPRET

1 Sources 6 to 9 are recent images taken in Inner Mongolia, now part of China. Using your observations of the sources and information in the text, create an infographic to summarise the various ways that animals were and are used by Mongolian tribes. Include sketches or other images.

2 What do these images of life in Mongolia today reveal about continuity and change in Mongol society?

14.1C SOURCE STUDY

The role of women in Mongol society

Source 10

> 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.
>
> The Story of the Mongols Whom We Call the Tartars, *Giovani DiPlano Carpini (1245), Erik Hildinger (trans.), Branden Publishing Company, Boston, 1996*

INTERPRET

1 Is Source 10 a primary or secondary source? Justify your answer.

2 According to Source 10, what were the skills of Mongol women?

14.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Define the following terms: *ger, qumis*, shaman, *Naadam*, khan.

2 How would you describe the Mongols' attitude towards religion or spiritual matters?

3 Describe the role of women in Mongol society.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why did the Mongols follow a nomadic lifestyle instead of settling down on farms?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 In groups, investigate one aspect of the Mongols' 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 your results to the class in a creative way.

CASE STUDY

Temujin (Genghis Khan)

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the life and impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Although he is often seen in popular imagination in the West as a brutal, violent figure, in present-day Mongolia, Genghis Khan is seen as a national hero for uniting the country.

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 was born around 1162. His father was Yesugei, a minor Mongol clan leader. Yesugei was poisoned by a neighbouring Tatar tribe when Temujin was only 9 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.



Source 11 Prisoners in a *cangue*, from a nineteenth-century photograph

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 11). He was fortunate that one of the clan members took pity on him, 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.

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.

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 feared 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. Tatar 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 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 felt threatened by the younger man's rise to power. When Temujin attacked Toghrul's camp, the older man fled, dying shortly after.



Source 12 In modern-day Mongolia, Genghis Khan has been celebrated in a giant 40-metre-high statue, about 30 kilometres outside the capital city, Ulaanbaatar.

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.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Identify the relationship to Genghis Khan of each of these people: Ho'elun, Toghrul, Jamuka, Yesugei.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Use a storyboard or develop a comic strip to retell one of the episodes in Genghis Khan's childhood or rise to power.

GO DEEPER

3 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 11? Write a news article after researching more about Temujin's 'shady' past.

4 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.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Effective communication relies on adequate understanding of a topic. In order to develop knowledge, historians read widely and consider a range of perspectives before writing up their findings in a format suitable for their audience.

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, the 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.

infantry
soldiers who fight on foot

cavalry
soldiers who fight on horseback

Source 13 An artist's impression of a member of the light cavalry in the Mongol army



14.2 THE MONGOL ARMY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline the organisation of Genghis Khan's Mongol army.**

The Mongol army fought on horseback. It had no **infantry**. All male Mongols under the age of 60 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 10:

- 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.

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. The 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.

14.2 SOURCE STUDY

Mongol weapons and fighting tactics



Source 14 A recreation of a cavalry charge to mark 800 years since the founding of the Mongol nation by Genghis Khan



Source 15 The 800th anniversary celebrations of the founding of the Mongol nation

INTERPRET

1 Examining Sources 14 and 15, describe the weapons, equipment and clothing of Mongol warriors.
2 Read the section '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 15 is showing? Justify your response.

14.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 In which skills were Mongol warriors expert?
2 Describe the tactic used by combined light and heavy cavalry forces that often brought victory to the Mongol armies.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why were the Mongol armies able to cover large distances quickly?
4 Draw a diagram to outline the organisation of the Mongol army.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Imagine you are a Mongol warrior. Write a journal entry outlining the challenges you face in battle.

14A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS MONGOL SOCIETY ORGANISED AND WHAT WAS DAILY LIFE LIKE?

» Identify the extent and geographical features of the Mongol homeland

1 Describe the climate and natural features of the Mongol homelands. (5 marks)

» Describe the features of Mongol nomadic life

2 Explain why the Mongol tribes developed a nomadic lifestyle and describe its main features. (5 marks)

3 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 continue in modern-day Mongolia. (10 marks)

4 Describe the different ways animals were used for food and other resources in Mongol society. (5 marks)

» Describe key political and economic features of Mongol society

5 Outline the key features of Mongol social and political structure. (5 marks)

6 How was wealth measured in Mongol society, and how did this affect contacts within the society? (5 marks)

7 What is known about trade in Mongol society? Include reference to the type of goods they traded. (5 marks)

» Describe the life and impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East

8 Describe key events in:

a the early life of Temujin (5 marks)

b the rise to power of Temujin, leading to his rule of all the Mongol tribes. (5 marks)

» Outline the organisation of Genghis Khan's Mongol army

9 Outline how the Mongol army was organised under Genghis Khan, and the advantages of this arrangement. (5 marks)

10 Explain how Mongol warriors fought, including weapons that they commonly used. (5 marks)

Total marks [/60]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

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14B WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION?

14.3 EXPANSION OF THE MONGOL EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the life and impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East
- locate the extent of the Mongol conquests and expansion across Asia and Europe.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The success of uniting the Mongol tribes into a nation led to new challenges for defence. Genghis Khan required an army for both internal stability and also to thwart any attack from neighbouring China.

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 Khan

At the beginning of the thirteenth 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 learnt to invade fortified towns by building ramps and siege machines such as catapults.



Source 1 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. The Jin emperor could call on 500 000 infantry and 150 000 cavalry. By the summer of 1212, the Mongols had reached the plain outside Zhongdu (modern Beijing).

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.'

The wall surrounding it was almost 30 kilometres long and 12 metres high, included 900 towers and was part of what we know today as the Great Wall of China. 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 more than four million men, women and children were killed.

In the spring of 1223, Genghis Khan left Samarkand and moved back to the steppe, where he spent almost two years hunting and resting. In 1226, at 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.



Source 2 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 thirteenth century

The changing nature of Mongol warfare



Source 3 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 4

> 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.
>
> *Robert Webb,* Genghis Khan: Conqueror of the Medieval World, *Franklin Watts, 1967*

INTERPRET

1 According to Source 4, which siege weapons did the Mongols learn to use?
2 How did Mongols make use of prisoners of war?
3 Using Source 3, describe the weapons, clothing and armour of the opposing soldiers.
4 Does the evidence provided in Source 3 agree with the writing in Source 4? Provide examples to support your response.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

It can be difficult to trust sources on their own, but when they are corroborated by other sources, they become more plausible.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Expansion by the Mongols continued under Ogedei. However, after his death, the Mongols retreated from their European advances. This illustrates the significance and impact of leadership.

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 Ogedei, Chagatai and Tolu. The fourth was given to the family of his eldest son, Jochi, who had recently died. On Genghis Khan's death, Ogedei became Great Khan. Under his leadership, the empire continued to expand.

One of the main achievements of Ogedei'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 Ogedei'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.



Source 5 An illustration from a 1353 manuscript showing the battle in Liegnitz in 1241 in which the Mongols defeated the combined forces of Poles, Czechs and Germans

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-fourteenth century.

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.

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.

14.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Where was the Khwarezm Empire located, in relation to the Mongol homelands?
2 What is a khanate?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Explain why and how the Mongol army changed their methods of warfare.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Write an obituary for Genghis, Ogedei or Mongke Khan.

14.4 CHINA UNDER MONGOL RULE

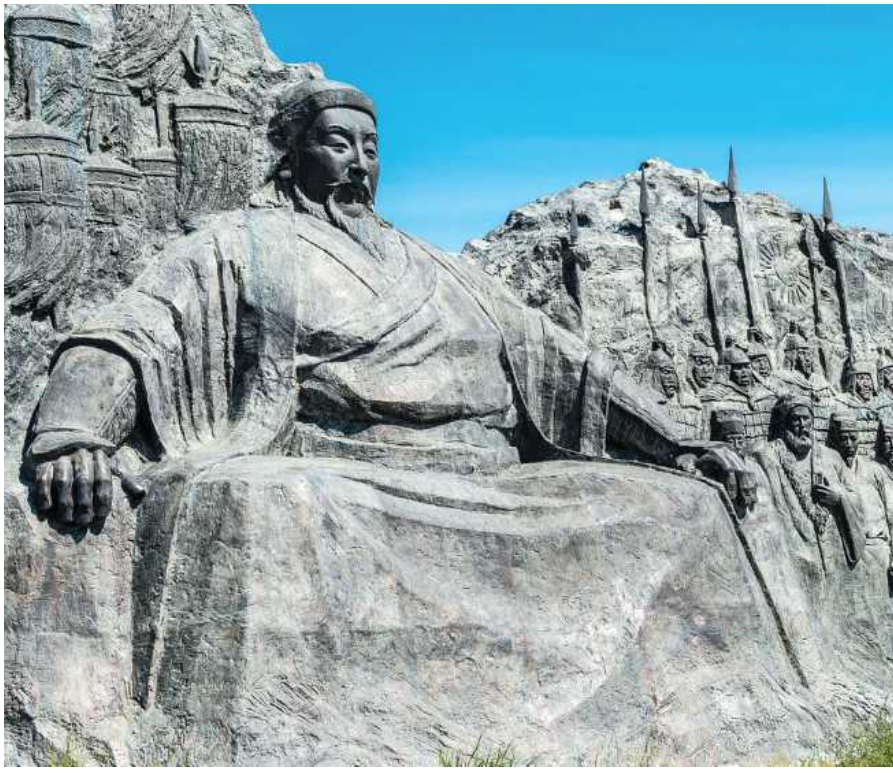
KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- 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.

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. He founded a new imperial **dynasty**, known as the Yuan Dynasty, and declared himself emperor of this dynasty. It was from this time only that we have a written history of the Mongol Empire. The history produced about the Mongol expansion claims it was all about celebrating the greatness of the khans and their right to rule.

Kublai Khan 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'.



Source 6 Statue of Kublai Khan, founder of the Yuan Dynasty of China

Song Dynasty China before Mongol rule

Under the Song Dynasty, which ruled southern China from AD 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 7).

There was a thriving trade within China, and with countries as far away as India and Arabia. Chinese merchants travelled along the **Silk Roads** to sell goods such as silk, tea and porcelain in exchange for horses and camels, spices, exotic woods, gold, silver and precious stones.

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

Silk Roads
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

City life in southern China



Source 7 A detail of the panoramic painting *Along the River during the Qingming Festival*



Source 8 A seventeenth-century painting of an emperor consulting with scholars

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.

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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 loiters outside a pawn shop.
6. A man sells religious figurines under umbrellas.
7. Donkeys pull a cart with barrels of wine.
8. A scholar talks 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 twelfth century by the artist Zhang Zedan. More than 5 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 twelfth-century China would have been like. Source 7 is a section of the painting, showing the scene at a busy crossroads in the city.

INTERPRET

1. What does Source 7 reveal about life in Southern China? 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. Write a paragraph that summarises your observations on this topic.

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.

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 (AD 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 on Chinese society

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

China's distinct culture largely continued under the Mongols. However, trade was more highly regarded and religion diversified as a result of international connections.

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 learnt 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 of homes and temples. He established what he called 'pacification committees' around the country to rebuild and restore farmland, roads and local temples that had been destroyed in the conflict. Southern Chinese landowners were allowed to keep their estates, a move that ensured their continuing loyalty to the new regime.

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. In China, Kublai refused to appoint Chinese to the highest offices, but he did keep lower level Chinese 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.

Source 9 This example of Yuan porcelain is typical of the delicate work produced during the rule of Kublai Khan.



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 extra burden of providing their labour for Kublai's grand projects, such as constructing 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 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 style of 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. Kublai 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.

14.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5 Explain the measures put in place by Kublai to support the peasants.
6 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.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7 Choose six examples of cultural achievements in China during the Yuan Dynasty. Include at least one piece of literature, a painting, porcelain and textiles. Prepare a presentation as though you will auction the six items off to bidders. Include one example per slide, with a picture, overview of the key features, who made it and any other culturally significant details.

GO DEEPER

8 A significant failure of the Mongols was their attempted invasions of Japan. Conduct research to find out why the Mongols were unsuccessful, even though Kublai was able to assemble tens of thousands of soldiers and hundreds of ships. Present your findings as a tabloid newspaper of the time, sensationalising the reasons for failure.
9 Kublai 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.

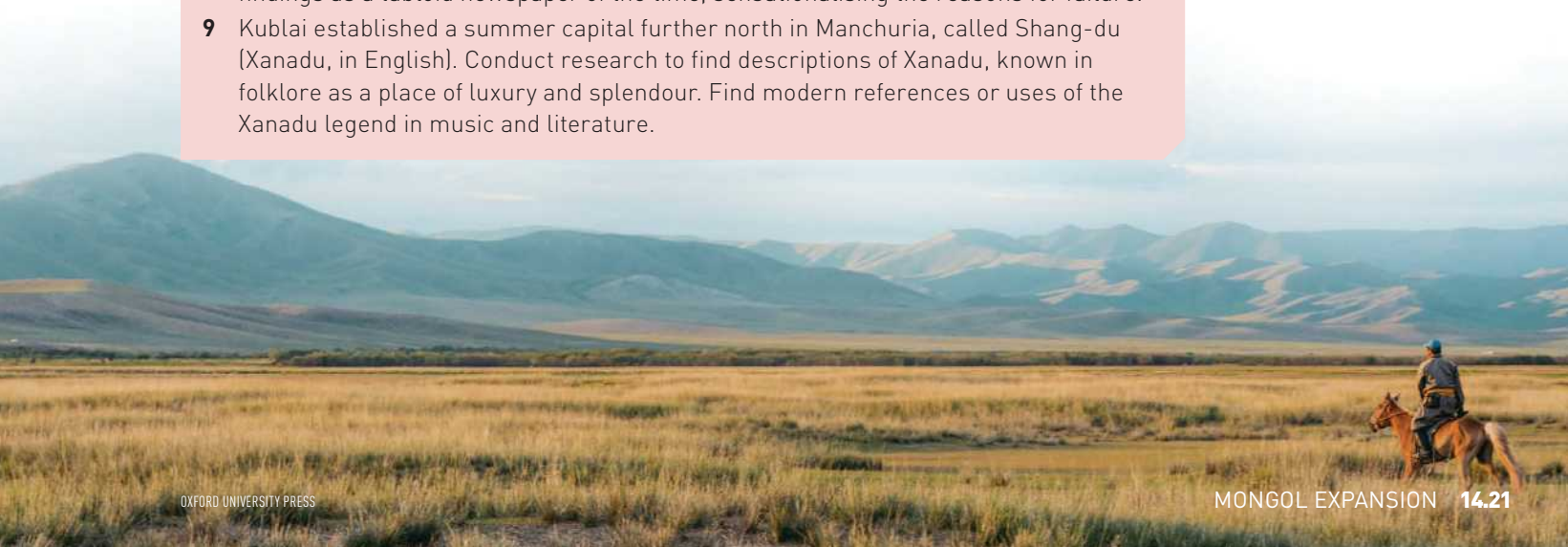
STRANGE BUT TRUE

The popular Chinese saying 'Scholars the ninth and beggars the tenth' comes from a belief of this social ranking of 10 classes during the Yuan Dynasty: government officials, functionaries (bureaucrats), Buddhist monks, Daoist priests, doctors, engineers, artisans, prostitutes, scholars and beggars. More recently, this attitude has come to be considered a myth created by people critical of Mongol rule.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Effective research begins with asking questions about a topic. Historians gather information from a range of sources.



14.5 GOVERNMENT AND LAW ACROSS THE MONGOL EMPIRE

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

The process of unifying tribes into one empire means change for groups who were previously independent. Changes might be positive for some, but difficult for others. The perspective will depend on whether the previous experience is enhanced or diminished by the changes.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the Mongol policies used in governing their empire including laws and taxes**
- **using a range of sources, describe how the Mongols treated conquered peoples.**

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*

Yasa
a written code of law created by Genghis Khan that applied across all regions of the Mongol Empire

Before Genghis Khan 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***.

14.5A SOURCE STUDY

Laws imposed under Genghis Khan



- 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 exempt from taxation or army service. These exemptions were later extended to doctors, lawyers, teachers, scholars and undertakers.

Source 10 Some of the laws imposed by Genghis Khan

INTERPRET

1 Which of the laws presented in Source 10 were intended to reduce the fighting that once took place between the different tribes?
2 What does Source 10 reveal about legal changes at this time?

Communication and safer travel: the *yam*

Genghis Khan and his successors developed a complex communications system called the *yam*. This involved a series of staging posts every 40 kilometres (the distance 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 twelfth 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'.



Source 11 An artist's impression of a Mongol *darugha* in a Russian city

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*** was appointed (see Source 11). 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.

darugha
a person in charge of taxes and administration of a province within the empire

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.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the reaction of the people in Source 11 to the presence of the *darugha* and what this indicates about the Mongol administration.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Other features of Mongol government

All existing and new territories 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.



Source 12 A copy of a banknote first issued by Kublai Khan in China

14.5B SOURCE STUDY

Mongol treatment of conquered peoples

Source 13

> 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 of 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.
>
> *John Man*, Kublai Khan: The Mongol King who Remade China, *Bantam Press, 2006, pp. 34–5*

Source 14

> 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 ...
>
> *David Nicolle*, The Mongol Warlords, *Firebird Books, 1990, pp. 94 and 99*

INTERPRET

1. According to Source 13, 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?
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 are the strengths of these sources for telling us about the approach of the khans in governing their empires?

14.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What was the purpose of:
   - **a** the *Yasa*
   - **b** the *yam*
   - **c** the appointment of a *darugha*?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2. Why do you think the Mongols conducted a census in the lands they conquered?
3. Discuss why people in some occupations were exempt from taxation.
4. Do you think the changes brought in by Mongol expansion were effective? Justify your response.

14.6 THE LEGACY OF THE MONGOL EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, describe and assess the significance of Mongol expansion
- assess the reign and contributions of Kublai Khan to the Chinese empire and the wider world.

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 Huang He (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 1353–54 that killed enormous numbers of people. (The plague spread to the West where, with other diseases, 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Historians dispute the facts of Mongol expansion, including the number of people killed during campaigns. A further area of contestability relates to whether the Mongol expansion was good or bad for the world.



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 ways 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 numbers 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Mongol descendant Babur established the Mughul dynasty in India in the early sixteenth century, which lasted until the nineteenth 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.

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.

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 cannons.



Source 15 An artist's impression of Marco Polo at the court of Kublai Khan

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 parts of the world unknown to Europeans. Their voyages led to European colonisation of new continents, contributing to the development of the modern world.

14.6 SOURCE STUDY

The significance of Mongol expansion



Source 16 Trade routes linking East to West

Source 17

> 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 began to flower among a newly inquisitive people, they led to a renaissance [a revival of interest in classical learning and culture] ...

James Chambers, The Devil's Horsemen: The Mongol Invasion of Europe, *Cassell Publishers Ltd, 1988, pp. 198–9*

Source 18

> 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.

James Chambers, The Devil's Horsemen: The Mongol Invasion of Europe, *Cassell Publishers Ltd, 1988, pp. 201–2*

Source 19

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.

'The Mongols in World History', Asian Topics in World History, Columbia University

INTERPRET

1 What does Source 16 reveal about the location of the Mongol Empire and world trade routes in the medieval world?
2 Read Sources 17 to 19 and use a table to summarise the positive and negative impacts of Mongol expansion, according to these writers.
3 What are the limitations of these sources for historians studying the impact of the Mongol expansion? What other types of sources would provide a more complete overview?

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about expansion of the Mongol Empire and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

14.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How long did the Yuan Dynasty last?
2 What was the main legacy of Mongol rule for China?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

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.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 As a class, debate this statement: 'The Mongol Empire was a disaster for the world'.

GO DEEPER

6 Research the meaning of the phrase 'Mandate of Heaven' in traditional Chinese society. Use this information to explain why peasant uprisings broke out in the fourteenth century and led to the change of dynasty.
7 Conduct research and compile a list of 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.

14B

WHAT WERE THE CONSEQUENCES OF MONGOL EXPANSION?

» Describe the life and impact of Temujin (Genghis Khan) on Asia and the Middle East

1 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

2 Outline the territories and peoples that were attacked or conquered by Mongol armies, under the rules of Genghis Khan, Ogedei Khan, Mongke Khan and Kublai Khan. (5 marks)

» Describe the impact of Mongol rule on Chinese social structure

3 Outline key aspects of society in Song Dynasty China. In what ways did it differ from traditional Mongolian society? (5 marks)

» Explain the cultural and religious consequences of Mongol rule in China

4 How did Kublai Khan influence writing and literature? (2 marks)

» Explain how and why life in China changed under Mongol rule

5 How did life change, or not, for people in these social groups in China: scholar-gentry, merchants, artisans and peasant farmers? (8 marks)

» Describe the Mongol policies used in governing their empire

6 Name and describe the set of laws introduced by Genghis Khan. (10 marks)

» Using a range of sources, describe how the Mongols treated conquered peoples

7 Describe the Mongols' treatment of conquered peoples. Discuss:
- using them to govern the empire, 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)

» Using a range of sources, describe and assess the significance of Mongol expansion

8 How significant was the Mongol Empire's contribution to these aspects of the medieval world? Refer to sources that support your assessment.
- **a** the development of trade and commerce in the medieval world
- **b** the spread of the fourteenth-century plague
- **c** European knowledge. (20 marks)

» Assess the reign and contributions of Kublai Khan to the Chinese Empire and the wider world

9 How might our world be different if Kublai Khan had failed to conquer southern China and territories in the region? (5 marks)

Total marks [/70]

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

15



Source 1 Outbreaks of the bubonic plague continued after the fourteenth century. These graves near the English village of Eyam are where Elizabeth Hancock buried her husband and six children, who all died of plague in a week in August 1666. Elizabeth never contracted the disease.

THE BLACK DEATH IN ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA

During the fourteenth century, a deadly outbreak of disease spread across Asia, Europe and Africa. This outbreak is commonly described as bubonic plague. However, the term Black Death is used to describe the mass loss of life because, while a form of the bubonic plague was almost certainly one of the diseases that killed so many during this time, it is unlikely to have been the only one. Diseases such as anthrax and influenza might have contributed to the huge number of deaths at different places and different times, weakening the general health of the population and making them more likely to die from other illnesses.

Scientists and historians now believe that merchants returning home from the East introduced these diseases to Europe in 1347. Within three years, disease had spread across most of Asia, Europe and into North Africa. A lack of medical knowledge, filthy living conditions, superstitions and fear helped disease to spread quickly. In Europe alone, 25 million people – one-third of the population – died. No one at this time knew what caused these diseases, or how to cure them.



WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE? 15A

In this section you will:

» locate the extent of human settlements in fourteenth-century Asia, Europe and Africa
» describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the fourteenth century and life expectancy at this time
» describe what doctors understood about diseases and their treatment in this period
» outline what people in Europe believed about religion and the power of God in this period
» outline the extent of trade between Europe and Asia in the fourteenth century.

CHECKPOINT 15A

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD? 15B

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.

CASE STUDY: TREATMENTS FOR THE BLACK DEATH

CHECKPOINT 15B

WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH? 15C

In this section you will:

» assess the impact of the Black Death on Asian, European and African societies
» using a range of sources, discuss different interpretations of the impact of the Black Death on European society
» describe 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 15C

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

THE BLACK DEATH – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE



Source 2
A detail of a medieval painting called *Danse Macabre* (or Dance of Death)

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 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 3
A rat flea of the kind that was responsible for the spread of one of the diseases associated with the Black Death

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 pandemic lasted in Europe during the fourteenth century.



Source 4
A detail from *The Dance of Death*, a painting by Johannes de Castuo, *c.* 1490, showing a victim of the Black Death being escorted to an open coffin by skeletons

1348
The Black Death reaches the French cities of Marseille 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.

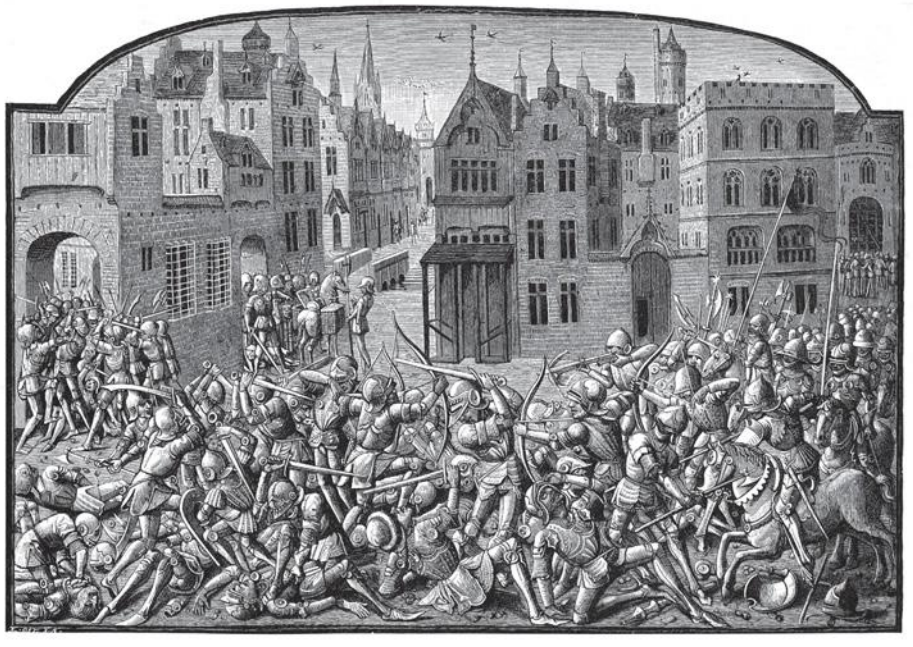
1353
35 million die from the Black Death in China since 1330s.

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 5
A fifteenth-century illustration of the Peasants' Revolt

15A WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE?

15.1 ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate the extent of human settlements in fourteenth-century Asia, Europe and Africa.

The fourteenth century was a time of change for many societies – in China, the Mongol Empire, North Africa, the Middle East and Europe.

Societies in Asia

Silk Roads
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

The expansion of the Mongol Empire across Asia between the early thirteenth century and mid-fourteenth 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 trade routes known as the **Silk Roads**. This increased contact and trade among societies in the East and West. Not all elements of Mongol rule in Asia were positive. 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 caused widespread famine across the region. Weakened and malnourished, many people were no match for the plague outbreak that followed.



Source 1 A re-enactment of a thirteenth-century Mongol army expedition on the steppes of Asia

Societies in Africa

Most of what is known about social and economic conditions in Africa in the fourteenth 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.

Black Death
a deadly outbreak of diseases that spread across Asia, Europe and Africa during the fourteenth century, killing millions of people

Societies in Europe

From the tenth 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 eleventh century. Many towns and cities were growing quickly. By the early thirteenth 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 **Crusades** 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.

feudalism
a hierarchical political and economic system in which land is granted in return for military or labour services

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.



Source 2 A medieval illustration of serfs harvesting grain in a lord's manor fields

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 fourteenth 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.

barbarian
a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders

Crusades
a series of eight wars fought by Christians and Muslims between 1096 and 1291 over control of the Holy Land

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.

15.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why do you think medieval peasants, working under the feudal system, might have been attracted to town life?

15.2 DAILY LIFE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the fourteenth century and life expectancy at this time.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

It can be difficult to understand how disease could spread so quickly, but medieval towns did not have the same access to hygiene conveniences and medical treatment that we have today. The COVID-19 pandemic has given you an opportunity to live through the impact of a rapidly spreading disease. How does that help you understand the medieval experience?

Living conditions across Europe during the fourteenth century were often very harsh. A population boom in the eleventh 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 living space.

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 shouts of children.

15.2A SOURCE STUDY

Life in cities and towns



Source 3 An artist's impression of a street scene in fourteenth-century London



Source 4 A modern street scene in the Chester Rows, England, showing buildings that date from the thirteenth century

INTERPRET

1. Describe the activities that you can see in the street scenes shown in Sources 3 and 4.
2. List the similarities and differences 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 sewer system. Rotting food scraps and sewage typically blocked the drains. Animals such as pigs and chickens often roamed 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.

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.

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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In 1321, a court case was brought against two men – Thomas at Wytte and William de Hockele – for building toilets that stuck out from the walls of houses in a laneway. Human filth 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!

15.2B SOURCE STUDY

Living conditions in London around the fourteenth century

Source 5

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.

Corporation of London Records Office, Liber Albus, f.213, c. early thirteenth century, translated and reproduced in Henry Thomas Riley (ed.), Liber Albus, Rolls Series, no.12, vol.1 (1859), p. 335

Source 6

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

1 What do these two sources reveal about the living conditions of people in towns and cities around the fourteenth century?
2 Using evidence from Source 6, how successful do you think the rules laid down by the Corporation of London were?

Living conditions in the country

Middle Ages
the period in European history between antiquity and the Renaissance (also known as the medieval period), approximately from the fifth to the fifteenth century

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). There was very little time left for leisure.

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, including the collection of diseases that became known as the Black Death.



Source 7 An eighteenth-century painting of farmworkers planting seeds in a field in the fifteenth century

Women in fourteenth-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 other than being wives and mothers (or nuns), and had virtually no legal rights. Very few were educated. The lives of most medieval women revolved around their husbands and families.

In wealthy families, women might spend their time spinning and weaving (skills learnt by almost every girl). If a woman was the wife of a lord, she might supervise 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.

15.2C SOURCE STUDY

Daily life for women in the fourteenth century



Source 8 A medieval illustration of women serving their families

INTERPRET

1. Describe the scene in Source 8.
2. Are the people shown in Source 8 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 might be thinking from a medieval perspective.

Life expectancy

Life expectancy in medieval Europe was very low compared to today. It 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 many people 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 9 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 5 years. Death rates were also high for women giving birth.

15.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Describe a typical day's activities for:
   - **a** a peasant woman
   - **b** the lady of a castle.
2. What was the average life expectancy for men and women living in medieval Europe?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3. Why were towns and cities, especially the poorer parts, such fertile areas for the spread of the plague?
4. Why do you think people continued to live in these unhygienic conditions for such a long period?
5. Why do you think the average life expectancy was lower for women than men?

GO DEEPER

6. Research to find the latest statistics for life expectancy and infant mortality rates for Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians. Write a statement that compares these figures to life expectancy around the fourteenth century.

