

Post Classical - 800 - 1500 Feudal Era Middle Ages to High Middle Ages

✘ Early Medieval Europe, 300-1000

- The Western Church
- Western Europe Revives, 1000-1200

✘ The Crusades, 1095-1204

- Political and Military Transformations

✘ Rural Growth and Crisis

- Cities and regrowth of trade

✘ The Emergence of East Asia, to 1200

- Tang and Song Empires
- New Kingdoms in East Asia Korea Japan and Vietnam

✘ New Islamic Empires

✘ The Rise of the Mongols, 1200-1260

- Plague
- Mongols and Islam, 1260-1500
- Regional Responses in Western Eurasia - Russia and Anatolia (Byzantine)
- Mongol Domination in China, 1271-1368

✘ Classic-Era Culture and Society in Mesoamerica, 200-900

- The Post-Classic Period in Mesoamerica, 900-1500

✘ Urban Revival

✘ Learning, Literature, and the Renaissance

Objectives Feudal Era – Middle Ages to High Middle Ages (4E & 4A)

These are divided into European (Western & Eastern) and Asia, Africa and the Americas

These regions are connected by the Black Plague, growing interregional connections, Mongolians, and the Crusades. There is a general disconnect then a gradual increase in trade and a growth in urban areas.

1. Understand the political and economic development of Western Europe during the medieval period and be able to undertake a critical analysis of the term “feudalism.”
2. Explain the development and the significance of Roman Catholic dogma, the hierarchical system of the Roman church, and the monastic movement and their role in the development of Europe.
3. Evaluate the role of the Byzantine Empire as a conduit from the ancient world to the modern world.
4. Compare the medieval Western society, politics, culture, and religion with those of the Byzantine Empire.
5. Understand the respective roles of the Varangians, Vladimir I, and the Byzantine Empire in the rise of the Kievan state.
6. Understand how Byzantine and especially Sasanid imperial institutions laid the foundations for the Islamic state.
7. Explain the restructuring of Europe, including decentralization (medieval society), the division of Christianity, and the revival of cities.
8. Compare the nature of societies during the transitional phase of development including the Carolingian, Harshana, Sui dynasties and later Kievan Rus.
9. Compare developments in political and social institutions in both Eastern and Western Europe.
 - a. Assess the common patterns in the new opportunities available to and constraints placed on elite women in this period.
10. Evaluate the role of the nomads in spreading or limiting the development of civilization.
 - a. Discuss the movements of peoples in the late classical period (200 – 600 CE/AD), including the Bantu, Huns, Germans, and Polynesians.
11. Explain the syncretic societies that develop. (Sinicization, Romanization, etc...)
12. Discuss the possible causes of the European recovery of 1000–1200.
13. Explain the causes of the Crusades and discuss their consequences in Europe and the Middle East
14. Identify the location and fundamental environmental characteristics of the tropics and their environmental zones, including arid areas, rain forests, river valleys, savannas, plateaus, and mountainous regions, and explain how people made their livings in these various environmental zones.
15. Outline the consequences of plague pandemics in the 14th century.
16. Assess the sources of change: nomadic migrations versus urban growth.
 - a. Identify the impact of migrations on Afro-Eurasia and the Americas, especially Aztecs, Mongols, Turks, Vikings, and Arabs.
17. Evaluate the growth and role of cities, especially the expansion of urban commercial centers in Song China and administrative centers in Africa and the Americas.
18. Explain the issues involved in using cultural areas rather than states as units of analysis.
19. Identify and Compare the two Islamic empires of Mali and the Delhi Sultanate.
20. Explain the development of, and shifts in, interregional trade, technology, and cultural exchange, especially Trans-Saharan trade, Indian Ocean trade, the Silk Roads, and formation of leagues such as the Swahili and Hanseatic Leagues.
21. Understand and be able to give concrete examples of the ways in which trade and the spread of Islam changed the societies and cultures of places connected to each other through the trans-Saharan and Indian Ocean trade networks.
22. Explore the role of bureaucracy in the development of empire including Tang, Song, Byzantine, Carolingian, Harsha, Sui,
23. Explain the development of, and shifts in, **economic innovations**, especially Tang China, Song China, Early Ming China, Swahili Coast trade, and economic systems in the Americas.
24. Explain the continuities and breaks within the period, especially the effects of the Mongols on international contacts and on specific societies.
 - a. Compare and contrast the effects of Mongol rule on Russia and the lands of Islam with the effects on East Asia.
 - b. Account for the magnitude and speed of the Mongol conquests.
 - c. Describe the benefits that resulted from the integration of Eurasia in the Mongol Empire.
25. Assess the existence of a world economic network in this period.
26. Describe the Indian Ocean trade and to identify the roles played in that trade by the Swahili city-states, Aden, Gujarat and the Malabar Coast, and Malacca.
27. Compare European and sub-Saharan African contacts with the Islamic world.
28. Describe the empires of Southern and Southeast Asia including Funan, Chola, Champas, Khmer and the cultural imprint that was left in the region including the Indianization of the region.
29. Outline the economic and political development of Tang and Song China and the role of their technology in their development.
 - a. Analyze the Chinese civil service exam system and the rise of meritocracy.

30. Outline the development of Japanese empire including the Taika reforms, Nara, Heian, Kamakura, to the formation of the bakufu.
 - a. Compare Japanese and European feudalism.
31. Outline the development of Korean empire including the blending of the, Paekche and Silla into the Koryeo dynasties becoming "Korea" and the independent Chosen.
32. Discuss the history and the significance of the relationships between China (Tang and Song) and its neighbors, including Central Asia, Korea, Japan, and Vietnam.
 - a. Determine the nature of Chinese influence in the development of Korea and Japan.
 - b. Analyze the different roles of Buddhism in China, Tibet, Korea, and Japan.
33. Identify points of continuity and discontinuity in the transition from Mongol to Ming rule of China.
 - a. Determine the role and influence of the Mongolians in political and culture of China and the methods used by the Mongolians to control China.
34. Understand the ways in which the environment affected the development of the economies, politics, and culture of the various parts of the Americas.
35. Name and describe the essential features of the classic-era and postclassical civilizations of Mesoamerica.
 - a. Know the locations and characteristics of the Anasazi, Adena, Hopewell, and the Mississippian cultures.
 - b. Describe and to compare the development of Mesoamerican and Andean civilizations, particularly the Aztec and the Inca empires.
36. Describe the emergence of new empires and political systems: Umayyad Caliphate, Abbasid Caliphate, Byzantine Empire, Russia, Sudanic States (Mali, Ghana, and Songhai), Swahili Coast, Tang China, Song China, Ming China, Delhi Sultanate, Vietnam, Mongol Empires, Turkish Empires, Aztec, and Inca.

