

CHAPTER

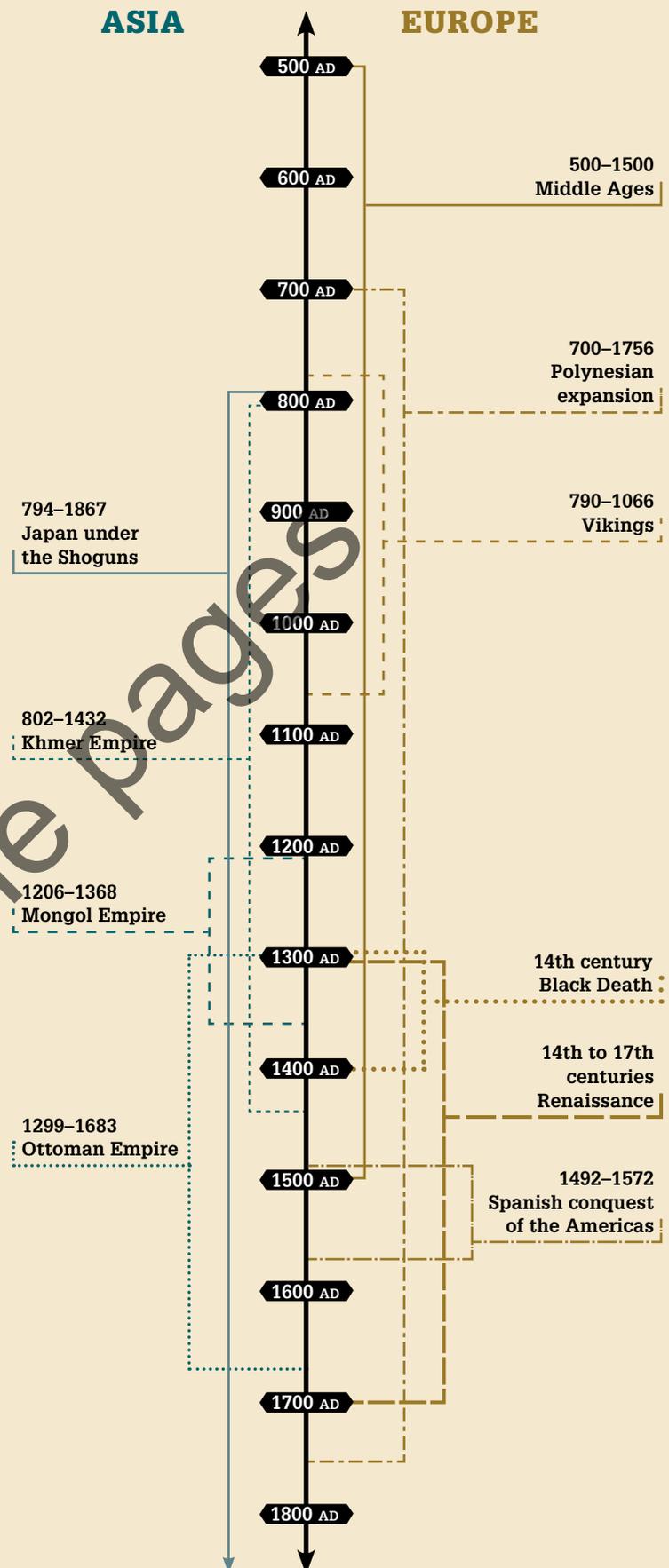
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Overview: the ancient to the modern world

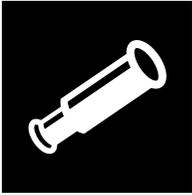
After the fall of Rome, societies in Europe, the Middle East and Asia changed significantly. Across medieval Europe, society was organised under **feudalism**. The Catholic Church became the most powerful force in Europe. Beginning in Italy, a new interest in the ancient classical civilisations led to the **Renaissance**. This was also the age of exploration. Europeans 'discovered' and **colonised** other parts of the world.

In the Middle East, the Islamic religion spread and became a powerful force. In present-day Turkey, the Ottoman Empire emerged. Religious clashes between Christians and Muslims occurred in a series of wars known as the **Crusades**. In Asia, a number of powerful empires grew and declined again; people travelled great distances to populate the Polynesian regions.

Source 1.0.1 Ottoman forces preparing for battle outside the walls of Rhodes in 1480, from *A History of the Siege of Rhodes* by Guillaume Caoursin, 1483



Source 1.0.2 Timeline of key periods and events between ancient and modern times



UNIT 1.1

The end of the Roman Empire

Decline of an empire

Historians often date the fall of the Roman Empire as the year 476 AD, when the last emperor of the Western Roman Empire, Romulus Augustus, was overthrown by the **barbarian** chief Odoacer. However, the decline actually took place over the preceding three centuries. Two major changes in the Roman Empire that historians believe had an impact on its long-term viability were the empire becoming Christian and its split into two empires: East and West.

Rome becomes Christian

From the first century AD, Christians in the Roman Empire were only found in small groups in the larger cities, especially in the east. Under some emperors, they were subject to persecution. Nero, for example, blamed them for the Great Fire of Rome in 64 AD. Christians were frequently killed or imprisoned, often because they refused to worship the emperor.

This persecution came to an end when Constantine the Great (reigned 306–337) passed a law declaring religious tolerance, largely because he himself had converted to Christianity.

Christianity spreads

Christianity then spread quickly, although Christians argued among themselves. In 325, the Council of Nicaea established one Christian doctrine. This became generally accepted throughout the empire. Christianity became the dominant religion and even spread beyond the Roman Empire. Most of the later Roman emperors were Christians, as were most of the barbarians they fought against. As one of the basic tenets (principles) of Christianity was the promotion of peace or pacificism, historians argue that this changed the previously aggressive nature of the Roman Empire.

The split into East and West

By the end of the third century, the Roman Empire was so large in area and faced so many problems that it was impossible for one emperor to maintain control. The greatest problem was the need to continually fight wars against both barbarians outside the empire and ambitious generals within it. Under Emperor Diocletian (reigned 285–305), the empire was split into two administrative areas. It made sense to have two emperors, one based in Constantinople (now Istanbul) and one in Rome.

Two empires

The Western Empire, ruled by Maximian, included England, Spain, France, Italy and parts of Germany. All Roman territory east of Italy was in the Eastern Empire, ruled by Diocletian. Each empire was further split into two subordinate divisions. This system of administration was called the **tetrarchy**, meaning four leaders.