15.3 MEDICAL KNOWLEDGE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe what doctors understood about diseases and their treatment in this period.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

A lack of medical knowledge meant that diseases spread rapidly, and cures were largely unavailable. This had a significant impact on society with the outbreak of the Black Death.

By today's standards, medieval medical care was very primitive. There were some university-trained doctors in Europe, but only the wealthiest people 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 and no blood transfusions. Anyone who became very ill in the fourteenth century probably died.

Treating the four 'humours'

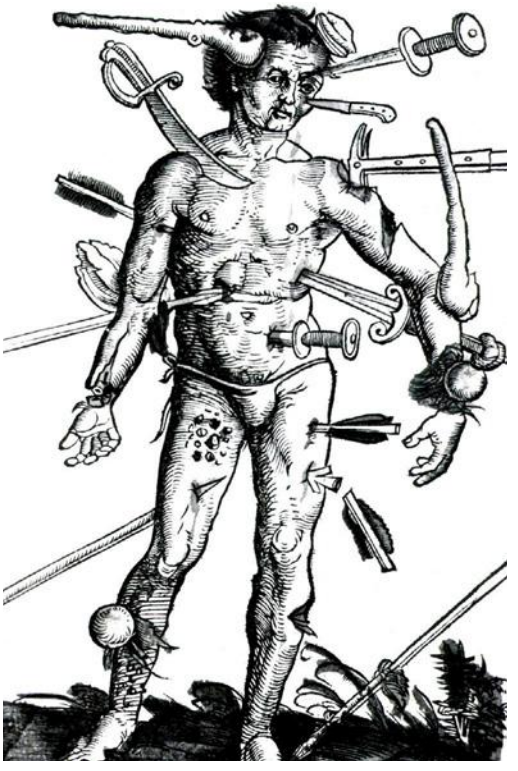
Doctors believed that four basic elements (known as 'humours') made up the body, and that sickness was caused when these elements were out of balance. The four humours were blood, phlegm (mucus), black bile and yellow bile. The purpose of medical treatment was to restore their natural balance in the 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.

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

Bleeding, or **blood-letting**, was done in several ways – by cutting a vein (see Source 12), by cupping (placing a heated cup over a cut in the skin to draw out a small amount of blood), or by attaching blood-sucking leeches to various parts of the patient's body.

Surgery in the fourteenth 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 fourteenth century – and even up to the nineteenth century – barber-surgeons performed blood-letting, extracted teeth, set broken bones and amputated (cut off) diseased or damaged limbs.



Source 10 This illustration, called 'The wound man', was used by many medieval surgeons as a manual or 'procedures guide'.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 10.

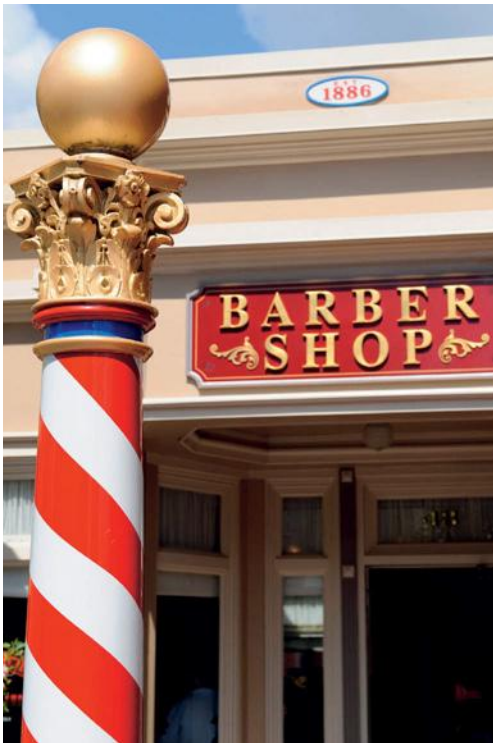
What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

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 10 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!



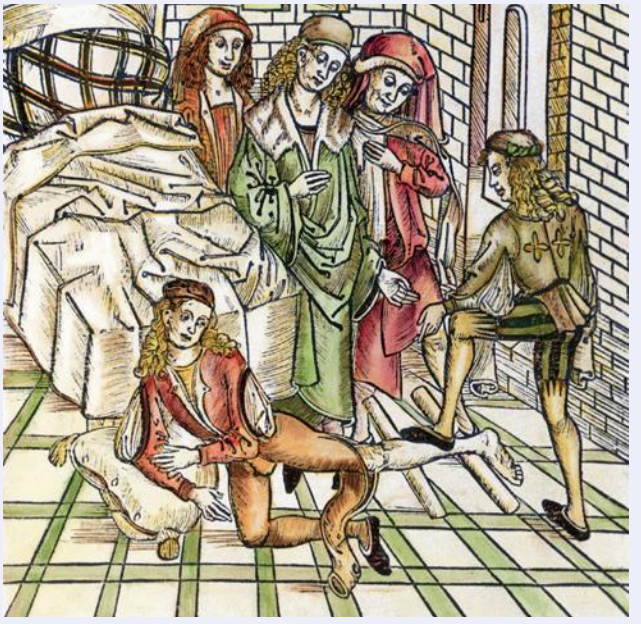
Source 11 Barber poles are a reminder of the services barbers provided in earlier times. Poles were used during blood-letting procedures, with a bowl at the top to hold leeches and one at the bottom to catch the blood. Used bandages were often hung out to dry on poles. Over time, the stripes from traditional barber poles came to represent the red bandages stained with blood and the clean, white bandages.

15.3A SOURCE STUDY

Surgery in the fourteenth century



Source 12 A fifteenth-century illustration of blood-letting



Source 13 An artist's depiction of a medieval surgeon treating a broken leg

INTERPRET

1 Describe what is happening in Sources 12 and 13.
2 Conduct research to find out more details about these medieval treatments and compare your findings to these illustrations. Are the sources accurate? What are their limitations?
3 Suggest the likely outcomes for the patients in the sources. Explain your reasoning.

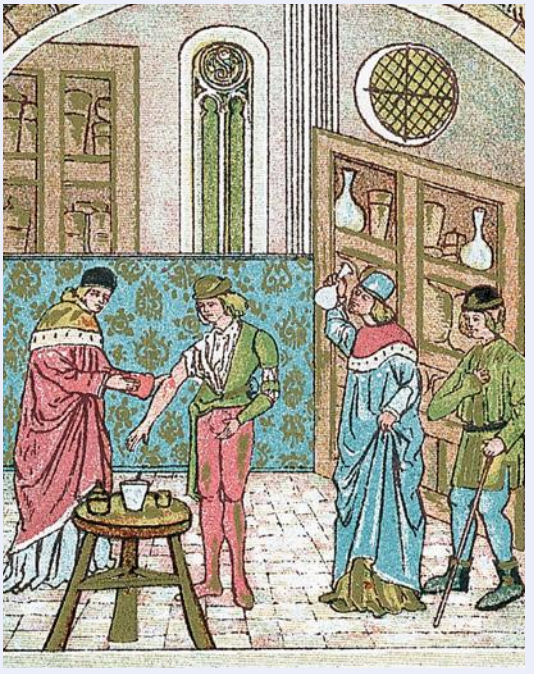
SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

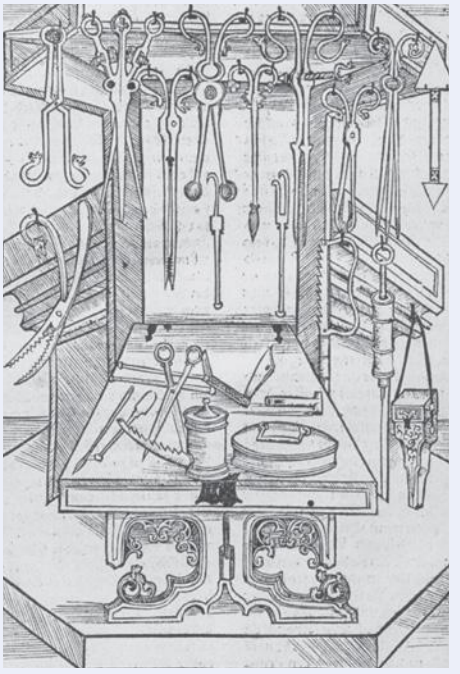
Historians must take care to ensure they can trust the information in sources. To do this, they must consider the origin and purpose of a source and determine its strengths and weaknesses.

15.3B SOURCE STUDY

Medieval medicine



Source 14 This painting, called *The Leech's Chamber*, shows sick people going to the doctor to have blood extracted using leeches, *c.* sixteenth century.



Source 15 A woodcut print showing assorted medical tools from the medieval period, *c.* fifteenth century

Source 16 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 the patient's neck.
Smallpox	Wrap the patient 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.

INTERPRET

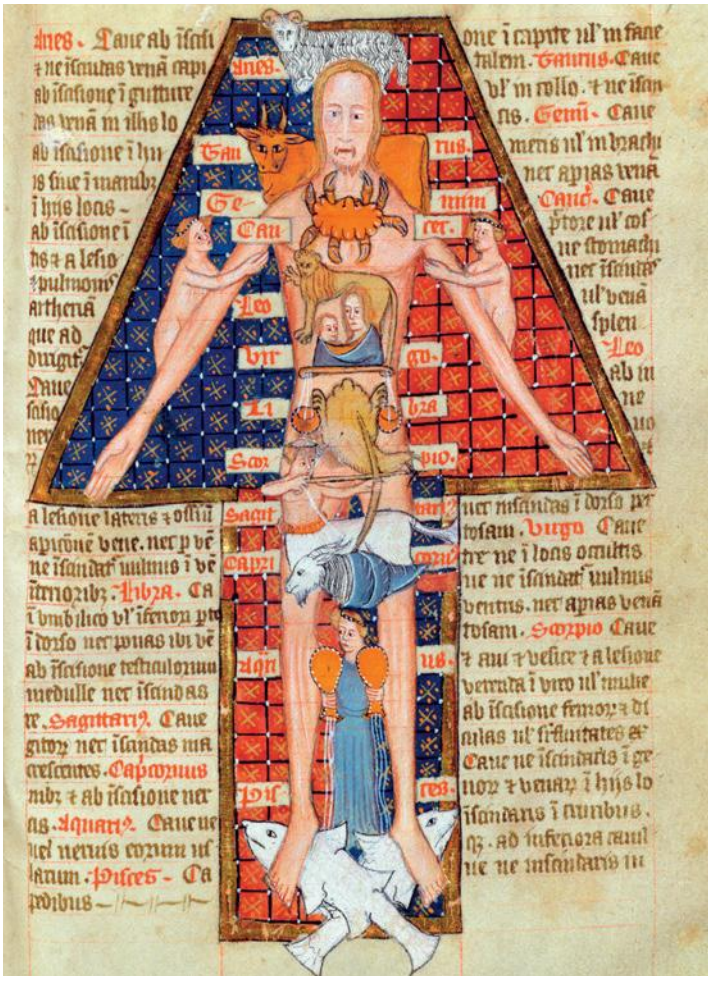
Look at Sources 14, 15 and 16 and complete the following questions.

1. Which source do you believe presents 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?
3. Copy and complete the table below to analyse the sources.

Name of the source	Strengths	Limitations	Primary or secondary source
The Leech's Chamber (painting)			
Woodcut showing medical tools			
Table of treatments and ailments			

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 17). By consulting a zodiac chart, a physician could discover which stars or planets were influencing a certain part of the body and choose a treatment accordingly.



Source 17 A fourteenth-century illustration of a 'zodiac man' in a manuscript

15.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How did frequent wars help to develop medieval surgery?
2 Explain why becoming ill in medieval times was an unpleasant experience.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Create an infographic to summarise people's understanding of disease in the fourteenth century and their treatment of diseases as a consequence of these beliefs.

GO DEEPER

4 Find out the medical treatments for a fever and a broken leg today and suggest why they have changed since the fourteenth century.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Religious beliefs were significant in shaping the outlook of people in medieval Europe. While today the Black Death is viewed as a medical situation, the perspective at the time was that it was a punishment from God for sinful ways.

15.4 THE POWER OF GOD IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline what people in Europe believed about religion and the power of God in this period.**

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 learnt from early childhood (through their parents, local priests and others) how the Church expected them to behave, and what they should believe. This 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** and payments from the people, the medieval Church became very wealthy. It did not have to pay taxes.

tithe
a tax paid to support the Church and clergy (equivalent to one-tenth of a person's annual produce or earnings)

excommunicate
to officially exclude a person from being part of the Catholic Church community and all that this entailed from a spiritual point of view (e.g. being able to participate in communion, confession)



Source 18 This scene of demons tormenting souls in hell decorates a wall in Bourges Cathedral, which was built in France in the late twelfth century.

As head of the Catholic Church, the pope had great influence and had the power to **excommunicate** sinners. This was a frightening punishment for medieval Christians. Excommunicated people could not go to church, and it was believed that this meant 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, difficult 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 18 were constant reminders of a terrible afterlife to be avoided.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the threat of demons in Source 18 and how this would have influenced or controlled people in society.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

15.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why did medieval Christians fear being excommunicated?
2 Name two ways in which the medieval Church acquired wealth.
3 Name three ways in which the Church's teachings or practices helped to influence how people lived their lives.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why do you think the Church became so powerful in medieval Europe? Include at least one economic and one social reason.

15.5 TRADE BETWEEN EUROPE AND ASIA IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the extent of trade between Europe and Asia in the fourteenth 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 20), and often sold in huge open-air markets.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Increased trade had positive effects such as new goods, but also negative effects such as the introduction of new diseases.

The Silk Roads

Much early medieval trade between West and East took place along the Silk Roads. 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

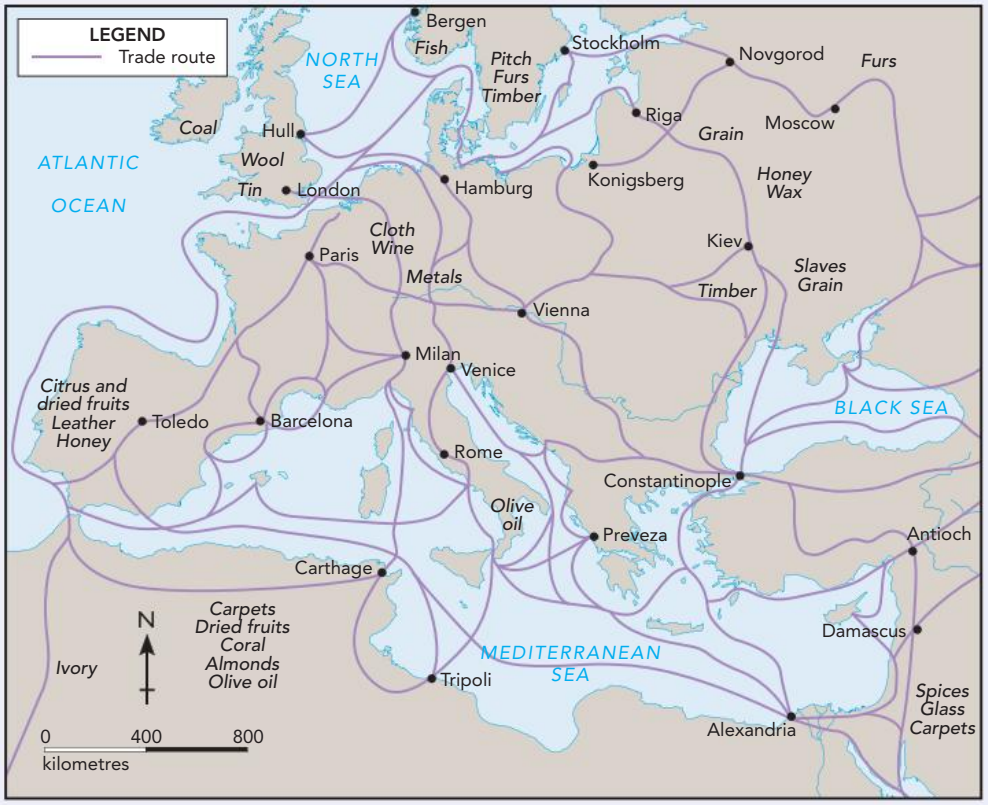
Countries such as Portugal and Spain led the push in Europe to discover new sea routes to eastern markets – and to claim lands in the 'New World' (the Americas). European sailors, starting in the late fifteenth century, pushed further and further into unknown waters. Not only were these new sea routes 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 19 A sixteenth-century illustration of ships, showing navigation with the use of a compass

15.5 SOURCE STUDY

Trading routes in the fourteenth century



Source 20 A map showing trade routes and traded goods in the fourteenth century

INTERPRET

1 Study Source 20 and an atlas or online map to find which modern-day countries these trade routes passed through.

2 Where did the following goods come from?

- wool
- honey
- spices
- wine
- furs
- carpets
- slaves
- metals

15.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Which goods from the East were popular in Europe?

2 How did the discovery of new sea routes improve trade in medieval times?

GO DEEPER

3 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?

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15A

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY AND WHAT DID PEOPLE BELIEVE?

» Locate the extent of human settlements in fourteenth-century Asia, Europe and Africa

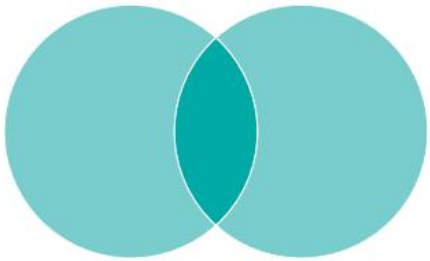
1 On a blank world map, add labels and shading to indicate territories ruled or inhabited by different peoples in medieval Asia, Europe and Africa. (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the fourteenth century and life expectancy at this time

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 (shown right) 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

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 this period

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 this period

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 fourteenth century

9 Write a paragraph that summarises where trade routes were located between Europe and Asia in the fourteenth 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]

Marking guide

» 5 marks = a paragraph

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

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15B WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD?

15.6 CAUSES AND SYMPTOMS OF THE BLACK DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the causes and symptoms of the Black Death.

pandemic
the spread of an infectious disease across an entire country, a large region, or even worldwide; an epidemic on a much larger scale

bacterium
(plural: bacteria) a microscopic organism that can cause disease

The Black Death was a **pandemic**, but it did not become known as the Black Death until many years later. It was given this name because the symptoms of one of the diseases associated with the pandemic, the bubonic plague, was the appearance of black lumps, known as buboes, on the skin of victims.

Causes of the Black Death

The primary cause of the Black Death was the bubonic plague, which itself was caused by the *Yersinia pestis* **bacterium**. The bacterium was not discovered until over 500 years after the pandemic, in 1894 by Swiss researcher Alexander Yersina. Scientists working in 2011 confirmed that *Yersinia pestis* was the primary cause of the bubonic plague by testing the bones and teeth of English plague victims from a 1348 burial pit. However, as we have already seen, there were a range of secondary diseases that added to the death toll. In the fourteenth century, if the exact cause of a person's death was not known, people assumed it to be the plague.

The plague could take three different forms, depending on how the victim was exposed to the bacteria:

- bubonic plague
- pneumonic plague
- septicemic plague.

Plague bacteria can still be found in parts of Asia, Africa and the western United States. It is a disease that can now be treated with the appropriate antibiotics (substances that can kill bacteria and other microorganisms).

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!



Source 1 *Yersinia pestis* bacteria, as seen through an electron microscope

Symptoms of the bubonic plague

For most sufferers, the first signs of bubonic plague were large bulges or lumps (buboes) that appeared on the skin, usually in the groin, in the armpits or on the neck. These lumps initially appeared as a red colour, before turning purple, and then finally black. 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.

The three forms of plague known as the Black Death

Bubonic plague	Pneumonic plague	Septicemic plague
		
Source 2 Bubonic plague	**Source 3** Pneumonic plague	**Source 4** Septicemic plague
The bubonic plague was transmitted by fleas with plague bacteria in their stomachs. The fleas were carried by rats. When a rat died from the plague, fleas would jump onto other warm-blooded hosts, including humans.	Pneumonic plague was the second most common form of plague.	Septicemic plague was the rarest and deadliest form of the Black Death, and the least common. It was also spread by infected fleas, but moved directly into the bloodstream.
It was the most common form of plague, but not the most infectious.	It spread through the air by a victim's cough and attacked the respiratory system.	Victims' skin and other body tissues often turned black before they died.
Death rate was 60–90%, and people died within 4 to 7 days from time of infection.	Death rate was almost 100%, and people died within 1 to 8 days.	Death rate was almost 100%, and people died within hours, before buboes had time to form on the skin.

15.6 SOURCE STUDY

Symptoms of the bubonic plague

Source 5 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 6 A modern-day bubonic plague victim, with buboes in his groin

INTERPRET

1 What does the evidence in Sources 5 and 6 reveal about the symptoms of the bubonic plague?

15.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 How did the Black Death get its name?
2 Draw a diagram to show how the bacteria that causes the bubonic plague can spread.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

3 Imagine that you have been transported back in time to a plague city in 1349. Create a printed proclamation issuing 10 orders to the people of the city, telling them how to avoid catching the disease. Use your knowledge of the causes of the plague, but keep the instructions simple. They will not understand your modern-day reasoning.

GO DEEPER

4 Penicillin was the first antibiotic used by doctors to treat infections caused by bacteria. Find out when and how it was discovered.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

It is difficult for historians to be certain about the origins and spread of the plague due to the limited medical knowledge at the time. They have analysed sources describing symptoms to draw conclusions about the disease.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

'Ring Around the Rosie' is often said to be about the Black Death. It is true that the words could indicate a rash and then a plague doctor with flowers or herbs, but historians say that it is very unlikely that it really did originate with the plague because the rhyme wasn't written down until the 1800s.

15.7 ORIGINS AND SPREAD OF THE BLACK DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **explain how trade and travel contributed to the outbreak 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?

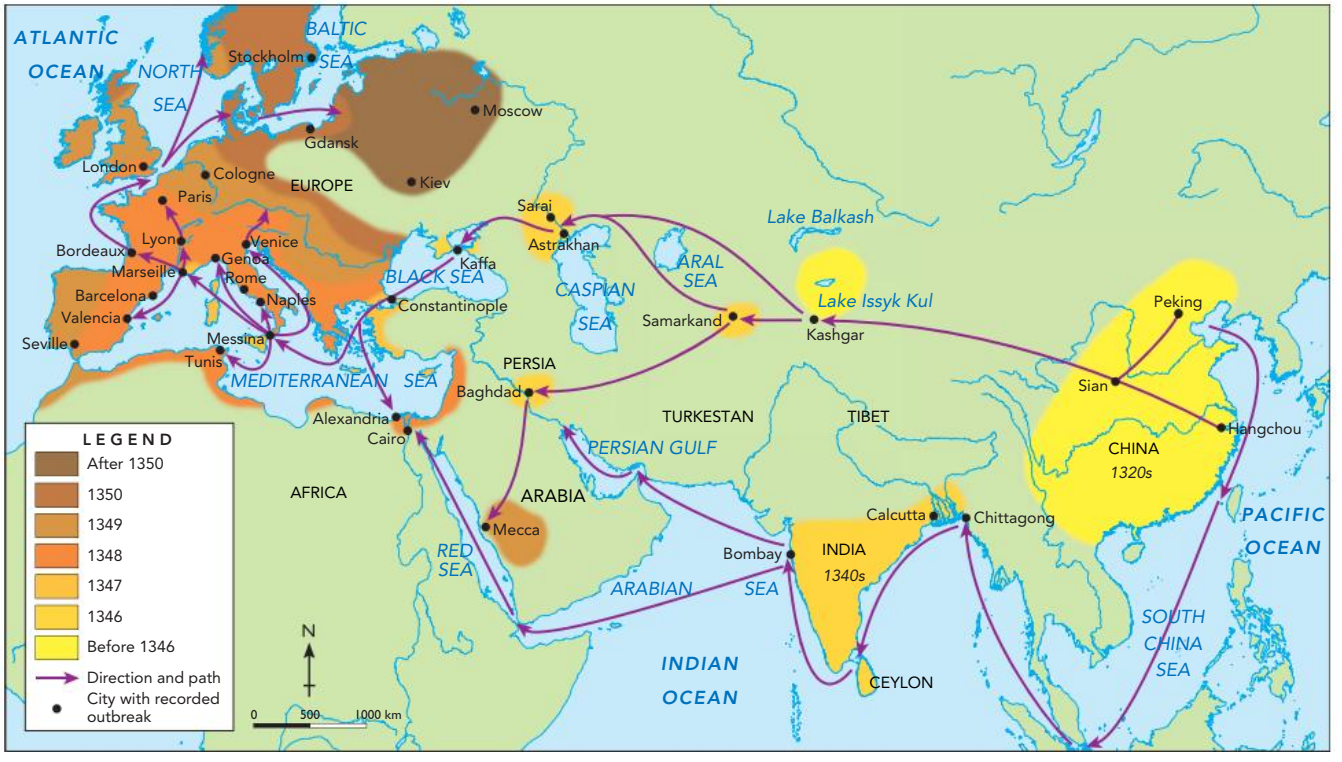
Origins of the Black Death

Historians differ over when the plague was first recorded. Some believe that it was reported more than 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 pandemic 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 Roads.

The Black Death spreads to the West

Various theories have been suggested to explain why the plague began to spread westwards from the Mongolian region to Europe. Source 7 shows the path of the Black Death in the fourteenth century, including recorded dates of outbreaks in different areas. Source 8 outlines some of the known events and movements that are thought to have caused the plague to spread from East to West.

Source 7 A map showing the spread of the Black Death



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.

15.7A SOURCE STUDY

The spread of the Black Death

Source 8 The rapid spread of the plague, a major disease 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 Roads. • Plague reaches India and Ceylon by traders and travellers from China, along sea routes.
1346–47	• The plague reaches Kaffa (now Feodosija, 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 3-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 that jump to land after docking. • In October 1347 the Black Death arrives in Messina, 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 are dying every day. In villages on the Nile delta, the death rate is so high that towns are abandoned, and bodies are piled up in mosques and shops. Rotting corpses are left on the roads and eaten by dogs and rats. In Cairo, the plague kills 37 per cent of the population.
1348	• Plague reaches Marseille and other cities in southern France, then moves into Spain, further into Italy and is carried to England by sea. • Plague 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 serves as the gateway for the plague to enter Palestine and Syria. Eventually, the whole of the Islamic world is affected, especially those living in towns and cities.
1349	• Plague spreads across the British Isles, across the North Sea into Norway and across the mainland into Germany. • Plague is carried to Mecca by pilgrims. • Plague reaches Aswan in Egypt, 1000 km south of Cairo. • Plague reaches Damascus in Syria, where deaths halve the population of 100 000.
1350–52	• 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 carry the disease to their home country after their release from a Cairo prison.
1360s onwards	• New, but smaller, outbreaks of the plague occur in 1361, 1369, 1374 and 1390 and most notably in the Great Plague of London in 1665. The last great European plague pandemic occurs in France in 1720.



Source 9 The tower of a fourteenth- to nineteenth-century Genoese fortress in Kaffa (in modern-day Ukraine)

INTERPRET

1 How many years did it take for the plague to run its course through Europe?

2 What does the information in Source 8 tell us about the reasons why people travelled in the fourteenth century, carrying infected people and rats to new places?

Climate: a contributing factor?

Climate scientists point to a recorded change in the wind and climate patterns around the time of the Black Death, which helped to spread it westwards. From the mid-thirteenth century to the early fourteenth 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 pastures that Mongols relied on 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.

15.7B SOURCE STUDY

The Black Death spreads to the West



Source 10 An illustration from a medieval manuscript (c. 1300) showing goods being loaded onto a ship in Turin, Italy



Source 11 Detail of an illustration showing a Mongol army attacking a city

INTERPRET

1 Examine Source 10 and suggest ways that the plague bacteria could come aboard a ship.
2 What evidence does Source 11 provide about siege weapons used by the Mongol army in the fourteenth century? Identify the weapon that might have been used to hurl plague bodies into the city.

15.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Where did the fourteenth-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?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Class discussion: What was the most significant contributor to the plague's spread?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Imagine that you were a defender of Kaffa in 1348. Write a short story that describes your reaction when bodies of plague victims are flung into your city.

GO DEEPER

6 Choose one of the following pandemics to research, and identify the similarities and differences between it and the Black Death (how it spread, medical treatments and the impact on society).
- Spanish Flu (1918–20)
- SARS (2003)
- Swine Flu (2009–10)
- COVID-19 (2019–)

Treatments for the Black Death

CASE STUDY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- use sources to identify common treatments of the disease and discuss their effectiveness.

Desperate times led to desperate solutions, contradictions and panic. Some people in medieval Europe thought that bad smells were a cause of disease, so they took steps to counteract foul odours. These people carried small bunches of flowers or pouches filled with herbs, spices or flowers. Green wood, such as a rosemary plant, was burned in some homes to give off a fragrant smoke. Other people believed, as noted in Source 12 below, that bad might drive out bad, and therefore they aimed to breathe in bad smells. If this sounds foolish and confused, remember that in April 2020 as the death toll for COVID-19 continued to grow in the United States, US President Donald Trump suggested that getting strong light into the body or injecting disinfectant might be a cure.

Towns and cities hired specialist physicians known as plague doctors (see Source 13). However, they could do little for their patients, except separate them from people who had the disease, burn their clothes, and pray for them.

Source 12 Commonly suggested 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 place it on its belly next to the plague sore.	If the frog bursts within 15 minutes the patient will live. Then place another frog, as it will draw out the poison. If neither frog bursts, the person will die.



Source 13 A seventeenth-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.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Why did people carry bunches of flowers?
2 What was the role of a plague doctor?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Which actions of a plague doctor probably assisted with limiting the spread of the plague? Provide a reason for your answer.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Most people in medieval times could not read. Choose one of the remedies from Source 15 or in the text and design a poster to get the message across to medieval town dwellers.

15.8 WHEN THE BLACK DEATH STRIKES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **outline responses of different groups in society to the spread of the disease.**

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 wave of disease.

Source 14 Common responses to the plague 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.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Antisemitism is the term used to describe prejudice against Jewish people. Antisemitism existed throughout Europe for centuries, but the Black Death was a new unfounded excuse for some people to increase persecution of Jewish people.

flagellants
a group of radical Christians during the Black Death who whipped themselves to gain God's forgiveness for their sins

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 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 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 stories spread that Jews sometimes kidnapped and killed Christian children. When the Christian population was looking for someone to blame for the horrors of the plague, the Jews were an easy target. A common accusation was that the Black Death was caused by Jews who 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 600 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 thousands were killed.