Aachen	Crusades	Huang Chao	Mahayana (Pure Land)
Agincourt, Battle of	Czar, Tsar	Hugh Capet	Buddhism
al-Biruni	<i>daimyo</i>	Hulegu	Mahmud of Ghazni
al-Ghazali	Delhi sultanate	Hundred Years War	Mahmud of Ghazni
Ali	Demak Sultanate of	Ibn Battuta	Majapahit kingdom
al-Mahdi	Indonesia	Ibn Khaldun	Malacca
Almohads	demographic transition	Ibn-Rushd (Averroës) or	Malay peninsula
Almoravids	Desiderius Erasmus	Aristotle	Mali
al-Razi	dhimmis	Ibn - Sina (Avicenna)	Malmuks (Arabic "owned")
An Lushan	Diviners	ibn Musa Al Khwarizmi	Manoralism
Anatolia	Domesday Book	Iceland	mansa
Angkor kingdom	Dominicans	Ile-Ife	Mansa Musa
Angkor Thom	Elanor of Aquitaine	Ilkhan Ghazan	Manzikert
Angkor Wat	Emporia	Ilkhanate	mawali
Angles	Equal-field system	<i>In Praise of Folly</i>	Mecca
Aquinas, Thomas	Erasmus	Indianized	Medina
Arabic numerals	Eric the Red	Investiture	Melaka
<i>Art of Courtly Love</i>	Ethiopia	Investiture controversy	Merovians
(Capellanus, Andreas)	Excommunication	Ishak al-Sahili	Middle Ages
Arian Christianity	Fatimids	Italy	Ministry of Public Rites
<i>Ashikaga Takauji</i>	Feudalism/feudal	Jacques Coeur	<i>Missi dominici</i>
Askia Muhammad	monarchies	Java	moldboard
ayan	Fief	Jerusalem	Mongols
<i>bakufu</i>	First Crusade	jihad	Moors
Baron	five pillars	jinshi	Mu'awiya
bedouin	flying money	jizya	Murasaki Shikibu
Benin	footbinding	junks	Muromachi shogunate
Bhakti	Fourth Crusade	Jurchens	Muscovite (Duchy of
bhaktic cults	fragmented Ali's party.	juula	Muscovy)
Bi Sheng	France	Ka'ba	Mwene Mutapa
Black Death	Francis of Assisi	Kabir	Nara period
Bourbons	Franciscans	Kamakura shogunate	Navarre
boyar	<i>Fujiwara</i>	Kankan Musa	Neoconfucianism
Buddhism	Funan kingdom	Karakorum	Newfoundland
Bukka	Gaul	Karbala	<i>Nguyen</i>
Burgundians	Ghana	Khan	Niani
<i>bushi</i>	Ghaznavid Turks	Khanbaliq	Normandy
Bushido	Golden Horde	Khitan nomads	Odoacer
Buyids	Gothic	Khmers and Chams	Omar Khayyam
Caliph	Grand Canal	Khubilai Khan	<i>Onin war</i>
Cambay	Great Zimbabwe	Khwarazm shah	Ordeal
<i>Canterbury Tales</i>	Greenland	Kilwa	Osman
Capellanus, Andreas (<i>Art of</i>	Gregory VII	King Alfred	Otto of Saxony
<i>Courtly Love</i>)	Guilds	King Otto I of Saxony	Pandemic
Capet, Hugh	<i>Gumpei wars</i>	Kinship groups	Paramesvara
Capetians	Guru Kabir	<i>Koguryo</i>	parliaments
Carolingians	Hangzhou	Kongo	Period of the Six Dynasties
Castille	Hanseatic League (trade)	Kongo Kingdom	Persia
Cathars	Hapsburgs (Habsbergs)	Koumbi-Saleh	Peter Abelard
Cathedral schools	Harihara	Kow tow	Peter the Hermit
Celts	Harsha	Kublai Khan	Plantangenets
Central Asia	Harun al-Rashid	Kumiss	Pope Gregory I
Chaghatai	Hausa states	Lalibela	Pope Gregory VII
Chan Buddhism	<i>Heian</i>	Leif Ericsson	Pope Leo III
Changan	Heian period	Leone	Pope Urban II
Charlemagne	Henry II of England	Li Bo	Primogenitura
Charles Martel	Henry IV	Li Yuan	Prince Shotoku (of Japan)
China	Henry V	Lombards	Quran
Chinggis Khan/Gengis Khan	Hildegard of Bingen	Lombardy	Qutb-ud-din Aibak
Chivalry	Hohenzollern (hohenstaffen)	Luba	Ramanuja
Chola kingdom	<i>Hajo</i>	Maghrib	Richard the Lionheart
<i>Choson (Korea)</i>	Holy Roman Emperors	Magna Carta	Ridda
Clovis	Holy Roman Empire		Robert Guiscard

Roger Guiscard
Romanesque
ronin
Rubiyat
Runes
Runnymede
Russia
Sa'di
Sacrament
Sahara desert
Sahel
Saladin
Salic Law
Saljuq Turks
Samarkand
Samurai
samurai
Saxons
scholasticism
Seljuk Turks
Seppuku
seppuku
serfs
Shah-Nama
Shankara
shaykhs
Shi'i

shoguns
Shrivijaya
Sicily
Siffin
Silla
Silla dynasty
Sind
Singosari kingdom
Sinification
Song dynasty
Song Taizu
Songhay
Songhay
Southern Song
Spain
Srivijaya kingdom
St. Benedict
St. Bernard of Clairvaux
St. Clare of Assisi
St. Dominic
St. Francis
St. Scholastica
St. Thomas Aquinas
Stateless societies
Strait of Melaka
Sub-Saharan Africa
Sudanic states