The fall of Rome

The Western Empire was left vulnerable to barbarian invasions when the capital was moved from Rome to Constantinople. Rome was again split into two after a brief period of reunification in the fourth century, with the west being ruled first from Milan then Ravenna. Fierce attacks on the Western Empire followed from the Ostrogoths, Huns, Franks and Visigoths.

In 410, the German tribe the Visigoths captured and sacked the city of Rome and the rest of the Western Empire. In 455, Rome was again attacked and seriously damaged by another German tribe, the Vandals. The Goth attack led by Odoacer in 476 ended the Western Roman Empire.

The Eastern Roman Empire continued as the Byzantine Empire until 1453, when Constantinople was conquered by the Ottoman Turks.



Source 1.1.1
Routes of the Barbarian attacks on the Eastern and Western Roman empires in 415 AD

The final decline

There are a number of reasons for the final decline of the Roman Empire:

- Barbarian tribes were moving into Roman territory. These migrations were not necessarily destructive, but they had their own culture and leaders. There was a dilution of Roman ways and no interest in keeping the Western Empire together.
- The empire was too big, and communication and movement of troops and supplies took a long time over such distances.
- The army was greatly weakened, largely due to mercenary barbarians who were in the military. This resulted in a loss of loyalty to the Roman Empire and a decrease in military standards.
- There were economic difficulties caused by inflation and increased taxes to fund the army, and growing unrest among common people.
- Internal fighting among Roman generals vying for power diverted attention from protecting the empire.

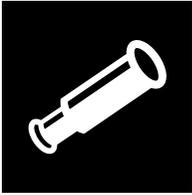
ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Outline how Christians were treated before and after the rule of Constantine the Great.
- 2 Why did Diocletian divide the empire?

Applying and analysing

- 3 Explain why Christianity and the splitting of the empire into two would have had a long-term effect on its strength.
- 4 Rank the reasons given for the final decline of Rome in order from most significant to least significant. Justify your ranking.



UNIT 1.2

Two major religions

Christianity

Beliefs of Christianity

Followers of Jesus Christ are called Christians. Christianity is a **monotheistic** religion as its followers believe in one God and that Jesus Christ was his son, sent to live among people as a man to save humanity from their sins. Their sacred book is called the Bible. Jesus Christ taught that everyone should love God and love one's neighbour.

Jesus Christ

Jesus Christ was born sometime between 6 and 4 BC in Bethlehem, Palestine. He was often also called Jesus of Nazareth or Jesus of Galilee. His followers believed him to be the Son of God and his teachings were recorded by his disciples among others in the New Testament of the Bible. He was crucified by the Romans in Jerusalem around 30 AD and his followers believe that Jesus was resurrected after three days and ascended to heaven. Afterwards, his teachings spread throughout the Roman Empire and then Europe, and are still followed by many people today.

Medieval Christianity

For much of the medieval period, Christianity was the dominant religion in Europe and Turkey. However, Christianity was not truly united. In the early eleventh century, the only Christian Church, the Catholic Church (the word 'catholic' means 'universal'), began to split into two divisions. In the west, largely in Europe, was the Roman Catholic Church. Its spiritual home and central administration were in Rome. In the east was the Eastern Orthodox Church. Constantinople was its administrative centre.

The Roman Church

The power of the Catholic Church

The head of the Roman Catholic Church was called the Pope. The Pope did not rule a large area directly, but he was powerful because the majority of people in Europe were devout Christians. The Church influenced all aspects of people's lives. Christians believed that those who worshipped God and obeyed the Church would go to heaven. The Catholic Church effectively gave them rules by which to live. In addition, most people paid a **tithe** and many nobles left money or land to the Church in their wills.



Source 1.2.1 St Peter's Basilica, Vatican City, Rome, Italy

The Church was a major landowner and therefore a very wealthy institution. It had its own laws regulating its structure and procedures, called **canon law**. Many cathedrals, some of which took hundreds of years to build, remain intact today. These serve as an illustration of the wealth and power of the Church.

The structure of the Catholic Church

Under the Pope, the Church was divided into administrative units called dioceses, which were headed by bishops or archbishops. Cardinals advised the Pope and elected a new one when necessary. Monasteries and nunneries, where men and women who had taken religious vows resided, were run by abbots and abbesses. Abbots and abbesses were very influential, as they often advised kings and lords. It was not unusual for them to be members of noble families themselves.

At the bottom of the Church hierarchy were friars and priests. These were the members of the Church with whom most people came into regular contact. Friars and priests conducted services and told stories from the Bible, as most people could not read. Friars, in particular, were famous for helping poor people. Priests were often in charge of a local area called a parish. The language of the Catholic Church was Latin. In addition, the Pope ruled over a large area personally, called the Papal States, which are now part of modern Italy.

The Eastern Orthodox Church

Orthodox believers did not recognise the authority of the Pope. In fact, the head of the Church was the emperor. He was responsible for the major appointments and controlled most of the Church's funds. However, like the Catholic Church, the Eastern Orthodox Church had monasteries and dioceses. By the end of the thirteenth century, with the rise of the Ottoman Empire (in what is now Turkey), Islam took over the territory of much of the Orthodox Church and became the dominant religion.

This meant that Christians became a minority in many countries in Eastern Europe and Christianity ceased to be the state religion. By comparison, Christianity not only retained but also strengthened its political position and power in Western Europe.

The importance of monasteries

The monasteries of both branches of the Christian Church were centres of learning. Many monks could read and write very well. Many of the monks in monasteries devoted their time to copying important books and had libraries that were large for that time. In some cases they preserved texts from the ancient world that would otherwise have been lost. This included the works of great philosophers, playwrights and political figures.



Source 1.2.2 A vellum page from a Bible produced in the Netherlands in 1443 by scribe Gerard Wesselz. van Deventer, National Library of the Netherlands, The Hague

Islam

Beliefs of Islam

Followers of Islam are called Muslims. Islam, like Christianity, is a monotheistic religion. Muslims believe that the prophet Muhammad was God's last and most important prophet. Their sacred book is called the Qur'an. All Muslims are required to perform five basic acts, called the 'Five Pillars of Islam':

- Every Muslim must say they believe in one God and that Muhammad is His prophet.
- A Muslim should pray five times a day.
- Those who can afford it should give money to the poor.
- For one month every year, during Ramadan, Muslims do not eat or drink between sunrise and sunset. This month is to encourage believers to think about God and to be grateful for the good things in their lives.
- Anyone who can afford it should go on **pilgrimage** to the city of Mecca at least once.