Source 15 A procession of flagellants, painted by the Spanish artist Goya between 1815 and 1819

In October 1349, Pope Clement VI accused the flagellants of failing to follow Church rules. He 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.

15.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Some people fled from towns to the countryside to escape the Black Death. Suggest reasons for and against doing this.
2 Who were the flagellants and what was the purpose of their actions?
3 Why were Jews persecuted during the Black Death?

15B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH AND HOW DID IT SPREAD?

Marking guide

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» 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 15A, 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 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 fourteenth 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 fourteenth 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 to avoid contracting the plague
- **b** to find an explanation for the cause of the plague and inflict punishment. (10 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Checkpoint worksheets
Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

15C WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH?

15.9 SHORT-TERM IMPACTS OF THE BLACK DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- assess the impact of the Black Death on Asian, European and African societies
- describe short-term and long-term effects of the Black Death on medieval societies.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

When understanding particular events, historians use chronology or sequencing to explain change and developments in society.

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.



Source 1 A detail of the painting *Triumph of Death* by the Flemish painter Pieter Brueghel the Elder (*c.* 1525–69); this artwork symbolises the widespread fear of death during the medieval period – when fatal illness that struck quickly was commonplace.

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.

The effects of the Black Death on Eastern societies are understood even less. 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 that many ordinary people felt towards the Church. The dominant social 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. When the plague struck, this filthy situation became even worse. Abandoned houses were left dirty, and muck piled up in the streets. 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.

15.9 SOURCE STUDY

Burying victims of the Black Death

Source 2

> [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.
>
> *Giovanni Boccaccio,* The Decameron, *vol. 1, Richard Aldington (trans.), 1930*



Source 3 An eighteenth-century artist's impression of a mass burial during the fourteenth-century plague in Florence, Italy

INTERPRET

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 3.
2 Is the scene of a mass burial in Source 3 consistent with the description in Source 2?

15.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic 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?

15.10 LONG-TERM EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- assess the impact of the Black Death on Asian, European and African societies
- describe 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
- using a range of sources, discuss different interpretations of the impact of the Black Death on European society.

It is often only with the passing 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 dramatically reduced the populations of towns, villages, cities and manors. In some cases, the populations of whole towns were wiped out, leaving the countryside empty. The population of Europe would not recover until the sixteenth century, and this would have long-term consequences for societies.



Source 4 A painting showing farm workers on a manor soon after the plague ended

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 labour for 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.

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.

Peasants' Revolt
a widespread rebellion in 1381 against taxes and other inequities that oppressed the poorer people in England

15.10 SOURCE STUDY

The effects of the plague

Source 5

> 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.
>
> The Chronicle of Henry Knighton, *1348–50*

Source 6

> 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.
>
> *Statute of Labourers, 1351*

INTERPRET

1 Read Source 5 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 6 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 were often badly treated under feudalism. 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 7).

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.



Source 7 An artist's impression of the death of Wat Tyler, the leader of the Peasants' Revolt

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 people's 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.

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 fourteenth 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 abroad from the sixteenth 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 and 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 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).

Interpreting the impact of the Black Death

Over the centuries since the Black Death, historians have developed different views on the impact of the fourteenth-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 of 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 before it began. The Black Death simply brought about social and scientific changes a bit more quickly than might have been the case otherwise.

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 pandemic had passed, the number of leprosy sufferers was so low that the disease could not maintain its hold and died away.

Reformation
a movement that began in Europe in the sixteenth century when the monk Martin Luther publicly challenged the Catholic Church

Renaissance
a period in Europe's history between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries that saw a revival of classical culture and learning

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Black Death and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

A significant challenge for historians is in presenting a balanced argument. They must consult a range of sources and use evidence to support their explanation.

15.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Create an infographic to present the long-term effects of the Black Death. Use sketches as well as words to show each effect.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 Take the part of either a landowner or a peasant and argue for or against the ideas behind the Statute of Labourers. Write a persuasive speech to present your argument.

GO DEEPER

3 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. For each source, consider the value and limitations to determine how useful they are. Using the information from your sources, write a report explaining the impact of the Black Death on the population of Europe.



Source 8 Plague doctors wore a mask with a 'beak' that was filled with spices, flowers and chemicals, partly as an attempt to protect against disease, and partly to hide the smell surrounding the dying people.

15C

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)

» Using a range of sources, discuss different interpretations of the impact of the Black Death 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 short-term and long-term effects of the Black Death on medieval societies

4 What were some of the immediate and short-term effects of 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? (10 marks)

Total marks [/30]



Source 9 A fourteenth-century engraving showing a scene from the Black Death in 1348

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

» 5 marks = a paragraph

» 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

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16



Source 1 Machu Picchu, an Incan citadel in Peru

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 conquest of the Americas brought about the end of two major civilisations – the Aztecs and Incas. They were complex and advanced societies, but they were no match for the weapons and diseases that the Spanish brought with them from Europe.

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WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH? 16A

In this section you will:

» locate and identify the major civilisations and cities of the pre-Columbian Americas in this period

» 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.

CASE STUDY: RELIGIOUS BELIEFS IN AZTEC SOCIETY

CHECKPOINT 16A

WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS? 16B

In this section you will:

» outline and 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

» using a range of sources, 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

» using a range of sources, 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 16B

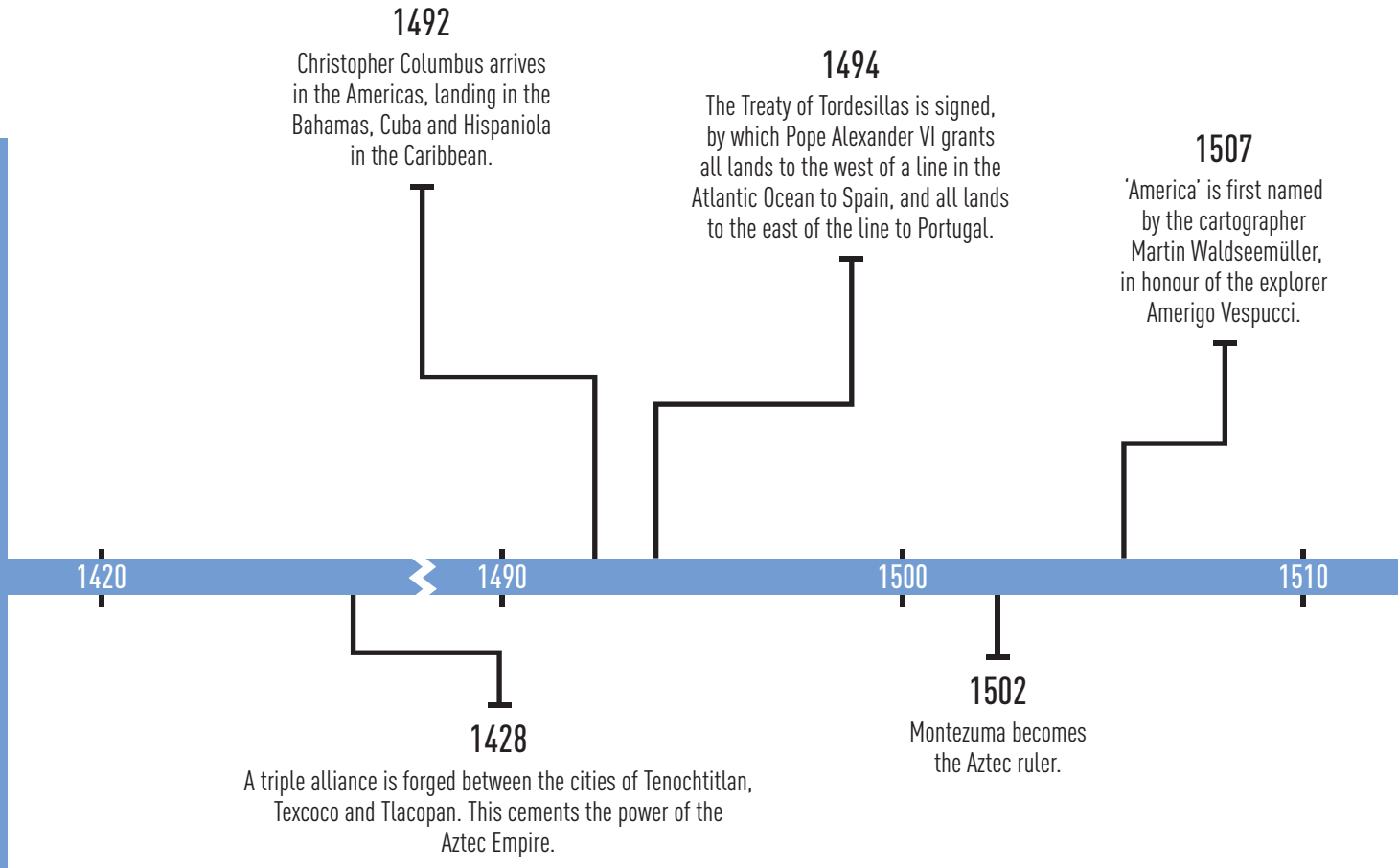
REFERENCE GUIDE

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

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THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE





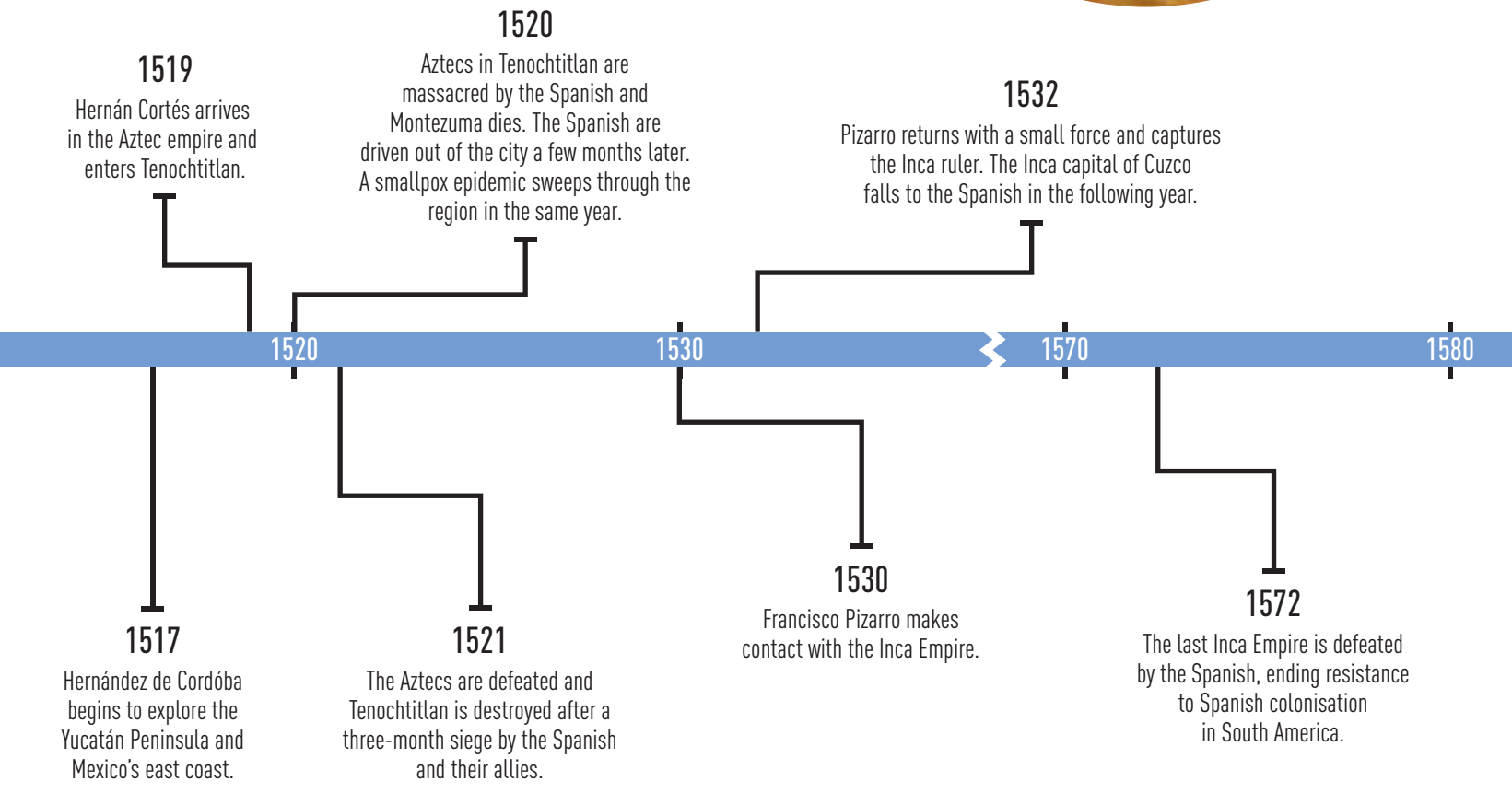
Source 2
An artist's impression of the great city of Tenochtitlan



Source 3
A sixteenth-century illustration depicting the arrival of Hernán Cortés and his conquistadors in the Aztec Empire



Source 4
A painting showing Pizarro's attack on unarmed Inca warriors in 1532



TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?

16A WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH?

16.1 THE MAJOR CIVILISATIONS OF THE MAYA, THE AZTECS AND THE INCA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate and identify the major civilisations and cities of the pre-Columbian Americas in this period.

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.



Source 1 A map of the Americas



Source 2 A map showing the locations of the Aztec, Maya and Inca civilisations

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There were three main civilisations in this southern region – the Maya, the Aztecs and the Inca (see Source 2). Two of these civilisations still existed by the time of the **Age of Exploration** in the fifteenth 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.

The Maya was the oldest of the three civilisations we will examine. It was at the height of its power between AD 250 and AD 900, when the Maya ruled a large area around the Yucatán Peninsula. The Mayan people did not have a sole leader or capital city. Each city 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. A new Mayan empire was built around Chichén Itzá, on the Yucatán Peninsula, but this also fell after invasion from neighbouring peoples in the fifteenth 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 Inca Empire had become the most powerful in the **pre-Columbian** Americas, with the city of Cuzco as its capital. Their territories extended for 4000 kilometres 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 and an extensive network of roads, and strategically built stone fortresses. They excelled in working metals such as silver, copper and gold.

Age of Exploration
a period starting in the early fifteenth century and continuing to the seventeenth century during which Europeans explored Africa, the Americas, Asia and Oceania

hieroglyph
a writing system that used picture-like symbols

city-state
an independent settlement made up of an inner fortified city, surrounded by houses and farmland

pre-Columbian
a term used to describe all periods of history in the Americas before the arrival of Europeans (since Christopher Columbus)



Source 3 Detail from a fresco at the Mayan site of Bonampak

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the scene in Source 3.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Historians sometimes disagree about things, particularly when drawing inferences from archaeological evidence. When conflicting evidence is presented, historians must consider the possibilities, which can lead to disagreement about past societies.

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. However, pre-Columbian children's toys with wheels 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 4 A pre-Columbian child's toy – with wheels

16.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What were the three main civilisations in the Americas?
2. What does the term 'pre-Columbian' mean?
3. Which groups were at the top of the social hierarchy in pre-Columbian societies in the Americas?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. How did farming differ in the Americas and Europe?
5. How have children's toys been used to challenge previous thinking about pre-Columbian America?

GO DEEPER

6. In a group, research key aspects 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.

16.2 THE AZTEC EMPIRE BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the organisation of society in the pre-Columbian Americas.

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 Aztec people called themselves *Mexica*. The Aztecs expanded their control of territories in present-day Mexico from around 1428, by conquering other tribes. They also formed an alliance between the major city of Tenochtitlan and the cities of Texcoco and Tlacopan. Of these three cities, Tenochtitlan was by far the largest and most dominant, and the centre of Aztec civilisation.



Source 5 A map of the Aztec Empire showing the location of its major cities Tenochtitlan, Tlacopan and Texcoco

Social groups in Aztec society

Aztec society was organised according to a strict **hierarchy**. There were five major social classes: the emperor, nobles, warriors, commoners and slaves. 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 **tributes** 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. They showed their wealth and dominance with extravagant feasts and expensive gifts to each other.



Source 6 The Aztec emperor Montezuma

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Different perspectives don't only come from different societies. Within a society there can be vastly different experiences, particularly where there are differences in status and gender.

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

tribute
a gift given as a mark of respect



Source 7 The long feather headdress worn by an Aztec noble



Source 8 An illustration from the sixteenth-century *Florentine Codex* showing an Aztec man threshing amaranth grain (a food used by Aztecs in religious ceremonies)

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 practise 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.

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.

Roles of men and women

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.

The roles of men and women in Aztec society

In the sixteenth 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 9

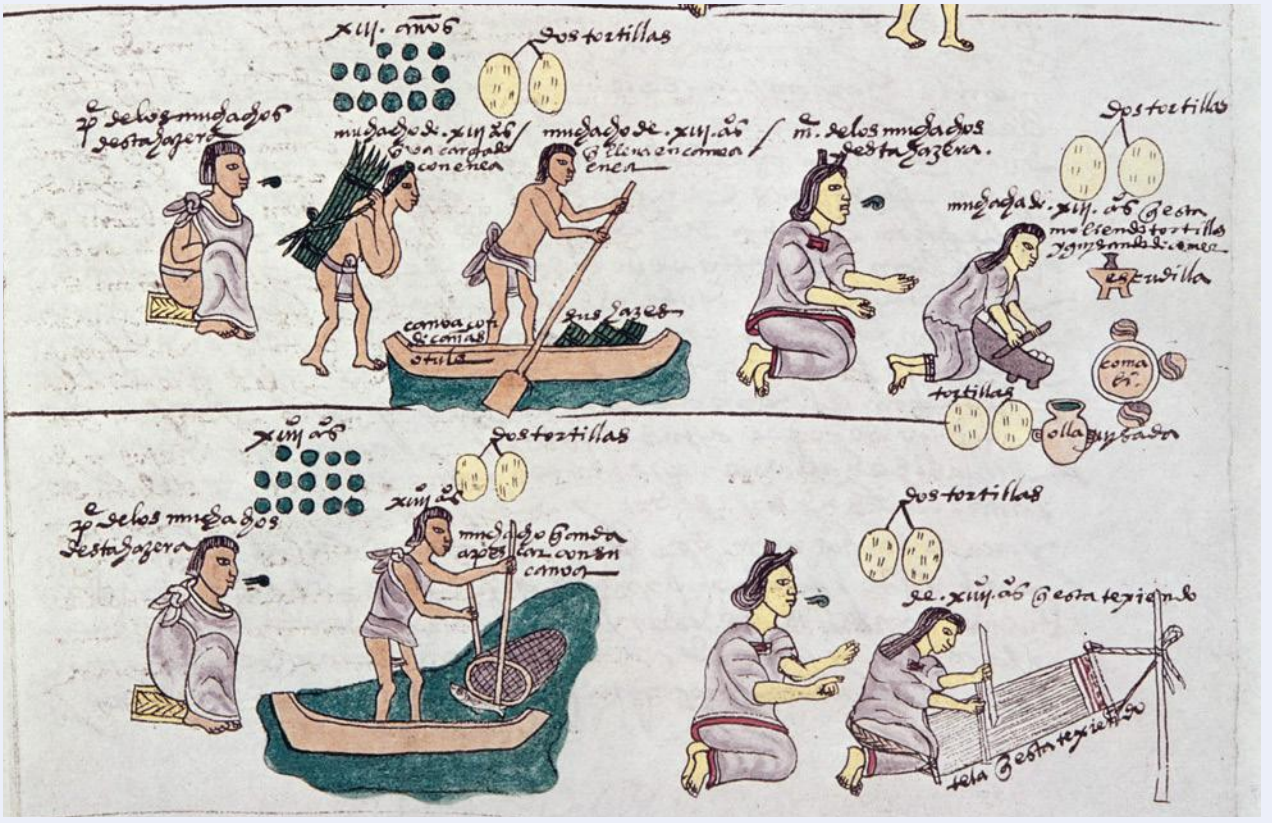
Midwife's address to newborn boys:

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



Source 10 Illustrations from the sixteenth-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.

INTERPRET

1 What do the sources reveal about the role and expectations of men and women in Aztec society?
2 What are the limitations of these sources?

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.



Source 11 Illustrations from the sixteenth-century *Codex Mendoza* show 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.

16.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Draw a diagram that shows the social hierarchy in Aztec society.
2. Outline the roles of men and women in Aztec society.
3. What were some of the punishments given to Aztec children who did not perform their tasks properly or were disobedient?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Why did Aztec warriors capture, rather than kill, enemy warriors?
5. Why do you think the Spanish may have exaggerated stories about the Aztecs' discipline of children?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. Research to find out about the Aztecs' *Danza de los Voladores*, and either draw a labelled diagram to show the different features and explain the purpose, or create a model to demonstrate its function.

Religious beliefs in Aztec society

CASE STUDY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the beliefs of the Aztec society.

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 people 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.

The Aztecs believed in life after death. They believed that the way they 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.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

The Aztecs had many gods to ensure all aspects of life and society were addressed. Their lack of scientific understanding in many areas led to fervent worship of the gods.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Children were considered great gifts to the gods. The Aztecs believed that their tears could bring rain and break a drought. Sometimes children were made to walk up a mountain before being left in a cave for a day so that their tears would wet the earth. Other times they had fingernails ripped off to bring about tears.



Source 12 a turquoise mask representing the Aztec god Xiutecuhtli, the 'Lord of fire'



Source 13 A drawing of the god Quetzalcoatl, 'the feathered serpent god', from the *Codex Borbonicus*



Source 14 A stone sculpture of the god Huitzilopochtli, *c.* 1500

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.

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 a *chacmool* (see Source 16) 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 fortunate, since it was believed they were guaranteed a place in the highest heaven reserved for warriors who died in battle.



Source 15 A knife used by Aztec priests for human sacrifices



Source 16 An Aztec *chacmool* – a reclining human figure with a sacrificial tray on his lap, where the hearts of sacrificed victims were placed



Source 17 An illustration of a ritual killing from the *Codex Magliabechiano*, showing victims being sacrificed on the steps of a temple

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians need to consider different perspectives and how different groups perceived historical events in order to effectively communicate about the past.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What did the Aztecs believe would happen if sacrifices were not made to Huitzilopochtli?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

2 How do you think the Aztecs felt about their gods? What makes you think this way?

GO DEEPER

3 Write an account of the sacrifice depicted in Source 17, from the perspective of one of the Aztec nobles watching the ritual. Research features of Aztec sacrifice to include extra detail.

16.3 LIFE IN TENOCHTITLAN – THE AZTEC CAPITAL

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe key aspects of pre-Columbian life in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan.

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 8 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. 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 avocados. They farmed on a clever system of artificial islands called ***chinampas***, built on the shallow parts of the lake and joined. 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 by 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.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

When studying past societies, it is important to engage with specific historical terms and concepts. There are often unique aspects of life that don't have a direct translation into English.

chinampa
an artificial island



Source 18 A copy of an illustration taken from a manuscript showing the *chinampa* system used by the Aztecs to construct the city of Tenochtitlan

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').



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 coarse flour to make tortillas, which were flat breads to wrap around vegetables and meat.



4 A poor farming family's home on a chinampa 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.

Source 19 An artist's impression of daily life in Tenochtitlan

16.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What was the main form of transport in Tenochtitlan?
2 What were the main features of 'roads'?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Why do you think the Aztecs would leave evidence of sacrifices for all to see?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4 Imagine you are an Aztec who has visited Tenochtitlan for the day. Write a letter to a friend in another part of the Aztec Empire, describing the city, markets and sacred areas. Include reference to the types of foods and how many people are around.

GO DEEPER

5 Research to find out how *chinampas* were constructed. Design an infographic to outline the process.

16A

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE KEY FEATURES OF SOCIETIES IN THE AMERICAS BEFORE THE ARRIVAL OF THE SPANISH?

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Locate and identify the major civilisations and cities of the pre-Columbian Americas in this period

1 Identify the locations of the Maya, Aztec and Inca civilisations and note the important cities for each. (3 marks)

» Outline the organisation of society in the pre-Columbian Americas

2 Identify the people at the top of the social hierarchy in the Maya, Aztec and Inca societies. (3 marks)

3 Outline the different groups in Aztec society, in order from 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 at least two sources in your response. (5 marks)

» Describe the beliefs of the Aztec society

5 Explain what is known about Aztec beliefs regarding the role of gods. In your response, include a range of specific examples. (8 marks)

6 What did Aztecs believe about death? (5 marks)

7 Explain how their religious beliefs influenced Aztec rituals and warfare. (6 marks)

» Describe key aspects of pre-Columbian life in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan

8 Describe the Aztec capital Tenochtitlan, including aspects of daily life for its inhabitants. Use images and sketches to illustrate your response. In your response, refer to a range of sources as supporting evidence. (15 marks)

Total marks [/50]



Source 20 Ruins of the Templo Mayor, the main temple of Tenochtitlan

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

- **Checkpoint** — A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section
- **Rich task** — A write-in worksheet for the Rich task

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

- **Teacher support** — Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas
- **Checkpoint worksheets** — Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

16B WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS?

16.4 OVERVIEW OF SPANISH CONQUEST AND SETTLEMENT IN THE AMERICAS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline and explain the reasons for Spanish conquest and settlement in the Americas
- identify the societies that the Spanish conquered in the Americas.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Historical events have an impact not only immediately, such as the Spanish arrival in the Americas, but also much later. Sometimes the effect is not realised until long after the initial cause.

Towards the end of the fifteenth 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 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 passage to 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.



Source 1 An artist's impression of the arrival of Columbus in the Americas

Key events of Spanish exploration and conquest

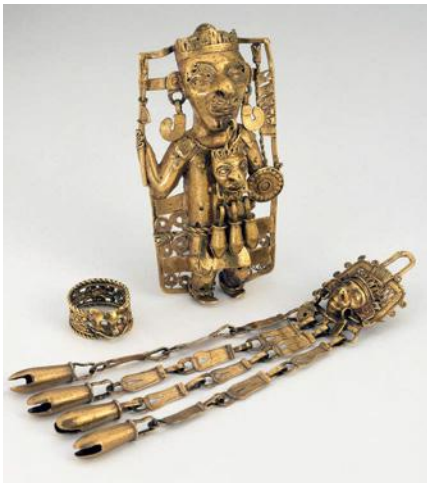
conquistador
a Spanish word for soldier; a conqueror, especially one of the Spanish conquerors of the Americas in the sixteenth century

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 Francisco Pizarro, who took huge risks to explore new territories in the hope of enormous reward. Source 2 outlines key events in the Spanish exploration and conquest in the Americas.

Source 2 Key events of Spanish exploration and conquest

1492	Columbus establishes a settlement at Hispaniola (now Haiti and the Dominican Republic), which becomes a launching ground for subsequent Spanish expeditions.
1508–10	Puerto Rico and Jamaica are captured; a settlement is established in Panama.
1511	Cuba is 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	Hernández de Cordóba reaches the Yucatán Peninsula, the land of the Maya. Mexico's east coast is explored by Juan de Grijalva, who brings 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 are 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 3 Aztec gold jewellery





Source 4 The Spanish sailed off to explore the 'new worlds' to increase their own wealth, seek trade routes and convert people to Christianity.

Spain's government and its people were motivated to explore and conquer new territories in the Americas for several reasons:

- **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 fifteenth century, there was an increased European demand for gold to make coins, jewellery and thread for tapestries.

16.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Which island did Columbus mistake for Japan?
2 How long did it take the Spanish to conquer the Aztec and Inca civilisations following the discovery of the Americas?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

3 Explain why the Americas were not named for Columbus.
4 From the perspective of the Spanish, what were the key achievements of Christopher Columbus?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Create an infographic, comic strip or storyboard that includes illustrations to explain the reasons for Spanish exploration and conquest.

GO DEEPER

6 The Tainos society on Hispaniola, Spain's first settlement in the region, was wiped out as a result of 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 Yucatán Peninsula and the Caribbean islands mentioned in Source 2.

16.5 THE EXPEDITION OF CORTÉS TO TENOCHTITLAN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline and explain the reasons for Spanish conquest and settlement in the Americas
- describe how geographic features influenced Spanish conquest of the Aztec Empire
- using a range of sources, describe different perspectives on the first-contact experiences between the Spanish and Aztec society.

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.

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.



Source 5 Hernán Cortés

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.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

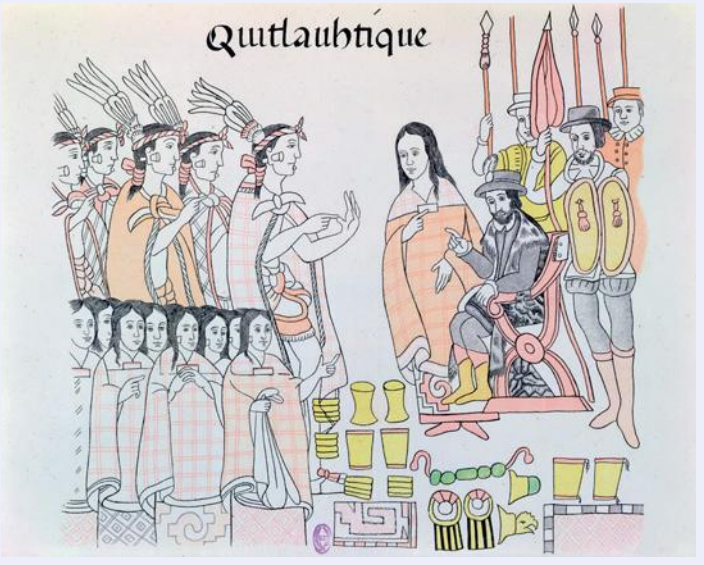
Sources can provide understanding and insight into the context of a past society, helping historians understand how and why events unfolded as they did.