Sufis
Sui dynasty
Sui Yangdi
Sultan
Sumatra
Summa Theologica
Sundiata (Lion King)
Sunnis
Swanili city-states
Taika reforms (Japanese to Chinese)
Tale of Genji
Tamerlane
Tang dynasty
Tang Taizong
Thomas Aquinas
three-field system
Timbuktu
Tithe
Trade fairs
Trade union
Trans-Saharan trade
troubadours
Trung sisters
Tughril Beg
Uighurs
Universities
Uthman

vassals
Vernacular
Vijayanagar
Vijayanagar kingdom
Vikings
Visigoths
Waldensians
Wang Anshi
wazir
Wendi
Wergeld
White Huns
William of Normandy/William the Conqueror
Wuzong
Xuanzang
Yang Guifei
Yang Jian
Yangdi
Yi
Yurts
zakat
Zhao Kuangyin
Zhu Xi
Zimbabwe

Post Classical Era and 800- 1500 Feudal Era. Early Medieval Europe, 300–1000

- A. From Roman Empire to Germanic Kingdoms
 1. In the fifth century the Roman Empire broke down. Europe was politically fragmented, with Germanic kings ruling a number of different kingdoms.
 2. Western Europe continued to suffer invasions as Muslim Arabs and Berbers took the Iberian Peninsula and pushed into France.
 3. In the eighth century the Carolingians united various Frankish kingdoms into a larger empire. At its height, under Charlemagne, the empire included Gaul and parts of Germany and Italy. The empire was subdivided by Charlemagne's grandsons and never united again.
 4. Vikings attacked England, France, and Spain in the late eighth and ninth centuries. Vikings also settled Iceland and Normandy, from which the Norman William the Conqueror invaded England in 1066.
 - B. A Self-Sufficient Economy
 1. The fall of the Roman Empire was accompanied by an economic transformation that included de-urbanization and a decline in trade. Without the domination of Rome and its "Great Tradition," regional elites became more self-sufficient and local "small traditions" flourished.
 2. The medieval diet in the north was based on beer, lard or butter, and bread. In the south, the staples were wheat, wine, and olive oil.
 3. Self-sufficient farming estates called manors were the primary centers of agricultural production. Manors grew from the need for self-sufficiency and self-defense.
 4. The lord of a manor had almost unlimited power over his agricultural workers—the serfs. The conditions of agricultural workers varied, as the tradition of a free peasantry survived in some areas.
 - C. Early Medieval Society in the West
 1. During the early medieval period a class of nobles emerged and developed into mounted knights. Landholding and military service became almost inseparable. The complex network of relationships between landholding and the obligation to provide military service to a lord is often referred to as "feudalism."
 2. The need for military security led to new military technology including the stirrup, bigger horses, and the armor and weapons of the knight. This equipment was expensive, and knights therefore needed land in order to support themselves.
 3. Kings and nobles granted land (a fief) to a man in return for a promise to supply military service. By the tenth century, these fiefs had become hereditary.
 4. Kings were weak because they depended on their vassals—who might very well hold fiefs from and be obliged to more than one lord. Vassals held most of a king's realm, and most of the vassals granted substantial parts of land to *their* vassals.
 5. Kings and nobles had limited ability to administer and tax their realms. Their power was further limited by their inability to tax the vast landholdings of the Church. For most medieval people, the lord's manor was the government.
 6. Noble women were pawns in marriage politics. Women could own land, however, and non-noble women worked alongside the men.
- ## II. The Western Church
- A. The Structure of Christian Faith
 1. The Christian faith and the Catholic Church, headed by the Pope, were sources of unity and order in the fragmented world of medieval Europe.
 2. The church hierarchy tried to deal with challenges to unity by calling councils of bishops to discuss and settle questions of doctrine.
 - B. Politics and the Church
 1. The popes sought to combine their religious power with political power by forging alliances with kings and finally by choosing (in 962) to crown a German king as "Holy Roman Emperor." The Holy Roman Empire was in fact no more than a loose coalition of German princes.
 2. Even within the Holy Roman Empire, secular rulers argued that they should have the power to appoint bishops who held land in fief. Popes disagreed and this led to a conflict known as the investiture controversy. This issue was resolved through compromise in 1122. In England, conflict between secular power and the power of the church broke out when Henry II tried to bring the church under control as part of his general effort to strengthen his power vis-à-vis the regional nobility.
 3. Western Europe was heir to three legal traditions: Germanic feudal law, canon (church law), and Roman law. The presence of conflicting legal theories and legal jurisdictions was a significant characteristic of Western Europe.
 - C. Monasticism (repeat)
 1. Christian monasticism developed in Egypt in the fourth century on the basis of previous religious practices such as celibacy, devotion to prayer, and isolation from society.
 2. In Western Europe, Benedict of Nursia (480–547) organized monasteries and supplied them with a set of written rules that governed all aspects of ritual and of everyday life. Thousands of men and women left society to devote themselves to monastic life.
 3. Monasteries served a number of functions. They were centers of literacy and learning and refuges for widows and other vulnerable women. They also functioned as inns and orphanages and managed their own estates of agricultural land.
 4. It was difficult for the Catholic hierarchy to exercise oversight over the monasteries. In the eleventh century a reform movement developed within the monastic establishment as the abbey of Cluny worked to improve the administration and discipline of monasteries.
- ## III. Western Europe Revives, 1000–1200
- A. The Role of Technology