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*In the name of Allah, most gracious,  
most merciful.  
Praise be to Allah the cherisher and  
sustainer of the worlds:  
Most gracious, most merciful;  
Master of the Day of Judgement.  
Thee do we worship,  
And Thine aid we seek.*  
~~~~~

Source 1.2.3 Opening chapter of the Qur'an, trans. General Presidency of the Departments of Islamic Researches, 1984

The prophet Muhammad

Muhammad was born in Mecca, in what is now Saudi Arabia, around 570 AD. He spent much of his life as a trader. Muslims believe the archangel Gabriel spoke to Muhammad, commanding him to recite poetry, which later became part of the Qur'an. Muhammad began to preach and built a reputation as a spiritual, then political and military leader. He was especially good at helping Arabian tribes to end their disagreements.

The spread of Islam

The influence and power of Islam spread very quickly, partly through military conquest. By the time Muhammad died in 632, Islam had united all the tribes of Arabia. Afterwards, it continued to expand, even though there were disagreements among Muhammad's followers about who would be the new leader of the Islamic community. By 750, Islamic governments ruled from Spain, across North Africa, Arabia and through Iran and Iraq to Afghanistan. Some of this territory they took from the Byzantine Empire. Islam gathered followers even in places outside of Arabic or north African influence, for example among the Turks. The Islamic political system was called the **caliphate**, because it was ruled by a caliph.

Christianity and Islam meet

Christian countries were uneasy about the expansion of Islam. Places that Christians regarded as holy, like Jerusalem, were now ruled by Muslims. These places were also regarded as being holy according to Islam.



Source 1.2.4
Journey to
Mecca 2013

Historians differ in opinion about the early sources of disagreement between Christians and Muslims. Some historians argue that the disagreements were primarily about religion. Others argue that many of the disagreements were not based on religion itself, but were founded instead in concerns about lucrative trade routes to China, and access to resources and power. Christianity and Islam clashed violently during the **Crusades** of the eleventh to thirteenth centuries.

Contributions of Islam

Over time, Islamic civilisation became wealthy and sophisticated. Cities like Baghdad and Damascus became large centres of trade and learning, partly through patronage by the caliphs, the Muslim leaders. Scholars investigated mathematics, the sciences, medicine and history. Islamic doctors understood the importance of cleanliness well before European doctors. There were free hospitals in the larger Muslim cities.

Traders had sophisticated ships that enabled them to travel across the Mediterranean rather than just along the coast. Many beautiful buildings, a large number of them mosques, were built throughout the Islamic world.

The value of many works from ancient Greece and Rome was recognised by Islamic scholars, and these works were then preserved. Scholars translated these works into Arabic so scientists and researchers could use them. Later, the preservation of these texts contributed to European culture, with important results.

DID YOU KNOW?

Ahmad ibn Fadlan was a tenth-century Arab traveller and legal expert. He was sent by the caliph of Baghdad on a mission to the Bulgars on the river Volga. On the way he met people he described as 'tall as palm trees'. He was impressed by their appearance but disgusted by their lack of hygiene, although they brushed their hair regularly. They were tattooed 'from fingernails to neck' and always carried an axe and a long knife. He called them the 'Rus' (from which we get the name 'Russia'), but we call them the Vikings.

The city of Baghdad formed two vast semi-circles on the right and left banks of the Tigris, twelve miles in diameter. The numerous suburbs, covered with parks, gardens, villas and beautiful promenades, and plentifully supplied with rich bazaars, and finely built mosques and baths, stretched for a considerable distance on both sides of the river.

Source 1.2.5 A description of Baghdad around 800 AD from the *Geographical Encyclopedia* by Yakut, in W.S. Davis (ed.), *Readings in Ancient History: Illustrative Extracts from the Sources*, Vol. II, Allyn and Bacon, 1912–13, pp. 365–7

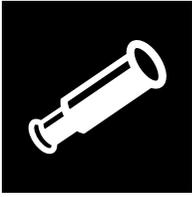
ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Identify the sources of wealth for the Catholic Church in the Middle Ages.
- 2 Describe the relationship between the Byzantine emperor and the Orthodox Church.
- 3 How did Islamic civilisation contribute to learning and research?
- 4 List some of the causes of disagreement between Christians and Muslims.

Applying and analysing

- 5 Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast Christianity and Islam.
- 6 Examine Source 1.2.1. What does this building tell you about the civilisation that built it?
- 7 Examine Source 1.2.2. Brainstorm a list of the skills needed to produce this book.
- 8 Read Source 1.2.3. What conclusions can you draw about Muslim beliefs from this description of Allah?
- 9 Read Source 1.2.5. Sketch Baghdad from the description given.



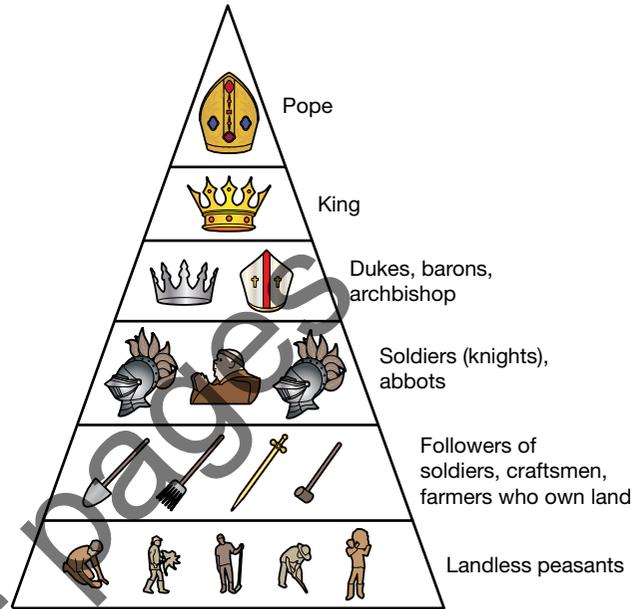
UNIT 1.3

Feudalism

A medieval system of governance

Feudalism was the dominant political system in Europe between the ninth and fifteenth centuries. It was a system of structuring society based on mutual dependency and obligation. In England, the Normans, led by William the Conqueror, imposed feudalism on the largely Saxon population in England, after defeating the Saxon king, Harold Godwinson, at the Battle of Hastings in 1066 AD.

Generally, a king or emperor did not have a large enough army or enough educated men available to him to rule effectively over a large territory. The feudal system addressed this problem by giving land to important lords who were required, in return, to fight for the king if necessary and ensuring the continued wealth of the country through its agricultural production.



Source 1.3.1 The feudal system

The feudal system

The Pope was at the peak of the feudal system. The king was only accountable to the Pope. The king then gave land, called 'fiefs', to important nobles, who became **vassals** of the king. The king became the liege lord of the vassals. In return the nobles were obliged to provide military support to the king in time of war. In turn, nobles would give land to knights, also under the condition that they would provide military support to the noble when required. Knights and the lord allowed peasants use of land to grow food for their needs and provided them with protection. In return, peasants provided labour, food and service to their superiors, but had no rights.