16.5 SOURCE STUDY

Hernán Cortés in Aztec society

Source 6

> In the distant past the great god Quetzalcoatl, lord of wind and life, had come to live among humans in order to set up a new kingdom in which there would be no human sacrifices. The god was tall with pale skin, blond hair and a beard. But although he was a magician, the other gods held greater magic and he was unable to change the old ways. Before he sailed away eastwards he promised the Aztecs that he would return from the direction of the rising sun in the Year One-Reed.
>
> *Translation of a pre-Columbian record of the legend of the Year One Reed*



Source 7 A nineteenth-century illustration depicting a meeting between Cortés and Montezuma; the woman acting as an interpreter is Doña Marina, known as La Malinche.

INTERPRET

1. Cortés arrived in the Americas in the Year One Reed. From Source 6, who might the Aztecs have thought Cortés to be? Consider which direction 'the rising sun' is in, and which direction Cortés sailed from.
2. Describe the interaction seen in Source 7. Do you think the real interaction would have been like this? Justify your answer, providing evidence from Source 7.

16.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 Spanish?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

4. 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.

GO DEEPER

5. The woman with Cortés in Source 7 is a Nahua woman known as La Malinche. 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, including how she met Cortés and her ongoing connection to him.

16.6 THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AZTEC EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify the societies that the Spanish conquered in the Americas
- explain how the Spanish conquered and controlled Aztec society
- explain how the Aztecs were affected by the Spanish conquests.

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 he stayed for several days. The Cholulans were allies of the Aztecs and were planning to ambush and capture the conquistadors on the road. Cortés learnt of the plan and summoned the Cholulan leaders. They arrived unarmed to the temple courtyard, where they were slaughtered by the Spanish. The Aztecs would have heard about this treatment of their Cholulan allies, before the conquistadors reached Tenochtitlan.

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 de Cortés), to surprise the Aztecs.



Source 8 A sixteenth-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 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 gather 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 10). 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 effect 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

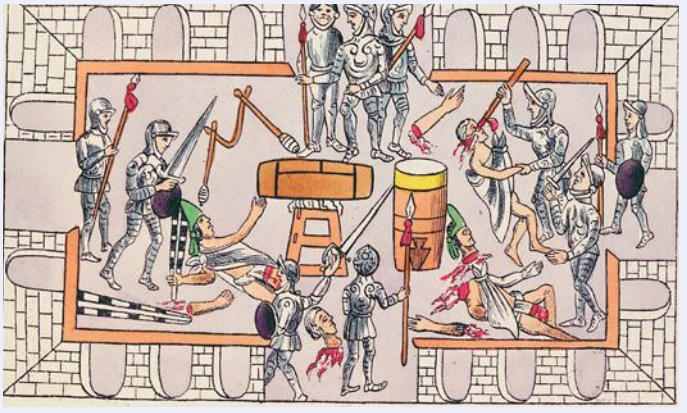
One account of Montezuma's death says that, amid the fighting, he went to the palace rooftop to appeal for peace on the urging of Cortés. The crowd responded with a shower of stones, several of which hit Montezuma, and he died from his wounds.

16.6 SOURCE STUDY

The conquistadors in Tenochtitlan

Source 9

> 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*



Source 10 An illustration from the *Codex Ixtlilxochitl* showing the massacre of Aztec nobles during a festival

INTERPRET

1. Describe the scene shown in Source 10.
2. Read Source 9. Does this account support the evidence provided in Source 10?
3. Consider the value of Sources 9 and 10. How and why are they useful to historians?

The defeat of the Aztecs

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 Aztec 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 cut off food supplies, 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 offer Tenochtitlan to the Spanish king. 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.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The defeat of the Aztecs by Cortés and his army meant the end of one dominant rule and the beginning of another. Many changes came about for the Spaniards as a result of this victory.

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 been killed in his campaigns. In contrast, the Spanish lost fewer than 1000 of the 1800 conquistadors who came to Mexico between 1519 and 1521. The success of the Spanish in battle and widely differing numbers of 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 Aztecs and Spanish.

Source 11 Spanish advantages over the Aztecs

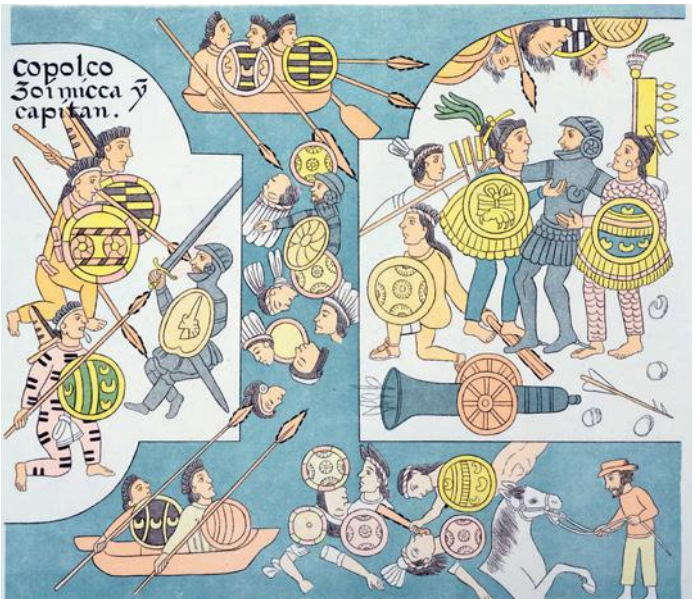
	Spanish	Aztecs
Weapons	• They used steel for their armour and weapons. • They used gunpowder with powerful cannons and firearms. • The use of horses gave them some advantage – the Aztecs had never seen horses and were initially frightened of them.	• They fought with wooden clubs and swords made of obsidian, a hard but brittle form of volcanic rock, which broke against the armour and swords of the conquistadors.
Battle tactics	• They 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.	• They 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	• They 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. • Aztecs were used to wounding, rather than killing, their opponents (to capture them for sacrifice). This gave Spaniards a chance to escape from battle and fight another day.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the scene depicted in Source 12 and what it reveals about the Aztec and Spanish fighting and weaponry.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.



Source 12 A nineteenth-century illustration of the final battle between Cortés and Aztec ruler Cuauhtémoc at Tenochtitlan in August 1521

16.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. Write two accounts of the end of the siege of Tenochtitlan: one from the perspective of an Aztec survivor, then one from the perspective of a Spanish soldier.

16.7 THE IMPACT OF SPANISH CONQUEST AND COLONISATION IN THE AMERICAS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, 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.

The impact of the Spanish conquest of the Americas cannot be underestimated. The arrival of Europeans led to the downfall of Indigenous groups throughout the region.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Despite significant changes to the nature of religion and politics, people continued to be subject to a dominant political system and territorial expansion.

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. 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. 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

The Spanish treated the ordinary people very badly. The Australian historian Inga Clendinnen described the Spanish conquest as 'unnaturally cruel'. 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. Under a system called the *encomienda*, First Nation Americans were given to soldiers, officers and other important Spaniards. In theory, the Spaniards were supposed to protect the Indigenous people, teach them Spanish and convert them to Christianity – this involved the destruction of traditional language and culture. The Indigenous peoples were usually 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 gold and silver mines, 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 nineteenth century.

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.

Source 13

> 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.
>
> *Michael McDonnell, 'The "conquest" of the Americas: The Aztecs', American History for Australian Schools*

The wider impact of Spanish conquest in the Americas

European diseases

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** 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 eight 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 fourteenth century. It has been claimed that 90 per cent of the inhabitants of the Inca Empire died from introduced diseases.



Source 14 A drawing from the *Florentine Codex* depicts Indigenous people infected with smallpox. The drawing was made by Bernardino de Sahagún, a sixteenth-century Spanish missionary.

epidemic
a widespread outbreak of an infectious disease in a community at a particular time

Forced labour and slavery

As early as 1493, the Indigenous peoples in the Americas learnt 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. 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 First Nation 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 Americas. First Nation Americans were introduced to the horse by the Spanish. Cortés also imported sugar cane, mulberry trees for silkworms, vines, olives and wheat.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Before the Spanish arrived, the Aztecs had never seen horses, so the Spanish horses were a terrifying sight to the Aztecs. It is said that the first First Nation American to see an unhorsed Spaniard fled, believing that the strange animal had come apart to form two separate beings.

European learning and technologies

The conquered peoples adapted fast to the new European ways, learning Latin script and the use of the wheel and pulley, using candles for light and working with mules and oxen. They also found out about the advantages of working with metal nails and screws.

The long-term effects of Spanish colonisation

The colonisation of the Americas

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

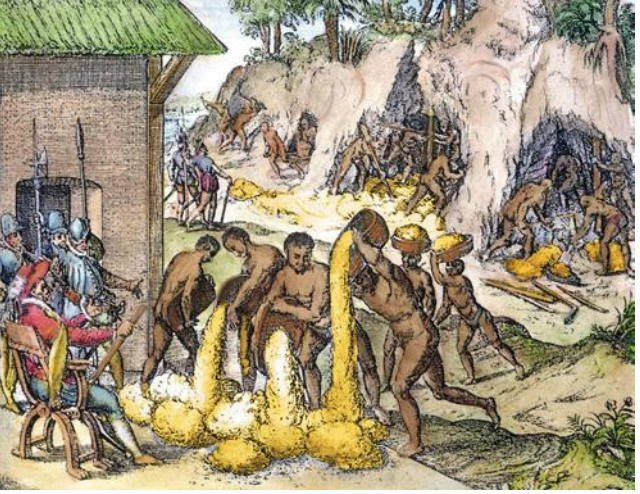
Spanish colonisation dramatically changed the ethnic make-up of the Americas. First, many of the Indigenous populations were killed by disease. Then, many Spaniards migrated to the Americas after colonisation had begun. Approximately 240 000 moved to the Americas in the sixteenth century, and another 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.



Source 15 Today, Spanish is the official language of many nations in the Americas, such as Mexico.



Source 16 African slaves in the mines of Hispaniola; African people were first brought to the Caribbean as slaves to replace the Indigenous Taino people, many of whom had died from disease and overwork.

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. The growth of the African slave trade was the reason behind one of the great movements of people during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. It is estimated that around 12 million African people 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 nineteenth century.

The Columbian Exchange





Source 17 Maize (corn) and chillies are two examples of foods that were unknown outside the Americas before the travels of Columbus.

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 Americas. We have already discussed the effect of the introduction of diseases, and new livestock 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 people in other 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 other crops. 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.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Spanish conquest of the Americas and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

16.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Explain the word *encomienda*.
2. How large was the population of Spain's colonies in the Americas compared to the population of Spain itself?
3. How much of the Indigenous population is estimated to have died from European diseases?
4. List the foods that were brought to Europe from the Americas.

ANALYSE AND APPLY

5. How did the Spanish control the former Aztec Empire after the fall of Tenochtitlan?
6. How did this differ from how the Aztecs controlled their own empire?

GO DEEPER

7. 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, with both visual and written evidence.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians need to provide a balanced argument when presenting the findings of research. To do this, they need to draw evidence from a variety of sources and examine a range of factors.

16B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT IMPACT DID THE SPANISH CONQUEST HAVE ON THE AMERICAS?

» Outline and explain the reasons for Spanish conquest and settlement in the Americas

1 Why did Spain send expeditions to the Americas? (3 marks)

2 What motivated conquistadors to join expeditions in the Americas? (3 marks)

» Identify the societies that the Spanish conquered in the Americas

3 Identify five Indigenous societies or locations that were conquered by the Spanish, and include an example of a significant individual or key event for each. (5 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)

» Using a range of sources, describe different perspectives on the first-contact experiences between the Spanish and Aztec society

5 Describe conflicts between the Spanish and Indigenous peoples on the journey to Tenochtitlan. What were the consequences of these conflicts? (6 marks)

6 Describe the first meeting of Cortes and Montezuma at Tenochtitlan in 1519 and explain the Spanish and Aztec perspectives on the way Montezuma greeted Cortés. (8 marks)

» Explain how the Spanish conquered and controlled Aztec society

7 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)

» Explain how the Aztecs were affected by the Spanish conquests

8 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)

» Using a range of sources, investigate the wider impact of the Spanish conquests of the Americas

9 Explain the wider impact of two of the following aspects of Spanish conquest:

- forced labour and slavery
- Christianity
- European crops and livestock
- European culture and technologies. (10 marks)

» Assess the long-term effects and legacy of colonisation by the Spanish in the Americas

10 Identify and describe the long-term effects of Spanish colonisation in the Americas. Explain how each has influenced the Americas and the modern world. (15 marks)

Total marks [/65]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

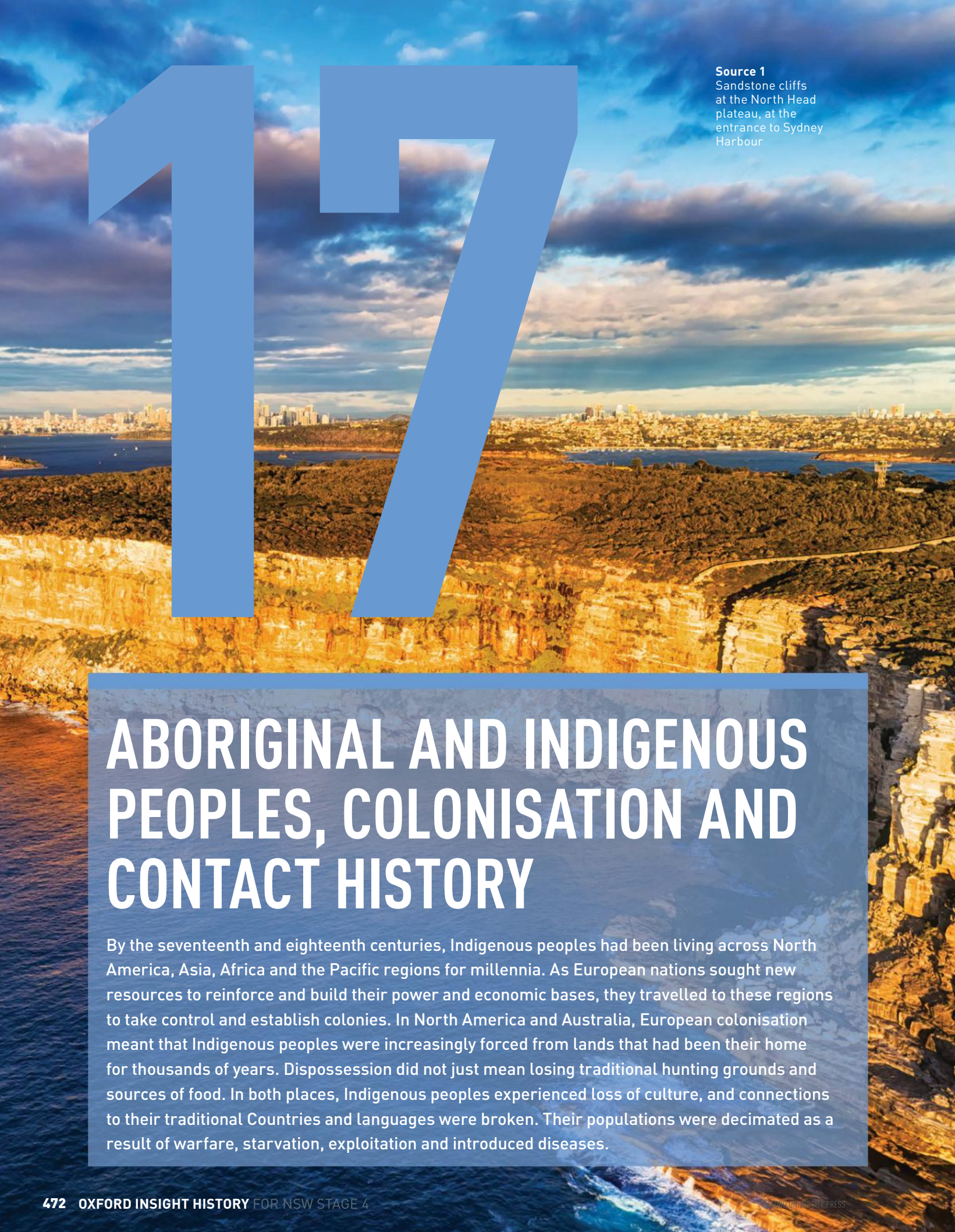
Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1
Sandstone cliffs at the North Head plateau, at the entrance to Sydney Harbour

17

ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY

By the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, Indigenous peoples had been living across North America, Asia, Africa and the Pacific regions for millennia. As European nations sought new resources to reinforce and build their power and economic bases, they travelled to these regions to take control and establish colonies. In North America and Australia, European colonisation 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 peoples experienced loss of culture, and connections to their traditional Countries and languages were broken. Their populations were decimated as a result of warfare, starvation, exploitation and introduced diseases.



WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE? 17A

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 the key aspects of contact between the Native Americans and the colonisers

» using a range of sources, 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 Native American and European peoples.

CHECKPOINT 17A

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE? 17B

In this section you will:

» recall the nature of early British contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia

» describe the differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal relationships to Land and Country

» using a range of sources, describe some of the differing experiences of contact between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples

» outline the 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 up to 1900

» compare the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' experiences of colonisation with those of Native American peoples.

CASE STUDY: SETTLEMENT OR INVASION?

CHECKPOINT 17B

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ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY – A TIMELINE

TIMELINE



Source 2
A portrait of Colebee of the Eora Nation, who lived in the area of Sydney Cove



1607–08
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 Indigenous Australian warrior leader Pemulwuy leads resistance against British occupation of the Parramatta area west of Sydney in New South Wales.



Source 3
A 1793 illustration showing Governor Phillip and officers of the First Fleet visiting a victim of smallpox

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS



Source 4 Detail from a nineteenth-century painting depicting General George Custer at the Battle of Little Big Horn

1804
The Lewis and Clark expedition explores the Great Plains of North America until 1806, and paves 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 Indigenous Australians, including women and children, are killed.

1840
The concept of 'manifest destiny' becomes widely accepted in the USA.

1868
The Fort Laramie Treaty brings 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 wins a victory over the US 7th Cavalry led by General Custer.

1890
The Wounded Knee Massacre, the last major event of the Sioux Wars; 150 to 300 unarmed men, women and children are shot by US troops.

1928
The Coniston Massacre in the Northern Territory, a series of attacks on Indigenous camps by police and pastoralists, is the last incident of this kind in Australia.

1830 | 1840 | 1870 | 1890 | 1930



Source 5 A nineteenth-century painting of a female figure as a symbol of manifest destiny

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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.

17A WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

European powers believed that colonisation was an appropriate action. If the same had been done to England, they would have called it war or an invasion. The British failed to see that by arriving in Australia they were invading land that was inhabited by Indigenous Peoples with living and thriving cultures.

colony
an outpost set up by a country, kingdom or empire, often for social, financial or strategic (military) reasons

imperialism
the process of gaining and maintaining control over other countries, regions or territories for economic or strategic (military) reasons

17.1 COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY

KEY CONTENT

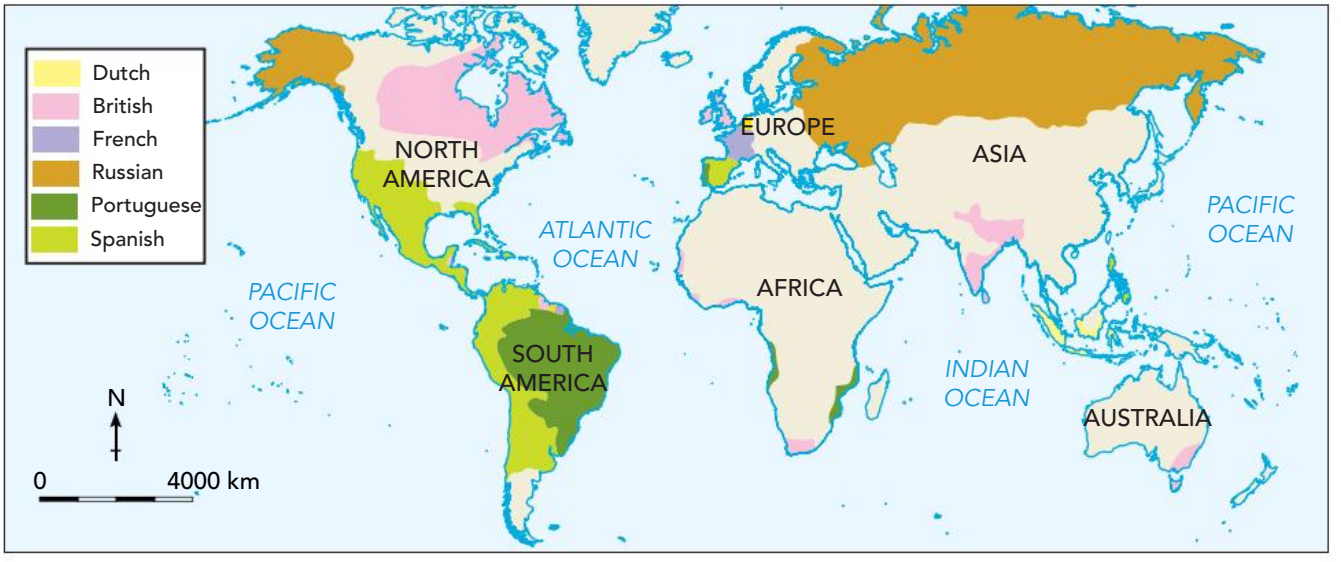
In this topic you will:

- **define the concepts of invasion, occupation, colonisation and settlement.**

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 people to these territories outside Europe, the intention of European powers was to **colonise** new lands. They built their own economic power while imposing their culture, economy and system of government, and taking ownership of the people and their resources. Extending power by colonising is known as **imperialism**.

To the Indigenous peoples who had inhabited these areas for tens of thousands of years, the arrival of Europeans and the establishment of settlements was an **invasion**. The newcomers' **occupation** of traditional lands was done without their agreement. When conflicts erupted, the European colonisers had the advantage because their weapons were far more advanced than those of Indigenous peoples. Also, colonisers 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. In the case study included in this chapter, you will be asked to consider the significance of both these terms.

Source 1 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 minerals and ores, 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 European 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 cultures were more evolved and civilised than those of Indigenous peoples. They felt they had a right to 'civilise' Indigenous peoples and make them behave and think like Europeans, and have Christian beliefs.

invasion
entering a country or region to control it, often using armed forces

occupation
taking control of a country or region by military force

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

Colonisation patterns of supplanting societies

The 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 explorers.

There were also common ways in which Europeans established their claims to new lands:

- They used maps drawn by European explorers to claim the land on the basis that they were the first to discover it.
- They raised a flag or put up some kind of marker.
- They gave places names 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 2 The *Mayflower* brought the first English migrants to the Americas. They established a colony at Plymouth in 1620.

17.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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 AND ANALYSE

5. 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.
6. With reference to Source 1, list the continents where Britain, Portugal and Spain had colonies.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7. Discuss whether it is fair to claim ownership of land based on the first mapping, or the first raising of a flag. Provide reasons to support your argument.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Even though European historians largely agree on where the first North Americans came from, there is dispute regarding the timing of the migration.

ice age
periods in history when ice sheets were unusually widespread across the surface of the Earth

17.2 FIRST NATION AMERICAN CULTURES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- **describe the main features of Native American culture prior to colonisation.**

There is still scientific debate about when the original inhabitants of the Americas first settled the region. It is generally accepted that they reached North America from Asia by travelling across a narrow land bridge. 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. After the ice age, the water filled in, forming the Bering Strait. First Nations peoples have their own histories of arrival and settlement, which should be considered alongside European studies.

17.2A SOURCE STUDY

First Nation American cultures



Source 3 First Nation American cultures across North America

Source 4 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.





Source 5 A reconstruction of a Sioux tepee, a conical tent made from bison hides

First Nation American cultural regions

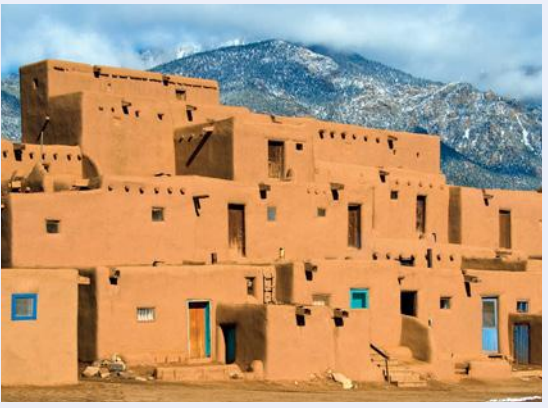
North America is a large continent, with mountains, deserts, wide plains, many rivers and deep forests. In the north, there are dense forests, open tundras and plains, hundreds of lakes and rivers, and icy landscapes. In the south, there are marshes, swamps and hot deserts. The Indigenous peoples of the Americas settled across the continent over many centuries, 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 3 shows the regions of First Nation American cultures, and the various Nations and Tribes within those regions. Sources 4 to 9 show the variety of First Nation American dwellings and ways of living.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Historians are fortunate to have primary sources available to them for some societies. Other times, they need to reconstruct or develop theories to gain greater understanding into other cultures. It is important to include First Nation peoples' oral histories as primary sources.



Source 6 Traditional dwellings of the Pueblo Indians, constructed from adobe bricks made of earth, clay and straw



Source 7 A sixteenth-century illustration of First Nation Americans fishing in the north-east region



Source 8 A sixteenth-century illustration of First Nation Americans of the south-east region planting maize (corn)



Source 9 A nineteenth-century artist's impression of a bison hunt on the Great Plains

INTERPRET

1. Describe the dwellings shown in Sources 4, 5 and 6, 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 3 to identify the cultural region where each of these dwellings is located.
3. Describe the different activities shown in Sources 7 to 9. What do these suggest about the roles of people in First Nation American societies?
4. Using Sources 3 to 9, write a statement that summarises the nature of First Nation American cultures before the arrival of Europeans.

Spiritual beliefs

The many First Nation American cultural regions meant a variety of spiritual beliefs and rituals were practised. But in all First Nation American cultures, spirituality held a central place in daily life, as did beliefs based on people's relationship with the land. First Nation Americans had a different sense of ownership of land and connection from the European colonisers, who viewed land as a commodity to be traded or exploited. First Nation Americans believed a Great Spirit created the world 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. This meant they had a closer connection to their Countries, and greater understanding of the interconnections between animals, plants and their environments.

Source 10

> 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 nineteenth century. They depict conflicts between First Nation Americans and settlers, as well as famous battles against the US army during the last stage of European expansion across North America.

sinews
tendons connecting muscle to bone

Source 11 A fully grown bison bull weighs around 900 kilograms.



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 sixteenth 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** 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 it was part of the people's spiritual connection with the land and all of nature.

17.2B 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 welfare and protection. Other First Nation American Tribes had similar ceremonies but the sacrificial acts involved **fasting** or intense dancing rather than piercing.

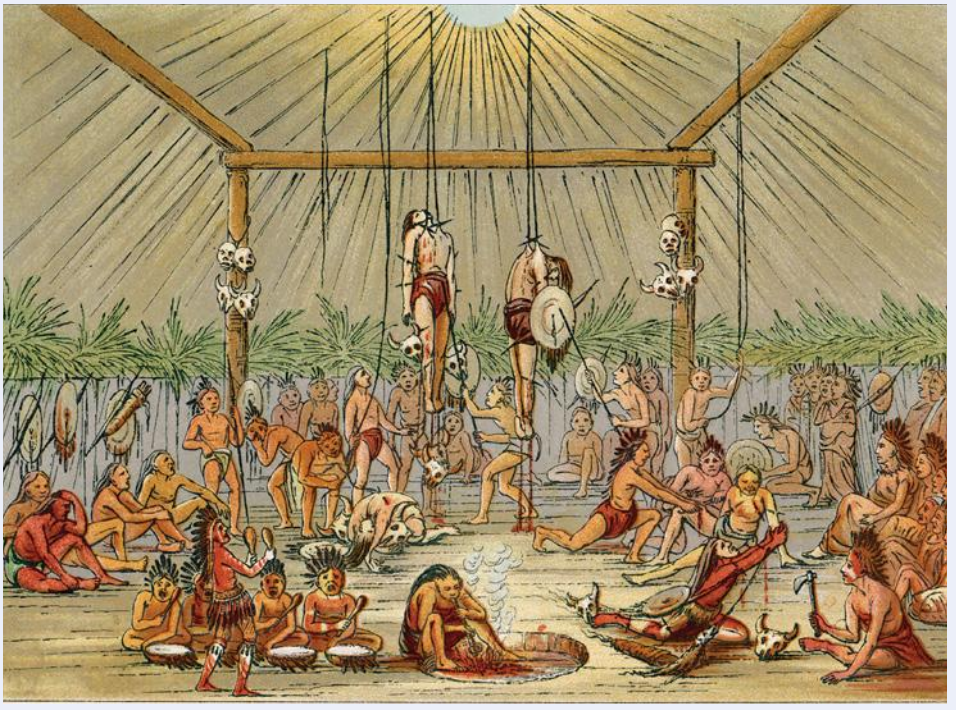
fasting
not eating for a length of time

Source 12

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.

G. Catlin, North American Indians, *Penguin, New York, 1989, p. 167*



Source 13 A nineteenth-century illustration of a Sioux Sun Dance

INTERPRET

1. What does Source 13 reveal about the activities of different groups during the Sun Dance ceremony?
2. Using Source 13 and the eyewitness account in Source 12, write a brief narrative that describes the Sioux Sun Dance.

17.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Explain why there is a diverse range of First Nation American cultures.
2. What was the attitude of First Nation American peoples to the land, and how did this differ from European values about land?
3. Describe the way of life of First Nation Americans who lived on the Great Plains.

GO DEEPER

4. In groups, investigate one First Nation American Tribe or Nation. Discuss:
   - the region where they lived, and 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 lives of men, women and children, including their dwellings, food sources and daily tasks
   - their peaceful contacts or conflicts with other Nations or Tribes.

17.3 THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how and why North America was colonised
- describe the key aspects of contact between the Native Americans and the colonisers.

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.

The Dutch, the French and the British first came to North America for trade, then in search of new land and homes. The peoples 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 Indigenous people.

European settlements spread across the eastern parts of North America. By 1800, the First Nation peoples living on the eastern coast had experienced more than a century of contact with European settlers. There was some peaceful contact through trading, but many First Nation peoples were systematically dispossessed – forced to leave their land, which greatly affected their way of life. The populations of many First Nation peoples were drastically reduced by diseases brought to the Americas by traders and settlers. Survivors moved west, into and over the Appalachian Mountains further inland.