1. Western Europe's population and agricultural production increased in the period from 1000–1200, feeding a resurgence of trade and enabling kings to strengthen their control. Historians attribute the revival to new technologies and to the appearance of self-governing cities.
 2. Historians agree that technology played a significant role in European population growth from 1000–1200. Among the technological innovations associated with this population growth are the heavy moldboard plow, the horse collar, and the breast-strap harness.
 3. Historians are not sure whether the horse collar and breast-strap harnesses were disseminated to Europe from Central Asia or from Tunisia and Libya. Nor is it precisely clear when and why European farmers began using teams of horses rather than the slower and weaker oxen to plow the heavy soils of northern Europe.
- B. Cities and the Rebirth of Trade
1. Independent, self-governing cities emerged first in Italy and Flanders. They relied on manufacturing and trade for their income, and they had legal independence so that their laws could favor manufacturing and trade.
 2. In Italy, Venice emerged as a dominant sea power, trading in Muslim ports for spices and other goods. In Flanders, cities like Ghent imported wool from England and wove it into cloth for export.
 3. The recovery of trade was accompanied by an increase in the use of high-value gold and silver coins, which had been rarely used in early medieval Europe. During the mid-twelfth century Europeans began minting first silver and then gold coins.
- IV. The Crusades, 1095–1204
- A. The Roots of the Crusades
1. The Crusades were a series of Christian military campaigns against Muslims in the eastern Mediterranean between 1100 and 1200. Factors causing the Crusades included religious zeal, knights' willingness to engage in church-sanctioned warfare, a desire for land on the part of younger sons of the European nobility, and an interest in trade.
 2. The tradition of pilgrimages, Muslim control of Christian religious sites, and the Byzantine Empire's requests for help against the Muslims combined to make the Holy Land the focus of the Crusades. In 1095 Pope Urban II initiated the First Crusade when he called upon the Europeans to stop fighting each other and fight the Muslims instead.
- B. The Impact of the Crusades
1. The Crusades had a limited impact on the Muslim world. More significant was that the Crusaders ended Europe's intellectual isolation when Arabic and Greek manuscripts gave Europeans their first access to the work of the ancient Greek philosophers.
 2. The Crusades had a significant impact on the lifestyle of European elites.
- VIIV. Rural Growth and Crisis
- A. Peasants and Population
1. In 1200 c.e. most Europeans were peasants, bound to the land in serfdom and using inefficient agricultural practices. Fifteen to thirty such heavily taxed farming families supported each noble household.
 2. Women labored in the fields with men but were subordinate to them.
 3. Europe's population more than doubled between 1000 and 1445. Population growth was accompanied by new agricultural technologies in northern Europe, including the three-field system and the cultivation of oats.
 4. As population grew, people opened new land for cultivation, including land with poor soil and poor growing conditions. This caused a decline in average crop yields beginning around 1250.
- B. The Black Death and Social Change
1. The population pressure was eased by the Black Death (bubonic plague), which was brought from Kaffa to Italy and southern France in 1346. The plague ravaged Europe for two years and returned periodically in the late 1300s and 1400s, causing substantial decreases in population.
 2. As a result of the plague, labor became more expensive in Western Europe. This gave rise to a series of peasant and worker uprisings, higher wages, and the end of serfdom. Serfdom in Eastern Europe grew extensively in the centuries after the Black Death.
 3. Rural living standards improved, the period of apprenticeship for artisans was reduced, and per capita income rose.
- C. Mines and Mills
1. Between 1200 and 1500 Europeans invented and used a variety of mechanical devices including water wheels and windmills. Mills were expensive to build, but over time they brought great profits to their owners.
 2. Industrial enterprises, including mining, ironworking, stone quarrying, and tanning, grew during these centuries. The results included both greater productivity and environmental damage including water pollution and deforestation.
- VIII. Urban Revival
- A. Trading Cities
1. Increases in trade and in manufacturing contributed to the growth of cities after 1200. The relationship between trade, manufacturing, and urbanization is demonstrated in the growth of the cities of northern Italy and in the urban areas of Champagne and Flanders.
 2. The Venetian capture of Constantinople (1204), the opening of the Central Asian caravan trade under the Mongol Empire, and the post-Mongol development of the Mediterranean galley trade with Constantinople, Beirut, and Alexandria brought profits and growth to Venice. The increase in sea trade also brought profits to Genoa in the Mediterranean and to the cities of the Hanseatic League in the Baltic and the North Sea.
 3. Flanders prospered from its woolen textile industries, while the towns of Champagne benefited from their position on the major land route through France and the series of trade fairs sponsored by their nobles.
 4. Textile industries also began to develop in England and in Florence. Europeans made extensive use of water wheels and windmills in the textile, paper, and other industries.
- B. Civic Life
1. Some European cities were city-states, while others enjoyed autonomy from local nobles: they were thus better able to respond to changing market conditions than Chinese or Islamic cities. European cities also offered their citizens more freedom and social mobility.