Power of the nobles

In some parts of Europe the lords became more or less independent. They had their own armies and often very strong legal authority within their **fiefdoms**. In fact for most people, crimes or other legal issues were not handled by the king, but by the local lord. Lords also controlled their land's resources, which could include forests, mines and fisheries. In many places no one was allowed to hunt without the permission of the lord. Some fiefdoms became very rich and powerful, to the point where they could defy the king.

Other groups

Feudalism was based on the willingness of those lower in the structure to defend and fight for their lord, in return for land and protection. However, not everybody was a fighter. There were two other groups: the clergy and the commoners.



Source 1.3.2 Knights pledging their allegiance to Emperor Charlemagne in France (742–814), from a Venetian codex (vellum), Italian school (fourteenth century), Biblioteca Marciana, Venice, Italy

The clergy

The clergy were religious officials such as priests, pastors and bishops. The higher clergy were effectively nobles, while the lower clergy had a great deal in common with ordinary people. The Pope had the power to excommunicate or banish anyone from the Church, removing from them the chance to be forgiven for their sins. By contrast, priests communicated with ordinary people, preaching the word of God and delivering the messages of the Bible. Priests, monks and nuns also fulfilled important social functions, educating, caring for the sick and offering shelter to those in need.

Commoners

The commoners were normally peasants. Peasants sometimes owned the land they worked on. Others, sometimes called 'serfs', did not. Instead they grew crops and kept animals on land owned by lords. In return, they gave some of what they produced to the landowner, and used the rest to survive.

They might also assist in maintaining the land. The role of the landowner was to provide justice and armed protection in case of attack from outsiders. There were also commoners who were tradesmen, such as blacksmiths, carpenters and stonemasons.

Most people lived in the country, but there were towns where some commoners started to make more money through business. This group of people gradually increased in number, wealth and influence. This caused increasing tension in medieval society between the two social ranks: the commoners and the lords.

Robert de Romeny holds one knight's fee in the village of Steepleton for homage and his service from William de Leybourne, and he shall pay scutage, when it runs, for one shield viz. [that is]: forty shillings ...

Source 1.3.3 An extract from the Hundred Rolls of 1279, a census taken in England and Wales, which documented the feudal allegiances and obligations in place at the time

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Why was feudalism necessary to kings and emperors?
- 2 What responsibilities and duties did the vassal have?

Applying and analysing

- 3 Examine Source 1.3.2. This is called a commendation ceremony. In what ways would this source be useful to a historian studying feudal ceremonies?
- 4 Examine Source 1.3.3. With a partner, suggest why William of Leybourne might accept scutage (a tax paid in lieu of military service) from Robert de Romeny instead of military service itself.



UNIT 1.4 The Crusades

Christianity and Islam clash

Starting in 1095 AD and continuing for about 200 years, Christianity and Islam clashed in a series of wars known as the Crusades. A crusade was a military pilgrimage undertaken by European Christians to regain control of the Holy Land from the Muslims. Over this period there were nine separate crusades into the Middle East.

Reasons for the Crusades

Many places that Christians regarded as holy, such as Jerusalem, were under the control of Islamic governments. Many of these places were also holy to Muslims. Up until 1095, Muslims had allowed Christian pilgrims to visit Jerusalem. However, around this time, they forbade Christian pilgrims to enter Jerusalem and executed any who ignored their directive. As a result of these murders, Pope Urban II in 1095 called on Christians to fight to restore Christian control of these holy places.

All who die by the way, whether by land or by sea, or in battle against the pagans, shall have immediate remission of sins. This I grant them through the power of God with which I am invested. O what a disgrace if such a despised and base race, which worships demons, should conquer a people which has the faith of omnipotent God and is made glorious with the name of Christ!

Source 1.4.1 The speech by Pope Urban II calling for a crusade, Council of Clermont, France, 1095, in O.J. Thatcher and E.H. McNeal (eds), *A Source Book for Medieval History*, Scribners, New York, 1905, pp. 513–17



Source 1.4.2
The Crusader states in 1142

The Crusaders

Crusaders were from nearly all levels of society, from peasants to powerful lords. There were many reasons why people undertook such a difficult and dangerous journey, but generally it was for reasons of religious faith. Additionally, knights were keen to have the opportunity to use their fighting abilities, while peasants saw it as a means of escape from harsh lives. Many people hoped for adventure and wealth.

The early Crusades

The First Crusade (1096–1099) was planned to recapture Jerusalem and establish a Christian Holy Land. It succeeded, although many lives were lost in the process. The Crusader states were established. These were Edessa, Antioch, Tripoli and Jerusalem.

The Crusader states soon ran into major problems. In 1144, the city of Edessa fell to Islamic forces. This news was met with great alarm in Europe. Pope Eugene III called for the Second Crusade (1145–1149), which was a complete failure. The Crusaders attempted to capture Damascus, rather than retake Edessa, but were not able to achieve this.

The Third Crusade

In 1171, the Muslim general Saladin united Egypt and Syria under his rule, surrounding the Crusader states. In 1187, he captured Jerusalem and the important city of Acre. This caused uproar in Europe and, in response, several important rulers raised armies to go to the Holy Land. These included King Richard I of England, King Philip II of France and the Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick Barbarossa.

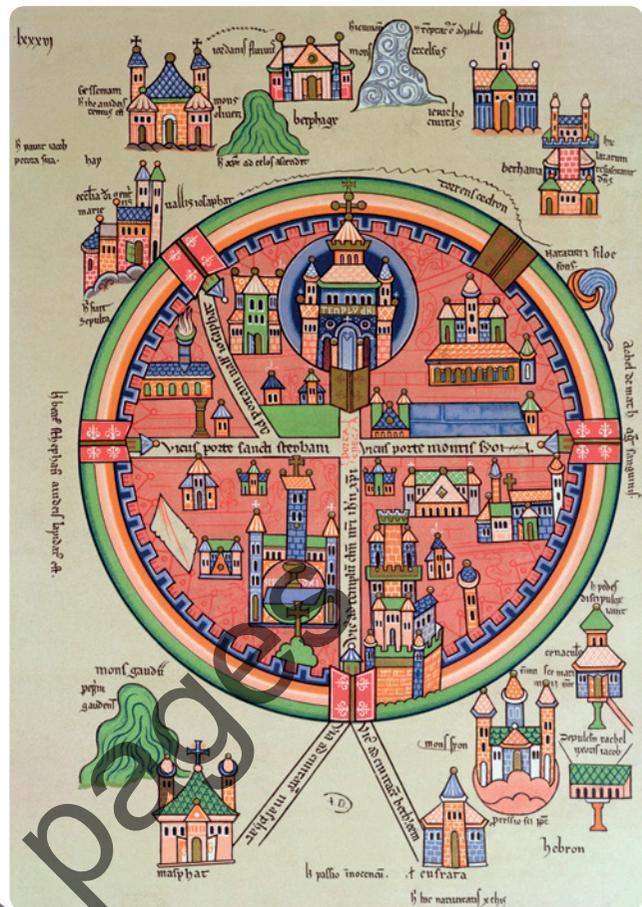