Other First Nation peoples 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 1804–06. Based on their reports of good land, settlers moved onto traditional First Nation 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 European expansion faster and easier.



Among the first of the thousands of settlers to move west were mountain men, who travelled 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 farming 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.

Source 14 A nineteenth-century painting showing Sacagawea with Lewis and Clark during their expedition of 1804–06; Sacagawea was a Shoshone woman who acted as a translator and guide for Lewis and Clark.

First Nation American Reservations

First Nation American peoples had been forcibly removed from their homelands in what would become the USA from the early days of colonisation. Then in 1830, the US government passed the Indian Removal Act, which made it official policy to remove First Nation peoples to **Reservations**. This meant they were isolated, away from non-Indigenous settlements, trails and transport routes.

On the Reservations, First Nation Americans could not lead their lives according to their cultural laws and lore. Much of the land was unsuitable for agriculture and they had to rely on government rations for food. Authorities forced children to attend boarding schools, where they had to attend church and study European subjects. They were forbidden from speaking in their native languages and practising their cultures.



Source 15 A nineteenth-century painting depicting the Trail of Tears of 1838, the forced journey of 15 000 Cherokee from their homelands in the south-east to 'Indian Territory' in what was named Oklahoma by Europeans

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 are listed below:

1 First Nation 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 result was always that colonisers gained more land, and always in the most fertile and liveable areas. Traditional lands were fenced off, and First Nation Americans who entered them were treated like trespassers.

2 Violence and open warfare erupted. Sometimes fighting broke out due to misunderstanding between First Nation Americans and colonisers. Often it was a result of the colonisers' belief in their right to take whatever they wanted, by any means.

3 European diseases wiped out First Nation Americans in huge numbers. They had never previously been affected by diseases such as smallpox, measles, cholera and the plague, so 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 First Nation Americans.

This pattern did not end until the US 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 16 A nineteenth-century painting, *Ration Day at the Reservation*

Reservation
an area of land in the US set aside as a place to live for the Indigenous people who had been dispossessed of their own lands

frontier
the border between land that had been settled by Europeans and land that had not

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Contact between Europeans and First Nation Americans resulted in a range of negative outcomes, many of which still have consequences today.

17.3 SOURCE STUDY

Introduction of European diseases

Source 17

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 18

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

1. Are Sources 17 and 18 primary or secondary sources? Justify your response.
2. What were the origins of diseases such as smallpox, influenza and measles?
3. Why did European colonisers have some immunity to these diseases, while First Nation Americans had none?
4. What proportion of the First Nation American population died from introduced diseases?
5. In Source 18, what does Cotton Mather mean by 'a better growth'?

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

When finding out more about contact and colonisation, it is essential to include references to primary sources from the Indigenous peoples' perspective. History is often written by the colonial power, so it is important to give a voice to all groups.

17.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Describe the pattern of experiences in the colonisation of North America. What were the consequences for First Nation Americans?
2. What was the concept of 'manifest destiny', and what did it attempt to justify?
3. Explain the effect of European diseases on the First Nation American population and the consequences for European colonisers.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Explain how the forced reliance on government rations for food would have affected First Nation American peoples.

GO DEEPER

5. Research the Trail of Tears. Explain the events leading to this forced removal of the Cherokee people from their homelands and describe their journey.

17.4 EXPERIENCES OF CONTACT: THE PLAINS WARS

KEY CONTENT

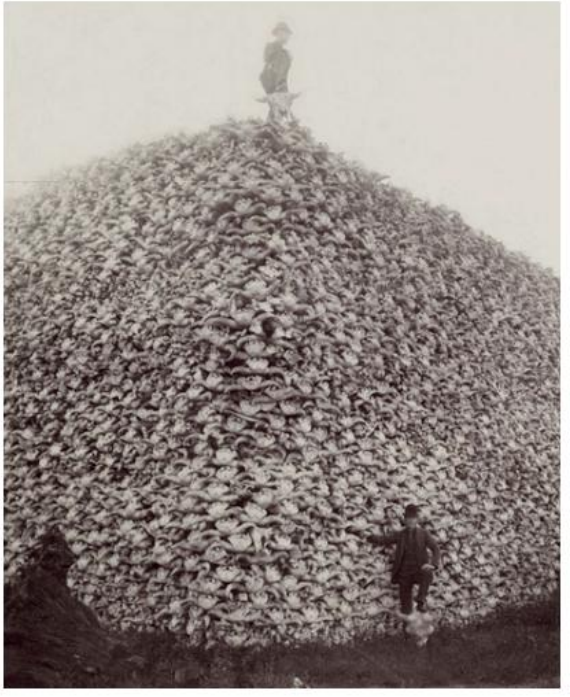
In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, 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 Native American and European peoples.

By the 1860s, the only areas of the USA not under the control of colonisers 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 colonisers.

The Sioux Nation was made up of many Tribes. The group that played a key role in the Plains Wars was 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 they had to be reloaded. But by the 1860s, improved weapons turned the war in the army's favour.

The Sioux had always lived on the plains and followed the bison. Bison were killed only to provide meat for food, and hides for clothing and shelter. But the newcomers brought with them fences and railway lines, and this limited the bison's and 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.



Source 19 A mountain of bison skulls from the herds killed by settlers

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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Early explorers of 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 by Europeans between 1872 and 1874.



Source 20 Maps of the USA, showing the loss of First Nation American tribal lands between 1784 and 1880

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 21). 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.

Source 21

> 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

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

European economic priorities caused an invasion of the Sioux lands. When economic interests changed, this meant further invasion.

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.

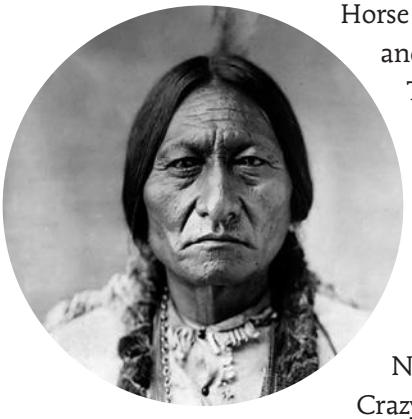


Source 22 A portrait of Red Cloud (1822–1909), taken in 1880

The Treaty of Laramie, like so many of the agreements made between First Nation 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, according to the treaty, Sioux property. Instead, the army was sent in to protect the trespassers.

Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse

Two great Sioux leaders, Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse, 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 Lieutenant 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 25–26 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 First Nation American victory in the wars with the invaders.



Source 23 A portrait of Sitting Bull (1831–90), taken in 1885

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 people 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.

Source 24 A photo of negotiations between General William T. Sherman and Red Cloud in April 1868

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about the seating arrangements shown in Source 24 and what this indicates about the status of different groups.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

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. The Sioux had little to live on. They were forced to give up their lifestyles and cultural practices, and were made to learn the language and religion of the settlers. 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 Cavalry who were armed with rifles and four Hotchkiss guns, an early kind of machine gun (see Source 25). 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.

massacre
an indiscriminate and brutal slaughter of many people



Source 25 Soldiers of the 7th Cavalry posing with some of the Hotchkiss guns fired against Big Foot's followers at Wounded Knee

17.4 SOURCE STUDY

Perspectives on the Wounded Knee Massacre

Source 26

> ... 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.

Lyman Frank Baum, newspaper editorial , 3 January 1891

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 famous film was based.

Source 27

> 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

1. What are the limitations of Source 26? Consider the perspective of the source in your response.
2. In Source 26, what do you think the phrase 'under incompetent commands' refers to?
3. In Source 27, what is meant by the 'beautiful dream'? What does this quote reveal about First Nation American resistance at the time of the Wounded Knee Massacre?
4. What is the value of Source 27? Consider the perspective of the source in your response.

17.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Explain how European settlers threatened the traditional Sioux way of life.
2. What did the Treaty of Fort Laramie promise, and why was it broken? What do you think First Nation people learnt from this?
3. What is Crazy Horse famous for?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. What was the significance of the Lewis and Clark expedition of 1804–06? How do you think Sacagawea influenced the expedition?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5. Research a significant First Nation American, such as one of the Sioux leaders Red Cloud, Sitting Bull or Crazy Horse. Write a report discussing key events in their life and the impact of their achievements.

GO DEEPER

6. Choose a First Nation American Tribe or Nation and research its people's experience of colonisation. What were the consequences of colonisation for this group up to the year 1900? If possible, find out where and how the descendants of the group are living today.

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR THE COLONISATION OF NORTH AMERICA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

17A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words
- 20 marks = 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

» Define the concepts of invasion, occupation, colonisation and settlement

1 What is 'colonisation'? Give examples of countries that established colonies from the sixteenth century onwards. Where were their colonies? (5 marks)

2 Write definitions for the words 'invasion' and 'settlement'. Explain why both words can be used to describe one event. (5 marks)

» Explain how and why North America was colonised

3 What motivated European powers to establish colonies? (5 marks)

4 Outline how and why settlement expanded across North America. (5 marks)

» Describe the main features of Native American culture prior to colonisation

5 Describe the nature of First Nation American cultures before the arrival of Europeans. (5 marks)

» Describe the key aspects of contact between the Native Americans and the colonisers

6 Describe experiences of contact between First Nation Americans and European colonisers. Consider the period of the early settlements in the seventeenth century through to the Plains Wars in the nineteenth century. (10 marks)

7 Outline key developments and events related to the contact between Sioux people, settlers and the US army. (10 marks)

» Using a range of sources, describe differing experiences of contact between Native American and European peoples

8 Copy and complete the table below. (10 marks)

Contact experience	Description of contact experience	Impact on First Nation Americans	Impact on colonisers
disease			
conflict			
dispossession			

» Describe and assess the life of one Native American in contact with the colonisers

9 Describe the life of First Nation Americans who had contact with colonisers. What were their experiences and how were they affected? (10 marks)

» Explain the results of colonisation for Native American and European peoples

10 What consequences did the colonisation of North America have for First Nation Americans and their colonisers? Refer to a range of sources in your response. Use sources from your own research, as well as from the text, such as Source 27. (20 marks)

Total marks [/85]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

assess quiz
Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Answers
Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

17B WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID THIS HAVE?

17.5 CONTACT AND COLONISATION IN AUSTRALIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- recall the nature of early British contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia
- describe the differences between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal relationships to Land and Country.

Over the course of the seventeenth 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 (see Source 1). In the late eighteenth 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, if there were any, and take possession of the land for Britain if the land was unoccupied. His expedition left England in 1768.



Source 1 A French map of Australia, then known as New Holland (*Nouvelle Hollande* in French), from before 1770

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. 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 did not acknowledge they had any claim to the continent of Australia.

Source 2

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

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Terra Nullius

The British applied the idea of *Terra Nullius* to Australia. This Latin phrase means 'land belonging to no one' or 'empty land'. In fact, Australia had been occupied by Indigenous Australians for over 100 000 years.

For many years, it was believed that Europeans considered Australia to be empty because they did not see any farms, fences or buildings, which would have indicated ownership of the land. However, Australian authors Bruce Pascoe and Bill Gammage have written about early accounts by European explorers that included seeing permanent housing and crop management. This was largely overlooked by the colonisers to justify the occupation of an 'empty land' without purchasing it or making treaties with Indigenous peoples. (The exception was grazier John Batman's treaty with Aboriginal people in the Melbourne area, which was not officially accepted by colonial authorities.)

By contrast, in North America, European colonisers purchased land and made treaties 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 *Terra Nullius* as it was applied to Australia was overturned. The Australian government then legally acknowledged that Indigenous Australian peoples were the original custodians of the land.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Terra Nullius suggests that the land was empty before the British arrived. The idea that Australia was unoccupied before the British arrived is contradicted by the long chronology evident in the archaeological record.

17.5A SOURCE STUDY

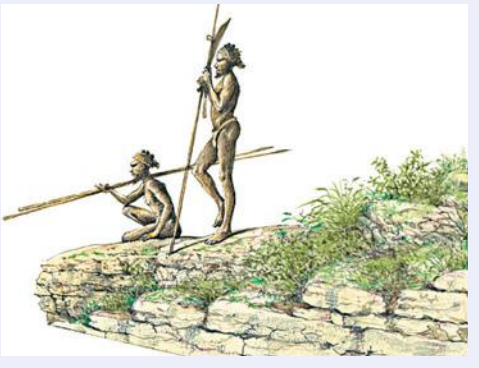
Early contact experiences at Botany Bay

Source 3

> 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

1. According to Cook's account in Source 3, 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 Indigenous Australians and Europeans from the Indigenous Australians' perspective, and another to summarise it from Cook's perspective.
3. Explain why Europeans believed that land in Australia 'belonged to no one', despite this type of response to early contact with Europeans from Indigenous Australians already living there and evidence from Cook's journal of sighting houses.



Source 4 Indigenous Australians have lived on the Australian continent for over 100 000 years.

Colonising Australia

Following Cook's voyage, Britain established its first colony in Australia in 1788 at a place later named Sydney Cove, in New South Wales. For a long time, it was widely believed that the best explanation for the decision to start the colony was as 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, living on low wages and in poor 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.

However, this explanation has been challenged by some historians as too simple. If it was only about dumping convicts, it would have been cheaper to build more jails in Britain or transport the convicts to closer and cheaper destinations, rather than undertake a long and expensive trip to the other side of the world. These historians argue that other factors were at work:

- Britain needed a secure trading colony in the South Pacific.
- New South Wales was more than just a place to dump convicts. Cook had praised the flax and pine available nearby on Norfolk Island. Both of these were vital to the Royal Navy in the eighteenth century.
- Governor Phillip was given direct orders to occupy Norfolk Island as soon as he arrived.
- The convicts were simply cheap labour to start a new colony, not the primary cause for the decision to colonise.

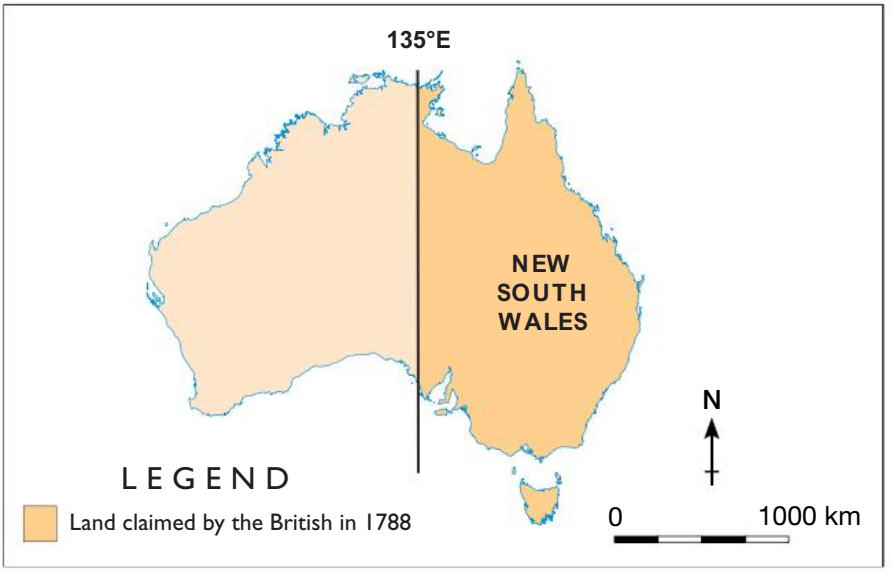
The First Fleet landed in Sydney Cove on 26 January 1788. Its 11 ships carried over 700 convicts, as well as marines (naval troops), the ships' crews and their families. The commander of the First Fleet, Arthur Phillip, became the first governor of the new colony. Other colonies were established across Australia: in Tasmania and Victoria in 1803; in Queensland in 1825; in Western Australia in 1829, and in South Australia in 1838.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

The Europeans who colonised Australia did not understand the Indigenous cultures, languages or ways of life. Indigenous peoples' relationship with the land was partly misunderstood but also dismissed as irrelevant, which led to British exploitation as they imposed their own ideas of land ownership.

Source 5 The extent of New South Wales in 1788



Source 5 shows the extent of New South Wales in 1788. 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. Even under European law at the time such a huge land claim was illegal. The law permitted a land claim from the coast as far inland as the source of the rivers that emptied into that coast. The British claim extended beyond the source of any east coast rivers.

Indigenous Australia at the time of colonisation

When Governor Phillip established the colony at Sydney Cove, he did not know the area was home to the Eora Nation, who had lived there for generations. There was no understanding among Europeans that there were around 300 Indigenous Nations with their own languages across the continent.

Indigenous people in Australia belonged to many interconnected Nations, Clans and family groups through Kinship systems across the continent. Their Kinship systems connected them to their Country, skies, waterways, plants and animals. These systems established complex arrangements of obligations through set laws and lore across Australia. 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 Australians, however, felt they belonged to the land rather than owned it, and identified with their Country (the land of their traditional territories).

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

It is important to recognise that Indigenous people in Australia knew and spoke more than one Indigenous language. They were multilingual, which was important for maintaining connections with families in other Nations across Australia.

17.5B SOURCE STUDY

Indigenous Australia

Source 6

> 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.

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 7

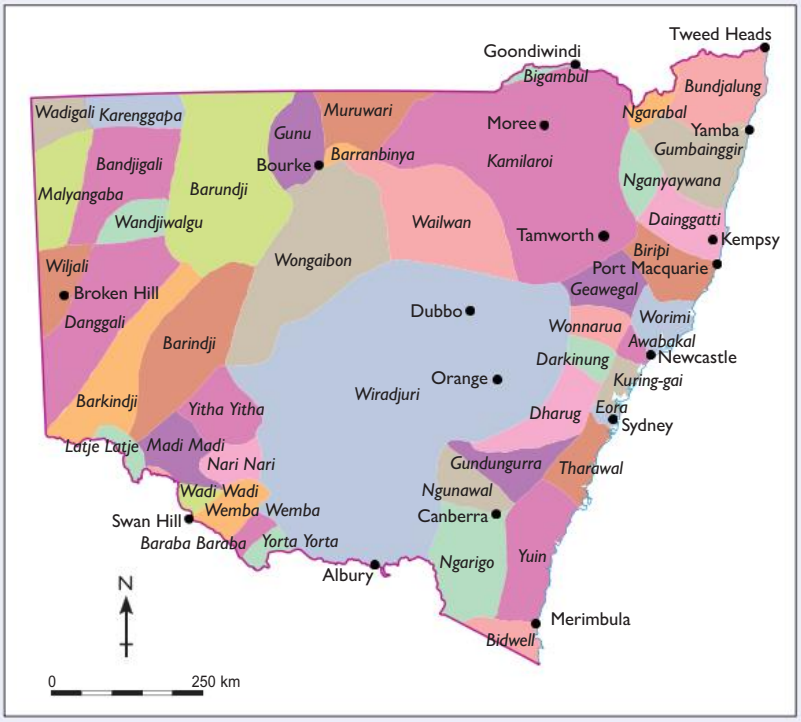
> Our stories and histories tell of how the land was formed; how animals and people were created; how to care for the land and all living creatures through respect and by living in harmony with our environment. These traditions have been passed down through the generations for thousands upon thousands 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 8

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.

Nourishing Terrains: Australian Aboriginal Views of Landscape and Wilderness, *Australian Heritage Commission, 1996, pp. 7–9*



Source 9 A map of Indigenous language groups in New South Wales, showing boundaries of the territories where different languages were spoken

INTERPRET

1. Read Source 6. Explain the difference between the territorial boundaries of Indigenous Nations, and the boundaries imposed by Europeans (such as our modern-day state boundaries). How might the imposed boundaries create problems for Indigenous Australians?
2. Read Source 7. Explain what the spiritual beliefs of Indigenous Australians relate to. How do these beliefs affect everyday lives of Indigenous people?
3. Read Source 8. In your own words, explain the difference between the European and Indigenous Australian meanings of the word 'country'.
4. Examine Source 9. Which Nation and Clan groups have traditional territories in the Sydney area?

17.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. Explain what *Terra Nullius* means, and what the consequences were for Indigenous peoples in Australia.
2. Why did Britain set up a colony in New South Wales in 1788?
3. What is Kinship and why is it important to Indigenous Australians?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. Does the term 'colonisation' best describe European settlement in Australia? Give reasons for your answer.
5. How do you think colonisation affected Kinship?

GO DEEPER

6. Conduct research to create a timeline of significant expeditions by European explorers who reached Australia's coastlines in the seventeenth century. Include notes on areas mapped and contacts made with Indigenous peoples.

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17.6 EXPERIENCES OF CONTACT AND COLONISATION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- using a range of sources, describe some of the differing experiences of contact between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples
- describe and assess the life of one Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander individual in contact with the British colonisers
- compare the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' experiences of colonisation with those of Native American peoples.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Sydney suburb of Manly was named by Governor Phillip. On an expedition to that part of Sydney Harbour, two Aboriginal men waded from the beach to examine the British boats. Phillip 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. The colonisers supplanted Indigenous Australians as the group in control of the land.

The early years in Sydney Cove

Governor Phillip had instructions from Britain to treat Indigenous peoples kindly. His officers kidnapped many Aboriginal people, as a way of creating relationships with Indigenous peoples, but also tried to 'convince them of the superiority we possessed'. Initial contacts sometimes appeared friendly, or at least peaceful, as both sides were curious about each other. However, this soon changed as it became clear the newcomers were planning to stay. The colonisers 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. Aboriginal people were forced off their lands, onto territory connected to other Nations, to make way for the colonisers.



Source 10 A painting, *c.* 1799, depicting the occupation of Sydney Cove

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 colonisers than guns did. Smallpox, a highly contagious and deadly disease, killed 90 per cent of Aboriginal people in the Greater Sydney area. There is evidence that, as in North America, the locals may have been deliberately infected with the disease. Illnesses such as influenza, measles and chicken pox were also more likely to be fatal for Indigenous people than for the Europeans. European diseases spread inland quickly. Often by the time colonisers arrived to settle in a region, Indigenous populations had already been greatly reduced by these introduced diseases.

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 1790, Governor Phillip himself was speared on Manly Beach. He recovered. However, weeks later an Aboriginal man known as Pemulwuy speared the governor's gamekeeper, John McIntyre, who was killed. Source 14 depicts an expedition by officers to Botany Bay following this attack. After the killing of McIntyre, Pemulwuy led a 10-year **guerrilla** war, using hit-and-run tactics to raid colonisers' and government farms around Sydney and Parramatta.

guerrilla
small, independent group taking part in irregular fighting

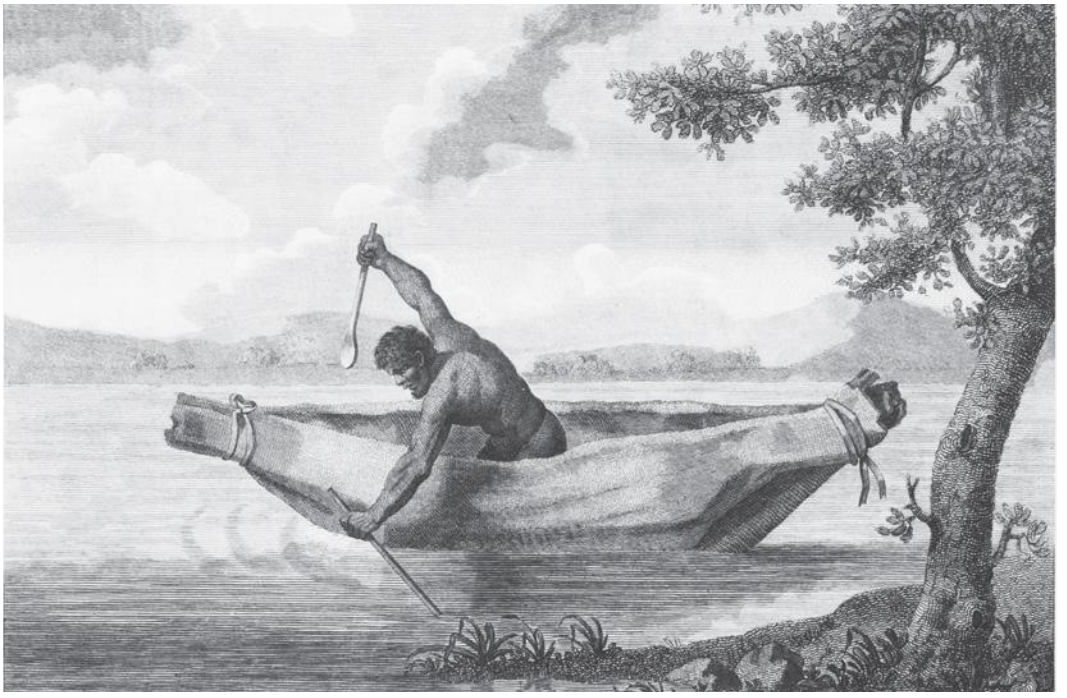
SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the illustration in Source 11.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 11 Detail from the only known illustration thought to be Pemulwuy, by Samuel Neele

17.6A SOURCE STUDY

Contact experiences at Sydney Cove

Source 12

> [The Indigenous Australians] 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 Indigenous Australian people might have viewed the colonisers' activities in* Dancing with Strangers, *Text Publishing, Melbourne, 2003, p. 89*

Source 13

> 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

1 Read Source 12 and answer the following questions:
   - **a** What do you think the 'dullest dance ever seen' might have been?
   - **b** What was happening when Indigenous people saw men 'attacking trees'?
   - **c** Why might Indigenous people have found it hard to understand why the newcomers ate 'smelly dry stuff'?

2 Read Source 13 and answer the following questions:
   - **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?

17.6B SOURCE STUDY

Indigenous resistance



Source 14 A painting, *c.*1790, showing officers and soldiers on an expedition to Botany Bay, after the spearing death of the governor's gamekeeper

INTERPRET

1 Describe the scene shown in Source 14. 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 the evidence in Source 14 reveal about the relationship of Indigenous peoples and the British in 1790?

CASE STUDY

Settlement or invasion?

The British justified their settlement of Australia on the basis of *Terra Nullius* – that the land 'belonged to no one'. Despite establishing communication with the Indigenous peoples, the British maintained a sense of superiority and refused to acknowledge the traditional approach to land held by the Clans they encountered. The arrival of the British disrupted the way of life for Indigenous peoples, and destroyed many aspects of their cultural practices. The 'settlement' by the British was not only a land invasion from the perspective of the Indigenous peoples, but also an invasion of their culture, religion, connection to Country, health and freedom.

In many Australian history books such as Professor Ernest Scott's 1916 *A Short History of Australia*, it is notable that the word 'settlement' rather than 'invasion' was the preferred term for the European colonisation of Australia. The words 'settlement' and 'settlers' appear in the index of Scott's book, but the term 'invasion' is not listed. This particular book was important because it set the tone for how this history was taught and understood (or perhaps mis-taught and misunderstood). It was in use in Australian schools and universities for decades.

In defence of the idea of settlement, when referring to the Eora, Governor Arthur Phillip insisted that 'he wanted to give them a high opinion of their new guests through kindness and gifts'. The issue to consider here is how to define a 'guest'? Normally it is someone who is invited and eventually leaves. However, these 'guests' were not invited and never left. This case study explores the concept of 'settlement' versus 'invasion' through an examination of the life of Bennelong (also known as Woollawarre Bennelong).



Source 15 A nineteenth-century painting depicting the moment when James Cook claimed the east coast of Australia for Britain, in 1770; Cook did not acknowledge any claim to the land by Indigenous peoples.

A study of Bennelong

Bennelong, of the Wangal people, was about 24 years old and living near the Parramatta River when the British arrived. In December 1788, Governor Phillip arrived in the homeland of the Eora.

In order to open lines of communication with the Indigenous peoples, the British kidnapped Bennelong, and some other locals, in November 1789. Bennelong escaped in May 1790 and was determined to resist British dominance. British records from the colony document Bennelong's 'escape', which further indicates an invasion rather than settlement. 'Settlement' does not imply war or conflict, yet by their own admission, the British were kidnapping individuals and were frustrated when they escaped. This indicates a lack of respect for the Indigenous peoples, supporting the concept that this was a dominant, deliberate action to overthrow their lifestyle.



Source 16 Bennelong

In September 1790, Governor Phillip was speared and wounded by one of Bennelong's friends at Manly. Historians debate the reasons for this: some argue that it was retribution for Bennelong's kidnapping, while others suggest that the situation was a misunderstanding between Aboriginal people and the British. After this incident, Bennelong saw value in returning to the European settlement, but first received assurance that he would not be punished for the attack on Governor Phillip.



Source 17 An illustration of the kidnapping episode drawn by Lieutenant Bradley

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the illustration in Source 16.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

Bennelong was a skilful politician and used his relationship with the newcomers to increase his influence among rival local Indigenous Nations and Clans. His time with the Europeans allowed him to learn English so he could communicate between the different groups. Bennelong exaggerated his connections with the colonial powers to gain favours and even threatened rivals by saying that he would encourage the British troops to attack them. While Bennelong chose to be part of the European 'settlement', there were likely a number of reasons for this. The Indigenous peoples had no rights in the colonies and therefore had no voice or say in rules or government. Bennelong's collaboration could have helped gain a better outcome for his people. Much of what we know about Bennelong comes from the writings of the British. They describe Bennelong as an experiment in 'softening, enlightening and refining a barbarian'. This language sheds light on how the Indigenous population was viewed.

Bennelong was the first Indigenous person from Australia to visit Great Britain, when he travelled there with Phillip in December 1792. He was presented to King George III, and he lived in Britain for three years before returning to Australia and his people. Journals from colonial times confirm that Bennelong retained a strong connection to Aboriginal groups after his return from England. He died a respected Elder in January 1813. However, a distorted story was believed for many years. The well-known Australian historian Manning Clark wrote in 1962 that Bennelong died a drunken 'exile from his own people'. This was not the case, but it fitted the story that 'white' Australia preferred.

Various sources call the relationship between Governor Phillip and Bennelong friendly. It is worth considering your own friends and the kinds of behaviour you think are acceptable. Does kidnapping, being held in chains and a revenge spearing match your idea of friendship?