2. Most of Europe's Jews lived in the cities. Jews were subject to persecution everywhere but Rome; they were blamed for disasters like the Black Death and expelled from Spain.
 3. Guilds regulated the practice of and access to trades. Women were rarely allowed to join guilds, but they did work in unskilled non-guild jobs in the textile industry and in the food and beverage trades.
 4. The growth in commerce gave rise to bankers like the Medicis of Florence and the Fuggers of Augsburg who handled financial transactions for merchants, the church, and the kings and princes of Europe. Because the Church prohibited usury, many moneylenders were Jews; Christian bankers got around the prohibition through such devices as asking for "gifts" in lieu of interest.
- C. Gothic Cathedrals
1. Gothic cathedrals are the masterpieces of late medieval architecture and craftsmanship. Their distinctive features include the pointed Gothic arch, flying buttresses, high towers and spires, and large interiors lit by huge windows.
 2. The men who designed and built the Gothic cathedrals had no formal training in design and engineering; they learned through their mistakes.
- IX. Political and Military Transformations
- A. Monarchs, Nobles, and the Clergy
1. Thirteenth century European states were ruled by weak monarchs whose power was limited by their modest treasuries, the regional nobility, the independent towns, and the church.
 2. Two changes in weaponry began to undermine the utility—and therefore the economic position—of the noble knights. These two innovations were the armor-piercing crossbow and the development of firearms.
 3. King Philip the Fair of France reduced the power of the church when he arrested the pope and had a new (French) one installed at Avignon, but monarchs still faced resistance, particularly from their stronger vassals. In England, the Norman conquest of 1066 had consolidated and centralized royal power, but the kings continued to find their power limited by the pope and by the English nobles, who force the king to recognize their hereditary rights as defined in the Magna Carta.
 4. Monarchs and nobles often entered into marriage alliances. One effect of these alliances was to produce wars over the inheritance of far-flung territories. In the long term, these wars strengthened the authority of monarchs and led to the establishment of territorial boundaries.
- B. The Hundred Years War, 1337–1453
1. The Hundred Years War pitted France against England, whose King Edward III claimed the French throne in 1337. The war was fought with the new military technology: crossbows, longbows, pikes (for pulling knights off their horses) and firearms, including an improved cannon.
 2. The French, whose superior cannon destroyed the castles of the English and their allies, finally defeated the English. The war left the French monarchy in a stronger position than before.
- C. New Monarchies in France and England
1. The new monarchies that emerged after the Hundred Years War had stronger central governments, more stable national boundaries, and stronger representative institutions. Both the English and the French monarchs consolidated their control over their nobles.
 2. The advent of new military technology—cannon and hand-held firearms—meant that the castle and the knight were outdated. The new monarchs depended on professional standing armies of bowmen, pikemen, musketeers, and artillery units.
 3. The new monarchs had to find new sources of revenue to pay for these standing armies. In order to raise money, the new monarchs taxed land, merchants, and the church.
 4. By the end of the fifteenth century, there had been a shift in power away from the nobility and the church and toward the monarchs. This process was not complete, however, and monarchs were still hemmed in by the nobles, the church, and by new parliamentary institutions: the Parliament in England and the Estates General in France.
- D. Iberian Unification
1. Spain and Portugal emerged as strong centralized states through a process of marriage alliances, mergers, warfare, and the reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula from the Muslims. Reconquest offered the nobility large landed estates upon which they could grow rich without having to work.
 2. The reconquest took place over a period of several centuries, but picked up after the Christians put the Muslims on the defensive with a victory in 1212.
 3. Portugal became completely established in 1249. In 1415, the Portuguese captured the Moroccan port of Ceuta, which gave them access to the trans-Saharan trade.
 4. On the Iberian Peninsula, Castile and Aragon were united in 1469 and the Muslims driven out of their last Iberian stronghold (Granada) in 1492. Spain then expelled all Jews and Muslims from its territory; Portugal also expelled its Jewish population.
- X. The Emergence of East Asia, to 1200
- A. Buddhism and the Tang Empire
1. The Tang emperors legitimized their control by using the Buddhist idea that kings are spiritual agents who bring their subjects into a Buddhist realm. Buddhist monasteries were important allies of the early Tang emperors; in return for their assistance, they received tax exemptions, land, and gifts.
 2. Mahayana Buddhism was the most important school of Buddhism in Central Asia and East Asia. Mahayana beliefs were flexible, encouraged the adaptation of local deities into a Mahayana pantheon, and encouraged the translation of Buddhist texts into local languages.
 3. Buddhism spread through Central and East Asia, following the trade routes that converged on the Tang capital, Chang'an. These trade routes also brought other peoples and cultural influences to Chang'an, making it a cosmopolitan city.
- B. To Chang'an by Land and Sea

1. Chang'an was the destination of ambassadors from other states sent to China under the tributary system. The city of Chang'an itself had over a million residents, most of them living outside the city walls.
 2. Foreigners in Chang'an lived in special compounds, urban residents in walled, gated residential quarters. Roads and canals, including the Grand Canal, brought people and goods to the city. With Chinese control over South China firmly established, Islamic and Jewish merchants from Western Asia came to China via the Indian Ocean trade routes.
 3. Large Chinese commercial ships plied the sea routes to Southeast Asia, carrying large amounts of goods. Bubonic plague was also brought from West Asia to China along the sea routes.
- C. Trade and Cultural Exchange
1. Tang China combined Central Asian influences with Chinese culture, bringing polo, grape wine, tea, and spices. In trade, China lost its monopoly on silk, but began to produce its own cotton, tea, and sugar.
 2. Tang roads, river transport, and canals facilitated a tremendous growth in trade. Tang China exported far more than it imported, with high quality silks and porcelain being among its most desired products.
- D. The End of the Tang Empire, 879–907
1. As its territory expanded and as it was faced with internal rebellions, the Tang dynasty relied on powerful provincial military governors to maintain peace. In 907, the Tang state ended and regional military governors established their own kingdoms.
 2. None of these smaller kingdoms was able to integrate territory on the scale of the Tang. As a result, East Asia was cut off from communication with the Islamic world and Europe.
- E. The Liao and Jin Challenge
1. After the fall of the Tang a number of new states emerged in the former Tang territory: the Liao, the Jin, and the Chinese Song. As the Liao and Jin cut the Chinese off from Central Asia, the Song developed seafaring and strengthened contacts with Korea, Japan, and Southeast Asia.
 2. The Liao state included nomads and settled agriculturalists. The Liao kings presented themselves to their various subjects as Confucian rulers, Buddhist monarchs, and nomadic leaders. The Liao rulers were of the Kitan ethnic group.
 3. The Liao Empire lasted from 916–1121. The Liao had a strong military and forced the Song to give them annual payments of cash and silk in return for peace.
 4. In order to rid themselves of the Liao, the Song helped the Jurchens of northeast Asia to defeat the Liao. The Jurchens established their own Jin Empire, turned on the Song, and drove them out of north and central China in 1127. The Song continued to reign in south China as the Southern Song Empire (1127–1279).
- F. Song Industries
1. During the Song period the Chinese made a number of technological innovations, many of them based on information that had been brought to China from West Asia during the cosmopolitan Tang era. Many of these innovations had to do with mathematics, astronomy, and calendar making.
 2. In 1088 the engineer Su Song constructed a huge, chain-driven mechanical clock that told the time, the day of the month, and indicated the movements of the moon and certain stars and planets. Song inventors also improved the previously invented compass, making it suitable for seafaring.
 3. In shipbuilding, the Song introduced the sternpost rudder and watertight bulkheads. These innovations were later adopted in the Persian Gulf.
 4. The Song also had a standing professionally trained, regularly paid military. Iron and coal were important strategic resources for the Song military. The Song produced large amounts of high-grade iron and steel for weapons, armor, and defensive works. The Song also developed and used gunpowder weapons in their wars.
- G. Economy and Society in Song China
1. Song society was dominated by civilian officials and put higher value on civil pursuits than on military affairs. Song thinkers developed a sophisticated Neo-Confucian philosophy, while certain Buddhist sects, particularly Chan (Zen) continued to be popular.
 2. The civil service examination system, introduced in the Tang, reached its mature form in the Song. The examination broke the domination of the hereditary aristocracy by allowing men to be chosen for government service on the basis of merit. However, men from poor families were unlikely to be able to devote the necessary time and resources to studying for the rigorous examinations.
 3. With the invention of moveable type, the Song government was able to mass-produce authorized preparation texts for examination-takers. Printing also contributed to the dissemination of new agricultural technology and thus helped to increase agricultural production and spur population growth in South China.
 4. During the Song period China's population rose to 100 million. Population growth and economic growth fed the rise of large, crowded, but very well-managed cities like Hangzhou.
 5. The Song period saw the wide use of an interregional credit system called "flying money" and the introduction of government-issued paper money. The paper money caused inflation and was later withdrawn.
 6. The Song government was not able to control the market economy as closely as previous governments had done. Certain government functions, including tax collection, were privatized, and a new merchant elite thrived in the cities, their wealth derived from trade rather than land.
 7. Women's status declined during the Song period. Women were entirely subordinated to men and lost their rights to own and manage property; remarriage was forbidden. Painfully bound feet became a mandatory status symbol for elite women. Working class women and women from non-Han peoples of southern China did not bind their feet and had more independence than elite Han Chinese women did.
- XII. New Kingdoms in East Asia
- A. Chinese Influences
1. Korea, Japan, and Vietnam were all rice-cultivating economies whose labor needs fit well with Confucian concepts of hierarchy, obedience, and discipline. While they all adapted aspects of Chinese culture, the political ideologies of the