Largely because Richard was an effective general, the Crusaders were successful at first. They recaptured Acre, murdering many of the inhabitants. However, they were never able to retake Jerusalem, which had been their main aim. This was partly due to disagreements among the Crusader leaders. Their enemy, Saladin, also had to deal with internal problems. Eventually, a compromise was reached between the warring parties. Jerusalem would stay under Muslim rule, but Christian pilgrims would be allowed to visit the holy sites.

Later Crusades

The remaining Crusades were even less successful. Competition and disagreement among the European powers meant that Jerusalem was never retaken. This was partly because of religious and political differences between eastern and western Christianity, but also because of commercial disagreements between trading cities such as Genoa, Venice and Constantinople. In fact, the Fourth Crusade (1202–1204) invaded Constantinople, a Christian city.

The end of the Crusader states

The Crusader kingdoms were not long-lived. They were located in foreign lands, far away from military support. The County of Tripoli fell to an Islamic army in 1289. The last Christian city, Acre, fell in 1291.



Source 1.4.3 This medieval map of Jerusalem and Palestine, shows sacred sites, including the Temple of Solomon. Colour lithograph, nineteenth-century copy of a miniature from a chronicle of the Crusades of Robert Le Moine de Reims (completed before 1107), Musée des Arts Décoratifs, Paris, France

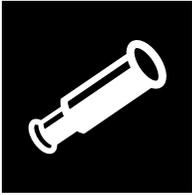
ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- Why did Pope Urban II call a crusade?
 - Examine Source 1.4.1. What did Pope Urban II believe about Muslims?
 - What did he offer people who went on crusade?
- List the Crusader states.
- Identify the reasons for the failure of:
 - the later Crusades
 - the Crusader states.

Applying and analysing

- Examine Source 1.4.3. What do you think were the important things about Jerusalem to the Crusaders?



UNIT 1.5

The rise of the Ottoman Empire

The origins of the Ottomans

The founders of the Ottoman Empire were the Turkic people, originally from central Asia. By the ninth century AD, they were important soldiers for the caliphs, the rulers of the Abbasid caliphate. As the caliphate declined in power, Turkish generals set up their own kingdoms, with their own soldiers and became independent. There were several different Turkish principalities and tribes.

The Turkish tribe that became the greatest threat to the Byzantine Empire was the Ottoman tribe. The Ottomans originated in a small area in Anatolia (now north-west Turkey). They gradually expanded across Turkey. The Ottoman Empire became one of the largest empires in the world. Osman I and his descendants ruled the empire for nearly 400 years. The empire was a dominant force from 1299 until its decline began in 1683.

The weakening of Constantinople

The Ottomans were able to capture Constantinople, the capital city of the Byzantine Empire, after it was weakened by the Fourth Crusade in 1204. While the Crusaders from Western Europe established a state around Constantinople, much of the rest of the Byzantine Empire broke up into smaller states. The focus of the Byzantine leaders was on maintaining control of Constantinople for its strategic position along major trade routes of the Aegean Sea, the Black Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. Eventually the Crusader rulers were overthrown, but then Constantinople was regularly attacked by other Crusaders, the Serbs, the Bulgarians and the Ottoman Turks. Additionally, there were outbreaks of the Black Death (the plague), which reduced the population of Constantinople dramatically.

Fearing the powerful Turks, the Byzantine emperor, Constantine XI, asked for assistance from the Western Roman Empire. Partly due to strong religious disagreements between the Eastern and Western branches of the Church, very little help was sent.

The capture of Constantinople

Meanwhile, the Ottomans were expanding into Anatolia. They also conquered Thrace, Macedonia and Bulgaria. Finally in 1453, the Ottoman Turks, led by Mehmed II, captured Constantinople. Constantinople was important to them because of its wealth and its position as a major trade centre.



Source 1.5.1 Troops of Mehmed II laying siege to Constantinople in 1453, fifteenth-century miniature, Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris, France

Further expansion

Ottoman power continued to expand after the capture of Constantinople, reaching its height under Suleiman the Magnificent (1520–1566) and his successors. The empire came to control all the land from Hungary in the north-west to Persia in the east, and Egypt in the south. It had a strong naval presence in the eastern Mediterranean and in the Red Sea. It was so powerful some people compared it to the Roman Empire.

Features of the Ottoman Empire

As Ottoman territory was very large and contained various peoples with many different languages and cultures, the Ottomans developed a sophisticated government. They allowed Christians and Jews the right to govern themselves within the empire, although young Christian men could be drafted into the military or the civil service.

The Ottomans also developed a rich culture. They traded over long distances, both by land and by sea. Their art and architecture were widely admired and examples such as the Süleymaniye Mosque still exist today.

Ottoman literature, especially poetry, drew on Arabic and Persian traditions and was sophisticated and beautiful. Ottoman authors wrote travel books, biographies and histories. Ottoman scientists studied the works of the Greeks, the Indians and the Persians, and so built on previous discoveries, especially in the area of astronomy.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Outline the reasons for the weakness of Constantinople from the thirteenth century.
- 2 Explain the strategic value of Constantinople.

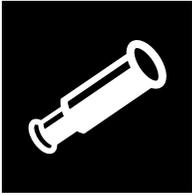
Applying and analysing

- 3 Use the information in this unit to create a flow chart of key events in the rise of the Ottoman Empire.
- 4 Examine Source 1.5.2.
 - a Describe what you see.
 - b With a partner, discuss what this tells historians about Constantinople.



Source 1.5.2

A panoramic view of Constantinople, coloured engraving, German school, eighteenth century, held in a private collection



UNIT 1.6

Voyages of trade and discovery

The Silk Road

From around the first century BC, a network of trade routes grew that would eventually stretch from China to Europe and North Africa, a distance of nearly 6500 kilometres. These routes were referred to collectively as the **Silk Road** because silk was the first important commodity transported along these routes. Silk was produced in China but became a coveted luxury item in Europe. Eventually, all kinds of goods, especially expensive ones like spices, were transported along these routes.