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 What episodes in Bennelong's life indicate that the British settlement was an 'invasion'?
2 Why did the British see this as 'settlement' rather than 'invasion'?
3 Why do Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders consider it 'invasion' rather than 'settlement'?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4 Why do you think the European colonisers permitted Bennelong to participate in aspects of 'white' society such as travelling to Great Britain?
5 Conduct research to find places in Sydney that have been named after Bennelong. What do these suggest about the significance of Bennelong to Australia?
6 Research Aboriginal languages used in site names in Australia.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

7 Australia Day is commemorated on 26 January, the date that the First Fleet landed in Sydney Cove in 1788. Aboriginal people see it as their 'Day of Mourning' and 'Survival Day', as it commemorates their day of invasion. Reflect on Australia Day and consider its importance for different cultural groups. Think about it in terms of why it is seen as:
   - a celebration of the birth of Australia
   - a day of mourning
   - Invasion Day.

   Do you think the date of Australia Day should be changed? Write a letter to the Prime Minister to argue your case.

Extending the frontiers

Indigenous Australians who survived introduced diseases 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 18). Despite the arrival of the colonisers, this was a way of staying on or near their Country.

Squatters were often the first Europeans in contact with Indigenous peoples. They were colonisers who occupied frontier lands with their sheep and cattle without permission from government authorities. Indigenous people who had been living on this land 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 coloniser's land, and working as stockmen or domestic servants. Others strongly resisted **dispossession** by attacking colonisers' huts and killing their cattle and sheep.

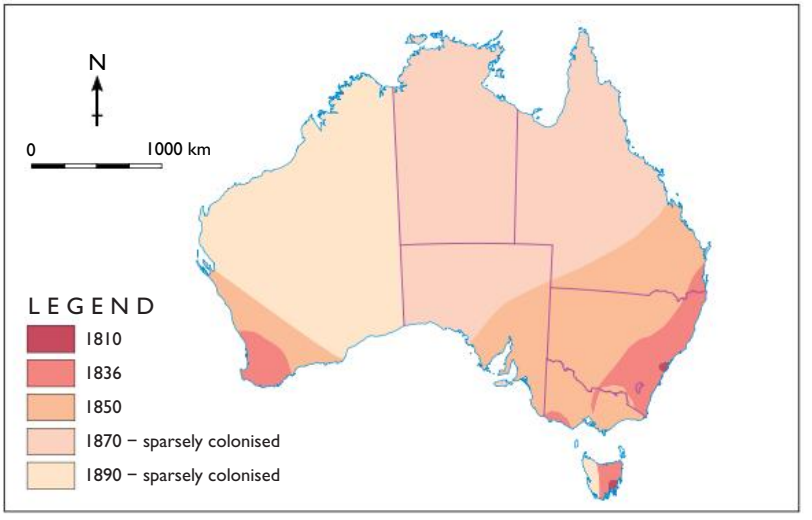
pastoralist
a farmer of sheep or cattle

squatter
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

dispossession
to deprive a person or people of the possession or occupancy of land and property

Violence on the frontiers

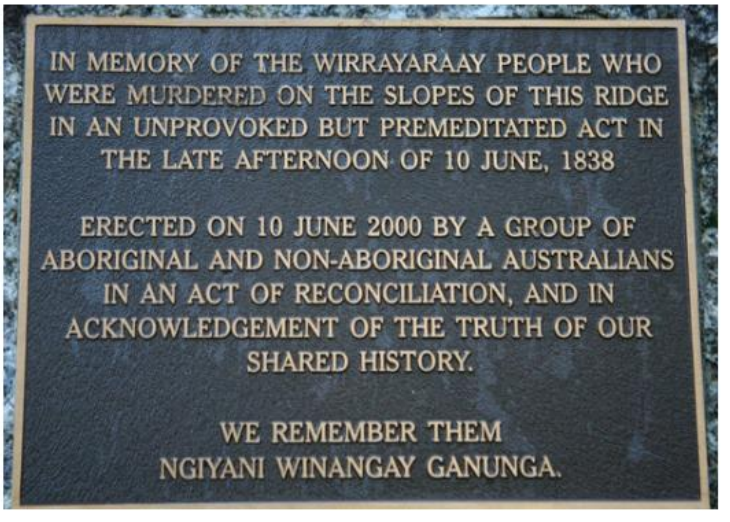
In the nineteenth century, conflicts between Indigenous and non-Indigenous people were commonly reported in the newspapers of the Australian colonies. But for the much of the twentieth century, this aspect of Australian history was not widely discussed or taught in schools. In recent decades, historians have opened up discussion about the 'Black Wars', 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.



Source 18 The expansion of European frontiers from 1810 to 1890

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 Aboriginal people had been attacked in their camps. Government troops had led attacks that killed an unknown number of Aboriginal people. On 10 June, near a station hut at Myall Creek, a group of 12 stockmen on a 'hunting party' came across an Aboriginal camp of men, women and children. The stockmen tied these people up and killed them with swords and guns. They returned the next day to burn the bodies.



Source 19 Myall Creek Massacre memorial

The Myall Creek Massacre is significant, as it is the only case where non-Indigenous people 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.

The Coniston Massacre

The Coniston Massacre is the name given to a series of attacks on the camps of Aboriginal people 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 Aboriginal 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 Indigenous men, women and children were killed. Bullfrog was not among them.

A federal government inquiry into the killings began in 1929, after pressure mounted in the media. This included criticism in British newspapers of Australia's treatment of Indigenous people. 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.

17.6C SOURCE STUDY

The Coniston Massacre

Source 20

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.

Coniston, PAW media

Source 21

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 Dick Kimber, 'Real true history: the Coniston Massacre', Alice Springs News, *10 September 2003*

Source 22

> ... 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

1. Source 20 describes some of the 'tensions of contact' at the time of the Coniston Massacre. Based on this source, write a narrative from an Indigenous person and one from a pastoralist that shows their different perspectives.
2. What are the differences between the account of the Coniston Massacre given by the survivor in Source 21, and by pastoralist William Morton in Source 22? Account for the different perspectives.

17.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1. What were the main differences in the ways Indigenous peoples and the British viewed the land?
2. List the different responses of Indigenous people in Australia to contact with colonisers.
3. In how many cases have non-Indigenous Australians been convicted of violent attacks towards Indigenous people?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

4. In what ways do you think the movement of Indigenous peoples off their Countries would have affected Kinship responsibilities and obligations?
5. 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. Explain why it is important to commemorate this event, and for whom the ceremony would be significant.

GO DEEPER

6. Famous Indigenous leaders such as Pemulwuy and Yagan resisted European invaders in their own way. Other Indigenous people were kidnapped and lived with colonisers for a time, including Colebee and Bennelong. Some acted as trackers or guides for explorers, including John Piper and Wylie.

   Conduct research to choose one of these individuals or an Indigenous person 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 colonisers?

17.7 GOVERNMENT POLICIES FOR ABORIGINAL AND TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the developments in government policies towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to 1900
- explain the results of colonisation for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples up to 1900.

Reserve
a settlement established in Australia to move Aboriginal people away from European settlements, and to assimilate them into European culture and beliefs

Mission
a settlement established (usually by Christian missionaries) to convert Indigenous people in Australia to Christianity and assimilate them into European culture and beliefs

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. The Indigenous peoples of Australia did not share in the general prosperity. By 1900, the majority of Indigenous Australian people 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 more than one million. 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 nineteenth century, many Europeans believed – perhaps even hoped – that the Indigenous population in Australia would die out. Survivors were expected to assimilate, that is, become like Europeans. That meant giving up their traditional ways of life, languages, customs and beliefs.

Protectorates, Reserves and Missions

assimilation
the process by which a minority group adopts the language and customs of a dominant population; in the mid-1900s, assimilation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people into European society became official government policy in Australia

During the nineteenth 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. Colonisers successfully pressured the government to release the land set aside for Indigenous people. The first 'Protector of Aborigines' was appointed in New South Wales in 1883. His role was to determine where and how Indigenous peoples might be allowed to live.

Governments and church organisations also set up over 200 Reserves and Missions around Australia. Groups of Indigenous people were moved to Reserves, often in remote places, where they lived away from non-Indigenous society. Indigenous people were sometimes purposely moved to Reserves far away from their traditional lands, so the lands could be used by colonisers.

Life on these Reserves and Missions was harsh and Aboriginal people were forced to assimilate and become 'good Christians'. Little food was available and Aboriginal people were often not allowed to gather their traditional foods. Many Indigenous children were taken from their families. They were sent out to work for non-Indigenous families, or adopted by them, or sent to homes established specifically for Aboriginal children.

Brothers and sisters were separated and usually never saw their families again. Parents were often blamed for not being able to care for and feed their children, and this was used as a reason to take children away from their families. In many documents from this era, the reason for children being taken away was simply 'for being Aboriginal'.

On Reserves and Missions, Indigenous people were given food and provided with medical services, but their lives were very strictly controlled. They were expected to attend church, and their children were educated in European ways, rather than in their Indigenous culture and language. Schooling was less than what was provided in public schools because it was assumed that Aboriginal people were incapable of learning and 'higher forms of education'.



Source 23 Flour being distributed to an Aboriginal boy at Barambah Aboriginal Reserve, in 1911

17.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

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?
4. What is the percentage decline in the estimated Indigenous population of Australia, between the establishment of the first British colony and 1900?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

5. The exact figure for Australia's non-Indigenous population is known from the 1901 census. Why were Indigenous peoples not counted in this census?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

6. Imagine you are an Indigenous person living on a Reserve. Write a diary entry explaining how your life is different now from what it was like before contact with Europeans.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about colonisation and contact history and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

17B

CHECKPOINT

WHAT WERE THE REASONS FOR BRITAIN'S COLONISATION OF AUSTRALIA AND WHAT EFFECTS DID IT HAVE?

» Recall the nature of early British contact with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Australia

1 Give five examples of contacts between Indigenous 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 view of Indigenous peoples about their traditional lands. How does this relate to their Kinship and spiritual beliefs? (5 marks)

4 What are the differing meanings of the term 'country' for Europeans and for Indigenous Australians? (5 marks)

» Using a range of sources, describe some of the differing experiences of contact between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Aboriginal peoples

5 Copy and complete the table below. (10 marks)

Contact experience	Description of contact experience	Impact on Indigenous peoples	Impact on colonisers
disease			
conflict			
dispossession			

» Outline the developments in government policies towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to 1900

6 Outline the changes in government policies towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples up to 1900. (5 marks)

7 How could historians use Source 24 as evidence of government policies for Indigenous people in the nineteenth century? (5 marks)

» Describe and assess the life of one Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander individual in contact with the British colonisers

8 Choose one Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander person 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 up to 1900

9 What was the impact of colonisation on the Indigenous population of Australia by 1900? (2 marks)



10 Where did most Indigenous people in Australia 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 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' experiences of colonisation with those of Native American peoples

11 Create a table or Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences in the cultures of First Nation Americans and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples before the arrival of Europeans. Consider, for instance:

- diversity within their cultures
- spiritual beliefs
- ways of life
- use of weapons and technology.

(10 marks)

12 Reread your answers to Checkpoint 17A, question 8, and Checkpoint 17B, question 5. Compare the experiences of contact and colonisation in North America with those in Australia. (10 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/80]

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- 5 marks = a paragraph
- 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.



Source 24 The Indigenous community that lived on the Mission at Lake Tyers, in Victoria

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:

Checkpoint
A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet
Test your knowledge by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:

Teacher support
Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

INDEX

A

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples 23, 27
  assimilation 504
  at time of colonisation 493
  Bennelong's perspective of British settlement 498–500
  children removed and sent to work for non-Indigenous families 505
  colonisation and contact history 473–5, 488–505
  Coniston Massacre 502–3
  contact with Cook's party at Botany Bay 491
  contact with squatters and pastoralists 501
  contact timeline 474–5
  creation of settled agricultural societies 24, 66, 491
  dispossession of their lands 501
  Dreaming 403
  Dreaming stories 56
  early years in Sydney Cove 495–7
  European diseases impact on 495, 497, 504
  evidence of occupation in Australia 58–61, 64
  government policies for 504–5
  language groups of New South Wales 494
  moved to protectorates, reserves and missions 504–5
  Myall Creek Massacre 501–2
  no treaties with colonists 491
  oral accounts 54
  as original custodians of the land 491
  population decline 504
  preserving heritage of 67
  spiritual connection to the land 403, 493–4
  as trackers and guides 501, 502
  violent resistance to newcomers 496, 497, 501–3
absolute dating 41
Abu Simbel project 67, 68, 120
AD (*Anno Domini*) 11, 39
aediles 134
Africa
  14th century societies 412–13
  trade with Europe 412, 413
African coast, Roman trade along 170
African slave trade 470
Age of Exploration 444, 449, 469
agriculture
  Asia 412
  Aztec, Maya and Inca societies 450
  Japan 354
  medieval Europe 413, 416
  and the New World 405, 470
  Polynesia 379
  Spanish bring new crops to Europe 470
  Spanish introduce animals to Americas 469
Agrippina the Younger 136
Akhenaten (pharaoh) 104
  one god: Aten 117–18, 122
Alexander the Great 78, 180
Alexius I, Emperor 324
Alfred the Great, King (of Wessex) 277
ali'i ('chief') 384
Allah 244
Americas
  colonisation of 469
  and Columbian Exchange 470
  food from 405, 470
  impact of Spanish conquest 467–71
  major civilisations 448–50
  Spanish conquest of 231, 238, 274, 283, 400, 403, 442–7, 460–6
amphitheatres 144
amulets 111
ancient Australia
  Aboriginal historical sites 64
  archaeological evidence 56–7
  fate of Australia's megafauna 62–3
  human occupation in 58–61
  sources from 56–7
ancient Babylon, ruins of 70
ancient China 25, 30, 84, 178, 184–225
  army and military strength 180, 217
  artisans and craftsmen (*gong*) 198, 200
  death and funerary customs 195
  dynasties *see* dynasties
  early cultures 191
  education 207
  emperor and imperial family 30, 198, 199, 205
  everyday life 205–8
  exchange of ideas between East and West 221
  expansion of ancient dynasties 217
  extended family 205
  farming 189
  floods 188, 191
  food and diet 207
  geography 179, 188–90
  government 179, 209, 210
  Great Wall of China 189, 212–13
  Huang He (Yellow River) communities 25, 84, 188, 189, 191
  internal conflicts and rebellions 216
  inventions 181, 221–3
  legacy 181, 221–3
  lifestyles of the rich and poor 205–6
  marriage and divorce 202, 204
  martial arts 208
  merchants (*shang*) 198, 200
  nobles 205–6
  peasants and farmers (*nong*) 198, 200, 201, 206
  perceived as the centre of the world 189
  Qin Shi Huang Di (first emperor) 180, 199, 209–11, 212
  religious beliefs/philosophies/gods and goddesses 180, 181, 194–5
  scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*) 198, 199–200
  social hierarchy 179, 198–201, 205–6
  timeline 186–7
  trade 171, 218–21
  warfare 180, 181, 216–17
  women's role 179, 202–4
  Yangtze River communities 188, 189
ancient civilisations 25, 30–1, 178
  location 30
  origin theories 84
  timeline 31
  see also Asian civilisations; Mediterranean civilisations
ancient Egypt 25, 30, 80–123
  Abu Simbel project 67, 68, 120
  Akhenaten's one god: Aten 117–18, 122
  army 78, 103, 120
  artisans and scribes 86
  burial rituals and beliefs about death 108, 110–11
  clothing 94
  decline 121
  education 96–7
  expansion under Seti I and Rameses II 120–1
  farming 85, 86
  geography 77, 84–8
  government 98
  housing 92–3
  Inundation (floods) 86, 91, 99, 100
  legacy 121–2
  leisure activities 95
  life in a hot climate 92–5
  Middle Kingdom 96, 97, 120
  natural defences 88
  natural resources 88
  New Kingdom 96, 120
  Nile River's importance 25, 30, 77, 84, 85–7, 90–1, 100
  pharaohs 30, 77, 78, 98–101, 102, 104, 112, 117–18
  pyramids 9, 67, 86, 112–15
  religious beliefs/gods and goddesses 78, 88, 108–9, 117–18, 122
  slaves 102, 105
  social classes 77, 96, 102–3
  Sphinx 35–6
  timeline 82–3
  Tomb of Menna project 71, 106
  trade 119
  unification of kingdoms 100
  warfare 78, 120–1
  women's role 10, 77, 96
ancient Greece 30, 124–5
  city-states/military states 77, 78
  geography 77
  government 77, 79
  religious beliefs/gods and goddesses 78, 157
  social organisation 77
  sports and the arts 79
  warfare 78
  women's role 77
ancient India 182–3
  caste system 179
  geography 179
  Gupta Empire 30, 178, 179, 180
  Indus Valley civilisation 25, 84, 178, 179
  legacy 181
  Mauryan Empire 30, 178, 179, 180
  religious beliefs/gods and goddesses 180, 181
  social structure 179
  trade 170
  warfare 180
  women's role 179
ancient past, conserving remains of 66–71
ancient Rome 30, 126–75
  architecture 146, 153, 158, 173
  army and barracks 78, 145, 162, 168–9
  citizens/citizenship 134, 135, 162, 168
  city life 148–9
  clothing and fashion 141, 143

death and burial customs 159
downfall 172–3
education 141
emperors 136, 138–40, 152, 153, 172
Etruscan rule 132
everyday life 141–3
family life 141
geography 77, 130–2
gladiators 137, 144, 152–3
government/government officials 77, 134, 173
Julius Caesar 138–9
legacy 173–4
mythical origins 132
Pompeii 154–5
public baths 150–1
Punic Wars 163–7
religious beliefs/gods and goddesses 78, 144, 157–8, 172
Roman Empire 8, 79, 138–40, 145, 152, 162, 172–4
Roman Republic 134, 136, 138, 141
slaves 135, 137
social structure 135–7, 141
spread of power 162–7
timeline 128–9
town life 144–7, 174
trade 130, 162, 170–1
villas 147
warfare 78, 163–7
water and sanitation 145, 146
weddings 142
women's role 77, 136, 141
ancient societies
evidence of 26–7
features of 28–9
ancient to the modern world
overview 228–47
timeline 230
ancient world 60000 BC – AD 650 22–31
Angkor Wat, restoration project 67
Angkor/Khmer Empire *see* Khmer Empire
Angles 173
Anglo-Saxon Chronicle 266, 291
Anglo-Saxons 277, 280
anthropologists
cultural groupings in Oceania 376, 377
study of Polynesian societies 379–80
Anubis (god) 108
Aphrodite (goddess) 157
aqueducts 145, 146
Arab world, views of Saladin 328, 329
Arabian Peninsula 170
archaeological digs 37
archaeological evidence 56–7
Easter Island 387
human occupation of ancient Australia 58–61, 64
Polynesian expansion 379, 380, 389
archaeological sites
excavating 37, 154–5
locating 48
threats to 68–9
archaeologists 26, 37, 54
role 36
archers 297, 302
Archimedes 79
architecture
ancient Rome 146, 153, 158, 173
medieval Europe 320
Ottoman Empire 332
Ares (god) 157
ariki 341, 382, 390
Aristotle 79
army
ancient China 180, 217
ancient Egypt 78, 103, 120
ancient Rome 78, 145, 162, 168–9
see also warfare
artefacts 26, 34, 37
Xia and Shang dynasties 191, 192
Artemis (goddess) 157
artisans 86, 198, 351
artists (Renaissance Italy) 441
arts
medieval Europe 320–1
Renaissance Italy 240, 441
Aryabhata 181
Asgard 257
Ashikaga shoguns 350, 360
Ashoka Maurya, Emperor 180
Asia
14th century societies 412
trade with Europe, 14th century 412, 413, 423–4
Asia-Pacific world, overview 338–41
Asian civilisations 178
geographical features 179
social organisation and government 179
Asian world 178–81
legacies 181
assessing the value and limitations of sources 11–12
'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions 12
assimilation 504
astronomy 181
Aten (one true god) 117–18
Athena (goddess) 157
augurs 158
Augustus, Emperor 136, 138
Australia
colonies established 492
colonisation and contact 231, 472–5, 488–505
Cook explores and claims east coast for Britain 490–1
extending the frontiers 501
Mabo decision 491
reasons for British colonisation 476, 492
settlement or invasion?, case study 498–500
as *terra nullius* 491, 498
violence on the frontiers 496, 497, 501–3
see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples
Australia's megafauna, fate of 62–3
auxiliaries 168
Aztec Empire 449
before the arrival of the Spanish 451–8
city-states 449
Cortés expedition and siege of Tenochtitlan 462–3, 464–6
reasons for Spanish success 466
Spanish conquest of 400, 405, 464–6
Spanish rule in former 467
Aztec society 450
clothing 451, 452
discipline 454
human sacrifices 403, 456, 458
life in Tenochtitlan (capital) 457–8
religious beliefs/gods 403, 455–6, 463
role of men and women 452–3
social hierarchy 450, 451–2
under Spanish rule 403, 405, 467
Azuchi–Momoyama period 350

B

Babylon, Ishtar Gate 69, 70
bacteria 426
Baldwin, King 325
barbarian invaders 232–3, 235, 236, 237, 292, 413
barbarian tribes 172, 173
barber-surgeons 418, 419
barter 256
Bastet (god) 108
battering rams 163
Battle of Hastings 279–80, 290
Battle of Hattin 326, 328, 329
Battle of Kadesh 120
Battle of Stamford Bridge 279, 281
Battle of Zama 165, 167
Bayeux Tapestry 282, 286, 290
BC (before Christ) 11, 39
BCE (Before the Common Era) 39
beheading 316, 317
belief systems 26, 243–5
ancient China 180, 181, 194–5
ancient Egypt 78, 88, 108–9, 117–18, 122
ancient Greece 78, 157
ancient India 180, 181
ancient Rome 78, 144, 157–8, 158, 172
Asian world 181
Aztec society 403, 455–6
effect of Black Death on 402, 432, 436
First Nation American cultural regions 403, 480
Japan 339, 348, 351, 356, 357, 358, 364, 365, 369
Khmer people 339, 340
medieval Europe 243, 304–5, 422
Mediterranean world 79
Mongols 402
monotheistic 117, 122
Ottomans 244, 245
Polynesians 338–9, 381
polytheistic 108, 157
Vikings 243, 257–8, 277
Bennelong (Wangal man)
kidnapped but escapes from British 499
returns to European settlement 499–500
view of Britain's 'settlement' versus 'invasion' 498–500
berserkers 269, 270
bestiarii 152
bias (in sources) 12
Bible 243
bibliography 17
Big Foot (Sioux Chief), and Wounded Knee massacre 487–8
bishops 305
bison hunting 479, 480, 482, 485, 486
Black Death 172, 231, 237, 400, 408–11, 426–43, 468
burial of the dead 437
causes 426
climate as contributing factor 430
and depopulation 436
effect on medieval religious beliefs and the Church 402, 432, 436, 441
effect on medieval society 432–3
effect on towns 437
and flagellant movement 402, 434
historical evidence 413
long-term effects 438–41
origins 428
and persecution of Jews 402, 434
rapid spread 429
short-term impacts 436–7
social and political legacies 404
spread by Mongols to the West 402, 428–9, 430
symptoms 426
three forms of plague 427
timeline 410–11
treatments, case study 431
and weakening of feudalism 439
'Black Wars' 501–3

blood-letting 418
Blue Mosque in Istanbul 332
The Book of the Dead 110
Botany Bay, Cook's landing at 491
Bradshaws (rock paintings) 60–1
Brahma 339
Brahmins 179
Brazil, language spoken in 469
Britain
  applies idea of *Terra Nullius* to Australia 491, 498
  claims New South Wales for 490, 492
  colonisation of Australia 490–505
  reasons for colonising Australia 492
  settlement or invasion of Australia 498–500
  settlements in North America 482
British explorers 490
bubonic plague 426, 427
Buddha 195
Buddhism 180, 181, 195, 207
  Japan 339, 356, 358
  Khmer Empire 339, 340
Budj Bim Cultural Landscape 66
burial rituals *see* death and funerary customs
bushido 356–7
Byzantine Empire 173, 232, 236, 324

C

Caesar, Julius, life and death of 138–9, 174
caldarium 150
calendars 38–9
Caligula, Emperor 139
Cambodia *see* Khmer Empire
cannons 302
canopic jars 111
Canute 277
Carbon-14 59
Caribbean
  African slaves brought to 470
  Spanish in 460, 468
Carter, Howard 45, 101
Carthage
  becomes dependent state of Rome 165
  Punic Wars 163–7
  territories controlled by 163
Carthaginians 163–7
  see also Hannibal Barca
caste system, ancient India 179
castes, Khmer Empire 340
castles (medieval Europe) 295
  developments in design 295
  keep design 308
  life for noble families 307, 308
  protective features 296–7
  sieges 296–7
cathedrals, medieval 322–3
Catholic Church 79, 158, 233, 243, 289
  challenging in Renaissance Italy 239, 245
  effect of Black Death on beliefs 402, 432, 436, 441
  hierarchy 305
  in medieval Europe 304–5, 422
  and the Reformation 245, 441
  spreads influence after Spanish conquest 469
  teachings and rituals 242, 243, 305, 422
  tithes (taxes) 246, 305, 422
cattlemen 482
cause and effect 6, 53
causes 4
cavalry 180, 298, 401
CE (Common Era) 39
censors 134
census 404, 413
centuries 5, 39
ceremonies 27
chain mail 298
chariots 180
Charlemagne, Emperor 242, 289–90, 305
Charles the Bald 289
Charles the Simple 267, 290
Charon 159
chicken pox 495
chief priest, ancient Egypt 103
China, influence on Japan 348
chinampas 457, 458
Chinemperors 369
Chinese extended family 205
chivalry 298
Cholulans 464
Christianity 78, 79
  ancient Rome 158, 159, 172, 173
  in Japan 339, 364, 365
  in medieval Europe 243, 304–5, 422
  Polynesians conversion to 339
  in South America 403, 461, 467
  spread of 233, 234, 461, 469
  Vikings conversion to 243, 257, 277
  see also Catholic Church
Christians
  under Ottoman rule 245, 247
  wars with Muslims *see* Crusades
Christine de Pizan 321
chronological terms 11, 39
chronology 10
Church *see* Catholic Church
circa (c) 39
circus 144
citations in a bibliography 16–17
citizens/citizenship, ancient Rome 134, 135, 162, 168
city-states
  ancient Greece 77, 78
  Aztec empire 449
  Italy 241, 245, 247
civilisations 5, 25, 30–1, 76, 132, 448–50
  see also Asian civilisations; Mediterranean civilisations
clans 341
Clark, William 482
Claudius, Emperor 136
climate, and spread of Black Death 430
climate change
  and loss of Australia's megafauna 62, 63
  response to 5
clothing
  ancient Egypt 94
  ancient Rome 141, 143
  Aztec society 451, 452
  Japanese society 351, 352
  women's, medieval Europe 321
Clovis, King 289
Code of Hammarubi 27
colonial empires in 1815 476
colonisation and contact history 231, 476–7
  Americas 442–7, 460–71
  Australia 472–5, 490–505
  North America 472–4, 478–88
  reasons for 477
  supplanting societies 401, 477
Colosseum 12, 153
Colossus of Rhodes 46–7
Columbian Exchange 470
Columbus, Christopher 238, 274, 403, 460, 469
commerce, medieval Europe 303, 330
common law 318
commoners, Aztec society 452
communicating your findings 18–19
concentric castles 295
concrete 174
concubines 195
Confucianism/Confucius 180, 181, 194, 196, 208, 339, 348, 351, 356
Coniston Massacre, NT 502–3
conquistadors 400, 403, 460, 466, 467
  bring diseases to the Americas 468
  fight Tlaxcalans 464
  journey to Tenochtitlan 462–3
  massacre nobles in Tenochtitlan 464, 465
  reasons for becoming 461
  slaughter Cholulans 464
  spread of Spanish language 469
  in Tenochtitlan 464
conserving ancient sites 66–9
  case studies 70–1
  protected sites 67
  threats to ancient sites 68–9
  World Heritage List 66, 67
conserving sources 69
Constantine, Emperor 153, 158, 172
consuls 134
contestability 8–9, 35, 54
continuity and change 5, 53
convicts 492, 496
Cook Islands 385
Cook, James
  claims east coast of Australia for Britain 490, 492
  landing at Botany Bay 491
  reaches Australia in the *Endeavour* 490
  relations with Indigenous peoples 490, 491
Copernicus, Nicolas 240
coral islands 376
Cortés, Hernán 447, 460
  defeats Aztecs 465
  establishes Spanish rule in former Aztec Empire 467
  expedition to Tenochtitlan 462–3, 464
  supported by Totonacs 462
craftsmen
  ancient China 198, 200
  Japan 352
  medieval Europe 295
  Vikings 253, 256, 262, 264
Crazy Horse 485, 486
crime and punishment (medieval Europe) 316–17
  change to justice system 318, 330
Crook, General 486
crop rotation 311
crossbow 302
Crusaders
  massacre Muslims and Jews 325
  success of 326
Crusades 242, 324–9, 413
  First Crusade 325
  routes taken to the Holy Land 325
  and Saladin 326, 327
  Third Crusade 325, 326
cultures 26
cuneiform script 26
Custer, Lieutenant Colonel George 486

D

daily life
  in fourteenth century 414–17
  Māori village 394–6
  noble families, medieval Europe 307–8
  in towns and cities (14th century) 414–15
daimyo 341, 351, 353, 359, 362
  castle as domain of 354
  domains returned to the emperor 369
  restrictions on 353
  wealth and power 354
Danegeld 267
Danelaw 277, 281
Danish kings in England 277

Daoism 180, 194, 195, 207, 208
dating in history 41
dating methods 49–50
days of the week, Vikings 258, 281
death and funerary customs
ancient China 195
ancient Egypt 108, 110–11
ancient Greece 159
ancient Rome 159
decades 39
decision-making chart to compare and select sources 13
deities
ancient China 180, 194
ancient Greece 157
ancient India 180
ancient Rome 157
demesne 293
democracy 77, 79
dendochronology 50
descriptions, writing 17–18
Diana (goddess) 157
dictator 138
digital presentations 18
digital sources 16, 46
Diocletian, Emperor 172, 232
diprotodon 62
Director of the Seal 103
dirty streets (medieval towns) 415
diseases 296, 312
impact on Indigenous peoples 383, 401, 464, 468, 483, 484, 495
see also Black Death; smallpox
dispossession of Indigenous lands 482, 483, 501
divorce, ancient China 202
DNA analysis 23, 50
DNA testing, Polynesian peoples 379
Domesday Book 291
drama 79
the Dreaming 56, 403
'drift voyaging' 380
duels 254
Dutch explorers/traders 482, 490
dynasties, ancient China 30, 179–80, 191–2, 194–5, 199, 207, 210, 212–13
see also specific dynasties, e.g. Han Dynasty