three countries remained different. None of them used the Chinese civil service examination system, although they did value literacy in Chinese and read the Chinese classics.

B. Korea

1. The Korean hereditary elite absorbed Confucianism and Buddhism from China and passed them along to Japan. The several small Korean kingdoms were united first by Silla in 668, and then by Koryo in the early 900s. Korea used woodblock printing as early as the 700s, and later invented moveable type, which it passed on to Song China.

C. Japan

1. Japan's mountainous terrain was home to hundreds of small states that were unified, perhaps by horse-riding warriors from Korea, in the fourth or fifth century. The unified state established its government at Yamato on Honshu Island.
2. In the mid-seventh century, the rulers of Japan implemented a series of political reforms to establish a centralized government, legal code, national histories, architecture and city planning based on the model of Tang China. However, the Japanese did not copy the Chinese model uncritically: they adopted it to the needs of Japan and maintained their own concept of emperorship. The native religion of Shinto survived alongside the imported Buddhist religion.
3. During the Heian period (794–1185), the Fujiwara clan dominated the Japanese government. The Heian period is known for the aesthetic refinement of its aristocracy and for the elevation of civil officials above warriors.
4. By the late 1000s, some warrior clans had become wealthy and powerful. After years of fighting, one warrior clan took control of Japan and established the Kamakura Shogunate with its capital at Kamakura in eastern Honshu.

D. Vietnam

1. Geographical proximity and a similar irrigated wet-rice agriculture made Vietnam suitable for integration with southern China. Economic and cultural assimilation took place during Tang and Song times, when the elite of Annam (northern Vietnam) modeled their high culture on that of the Chinese. When the Tang Empire fell, Annam established itself as an independent state under the name Dai Viet.
2. In southern Vietnam, the kingdom of Champa was influenced by Malay and Indian as well as by Chinese culture. During the Song period, when Dai Viet was established, Champa cultivated a relationship with the Song state and exported the fast-maturing Champa rice to China.
3. East Asian countries shared a common Confucian interest in hierarchy, but the status of women varied from country to country. Foot-binding was not common outside of China. Before Confucianism was introduced to Annam, women there had a higher status than women in Confucian China. Nowhere, however, was the education of women considered valuable or even desirable.

XIV. New Islamic Empires

A. Mali in the Western Sudan

1. Islam spread to sub-Saharan Africa by a gradual process of peaceful conversion. Conversion was facilitated by commercial contacts.
2. In 1240 Sundiata (the Muslim leader of the Malinke people) established the kingdom of Mali. Mali's economy rested on agriculture and was supplemented by control of regional and trans-Saharan trading routes and by control of the gold mines of the Niger headwaters.
3. The Mali ruler Mansa Kankan Musa (r. 1312–1337) demonstrated his fabulous wealth during a pilgrimage to Mecca. When he returned to Mali, Mansa Musa established new mosques and Quranic schools.
4. The kingdom of Mali declined and collapsed in the mid to late fifteenth century because of rebellions from within and attacks from without. Intellectual life and trade moved to other African states, including the Hausa states and Kanem-Bornu.

B. The Delhi Sultanate in India

1. Between 1206 and 1236 the divided states of northwest India were defeated by violent Muslim Turkish conquerors under the leadership of Sultan Iltutmish, who established the Delhi Sultanate as a Muslim state. Although the Muslim elite then settled down to rule India relatively peacefully, their Hindu subjects never forgave the violence of the conquest.
2. Iltutmish passed his throne on to his daughter, Raziya. Raziya was a talented ruler, but she was driven from office by men unwilling to accept a female monarch. Under Ala-ud-din (r. 1296–1316) and Muhammad ibn Tughluq (r. 1325–1351), the Delhi Sultanate carried out a policy of aggressive territorial expansion that was accompanied (in the case of Tughluq) by a policy of religious toleration toward Hindus—a policy that was reversed by Tughluq's successor.
3. In general, the Delhi sultans ruled by terror and were a burden on their subjects. In the mid-fourteenth century internal rivalries and external threats undermined the stability of the Sultanate. The Sultanate was destroyed when Timur sacked Delhi in 1398.

XIV. Indian Ocean Trade

A. Monsoon Mariners

1. The Indian Ocean trade increased between 1200 and 1500, stimulated by the prosperity of Latin Europe, Asian, and African states and, in the fourteenth century, by the collapse of the overland trade routes.
2. In the Red and Arabian Seas, trade was carried on dhows. From India on to Southeast Asia, junks dominated the trade routes.
3. Junks were technologically advanced vessels, having watertight compartments, up to twelve sails, and carrying cargoes of up to 1,000 tons. Junks were developed in China, but during the fifteenth century, junks were also built in Bengal and Southeast Asia and sailed with crews from those places.
4. The Indian Ocean trade was decentralized and cooperative, with various regions supplying particular goods. In each region a certain port functioned as the major emporium for trade in which goods from smaller ports were consolidated and shipped onward.