Use of the Silk Road started to decline with the disintegration of the Mongol Empire during the fourteenth century AD. Without a strong government to protect the trade routes from bandits, people were reluctant to use them.

Trade and exploration by sea

Europeans still wanted to trade with the Far East, because they needed things such as silk and spices. There was also a thirst for new knowledge and the desire to spread Christianity, to counteract the spread of Islam throughout Asia. However, Europeans could no longer go overland, so merchants and explorers began to look for new sea routes to move their goods around the world.

China

China was seen as a lucrative market for trade. The first Europeans to explore the Indian Ocean and arrive in China to trade were the Portuguese in 1513. On the way, they set up trading posts in Africa and India. The English and the Dutch followed. Many Europeans at the time thought that it was possible to sail to China by heading west. It is believed that Christopher Columbus was looking for such a route when he discovered the Americas by accident in 1492.

There were also attempts to get to China by sailing to the north of Canada (the North-West Passage) or north of Russia (the North-East Passage). All these attempts, however, were unsuccessful until the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

European explorers

Spanish and Portuguese explorers such as Christopher Columbus and Ferdinand Magellan led the new era of exploration. The Spanish discovered, explored and colonised vast areas of the New World; the Caribbean, Central America, Mexico, the south-west United States and western South America. The Portuguese colonised Brazil.

The Spanish, Dutch, French and British explored the South Pacific. The Spanish discovered New Guinea and the Solomon Islands. They also looked for a land known as 'Terra Australis' (South Land) but did not find it. The Dutch discovered Tasmania and New Zealand. Captain James Cook, the British explorer, mapped part of the Australian coast and New Zealand in 1769-1770.

DID YOU KNOW?

One of the worst diseases sailors contracted was scurvy. Sufferers became tired and experienced shortness of breath and bone pain. This was followed by high fever, convulsions and death. One voyage lost 1400 out of 1900 men to the disease. Scurvy is caused by vitamin C deficiency. Sailors lived on dry meat and grains, and it was not proven until the late eighteenth century that a little lemon or orange juice could prevent the disease that killed more sea travellers than war or shipwreck.



Source 1.6.1
The Silk Road, trade routes and Portuguese exploration, fifteenth century

Indigenous rights

As European explorers found new territory, they also came into conflict with indigenous civilisations such as the Aztecs in Central Mexico and the Incas in Peru. Little regard was paid to indigenous peoples, and many cultures across different geographical areas were destroyed by disease and violence. As trade and commerce developed, many indigenous people were also enslaved.

Unexplored territory

By the eighteenth century, most of the world had been reached by sea and mapped. European colonies had been established and new sea routes created. However, the interiors of continents still remained a mystery to Europeans. For example, it was not until the nineteenth century that much of Africa and the interior of Australia were explored.

They came out of the city to greet me with many trumpets and drums ... with such ceremony they led us into the city and gave us very good quarters, where all those in my company were most comfortable ... On the road we had come across many of the signs which the natives of that province had warned us about, for we found the highroad closed and another made and some holes, though not many; and some of the streets of the city were barricaded, and there were piles of stones on all the roofs.

Source 1.6.2 A letter from the explorer Hernán Cortés in Mexico to Emperor Carlos V of Spain, 1522, in *Hernán Cortés: Letters from Mexico*, trans. A. Pagden, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1986, pp. 72–4

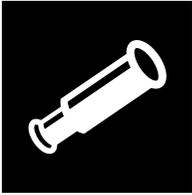
ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Why did early explorers want to find a way to trade with China by sea?
- 2 Which were the two most important countries involved in the European settlement of South America?

Applying and analysing

- 3 Examine Source 1.6.1.
 - a Was the trade of goods only one-sided? Explain.
 - b What were the Portuguese trying to achieve with their explorations?
- 4 Examine Source 1.6.2. What evidence is there that the Aztecs were prepared for a fight?



UNIT 1.7

The Renaissance

A rebirth of ideas

Between the fourteenth and seventeenth centuries AD, there was enormous growth in new ideas in the arts, science, politics and religion in Europe. This period is known as the Renaissance (which means ‘rebirth’). The Renaissance began in the **city-states** of Italy and spread to other European regions. The renewed interest in knowledge partly grew out of the experiences of the Crusaders and of European traders and explorers, who had been exposed to new lands, ideas and cultures. There was also a renewal of interest in the ancient world of Greece and Rome. The societal changes that occurred during the Renaissance then ushered in the Reformation, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment, important movements that shaped and created the modern world.

Humanism

A new way of thinking, called **humanism**, grew during the Renaissance. Humanism was based on the belief that individuals were important and had the power to shape and change the world around them, as opposed to relying on God. This challenged the power of the Church and the traditional hierarchies of medieval society.

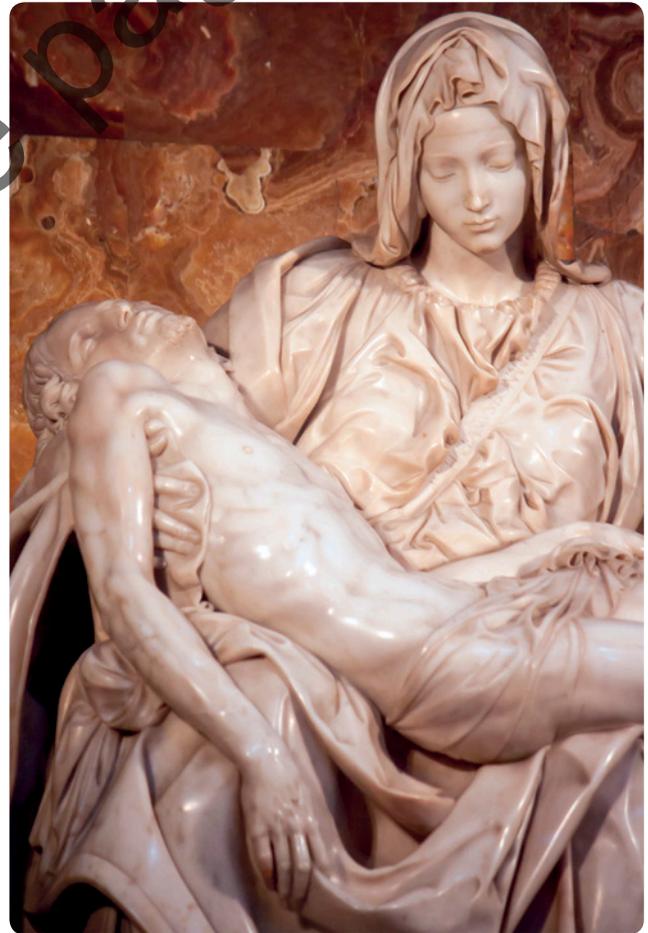
Ancient wisdom

As well as the growth of new ideas, there was renewed interest in re-examining the wisdom of Greek and Roman scholars. Historians generally consider the Middle Ages as a period of little intellectual development. Learning from ancient Greece and Rome was preserved in monasteries and churches across Europe and the Middle East but very few people had access to it. Many of these texts were rediscovered during the Renaissance.

Then, when Constantinople fell to the Ottoman Turks in 1453 AD, many ancient Greek works appeared in Europe for the first time as refugees brought important Greek texts with them. The study of ancient Greek and Roman ideas influenced the study of art, literature, languages and ultimately science during the Renaissance.

Art