E

Easter Island 376, 379, 380
deforestation 383
moai 378, 382, 386–7
society and culture 382–3
Eastern Roman Empire 139, 172, 173, 232
economy, Vikings 256
Edgar Atheling 278
Edo (imperial court) 369
education
ancient China 207
ancient Egypt 96–7
ancient Rome 141
Japan 359
medieval Europe 313, 330
Middle Kingdom 96, 97
New Kingdom 96
Vikings 262
Edward the Confessor, King 277, 290
Eightfold Path 195
Elysian Fields 159
empathetic understanding 7, 15, 54
emperors
ancient China 198, 199, 205, 216
ancient Rome 136, 138–40, 152, 153, 172
emperors, Japan 341, 349–50, 351, 357, 367, 368
modernising and Westernising Japan 369–70
power returned to 369
empire 135
England
feudalism 292–4
impact of Vikings in 277
race for the English crown 278–80
social structure 293–4
Viking settlements 267
English language
development during medieval period 330
Viking influences 258, 281
The Enlightenment 241
entertainment
Japan 359, 360
medieval Europe 300–1, 302, 321
Eora people 493, 498
Ephorate 42
epidemics 468
equites 135
Erik Bloodaxe 277
Erik the Red 273, 274
ethical approaches to studying history 34
Etruscans 132
eunuchs, ancient China 198, 199
Euphrates River communities 24, 84
Europe
14th century societies 413
feudalism 235, 246, 292, 413
learning and technology transported to Americas 469
trade with Africa 412, 413
trade with Asia 412, 413, 423–4
European diseases, impact on Indigenous peoples 383, 401, 464, 468, 483, 484, 495, 497, 504
European imperialism 476–7
European settlements in North America 482–3
evaluating sources 44, 46–7
evidence 4, 34
of ancient societies 26–7
archaeological 56–7
on Black Death 413
gathering from a range of sources 12–13, 44–7
excavating archaeological sites 37, 154–5
excommunication 305, 422
executions 316, 317, 502
expanding contacts 400
consequences of 404–5
impact on belief systems and religions 402–3
why some societies rose to dominate others 401
explanation and communication 17–19

F

fa'a Samoa 384
Fabius Maximus, Quintus 164
facts and opinions 14
farmers
ancient China 198, 200, 201, 206
ancient Egypt 103
farming
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders communities 24, 66
ancient China 189
ancient Egypt 85
from foraging to 24–5
farming cycle, ancient Egypt 86
fashion and beauty, ancient Rome 143
fasting 480
feudal manors 235, 292, 404
life on 309–11, 439
occupations and roles 293, 311–13
feudalism
decline 404, 439
in England 292–4
Japan 341, 353, 362–3
medieval Europe 235, 246, 292, 413
and Peasants' Revolt 439, 440
weakened by Black Death 439
feuds 254, 273
fines 254, 316
fire risk, medieval towns 312
First Crusade 325
First Fleet 492
First Nation American cultures 478–81
authorities move children to boarding schools 483
bison hunting 479, 480
cultural regions 479
dispossession of lands by European settlers 482, 483, 485
impact of European diseases 483, 484
key aspects of contact and colonisation 483–4
origin of peoples 478
peoples of the Great Plains 480
Plains war 485–8
removed to reservations 483
spiritual connection to the land 403, 480
US treaties with 485, 491
violence with colonisers 483
see also Sioux Nation
First Punic War 264-241 BC 163
fishing, Polynesia 379
flagellants 402, 434
floods 6
ancient China 188, 191
ancient Egypt 86, 91, 99, 100
fluorine dating 50
food
and diet, ancient China 207
from the Americas 405, 470
Japan 359
Māori 394
medieval Europe 310, 314–15
Vikings 261
foot binding 7, 202–3
forest resource management 355
fossils 22
four 'humours', treating of 418
fourteenth century
daily life in 414–17
medical knowledge 418–21
societies in Asia, Africa and Europe 412–13
trade between Europe and Asia 423–4
see also medieval Europe
Franks 173, 288–9, 290
forced to grant lands to Vikings 267, 290
under Charlemagne 289–90, 305
French settlements in North America 482
frigidarium 150, 151

G

Galileo Galilei 240
galleys 163
Gammage, Bill 24, 66, 491
Gao Zu 216
Gaul 289
Gautama, Siddhartha (Buddha) 195
geishas 352
genealogy, Māori 395
Genghis Khan 401, 404
unified laws (*Yasa*) 404
geography
ancient China 179, 188–90
ancient Egypt 77, 84–8
ancient Greece 77
ancient India 179
ancient Rome 77, 130–2
Japan 348–9
Polynesia 376–7
giant ramp theory (pyramid construction) 112, 114
glacial 59
gladiators 137, 144, 152–3
arenas 153
backgrounds 152
end of 153
types of 152
globalisation 5

God 243, 317, 325
power of, medieval Europe 422
gods and goddesses
ancient China 180, 194
ancient Egypt 78, 88, 98, 108–9, 117–18
ancient Greece 78, 157
ancient India 180
ancient Rome 78, 144, 157–8
Aztec society 403, 455–6, 463
household gods, ancient Rome 157
Khmer people 339, 340
Polynesian 338, 379
Viking 243, 257
gold
discoveries in California and Nevada 482
Spanish quest for 461, 467, 468
gong 198
Goths 173
government
ancient China 179
ancient Egypt 77, 98
ancient Greece 77
ancient Rome 77, 134, 173
Khmer Empire 340
medieval Europe 318, 330
Mediterranean world 79
in the modern world 79
Mongol Empire 404
Ottoman Empire 247
Renaissance Italy 247
government policies
towards Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples 504–5
towards First Nation Americans 483
graphic presentations 18
Great Plains peoples 480
Great Pyramid at Giza 112, 113
construction 114–15
Great Sphinx 35–6
Great Spirit 403, 480
Great Wall of China 189, 212–13
Greenland, Viking settlements 273, 282
Greenlanders Saga 274
Gregorian calendar 38, 39
Gregory, Pope 174
guerrilla war 496
guilds 247, 303, 313
gunpowder 181, 222, 302
Gupta Empire 30, 178
conflict 180
geography 179
religious beliefs 180
Guthrum 277
Gwion Gwion rock paintings 60–1

H

Hades 159
Hadrian, Emperor 140
haka 391
Han Dynasty 30, 180, 195, 199, 202, 216
professional army 217
rebellions 216
trade 218
hāngi (cooking method) 394
hangings 316
Hannibal Barca (Second Punic War) 164, 166–7
contestability about him as a military commander 167
contestability about his leadership 166
defeated by Scipio 165
use of elephants 164, 166
victories against Rome 164, 165
Harald Hardrada, King of Norway 278, 279, 281
Harappan civilisation 179
harem 247
Harold II, King 279
Battle of Hastings 279–80
Battle of Stamford Bridge 279
Harold Godwinson 278–9, 290
Harold Harefoot 277
Harthacanute, King 277, 278
Hathor (god) 108
Hatnub ramp contraption 115
Hawaii
legends and stories 379
society and culture 384
Hawaiian Archipelago 384
Hawaiki 379, 389
Hel 257
Hera (goddess) 157
Herculaneum 154
heresy 316
Herjulfsson, Bjarni 274
Hermes (god's messenger) 157
Herodotus 7, 9
hierarchy 26, 77, 102, 198, 235, 451
hieroglyphic writing 449
hieroglyphs 27, 35, 100, 122
Hinduism 180, 181
Khmer society 339, 340
historians
inquiry approach 34–6
reliance on other experts 36
use of tools 36
historian's toolkit 4–19
historical concepts 5–9
historical explanations, writing 18
historical investigations 34–6
gathering evidence from a range of sources 44–7
key concepts for 53–4
methods used 48–50
questions to inform 15
historical mysteries, investigating 35–6, 52–4
historical skills 10–19
historical time periods 11
historiography 328
history, is investigation 34–7
Hittite Empire 120
Holy Land 236
and Crusades 324, 325, 326
homesteaders 482
Homo sapiens 22
hongi 390
Hotu Matu'a 384
Houdin's theory (pyramid construction) 115
household gods, ancient Rome 157
housing
ancient Egypt 92–3
ancient Rome 147
Huang He (Yellow River) communities 25, 84, 188, 189
floods 188, 191
Huitzilopochtli (god) 455
human occupation in ancient Australia 58–61
archaeological evidence 58–61, 64
Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings 60–1
impact on megafauna 62, 63
Kow Swamp 59
Lake Mungo 23, 59
human remains, treating with respect 34
human sacrifice 403, 456, 458
humanism 242
hunter-gatherer communities 24
hunting 307, 314, 479, 480
Hyksos 120
hypocaust system 147, 150, 151
hypothesis 12, 13, 34

I

ice age 58, 61, 63
Iceland, Viking settlements 273, 282
illuminated manuscripts 320
imperial China 30
see also ancient China
imperial family, ancient China 198, 199
imperialism 476–7
Incan Empire 449
brutal treatment under Spanish rule 467
fall of 400, 405
societal features 450
Indian Removal Act 1930 (US) 483
Indigenous peoples 231, 238
brutal treatment at the hands of the Spanish 403, 405, 467
colonisation and contact history 472–505
dispossession of lands 482, 483, 501
forced labour and slavery 467, 468
impact of European diseases on 383, 401, 464, 468, 483, 495, 497
invasion of lands by European colonisers 476, 482, 498–500, 501
spiritual connection to the land 403, 493–4
violence with colonisers 483, 501–3
see also Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples; Aztec society; First Nation American cultures; Polynesian peoples
Indus Valley civilisation 25, 84, 178, 179
Harappa 179
under Alexander the Great 180
Industrial Revolution 477, 492
influenza 484, 495
invasion of Indigenous lands 476, 482, 498–500, 501
inventions, ancient China 181, 221–3
Ishtar Gate, Babylon, reconstruction 70
Islam 79
spread of 233, 244
Islamic Empire 233, 234, 242, 247
Islamic world, links to Western world 242

J

Japan
and Code of *Bushido*, Second World War 357
contact with Europeans 364
emperors 341, 349–50, 351, 357, 367, 368, 369
geography 348–9
history before the shoguns 349
industrialisation 369
influenced by China 348
Meiji Restoration 357, 369
modernisation and Westernisation 369–70
rise of the shoguns 349–50
trade 369
warring clans 348, 349, 350
Japan under the shoguns 231, 340, 341, 344–71
agriculture 354, 358
arts and entertainment 359, 360
clothing 351, 352
daimyo 341, 351, 353, 354, 359, 362
education 359
end of 367–70
everyday life 358–60
external pressures for change 368
feudal system 341, 353, 362–3
food and diet 359
forest management 355
growth of urban society 354
internal pressures for change 367–8
life in the emperor's capital 359
life of a peasant farmer 358–9
policies to isolate Japan 364–6, 368

religious beliefs 339, 348, 351, 356, 357, 358, 364, 365, 369
samurai 340, 341, 349, 350, 354, 356–7, 359, 362, 369
social structure 340, 341, 351–2
timeline 346–7
trade 354, 364–5, 368
women's role 352
jarls 253, 260, 265
Jayavarman VII, King 339
Jerusalem
captured back from Crusaders by Saladin 326
and the Crusades 324, 325, 326
Jesus Christ 243
Jews 325, 326
persecution over Black Death 402, 434
under Ottoman rule 245, 247
John, King 318, 330
Jorvik (York), England 262, 267, 277
joust 300
Judaism 79
Julian calendar 174
Julius Caesar, life and death of 138, 174
Juno (goddess) 157
Jupiter (god) 157

K

kahuna ('priest') 384
Kamakura shoguns/Kamakura period 350
Kamalyarrpa Japanangka (Walpiri man known as Bullfrog) 502
Kamehameha I, King 384
kami 358
karls 253–4
kava ceremony 384
Khafre (pharaoh) 35, 36
Khmer Empire 231, 342–3
government 340
kings 339, 340
religions 339, 340
social structure 340
Khufu (pharaoh) 112
Kingdom of the Franks 288–90
Kingdom of Jerusalem 325
kings
feudal England social hierarchy 293
Khmer Empire 339, 340
knights 235, 293, 302
armour 298, 299, 301, 356
and Crusades 325
mounted knights 298–300, 356
tournaments 300–1, 302
Knights Templar 325
Koran 244
Kow Swamp ancient burial site 59
Kublai Khan 348
kung fu 194, 208
Kupe, Chief 389
Kyoto (emperor's capital) 349, 368
life in 359

L

Lake Mungo 23, 59
languages
English 258, 281, 330
Portuguese 469
Roman 173
Spanish 479
Laozi 194
Lapita people 379
Latin 173
laws
Church 305
development of common law 318
medieval Europe 316–18, 330
Ottoman society 247
Vikings 246, 254–5
leeches 420
legacies
ancient China 181, 221–3
ancient Egypt 121–2
ancient India 181
ancient Rome 173–4
legionaries 168
Leif Eriksson 242, 274, 275
leisure activities, ancient Egypt 95
Leo III, Pope 289
Leonardo da Vinci 241, 242
Lewis, Meriwether 482
life expectancy, medieval Europe 417
linen workshop supervisor 102
literacy, ancient Egypt 96
literature 174, 320
Renaissance 441
litter 198
Liu Bang 216
Livia 136
living conditions
in the country (Middle Ages) 416
in medieval towns and cities 414–15
Livy 166, 174
longbow 297, 301, 302
longhouses 259, 260
longships 261, 270–1
Louis the Pious 289
Lower Egypt 100
Luther, Martin 245

M

Mabo decision 491
Magna Carta 318, 330
magnetic compass 181, 221
Mamluk Sultanate of Egypt 412
Manchus 199, 217
mandarins 198
Mandate of Heaven 199, 216
Māori 379, 389–96
canoes of the Great Fleet 389, 390
extinction of native species 392
food and diet 394
genealogy (*whakapapa*) 395
laws 341
oral traditions about settlement 379, 389
ruling class 341
social classes 382, 390
society and culture 390
sub-tribes (hapā) 390
trade 390
use of natural resources 392–3
use of *rāhui* to conserve natural resources 393
use of *tapu* 341, 392, 393
warrior culture 391
Māori village
daily life 394–6
learning house 395
meeting house (*whare runanga*) 394
Marco Polo 423
Marcus Aurelius, Emperor 140, 174
market towns 303
Marquesas 385
marriage
ancient China 204
ancient Rome 142
Hawaiian society 384
Mars (god) 132, 157
martial arts 208
mass burials 437
matai ('chief') 384
mathematics 79, 122, 181
Mauryan Empire 30, 178
conflict 180
geography 179
religious beliefs 180, 181
Maya civilisation 449
brutal treatment under Spanish rule 467
decline 449
societal features 450
stone statues 378
measles 468, 484, 495
medical knowledge in the 14th century 418–21
medicine 79, 223
by the stars 421
medieval cathedrals 322–3
medieval Europe 231, 282–331
around AD 600 and 1500 288–9
arts and architecture 320–3
castles 295–7
Catholic Church/Christian beliefs in 243, 304–5, 422
commerce and trade 303, 330
contacts and conflicts between societies 236, 242
crime and punishment 316–18, 330
Crusades 242, 324–9
daily life for noble families 307–8
dirty streets 415
education 313, 330
extent of 288–91
feudalism 235, 246, 292–4
food 310, 314–15
government 318, 330
growth of towns and cities 303
influence on the world today 330
Kingdom of the Franks 288–90
life expectancy 417
life on a feudal manor 235, 292, 293, 309–11
living conditions in the country 416
living conditions in towns and cities 414, 415
Normans 280, 290–1
timeline 286–7
women's role 416–17
medieval tournaments 300–1
medieval towns, life in 312
medieval villages 311
medieval warfare 298
changing nature of 301
mounted knights 298–9
weaponry 297, 298, 301–2
medieval world, key features 235–8
meditation 181, 194
Mediterranean civilisations
conflicts 78
geographical features 77
religious beliefs 78
social organisation and government 77
see also ancient Egypt; ancient Greece; ancient Rome
Mediterranean world 76–9
legacies 79
Meiji, Emperor, restored to power 369
Meiji Restoration 357, 369
Melanesia 376
Menes (first pharaoh) 100
Menna's tomb, Egypt 71
merchants/merchant class 240, 241, 256
ancient China 198, 200
ancient Egypt 102
Japan 351
medieval Europe 295, 303, 313
Mercury (god) 157
Mexico
Spanish settlement of 467
spread of Christianity 469
Micronesia 376
Mictlantecuhtli (god) 455
middens 36, 56, 57
Middle Kingdom (ancient Egypt)
Hyksos in power 120
schooling 96, 97
Midgard 257
migration/migration routes 22–3, 58
millennia 39
millet system 247
Minamoto no Yoritomo 350

Minerva (goddess) 157
Ming Dynasty 207, 212, 213
missionaries 339, 364, 402
Missions (for Indigenous Australians) 505
moa, extinction of 392, 393
moai (Easter Island) 378, 382
  case study 386–7
  how were they put in place? 387
monarchy 98
Mongol Empire
  communication and safer travel across the empire (*yam*) 412
  decline 237
  government 404
  trade 412
  unified laws 404
  see also Genghis Khan; Kublai Khan
Mongol expansion 231, 400, 406–7, 412
  attempted invasion of Japan 348, 350
  and spread of Black Death 402, 428–9, 430
  under Genghis Khan 401
Mongols 180, 199, 217, 222
  belief systems 402
  tribes and clans 402
  weapons and fighting tactics 401
monks 291, 320, 322, 323
monotheistic religion 117, 122
Montezuma II, Emperor 451, 462, 464
mosaic floors 147
motte-and-bailey castle 295
mounted knights 298–300
Muhammad, Prophet 233, 244
multimedia presentations 18
mummification 108, 110–11, 195
mummy 111
Mungo Man and Mungo Woman (skeletons) 23, 59
Muromachi period 350
Murray, Constable George 502, 503
music
  ancient Egypt 95
  medieval Europe 321
muskets 302
Muslims 244, 324, 325
  wars with Christians *see* Crusades
Muziris, India 170
Myall Creek Massacre 501–2
myths and legends, ancient Rome 132

N

Narmer (first pharaoh) 100
Narmer Palette 100
nationalism 5
Nefertiti 104, 117, 118
Neolithic Revolution 24, 85
Nero, Emperor 136, 139
New Holland 490
new ideas, emergence of (Renaissance) 239–41
New Kingdom (ancient Egypt)
  expansion 120
  schooling 96
New South Wales
  claimed for Britain 490, 492
  as a place to dump convicts 492
New Spain 467
New Zealand 376
  Māori society 341, 389–96
Newfoundland, Viking settlements 275
Nile River
  as focal point of Egyptian life 90–1
  importance to ancient Egypt 25, 30, 77, 84, 85–7
  Inundation 86, 91, 100, 101
Nirvana 195
nobles
  ancient China 205–6
  Aztec society 451
nobles/noble families (medieval Europe) 293, 303
  daily life 307
  education 313
  food 314–15
nomadic groups 24
nomarchs 102
non-Muslims, Ottoman Empire 245, 247
nong 198, 200, 201
Norfolk Island 492
Norman castles, life in 307, 308
Norman invasion 279–80
Normandy, Viking settlements 267, 290
Normans 280, 290–1, 295
Norse mythology 243, 257, 281
North America
  Viking settlements in 274–5
  see also First Nation American cultures
North America, colonisation and contact history 231, 472, 482–8
  bison herds killed by hunters/settlers/soldiers 482, 485, 486
  European invasion 482
  First Nation Americans moved to reservations 483
  key aspects for First Nation Americans 483–4
  Plains War 485–8
  reasons for colonisation 476–7
  timeline 474

O

occupation of Indigenous lands *see* invasion of Indigenous lands
Oceania, cultural groups 376, 377
Octavian (first emperor) 138
Oda Nobunaga 362
Odin 257, 258, 269
officials, ancient China 199–200
online sources 16, 46
optically stimulated luminescence 59
oracle bones/oracle script 191
oral history 45, 46
  Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples 56
oral presentations 18
Ostrogoths 232
Ottoman Empire 231, 242, 245, 247, 332–3
  government in non-Muslim communities 247
  slaves 247
  social structure 247
  sultans and their role 242, 247
Ottomans
  religion 244, 245
  tolerance of different religions 245
Ötzi the Iceman 48
'Out of Africa' theory 22–3, 59
outlaws 254

P

pagan emperors 172
palla 143
Palmyra, destruction by ISIS 69
Pantheon 140, 158
Papal States 247
paper and printing 181, 222
papyrus 88, 90, 94, 122
parish priests 305
parliament 330
Pascoe, Bruce 24, 66, 491
pastoralists 501, 502
patricians 134, 135
patrons, importance of 441
peasants
  ancient China 198, 200, 201, 206
  Japan 352, 358–9, 367
peasants (medieval Europe) 293–4, 311, 404
  demand for higher wages 439
  education 313
  everyday life 311–12, 416
  food 310, 314
  participation in Crusades 325
Peasants' Revolt 439, 440
Peloponnesian Peninsula 77
Pemulway 496
Perry, Matthew 347, 368
Persian Gulf 170
perspectives 6–7, 53
  and interpretations 14–15
Peter the Hermit 325
pharaohs 30, 77, 78, 102, 104
  after Akhenaten 118
  Akhenaten's one god: Aten 117–18
  Narmer (Menes) 100
  power of 98–101
  responsibilities 99
  Seti I and Rameses II as warriors 120–1
  symbols of power 98
  tombs of the 45, 101, 112
  Tutankhamun 45, 101
Phillip, Governor Arthur 492, 493
  relations with Indigenous peoples 495, 496, 498–500
  relationship with Bennelong 499, 500
  speared and wounded 496, 499
Phillip II, King of France 326
Phillip II, King of Macedon 78
philosophy/philosophers 79, 174, 194
pilgrims/pilgrimages 303, 324, 325, 359
pillory 316
Pizzaro, Francisco 447, 460
plague *see* Black Death
plague doctors 431, 433
Plains war 485–8
Plato 79
plebeians 134, 135
Pliny the Younger 155
pneumonic plague 426, 427
pollution 312
Polybius 166
Polynesia, geography and natural features 376–7
Polynesian expansion across the Pacific 231, 372–97
  accidental discoveries or great explorations? 380
  anthropological evidence 379
  archaeological evidence 379, 380
  theories 378–80
  timeline 374–5
Polynesian peoples
  belief systems/gods 338–9, 381
  boat-building and navigational skills 380
  origins 378–9
  societies and laws 341
  tattooing 381
Polynesian societies 385
  agriculture and fishing 381
  common features 381
  Easter Island 376, 379, 380, 382–3, 386–7
  Hawaii 379, 384
  language similarities 381
  New Zealand 341, 376, 389–96
  Samoa 384
Polynesian Triangle 338, 372, 376, 380
  missionary influence 339
polytheistic religion 108, 157
Pompeii 154–5
  archaeological excavation 154–5
  eyewitness account 155
Pontifex Maximus 158
popes 289, 305
Portuguese language 469
potters/pottery 26, 103
praetors 134
pre-Columbian Americas 449, 450

prehistory 24
presentation of your findings 18–19
priestesses
ancient Egypt 103
ancient Rome 136
primary cause 6
primary sources 11, 13, 14, 45
printing 181, 222
protected sites 67
protectorates 504
provinces 168
public baths, ancient Rome 146, 150–1
public toilets, ancient Rome 146
Punic Wars 163
First Punic War 264–241 BC 163
Second Punic War 218–202 BC 164–5, 166–7
Third Punic War 149–146 BC 165
punishment
medieval Europe 316–17
for serious crimes 316
trial by ordeal 317
Vikings 254
in villages 316
pyramids, ancient Egypt 9, 67, 86, 112–15, 122
construction 112–13, 114–15
as tombs of the pharaohs 112

Q

Qin Dynasty 199, 216
Qin Er Shi (emperor) 216
Qin Shi Huang Di (first emperor) 180, 199, 209–11
begins Great Wall of China 212
death of 210, 216
feared by his people 210
legacy 209–10
model of government 209, 210
tomb with terracotta army 211
Qing Dynasty 30, 199, 209, 210
Qinling Mountains 189
quaestors 134, 138
questions to inform historical inquiry 15
Quetzalcoatl (god) 455, 463, 464

R

Ra (Sun god) 108, 109
radiocarbon dating 25, 49, 85, 275, 379, 389
rāhui, system of 393
rākau whakapapa 395
Rameses II (pharaoh) 120–1
rangatira 341
Rano Ranuka quarry, Easter Island 386, 387
Rapa Nui people (Easter Island) 379
clan warfare 383
European diseases effect on 383
moai statues 378, 382, 386–7
social organsation and grouping 382
use of the island's natural resources 383
Rebellion of the Seven States 216
recording relevant sources 16–17
Red Cloud's War 485, 486, 487
Reformation 245, 441
reincarnation 195
relative dating 41
religion *see* belief systems; Buddhism; Christianity; Hinduism; Islam; Shinto/Shintoism
Renaissance, foundations of 441
Renaissance Italy 231, 237, 239–41, 242, 326, 334–5
art and architecture 240, 441
challenging the Church in 239, 245
city-states 241, 245, 247
government 247
humanism 240
science and technology 240–1
social structure 247
representing time 11, 38–9
republic 134
research 15–16
reservations (for First Nation Americans) 483
Reserves (for Indigenous Australians) 505
Richard I (Richard the Lionheart), King 326
portrayal of 328, 329
Saladin and the Third Crusade 326, 328–9
rituals 27
River Styx 159
rock art/paintings/engravings 26, 56, 57, 60–1, 64
Rollo (Viking leader) 267, 290
Roman baths 146, 150–1
Roman Catholic Church *see* Catholic Church
Roman Empire 8, 79, 138–40, 145, 155, 162
division into Western Empire and Eastern Empire 139, 172–3
downfall of 172–3
emperors 136, 138–40, 152, 153, 172
end in the West 232–3, 235, 288
extent of 232
gladiator games 152–3
legacy 173–4
Roman Forum 149
Roman language 173
Roman law codes 173
Roman Republic 134, 136, 138, 141
Roman Senate 134
Roman towns
layout and buildings 144–5, 174
life in 144–7
water and sanitation 145, 146
Roman villas, layout and central heating 147
Romulus and Remus 132

S

sagas 254, 255, 274
Saguntum 166
sakoku 364
Saladin, Sultan of Egypt
and the Crusades 326, 327
and King Richard I 326, 328–9
portrayal of 328, 329
and Third Crusade 326, 328–9
Samoan society and culture 384
samurai (warrior class) 340, 341, 349, 350, 354, 359, 362, 369
and code of *bushido* 356–7
guidelines for 362
sanitation, ancient Rome 146
sarcophagus 111
Saxons 173, 277, 280, 290, 292
Scandinavia 252, 290
scholars, ancient China 198, 199
schooling *see* education
schools 313, 330
science 79, 122, 181
scientific method 241
Scientific Revolution 240–1
Scipio, Publius Cornelius 165
scribes 86, 102
Second Punic War 218–202 BC 164–5
contestability about the start of 166
Hannibal's army 164–5, 166–7
secondary cause 6
secondary sources 11, 13, 14, 45
Seljuk Turks 324
septicemic plague 426, 427
serfs 293
servants 307
Seti I (pharaoh) 120
seven hills of Rome 130, 131
shamanism/shamans 402
shang 198
Shang Dynasty 191, 192
shi 198, 199–200
Shinto/Shintoism 339, 356, 357, 358, 369
shipbuilding, Vikings 261, 264
Shiva 339
shogunate 350
see also Tokugawa shogunate
shoguns 231, 341, 351
rise of the 349–50
see also Japan under the shoguns
sieges and siege weapons 296–7
significance 7–8, 54
silk 219
Silk Roads 5, 26, 29, 76, 162, 170–1, 218–22, 237, 241, 264, 412, 423
sinews 480
Sioux Nation 480
bison hunting 479, 480, 482
effect of bison hunting by settlers/soldiers 482, 485, 486
and Plains War 485–8
Red Cloud's War 486
Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse 486
treaties with US authorities 485
Wounded Knee massacre, 1890 487–8
Sioux Sun Dance 480–1
sistra 95
Sitting Bull 485, 486
slave trade 441, 470
slaves/slavery 7, 9, 405
ancient Egypt 102, 105
ancient Rome 135, 137
Aztec Empire 452
Ottoman Empire 247
under Spanish rule of the Americas 468, 470
Vikings 253, 256, 260
smallpox 171, 383, 401, 464, 468, 484, 495
Smenkhkare (pharaoh) 118
Sobek (god) 108
social hierarchy 26
ancient China 179, 198–201
ancient Egypt 77, 96, 102–3
ancient Greece 77
ancient India 179
ancient Rome 77, 135–7, 141
social structure
Aztec Empire 450, 451–2
feudal England 293–4
Hawaii 384
Japan under the shoguns 340, 341, 351–2
Khmer Empire 340
Māori 382, 389
Ottoman society 247
Polynesia 341
Renaissance Italy 247
Vikings 246, 253–4, 265
societies
ancient 26–9, 76, 84
why some rise to dominate others 401
Socrates 79
soldiers *see* army
Song Dynasty 202
sources
assessing the value and limitations 11–12
conservation of 69–71
drawing conclusions about the value of 14
evaluating 44, 46–7
of evidence 4, 34, 44
gathering evidence from a range of sources 12–13, 44–7
identifying and locating relevant 15–16
primary 11, 13, 14, 45
recording relevant 16–17
secondary 11, 13, 14, 45
separating fact from opinion 14

types of 11, 44, 45–6
using ICT to locate relevant 16
Spanish colonisation
and African slave trade 470
and the Columbian Exchange 470
long-term effects 469–70
population change, language and religion 469
Spanish conquest of the Americas 231, 238, 274, 400, 403, 442–7, 460–71
conquest of the Aztec Empire 462–3, 464–6
impact of 405, 460–1, 467–70
timeline 446–7
Spanish conquistadors *see* conquistadors
Spanish Empire, expansion of 467–8
Spanish exploration and conquests
key events 460–1
reasons for 461
Spanish settlement of Mexico 467
treatment of conquered Aztecs 403, 405, 467
Sphinx 35–6
spiral ramps (pyramid construction) 115
sports 79
squatters 501
squires 300
Sri Lanka 170
Statute of Labourers 439, 440
stocks 316, 317
stola 143
stone castles 295
Stonehenge 27
stonemasons 103
stratigraphy 49
strigil 150, 151
sub-tenants 293
Suleiman I, Sultan 242
sultans (Ottoman Empire) 242, 247
sumo wrestling 360
supplanting societies 401, 477
surgery, 14th century 418–20
sushi 359
Sweyn Forkbeard 277
Sydney Cove 492, 493, 495–7