B. Africa: The Swahili Coast and Zimbabwe

1. By 1500, there were thirty or forty separate city-states along the East African coast participating in the Indian Ocean trade. The people of these coastal cities, the “Swahili” people, all spoke an African language enriched with Arabic and Persian vocabulary.
 2. Swahili cities, including Kilwa, were famous as exporters of gold that was mined in or around the inland kingdom whose capital was Great Zimbabwe.
 3. Great Zimbabwe’s economy rested on agriculture, cattle herding, and trade. The city declined due to an ecological crisis brought on by deforestation and overgrazing.
- C. Arabia: Aden and the Red Sea
1. Aden had enough rainfall to produce wheat for export and a location that made it a central transit point for trade from the Persian Gulf, East Africa, and Egypt. Aden’s merchants prospered on this trade and built what appeared to travelers to be a wealthy and impressive city.
 2. In general, a common interest in trade allowed the various peoples and religions of the Indian Ocean basin to live in peace. Violence did sometimes break out, however, as when Christian Ethiopia fought with the Muslims of the Red Sea coast over control of trade.
- D. India: Gujarat and the Malabar Coast
1. The state of Gujarat prospered from the Indian Ocean trade, exporting cotton textiles and indigo in return for gold and silver. Gujarat was not simply a commercial center; it was also a manufacturing center that produced textiles, leather goods, carpets, silk, and other commodities. Gujarat’s overseas trade was dominated by Muslims, but Hindus also benefited.
 2. Calicut and other cities of the Malabar Coast exported cotton textiles and spices and served as clearing-houses for long-distance trade. The cities of the Malabar Coast were unified in a loose confederation whose rulers were tolerant of other religious and ethnic groups.
- E. Southeast Asia: the Rise of Malacca
1. The Strait of Malacca is the principal passage from the Indian Ocean to the South China Sea. In the fourteenth century a gang of Chinese pirates preyed upon the strait, nominally under the control of the Java-based kingdom of Majapahit.
 2. In 1407, the forces of the Ming dynasty crushed the Chinese pirates. The Muslim ruler of Malacca took advantage of this to exert his domination over the strait and to make Malacca into a major port and a center of trade.
- XV. Social and Cultural Change
- A. Architecture, Learning, and Religion
1. Commercial contacts and the spread of Islam led to a variety of social and cultural changes in which local cultures incorporated and changed ideas, customs and architectural styles from other civilizations. African and Indian mosques are good examples of the synthesis of Middle Eastern and local architectural styles; in Ethiopia, a native tradition of rock carving led to the construction of eleven churches carved from solid rock.
 2. In the field of education, the spread of Islam brought literacy to African peoples who first learned Arabic and then used the Arabic script to write their own languages. In India literacy was already established, but the spread of Islam brought the development of a new Persian-influenced language (Urdu) and the papermaking technology.
 3. As it spread to Africa, India, and Southeast Asia, Islam also brought with it the study of Islamic law and administration and Greek science, mathematics, and medicine. Timbuktu, Delhi and Malacca were two new centers of Islamic learning.
 4. Islam spread peacefully; forced conversions were rare. Muslim domination of trade contributed to the spread of Islam as merchants attracted by the common moral code and laws of Islam converted and as Muslim merchants in foreign lands established households and converted their local wives and servants. The Islamic destruction of the last center of Buddhism in India contributed to the spread of Islam in that country.
 5. Islam brought social and cultural changes to the communities that converted, but Islam itself was changed, developing differently in African, Indian, and Indonesian societies.
- B. Social and Gender Distinctions
1. The gap between elites and the common people widened in tropical societies as the wealthy urban elites prospered from the increased Indian Ocean trade.
 2. Slavery increased in both Africa and in India. An estimated 2.5 million African slaves were exported across the Sahara and the Red Sea between 1200 and 1500, while more were shipped from the cities of the Swahili coast.
 3. Most slaves were trained in specific skills; in some cases, hereditary military slaves could become rich and powerful. Other slaves worked at hard menial jobs like copper mining, while others, particularly women, were employed as household servants and entertainers. The large number of slaves meant that the price of slaves was quite low.
 4. While there is not much information on possible changes in the status of women in the tropics, some scholars speculate that restrictions on women were eased somewhat in Hindu societies. Nonetheless, early arranged marriage was the rule for Indian women, and they were expected to obey strict rules of fidelity and chastity.
 5. Women’s status was generally determined by the status of their male masters. However, women did practice certain skills other than child rearing. These included cooking, brewing, farm work, and spinning.
 6. It is difficult to tell what effect the spread of Islam might have had on women. It is clear that in some places, such as Mali, Muslims did not adopt the Arab practice of veiling and secluding women.
- XVI. The Rise of the Mongols, 1200–1260
- A. Nomadism in Central and Inner Asia
1. Nomadic groups depended on scarce water and pasture resources; in times of scarcity, conflicts occurred, resulting in the extermination of smaller groups and in the formation of alliances and out-migration. Around the year 1000 the lands inhabited by the Mongols experienced unusually dry weather with its attendant effects on the availability of resources and pressures on the nomadic Mongol tribes.
 2. Mongol groups were a strongly hierarchical organization headed by a single leader or khan, but the khans had to ask that their decisions be ratified by a council of the leaders of powerful families. Powerful Mongol groups demanded

and received tribute in goods and in slaves from those less powerful. Some groups were able to live almost entirely on tribute.

3. The various Mongol groups formed complex federations that were often tied together by marriage alliances. Women from prestigious families often played an important role in negotiating these alliances.
4. The seasonal movements of the Mongol tribes brought them into contact with Manichaeism, Judaism, Christianity, Buddhism, and Islam. The Mongols accepted religious pluralism. Mongol khans were thought to represent the Sky God, who transcended all cultures and religions; khans were thus conceived of as universal rulers who both transcended and used the various religions of their subjects.
5. Nomads strove for economic self-sufficiency, but they always relied on trade with settled people for certain goods, including iron, wood, cotton, grain, and silk. When normal trade relations were interrupted, nomads tended to make war on settled agriculturalists.