Renaissance artists tried to be as realistic as possible, particularly in the way they conveyed emotion and depicted the human body.



Source 1.7.1 The *Pietà* by Michelangelo, marble, 1498–1499, St Peter’s Basilica, Vatican, Rome

They also drew on ancient Greek mathematical principles to show three dimensions in their paintings, giving depth to flat surfaces. Michelangelo, one of the most famous Renaissance artists, achieved realism as both a painter and a sculptor. Leonardo da Vinci was a painter, but also an engineer who specialised in fortifications. This talent in a range of disciplines made him a typical 'Renaissance man'.

DID YOU KNOW?

Some of the prominent figures in Renaissance art were talented in a range of fields, such as mathematics or anatomy. People who excel in more than one field are today called Renaissance men or women.

The causes of the Renaissance

Wealthy city-states and patrons

In the fourteenth century, Italy was mostly divided into city-states. These were cities that dominated the surrounding countryside, towns and villages. The most important ones were the Kingdom of Naples, the Papal States, the republics of Venice and Florence and the Duchy of Milan, although there were others.

The families that ruled the city-states, such as the Medici family of Florence, had become very wealthy through increased trade with Asia. These families used their wealth to fund works of art and building works, in order to increase their social status.

Changing politics

Some historians argue that the Italian city-states had moved away from a feudal view of the world. They were increasingly dominated by rich merchants. Florence, for example, was a republic during the fifteenth century, which allowed for the sharing of new ideas and values more than the feudal system had. These city-states also allowed more political participation and freedom, although they were not democracies in the modern sense. This led to a spirit of optimism and willingness to experiment in artistic and scientific endeavours.

Books

The printing press with movable type was invented around 1450. It became comparatively cheap and fast to produce a book, making it easier to spread knowledge and ideas. For the first time, not only aristocrats and senior clergy had access to books. Scientists, soldiers, architects and engineers could also exchange ideas. Ordinary people could read a book and make their own judgements about new ideas.

The spread of the Renaissance

These new ideas and approaches spread to other parts of Europe. In the Netherlands, the teacher and philosopher Desiderius Erasmus (1466–1536) became a prominent figure, promoting humanism, religious tolerance and Church reform. In England, during the English Renaissance (early sixteenth to early seventeenth century), William Shakespeare (1564–1616) became a prolific playwright and poet.

... *ignorance is the curse of God,
Knowledge the wing wherewith we fly to
heaven.*

Source 1.7.2 A quotation from William Shakespeare, *King Henry VI*, Part 2, Act 4, Scene 7, written c. 1590–92, first published 1594

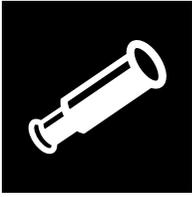
ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 Where did the Renaissance begin?
- 2 Outline the main features of the Renaissance.

Applying and analysing

- 3 Examine Source 1.7.1. What do you think the Church's view of the new style of artistic expression might have been?
- 4 Examine Source 1.7.2. Explain how this quotation shows us the changes taking place in society and its beliefs as a result of the Renaissance.



UNIT 1.8

The Scientific Revolution

New ideas

As society changed during the Renaissance, new ideas also emerged in the fields of maths and science. The Scientific Revolution was a period where advances in sciences, like biology and physics, changed people's view of the world. The Scientific Revolution began in the seventeenth century, towards the end of the Renaissance, and ended in the late eighteenth century.

The advances in science and also in humanist thinking around this time grew into another important movement in European history, known as the Enlightenment. Also known as the Age of Reason, this movement used reason to challenge traditional ideas. It valued reason and scientific methods over religious superstition. The Enlightenment also involved philosophy and politics.

The significance of the Scientific Revolution

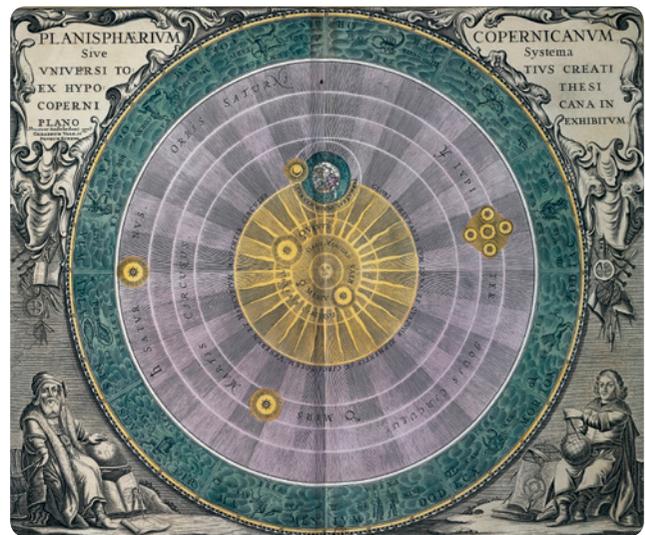
This period was important not only because there were many scientific discoveries, but also because they came so quickly and had such a strong effect on the way ordinary people began to see the world. The Scientific Revolution saw the development of the scientific methods we use today.

These methods were based on empiricism, meaning through observation or scientific experimentation. Scientists did not have to refer to the authority of ancient scholars, nor to the actions of God, to understand the world, but could instead use accepted methods to reach independent conclusions about the world. If scientists could understand nature, then they could control it to a greater extent, and therefore provide more certainty in people's lives.

Scientists reached several important conclusions. One of the most important was that the universe was like a machine. If the principles of how the 'machinery' of the universe could be understood then it was claimed that you could predict future natural events such as earthquakes, for example. Another idea that developed was scepticism. The truth of beliefs about the world could be tested and investigated by using accepted scientific methods.

Links to ancient learning

The rediscovery of important works from the ancient world during the Renaissance was a major reason for advances in scientific research, but not the only one. Rational thought and methods had grown during the Middle Ages, in both Europe and the Islamic countries. In Islamic countries in particular there had already been advances in astronomy and maths.



Source 1.8.1 The solar system according to Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), from *The Celestial Atlas, or the Harmony of the Universes*, by Andreas Cellarius, Amsterdam, c. 1660, British Library, London, United Kingdom

Although scientists owed a lot to ancient writers like Aristotle (384–322 BC), many of their discoveries disproved what ancient people thought. Many of these ideas had been accepted by society for thousands of years. For example, Ptolemy (a Greco-Roman mathematician and astronomer, 90–168 AD) believed that the stars and planets were fixed on a crystal shell in the sky. Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543) and Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) showed that this was not true and that Earth was not the centre of the universe.