T

tai chi 194, 196
talismans 27
Tang Dynasty 199, 207
Tangaloa (god) 381
tapu 341, 392, 393
Tarquin the Proud (king) 132
Tartarus 159
tattooing 381
taxation, by the Church 246, 305, 422
temples, ancient Rome 146, 158
Tenochtitlan (Aztec capital) 446, 451
canals, districts and farming 457, 458
conquistadors journey to 462–3, 464
conquistadors massacre nobles in 464, 465
Cortés expedition to 462–3, 464
Cortés lays siege to 466
impact of smallpox 464
life in 457–8
market square and buildings 458, 459
reasons for Spanish success 466
Spaniards and Tlaxcalans driven from city 464
tepidarium 150
Terra Nullius 491, 498
terracotta army 211
Terry, General 486
Teton Sioux 485
Texcoco 451
Tezcatlipoca (god) 455
theatre 79
theocracy 98
thermoluminescence dating 50, 58, 60
things 246, 254
thinkers 243
Third Crusade 325, 326
Saladin and King Richard I 326, 328–9
Third Punic War 149–146 BC 165
Thor (Viking god) 13
Thoth (god) 108
thralls 253
threats to ancient sites 68–9
Thucydides 7
Thunder (Viking god) 257
Tiber River 130
Tiberius, Emperor 136
Tigris River communities 24, 84
time periods 11, 39
time terms and concepts 38–9
timelines 10, 40
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, colonisation and contact history 474–5
ancient China 186–7
ancient civilisations 31
ancient Egypt 82–3
ancient Rome 128–9
ancient to modern world 230
Black Death 410–11
Japan under the shoguns 346–7
medieval Europe 286–7
North America, colonisation and contact history 474
Polynesian expansion across the Pacific 374–5
Spanish conquest of the Americas 446–7
Vikings 250–1
tithes 246, 305, 422
Tlacopan 451
Tlaloc (god) 455
Tlaxcalans
as Spanish enemies and allies 464, 465
under Spanish rule 467
toga 141, 143
Toi 389
Tokugawa Ieyasu 347, 350, 353, 362
bans Christian activities 364, 365, 366
restrictions on *daimyo* 353
sakoku (isolation policy) 364–6
strengthens feudalism 362–3
Tokugawa shogunate 353–5, 358–60, 362–6
end of 367–70
Tokugawa shoguns 350, 351
external pressures for change 368
feudalism 353, 362–3
growth of towns 354
internal pressures for change 367–8
management of forests 355
policies to isolate Japan 364–5
Tokugawa Yoshinobu, hands power back to Emperor Meiji 369
Tolkien, J. R. R. 281
Tollund Man, mystery of 52–3
Tomb of Menna, ancient Egypt 71, 106
Tonga 376, 385
tools and utensils 26
Totonacs 462
tournaments, medieval Europe 300–1, 302
towns, growth of, Japan 354
towns and cities (medieval Europe) 303, 312
dirty streets 415
education 313
effect of Black Death on 437
living conditions 414–15
towns and villages, Vikings 299
Toyotomi Hideyoshi 362
trade and trade routes 26, 236–7, 238, 242
14th century Asia, Africa and Europe 412, 413, 424
ancient China 171, 218–21
ancient Egypt 119
ancient Rome 130, 162, 170–1
between Europe and Asi14th century 423–4
Japan 354, 364–5, 368, 369
medieval Europe 330
new sea routes 423, 461
Silk Roads 5, 26, 29, 76, 162, 170–1, 218–20, 221–2, 237, 241, 264, 412, 423
Vikings 256
treason 316
Treaty of Laramia 486
Treaty of Tordesillas 469
trencher 314
trial by jury 318, 330
trial by ordeal 317, 318
tributes 451, 452, 467
Tutankhamun (boy pharaoh) 101, 118
tomb 45, 101
Tyler, Wat 440

U

Underworld 159
UNESCO 66, 67
universities 330
'Untouchables' (Dalits) 179
Upper Egypt 100
Urban II, Pope 324, 327

V

Valhalla 257
Valkyries 257
value of sources 14
Vandals 173
vassals 235, 292
Venus (goddess) 157
Vesalius, Andreas 241
Vestal Virgin 136
Vesuvius (volcanic eruption) 154–5
Vietnam 217
Vikings 14–15, 231, 242, 248–83
artefacts and heritage sites 282
at work 261
beliefs/gods 243, 257–8, 277
craftsmen 256, 262, 263, 264
culture 256
days of the week 258, 281
economy 256
everyday life 259–62
explorers 272–3
food and diet 261
homelands 252
impact in England 277
influence on English language 281
kings 253, 265
laws 246, 254–5
legacy 281–2
longhouses 259, 260
longships 261, 270–1
myths and legends 243, 257, 281
race for the English crown 278–80
raids and raiders 264–5, 266–9, 290
sagas 254, 255
settlements in England and Normandy 267, 277, 290
settlements in Iceland and Greenland 273, 282
settlements in North America, case study 274–5
shipbuilding 261, 264
social structure 246, 253–4, 265
timeline 250–1
towns and villages 259
trade 256, 264
warriors 269, 270
weaponry 264
women and children 262

villeins 294
Vishnu 339
Visigoths 173
viziers 102
volcanic islands 376
von Daniken theory (pyramid construction) 114
voyages of discovery 237–8

W

wages, peasants demand for higher wages 439
war canoes (Māori) 391
warfare
  ancient China 180, 181, 216–17
  ancient Egypt 78, 120–1
  ancient Greece 78
  ancient India 180
  ancient Rome 78, 163–7
  medieval period 297–9, 301–2
  see also Crusades; Punic Wars
Warrang States period 350, 362
warrior class (samurai), Japan 340, 341, 349, 350, 354, 356–7, 359, 362, 369
warrior culture, Māori 391
warriors
  Aztec society 452
  see also army; knights; samurai
water supply, ancient Rome 145, 146
wealthy, Japan 351
weaponry
  medieval Europe 296–7, 301–2
  Mongols 401
  Vikings 264
weddings *see* marriage
Western Roman Empire 139, 172, 173
  collapse of 232–3, 235, 288
Western world, links to Islamic world 242
whakapapa (genealogy) 395
whare runanga (meeting house) 394
Whatonga 389
William, Duke of Normandy 278, 279, 286, 305
  Battle of Hastings 279–80, 290
  becomes King of England 280, 290
  Domesday Book 291
  establishes feudalism 292–4
  'harrying of the north' 290, 291
witchcraft 316
women
  ancient China 179, 202–3
  ancient Egypt 77, 96, 104
  ancient Greece 77
  ancient India 179
  ancient Rome 77, 136, 141
  Aztec society 452, 453
  clothing, medieval Europe 321
  Japan 352
  life as a peasant 313
  medieval Europe 416–17
  noble families 307
  Ottoman society 247
  Vikings 262
World Heritage sites 66, 67
Wounded Knee Massacre, 1890 487–8
writing
  ancient China 191
  ancient Rome 174
  ancient scripts 26, 27
  descriptions 17–18
  hieroglyphs 27, 35, 100, 122
  historical explanations and arguments 18
written presentations 18
Wudi, Emperor 217, 218

X

Xia Dynasty 191, 192
Xipe Totec (god) 455

Y

Yamatao clan 349
Yangtze River communities 188, 189
Yasa (unified laws) 404
Yellow Turban Rebellion 216
Yersinia pestis 426
yin and yang 194, 208
yoga 181
Yu 191
Yuan Dynasty 199
Yucatán Peninsula 449

Z

Zen Buddhism 358
Zeus (supreme god) 157
Zhou Dynasty 194, 199, 212
zig-zag ramps (pyramid construction) 115
zodiac chart 421

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Chapter 2: Alamy, pp. 117, source 1, 119, source 3; Alamy/ PRISMA ARCHIVO, p. 83, source 5; Alamy/ robertharding, p. 96, source 8; Alamy/ Ancient Art and Architecture, p. 109, source 2; Alamy/Artokoloro, p. 94, source 5; Alamy/Buddy Mays, p. 101, source 16; Alamy/Dorling Kindersley ltd, pp. 110–111, source 5; Alamy/Granger Historical Picture Archive, p. 118, source 2; Alamy/Heritage Image Partnership Ltd, p. 94, source 3; Alamy/Jon Arnold Images Ltd, p. 94, source 4; Alamy/Lanmas, p. 83, source 4; Alamy/mauritius images GmbH, p. 121, source 7; Alamy/P.PLAILLY / E.DAYNES / SCIENCE PHOTO LIBRARY, p. 101, source 17; Alamy/Science Photo Library, p. 95, source 7; Alamy/The Natural History Museum, p. 110, source 4; Alamy/The Picture Art Collection, p. 100, source 15; Alamy/The Print Collector, pp. 104, source 21, 105, source 22; Bridgeman Images/© Mary Jelliffe, p. 97, source 9; DK Images/Richard Bonson, pp. 92–93, source 2, 112–113, source 6; From Egypt (OUP, 2005), copyright (c) Stephen Biesty 2005, reprinted by permission of Oxford University Press, pp. 90–91, source 1; Getty/DEA / G. DAGLI ORTI, pp. 97, source 10, 122, source 8, 106, source 23; Getty/Dea/S. Vannini, p. 104, source 20; Ministry of Antiquities (Egypt), p. 115, source 9; NASA Visible Earth, p. 87, source 5; Shutterstock, pp. 80, source 1, 82, source 2, 83, source 3, 84, source 1, 85, source 2, 86 background image, 87 background image, 88–89, background, 92, tree, 95, source 6, 99, source 13, 101, source 18, 102–103, background, 104–105, background, 107, background, 114, source 7 & 10.

Chapter 3 (obook): AAP Image/CYPRUS ANTIQUITIES DEPARTMENT, 3.30, source 2; akg images/Peter Connolly, 3.36; source 11; Alamy/ Cultural Archive, 3.27, source 16; Alamy/ National Geographic Image Collection, 3.29, source 1; Alamy/AA Film Archive, 3.14, source 6; Alamy/Album, 3.11, source 4; Alamy/ART Collection, 3.16, source 1; Alamy/Azoor Photo, 3.26, source 13; Alamy/Entertainment Pictures, 3.9, source 1; Alamy/Granger Historical Picture Archive, 3.39, source 14; Alamy/Heritage Image Partnership Ltd, 3.21, source 7; Alamy/ Kisler Creations, 3.2, source 2; Alamy/National Geographic Image Collection, 3.38, source 13; Alamy/PRISMA ARCHIVO, 3.7, source 5; Alamy/The Print Collector, 3.15, source 8, 3.21, source 8; DK Images/Richard Bonson, 3.12–3.13, source 5, 3.22–3.23, source 9; Getty/ DEA / G. DAGLI ORTI, 3.2, source 3, 3.26, source 15; Photo by Brendan Foley, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, 3.30, source 3, Shutterstock pp. 124, source 1, 3.3, source 4, 3.3, source 5, 3.4, source 1, 3.6, source 4, 3.8, source 4, 3.9, source 2, 3.10, source 3, 3.15, source 7, 3.18, source 4, 3.24–3.25, tree, 3.31, columns, 3.34, source 8 & 9, 3.37, source 12, 3.40, source 16, 3.41, background.

Chapter 4: Alamy/ Heritage Image Partnership Ltd, p. 140, source 11; Alamy/ The Picture Art Collection, p. 152, source 30; Alamy/Adam Eastland Art + Architecture, p. 129, source 5; Alamy/Album, p. 135, source 2; Alamy/Azoor Photo Collection, p. 141, source 15; Alamy/ CFimages, p. 149, source 27; Alamy/Granger Historical Picture Archive, p. 145, source 32; Alamy/Heritage Image Partnership Ltd, p. 128, source 3; Alamy/Ian Dagnall, p. 140, source 12; Alamy/IanDagnall Computing, p. 139, source 10; Alamy/Ivy Close Images, p. 131, source 3; Alamy/Lanmas, p. 136, source 4; Alamy/mambo, p. 139, source 9; Alamy/robertharding, pp. 129, source 4, 130, source 1, 155, source 35; Alamy/The Print Collector, p. 137, source 7, p. 157, source 2; Alamy/Universal Images Group North America LLC, p. 167, source 8; Bridgeman Art Library/ Look and Learn, p. 147, source 23, p. 164, source 4; English Heritage Photo Library, p. 146, source 22; Getty/DEA / G. DAGLI ORTI, pp. 141, source 13 & 14, 142, source 16; Getty/ SSPL, p. 170, source 10; © Mimmo Jodice, p. 143, source 17; National Trust Images/Ian Shaw, p. 147, source 24; Shutterstock, pp. 126, source 1, 148, source 2, 138, source 8, 144, source 19, 146, source 21, 153, source 31, 154, source 33, 156. background, 158, source 3, 159, source 5, 160–161, background, 165, source 6, 166, source 7, 173, source 13, 174, source 14, 175, background.

Part C: Shutterstock, pp. 176–177 background, 181, source 6.

Chapter 5 (obook): Alamy/ Album, 5.30, source 4; Alamy/ ephotocorp, 5.30, source 5; Alamy/ Topcris, 5.23, source 9; Alamy/Anders Blomqvist, 5.11, source 11; Alamy/CPA Media Pte Ltd, 5.9, source 9; Alamy/Dinodia Photos, 5.25, source 14; Alamy/Eddie Gerald, 5.26, source 15; Alamy/Jorge Royan, 5.20, source 5; Alamy/National Geographic Image Collection, 5.28, source 1; Alamy/Richard Wayman, 5.25, source 13; Alamy/Savo Ilic, 5.24, source 11; Alamy/Science History Images, 5.9, source 8; Bridgeman/© Look and Learn, 5.3, source 6; Bridgeman/National Geographic Image Collection, 5.12, source 12; DK Images, 5.35, source 12; Getty/Barcroft Media, 5.20, source 6; Getty/DEA / G. NIMATALLAH, 5.31, source 6; Getty/Historical Picture Archive, 5.24, source 10; Getty/INDRANIL MUKHERJEE / Stringer, 5.21, source 8; inmagine/Dinodiarf, 5.35, source 13; Shutterstock, p. 182, source 1, 5.2, source 2 & 3, 5.3, source 4 & 5, 5.4, source 1, 5.5, source 3, 5.6, source 4, 5.8, source 6, 5.9, source 7, 5.13, background, 5.15, source 1, 5.16, source 4, 5.18, source 2, 5.19, source 3 & 4, 5.22, background, 5.24, source 12, 5.29, source 3, 5.31, source 7, 5.32 background, 5.33, source 10, 5.34, source 11, 5.35, source 14, 5.36, source 15.

Chapter 6: AKG images, p. 216, source 1, Alamy, p. 221, source 10 right, Alamy/ China Images, p. 192, source 5, Alamy/ Keren Su/China Span, p. 194, source 1, Alamy/Artokoloro, p. 192, source 6, Alamy/Granger Historical Picture Archive, p. 193, source 7, Alamy/Historic Illustrations, p. 201, source 5, Alamy/Imaginechina Limited, p. 211, source 26, Alamy/Keren Su/China Span, p. 211, source 25, Alamy/Leonardo Lazo, p. 218, source 4, Alamy/Peter Horree, p. 200, source 4, Alamy/Photo 12, p. 200, source 3, Alamy/Science Photo Library, p. 203, source 9, Alamy/View Stock, pp. 207, source 18, 221, source 10 left; Alamy/World History Archive, pp. 133, source 21, 223, source 12; Alamy/ZUMA Press, Inc., p. 187, source 13; Bridgeman/© Archives Charmet, p. 187, source 3; © Charles & Josette Lenars, p. 199, source 2; DK Images/Richard Bonson, p. 213, source 30; Getty/Cancan Chu, p. 208, source 20; Getty/China Photos, p. 195, source 4; Getty/AFP, p. 203, source 10; Getty/Barney Burstein, pp. 187, source 4, 217, source 2; Getty/DEA / G. DAGLI ORTI, pp. 206, source 16 & 17, 220, source 9; Getty/Gerhard Joren, p. 203, source 11; Getty/Historical Picture Archive, p. 185, source 14; Inmagine, pp. 202, source 7, 206, source 15, 214, source 31; Picture Media/Ho New/Reuters, p. 207, source 19; Shutterstock, pp. 184, source 1, 186, source 2, 188, source 1, 189, source 2, 191, source 4, 193, background & source 8, 194, source 2, 195, source 5, 196, source 6, 197, source 7, 201, source 6, 211, source 27, 212, source 28, 213, source 29, 219, source 5, 222, source 11, 223, source 13, 224, background.

Part D: Alamy, pp. 247, source 24/Adam Eastland, 240, source 14/Bildagentur Online, 241, source 15/Granger Historical Picture Archive, 242, source 17 (left) /The History Collection, 237, source 10/isogood, 20–21/Royal Armouries Museum, 236, source 9; AKG, p. 235, source 8; Bridgeman Images, pp. 239, source 13, 242, source 17 (right), 244, source 19, 246, sources 22, 23/Christie's Images, 244, source 20/Look and Learn, 232, source 4; Shutterstock, pp. 234, source 7, 237, source 11, 238, source 12, 241, source 16, 242, source 17 (far left), 242, source 17 (far right), 245, source 21.

Chapter 7: Alamy, pp. 251, source 5, 267, source 7, 274, source 22, 275, source 23/AF Archive, 281, source 9/Album, 266, source 4, 268, source 10/Arctic Images, 264, source 1/Aurelian Images, 282, source 11/Granger Historical Picture Library, 278, sources 3, 5, 280, source 7/Heritage Image Partnership, 256, source 9/Ciaran Kelly, 261, source 21/Max Mumby, 256, source 8/Shawshots, 280, source 8; Bridgeman, pp. 270, source 16/Boltin Picture Library, 256, source 10; British Museum, p. 268, source 11; Getty Images, pp. 250, source 3, 272, source 19, 278, source 2; Shutterstock, pp. 248, 251, source 4, 252, source 2, 258, 263, 366, source 5, 273, source 20, 276, 281, source 10, 282, source 12.

Chapter 8: Alamy, pp. Album, 313, source 11, 317, sources 18, 19, 327, source 8/Zvonimir Atletic, 320, source 1/Aurelian Images, 290, source 5/Classic Image, 314, source 13/Luis Dafos, 122, source 12/Granger Historical Picture Library, 289, source 3/Glasshouse Images, 311, source 6/GL Archive, 327, source 9/Heritage Pics, 286, source 3/The History Collection, 291, source 7/Angelo Hornak, 320, source 2/Peter Horree, 319, source 20/Ben Molyneux, 329, source 13/The Protected Art Archive, 293, source 11, 307, source 1; Bridgeman Images, pp. 287, source 4, 293, source 13, 294, source 15, 311, source 8, 312, source 10/British Library Board, 311, source 7, 317, source 17; Getty Images, pp. 304, source 29/Bettman, 287, source 5/Corbis Historical, 292, source 9, 315, source 14/De Agostini Picture Library, 299, source 23, 301, source 25, 321, source 4; Shutterstock, pp. 284, 100, source 2, 295, source 16, 298, 302, sources 26, 233, 303, source 28, 305, source 30, 306, 312, source 9, 416, source 16, 318, 324, source 6, 326–327, 331.

Chapter 9 (obook): Alamy/Album, 9.19, source 3/Jon Arnold Images, 9.12, source 15/CPA Media, 9.5, source 3, 9.20, source 6/Peter Eastland, 9.27, source 18/Efrain Padro, 9.14, source 18/Everett Collection Historical, 9.26, source 16/Granger Historical Picture Library, 9.20, source 4/Shirlee Klasson, 9.7, source 6/The Picture Art Collection, 9.10, source 11, 9.12, source 14/PJR Statues, 9.28, source 20/Science History Images, 9.25, source 14/World History Archive, 9.3, source 5; Bridgeman Images, 9.4, source 1, 9.20, sources 5, 7, 9.9, sources 9, 10/De Agostini 9.2, source 2; Getty Images, pp. 9.2, source 3, 9.13, source 16/De Agostini 129, source 4, 9.6, source 4, 9.7, source 7, 9.8, source 8/Moment, 9.3, source 6; Shutterstock, p. 332, 9.11, sources 12, 13, 9.13, source 17, 9.14, source 19, 9.16, 9.18, 9.23, source 12, 9.24, source 13, 9.27, source 17.

Chapter 10 (obook): Alamy, pp. Agenda Forum, 10.16, source 2/Album, 10.12, source 19/Classic Image, 10.4, source 1/Classicpaintings, 10.2, source 3/Adam Eastland, 10.19, source 8/GL Archive, 10.3, source 6, 10.13, source 22, 10.17, source 4/Granger Historical Picture Archive, 10.12, source 20/Granger Historical Picture Library, 10.20, source 11/Dennis Hallinan, 10.22, source 15/Heritage Image Partnership, 10.14, source 2/The History Collection, 10.3, source 4/National Geographic Image Collection, 10.3, source 5/Painting, 10.7, source 7/Tomka, 10.10, source 14; Bridgeman Images, 10.5, source 3, 10.8, source 8, 10.9, source 11, 10.10, source 13, 10.11, source 15, 10.24, source 17/Nicola Orsi Battaglini, 10.9, source 9/Raffaello Bencini, 10.9, source 10, 10.17, source 10; Getty Images, pp. Corbis Historical, 10.7, sources 5, 4, 10.11, source 16/De Agostini, 10.7, source 6, 10.21, source 12/Universal Images Group, 10.20, source 9; Shutterstock, p. 334, 10.2, source 2, 10.10, source 12, 10.11, source 18, 10.14, 10.15, source 1, 10.17, source 5, 10.18, source 7, 10.21, source 13, 10.23, source 16.

Part E: Alamy, pp. 336–337; Bridgeman Images, p. 341, source 8; Getty Images, pp. 340, source 7/iStockPhotos, 338, source 1; Shutterstock, pp. 338, sources 3, 4, 339, source 5, 340, source 6.

Chapter 11 (obook): Alamy/Design Pics Inc, pp. 11.19, sources 1, 2/Robert Harding, 11.24, source 11/David Stout, 11.3, source 5/David Wall, 11.20, source 4, 11.27; Getty Images, pp. 11.12, source 13, 11.16, source 19/iStockPhoto, 11.21, source 7/Photodisc, 11.21, source 6/Tang Chin Sothy, 11.11, source 11/Thierry Tronnel, 11.2, source 3, 11.11, source 12; Shutterstock, p. 342, 11.17, 11.3, source 4, 11.5, source 2, 11.5, sources 3, 4, 11.7, source 6, 11.8, source 7, 11.9, source 8, 11.10, sources 9, 10, 11.15, 11.18-11.19, 11.20, source 3, 11.20, source 5, 11.22, source 8, 11.23, source 9, 11.25, source 12.

Chapter 12: Alamy, pp.350. source 3/Archive Farms, 352, source 7/Glasshouse Images, 368, source 10/Heritage Image Partnership, 358, source 16/Historic Images, 356, source 14/North Wind Picture Archives, 347, source 5/The Print Collector, 369, source 11/Prisma Archivo, 360, source 20/Pump Park Vintage, 352, source 6; Bridgeman Images, pp. 351, source 5/Archives Charmet, 370, source 14, 360, source 19/De Agostini 252, source 8; Getty Images, pp. Asian Art and Archaeology, 370, source 15/De Agostini, 346, source 2, 347, source 6, 357, source 15, 360, source 21, 362, source 1, 364, source 5/Michael Maslan, 351, source 4/The Print Collector, 363, source 3/VCG Wilson, 356, source 13; Shutterstock, pp. 344, 346, source 3, 347, source 4, 349, source 2, 354, source 11, 355, source 12, 359, source 17, 361, 371.

Chapter 13: AAP Image, p. 390, source 4; Alamy, pp. 380, source 10, 386, source 21, 395, source 13/Agefotostock, 378, source 6/All Canada Photos, 386, source 22/DOD Photo, 384, source 20/Bob Elam, 394, source 10/Florilegius, 375, source 5, 392, source 7/Imagebroker, 383, source 17/The Natural History Museum, 392, source 8/Travel Pix, 377, source 3/David Wall, 377, source 4; Art Archive, 396, source 14; Getty Images, pp. 380, source 9, 384 source 19, 389, sources 1, 8, 390, source 3/De Agostini, 382, source 16, 391, source 6/Gamma Rapho, 387, source 23/National Geographic, 375, source 4/SSPL, 381, source 13/Phil Walter, 391, source 5; Shutterstock, pp. 372, 374, source 3, 376, source 1, 378, source 5, 381, source 11, 381, source 14, 382, source 15, 385, 388, 394, source 11, 397.

Part F: Alamy, pp. Mint Images Limited, 403, source 6/National Geographic Image Collection, 400, source 1/Photo 12, 402, source 4/David Robertson, 404, source 7; Getty Images/De Agostini, pp. 401, source 2, 403, source 5/Gwt, 406/National Geographic, 402, source 3; Shutterstock, 398–399.

Chapter 14 (obook): Alamy, pp. 14.3, source 5, 14.20, source 9/A bin, 14.2, source 3/Chronicle, 14.23, source 11/Danita Delimont, 14.6, source 5/GL Archive, 14.22, source 10/Mauritius Images, 14.7, source 6/National Geographic Image, 14.6, source 4, 14.7, source 8/TAO Images, 14.7, sources 7, 9/Pauline Taylor, 14.11, source 14; Bridgeman Images, 14.13, source 4, 14.8, source 11, 14.16, source 5, 14.18, source 8;/University of Edinburgh, 14.15, source 3; Getty Images, pp. Historical Picture Archive, 14.10, source 13/Pictures Ltd, 14.2, source 2; Shutterstock, pp. 14.4, source 1, 14.5, source 3, 14.12, 14.13, source 1, 14.17, source 6, 14.21, 14.9, source 12, 14.28–14.29.

Chapter 15: Alamy, pp. 427, source 3/Art Collection, 436, source 1/Heritage Partnership, 434, source 15/Hirachivum Press, 413, source 2/imac, 419, source 11/Interfoto, 411, source 5/Niday Picture Library, 440, source 7/Prisma Archivo, 429, source 9/David Robertson, 411, source 4/William Robinson, 408-9/Science History Images, 418, source 10/Science Photo Library, 431, source 13; Bridgeman Images, pp. 417, sources 8, 9, 421, source 17, 438, source 4, 443, source 9/Archives Charmet, 419, source 12/Index Fototeca, 430, source 10/Look and Learn, 414, source 3/University of Edinburgh, 430, source 11; Getty Images, pp. 427, source 6/Bettman, 419, source 12, 420, source 14, 437, source 3/De Agostini, 423, source 19/John Downer, 427, source 2/Hulton Archive, 416, source 7/David Lees, 420, source 15/Barry Lewis, 412, source 1; Science Photo Library, pp. 426, source 1, 427, source 4; Shutterstock, pp. 414, source 4, 422, source 18, 424–425, 442–443, 442, source 8.

Chapter 16: Alamy, pp. Eye Ubiquitous, 456, source 16/The Granger Collection, 468, source 14/Granger Historical Picture Library, 446, source 2, 462, source 5, 470, source 16/Heritage Image Partnership, 460, source 1/Peter Horree, 455, source 12/Eric Nathan, 469, source 15/Niday Picture Library, 456, source 17/Science History Images, 447, source 3; Bridgeman Images, pp. 453, source 10, 454, source 11, 455, source 14, 464, source 8, 465, source 10/Archives Charmet 363, source 7, 466, source 12/Boltin Picture Library, 450, source 4/Look and Learn, 461, source 4; British Museum, 461, source 3; Getty Images, pp. 455, source 13/Bettman, 452, source 8/De Agostini, 449, source 3, 457, source 18/Kevin Fleming, 452, source 7/Leemage 451, source 6; Shutterstock, pp. 444–445, 458–459, 459, source 20, 470–471, 470, source 17.

Chapter 17: Alamy, pp. Art Collection, 475, source 5/Chronicle, 481, source 13/Danita Delimont, 478, source 4/Granger Historical Picture Library 382, source 14, 483, source 15, 486, source 22/Hirachivum Press, 479, source 9/The History Collection, 486, source 23/Icongraphic Archive, 498, source 15/KRCrowley, 478, source 5/Photo 12, 475, source 5/Science Photo Library, 474, source 2/Tango Images, 487, source 24; Bridgeman Images, pp. 379, sources 7, 8, 483, source 16, 497, source 14; FairfaxPhotos, p. 501, source 19; Getty Images, p. 487, source 25; National Library of Australia, pp. 495, source 10, 499, source 16, 505, source 23, 507, source 24; Shutterstock, pp. 473–474, 477, source 2, 480, source 11, 488–489, 494, 499, source 17, 502–503, 506–507; State Library of Victoria 396, source 11.

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150°W
120°W
90°W
60°W
30°W
0°
30°E
60°N
30°N
0°
30°S
60°S
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Antarctic Circle
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O C E A N
A T L A N T I C
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ANTARCTICA
LEGEND
Country border
Disputed country border
Country capital city
Azores (Portugal)
Dependency
N
0
1000
2000
3000 km
SCALE 1:77 000 000 at 40°N and S
1 centimetre on the map measures 770 kilometres on the ground.
Modified Times Projection



During outbreaks of the plague in medieval Europe, towns and cities hired plague doctors to help treat victims of the disease. Some plague doctors wore beak-like masks that were filled with strong-smelling substances such as mint, spices, garlic, flowers or vinegar, in the hope that this would protect them from disease. This image shows a reconstructed plague doctor uniform.

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