Scientists understood that things were made up of many different elements, not just a mixture of earth, water, air and fire, as the ancients believed. Andreas Vesalius (1514–1564) showed how blood circulated around the body. Despite overturning many old ideas, astronomers and mathematicians like Isaac Newton (1643–1727), Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) and Galileo said they owed a great deal to ancient learning.

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*If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of giants.*  
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Source 1.8.2 Isaac Newton in a letter to fellow scientist Robert Hooke, 1675, in D. Brewster, *Memoirs of the Life, Writings and Discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton*, Vol. 1, 1885

Practical advances

Some of the advances of this time were practical. Surgery became more sophisticated, as the body was better understood. Dissection of bodies was now conducted, whereas during the Middle Ages the Church had not allowed it. Modern dentistry developed. Blaise Pascal (1623–1662) even invented a mechanical calculator in 1642. Otto von Guericke (1602–1686) experimented with electricity, and Denis Papin (1647–1712) invented an ancestor of the steam engine in 1679.

The Scientific Revolution and religion

Despite scepticism and empiricism, religion was still an important factor for ordinary people, but less so for the educated members of society.

Most people still believed in God, but new ideas were beginning to change people's view of the supernatural. A better understanding of the world led to questions about the part that humans played in it. This did not only affect the role of God in society, it also led to a decline in superstitions such as belief in witches and demons. However, not everyone shared the views of educated people.

DID YOU KNOW?

Early clocks did not normally have minute or second hands because they were not accurate enough for them to be useful. In the seventeenth century, Christiaan Huygens (1629–1695) calculated that a pendulum 99.38 centimetres long would take one second to swing. That meant a pendulum-driven clock could be very accurate. Within a few years, minute and second hands appeared, and the pendulum clock remained the most accurate timepiece until the 1920s.

ACTIVITIES

Remembering and understanding

- 1 What was the Scientific Revolution and when did it begin?
- 2 Outline the key details of the Scientific Revolution in a table or other graphic organiser of your choice.
- 3 What was the Enlightenment?

Applying and analysing

- 4 Examine Source 1.8.1. Many people did not approve of Copernicus's model of the solar system. Why do you think this was the case?
- 5 Examine Source 1.8.2. What do you think Newton meant?
- 6 What was the significance of the Scientific Revolution? Give evidence from this unit in your answer.



UNIT 1.9

Overview: the ancient to the modern world

The Crusades

The year is 1096 AD. Christians across Europe are preparing to embark on a Crusade to regain control of the Holy Land. You have decided to join the Crusaders.

Conduct some research into the First Crusade. Take notes on the following:

- reasons for the Crusade
- who led the Crusade
- who joined the Crusade
- the route taken to reach the Holy Land
- the outcome of the Crusade
- the dates.

Present your experiences in the form of a diary with at least four entries. Each entry should be a minimum of 150 words. Your diary should include illustrations and maps.

Middle Ages versus Italian Renaissance

Research the Middle Ages and the Renaissance. Identify the key features of these two periods of history. Features may include:

- social organisation
- economies
- occupations
- roles of men and women
- technology
- religion and the Church
- arts.

Create a Venn diagram that clearly shows the similarities and differences between these two periods of history. The diagram should include a minimum of twenty points.

Medieval monasteries

The Church was a very powerful force during medieval times. Many religious people were monks living in monasteries.

Conduct some research into medieval monasteries. Your research may include:

- monastery architecture
- different parts of the monastery
- daily routine for monks
- clothes worn by monks
- services offered to the public
- scholarship and illustrated manuscripts.

Prepare a poster about medieval monasteries. Include at least four subheadings, each covering an aspect of monasteries. Include both text and visual material.

Significant people

There were many influential individuals in the period between the end of the ancient world and the start of the modern world. Select and research one individual. The following list includes some possible individuals to investigate:

- Süleyman the Magnificent
- Christopher Columbus
- Ferdinand Magellan
- James Cook
- Hernán Cortés
- Leonardo da Vinci
- Nicolaus Copernicus
- Galileo Galilei
- Andreas Vesalius.

Prepare a report that includes:

- a timeline of key events in the person's life
- a description of the historical period during which the person lived
- an explanation of why this person is a significant historical figure.



Source 1.9.1 A page from the illuminated manuscript *Très Riches Heures du duc de Berry* showing the month of June and harvest time. This manuscript was a book of hours, created between 1412 and 1416 for John, Duke of Berry, a French prince. Held in the Musée Condé, Chantilly, France.

Glossary

barbarian a person considered inferior and uncivilised

caliphate a political region that is governed by a caliph

city-state a city (and its surrounding area) that is independent and governs itself

colonise migrate into an area that is occupied by other people, establish a settlement and take political control

canon law the laws and rules of the Church

crusade a military religious pilgrimage

feudalism a system of mutual obligation used in the Middle Ages to organise politics, society and the economy

fiefdom an area or domain overseen and controlled by the feudal lord under the feudal system

humanism a belief that humans had the power to influence and shape their world as opposed to God having all power

monotheistic believing in one god

pilgrimage a journey to a place of religious importance

Renaissance a period following the Middle Ages in which there was a renewed interest in learning, knowledge and discovery

Silk Road a major trade route linking Asia with Europe and North Africa

tetrarchy a system of government in which four people rule jointly

tithe a payment of 10 per cent of earnings given to the Church

vassal a person holding land of another and owing them military service in return