B. The Mongol Conquests, 1215–1283

1. Between 1206 and 1234, under the leadership of Genghis Khan and his successors, the Mongols conquered all of North China and were threatening the Southern Song. During this period and onward to about 1265 the Mongol realms were united as the khans of the Golden Horde, the Jagadai domains of Central Asia, and the Il-khans all recognized the authority of the Great Khan in Mongolia.
2. When Khubilai declared himself Great Khan in 1265 the other Mongol khans refused to accept him; the Jagadai Khanate harbored a particular animosity toward Khubilai.
3. Khubilai founded the Yuan Empire with its capital at Beijing in 1271; in 1279 he conquered the Southern Song. After 1279, the Yuan attempted to extend its control to Southeast Asia. Annam and Champa were forced to pay tribute to the Yuan, but an expedition to Java ended in failure.
4. Historians have pointed to a number of factors that may have contributed to the Mongols' ability to conquer such vast territories. These factors include superior horsemanship, better bows, and the technique of following a volley of arrows with a deadly cavalry charge. Other reasons for the Mongols' success include their ability to learn new military techniques, adopt new military technology, and incorporate non-Mongol soldiers into their armies; their reputation for slaughtering all those who would not surrender; and their ability to take advantage of rivalries among their enemies.

C. Overland Trade and the Plague

1. The Mongol conquests opened overland trade routes and brought about an unprecedented commercial integration of Eurasia. The growth of long-distance trade under the Mongols led to significant transfer of military and scientific knowledge between Europe, the Middle East, China, Iran, and Japan.
2. Diseases including the bubonic plague also spread over the trade routes of the Mongol Empire. The plague that had lingered in Yunnan (now southwest China) was transferred to central and north China, to Central Asia, to Kaffa, and from there to the Mediterranean world.

XVVII. Mongols and Islam, 1260–1500

A. Mongol Rivalry

1. In the 1260s the Il-khan Mongol Empire controlled parts of Armenia and all of Azerbaijan, Mesopotamia, and Iran. Relations between the Buddhist/shamanist Il-khan Mongols and their Muslim subjects were tense because the Mongols had murdered the last Abbasid caliph and because Mongol religious beliefs and customs were contrary to those of Islam.
2. At the same time, Russia was under the domination of the Golden Horde, led by Genghis Khan's grandson Batu, who had converted to Islam and announced his intention to avenge the last caliph. This led to the first conflict between Mongol domains.
3. During this conflict European leaders attempted to make an alliance with the Il-khans to drive the Muslims out of Syria, Lebanon, and Palestine, while the Il-khans sought European help in driving the Golden Horde out of the Caucasus. These plans for an alliance never came to fruition because the Il-khan ruler Ghazan became a Muslim in 1295.

B. Islam and the State

1. The goal of the Il-khan State was to collect as much tax revenue as possible, which it did through a tax farming system.
2. In the short term, the tax farming system was able to deliver large amounts of grain, cash and silk. In the long term, over-taxation led to increases in the price of grain, a shrinking tax base, and, by 1295, a severe economic crisis.
3. Attempts to end the economic crisis through tax reduction programs coupled with the introduction of paper money failed to avert a depression that lasted until 1349. Thus the Il-khan domains fragmented as Mongol nobles fought each other for diminishing resources and Mongols from the Golden Horde attacked and dismembered the Il-khan Empire.
4. As the Il-khan Empire and the Golden Horde declined in the fourteenth century, Timur, the last Central Asian conqueror, built the Jagadai Khanate in central and western Eurasia. Timur's descendants, the Timurids, ruled the Middle East for several generations.

C. Culture and Science in Islamic Eurasia

1. In literature, the historian Juvaini wrote the first comprehensive account of the rise of the Mongols under Genghis Khan. Juvaini's work inspired the work of Rashid al-Din, who produced a history of the world that was published in a number of beautifully illustrated editions. Rashid al-Din, a Jew converted to Islam who served as adviser to the Il-khan ruler, was a good example of the cosmopolitanism of the Mongol world. The Timurids also supported notable historians including the Moroccan Ibn Khaldun (1332–1406).
2. Muslims under Mongol rulership also made great strides in astronomy, calendar-making, and the prediction of eclipses. Their innovations included the use of epicycles to explain the movement of the moon around the earth, the invention of more precise astronomical instruments, and the collection of astronomical data from all parts of the Islamic world and China for predicting eclipses with greater accuracy.

3. In mathematics, Muslim scholars adapted the Indian numerical system, devised the method for indicating decimal fractions, and calculated the value of π more accurately than had been done in classical times. Muslim advances in science, astronomy, and mathematics were passed along to Europe and had a significant effect on the development of European science and mathematics.

XVIII. Regional Responses in Western Eurasia

A. Russia and Rule from Afar

1. After they defeated the Kievan Rus, the Mongols of the Golden Horde made their capital at the mouth of the Volga, which was also the end of the overland caravan route from Central Asia. From their capital the Mongols ruled Russia “from afar,” leaving the Orthodox Church in place and using the Russian princes as their agents. As in other Mongol realms, the main goal of the Golden Horde was to extract as much tax revenue as possible from their subjects.
2. Because Prince Alexander of Novgorod had assisted the Mongols in their conquest of Russia, the Mongols favored Novgorod and Moscow (ruled by Prince Alexander’s brother). The favor shown to Novgorod and Moscow combined with the Mongol devastation of the Ukrainian countryside caused the Russian population to shift from Kiev toward Novgorod and Moscow, and Moscow emerged as the new center of the Russian civilization.
3. Some historians believe that Mongol domination had a negative effect on Russia, bringing economic depression and cultural isolation. Other historians argue that the Kievan state was already declining when the Mongols came, that the over-taxation of Russians under Mongol rule was the work of the Russian princes, that Russia was isolated by the Orthodox church, and that the structure of Russian government did not change appreciably under Mongol rule.
4. Ivan III, the prince of Moscow, ended Mongol rule in 1480 and adopted the title of tsar.

B. New States in Eastern Europe and Anatolia

1. Europe was divided between the political forces of the papacy and those of the Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II. Under these conditions, the states of Eastern Europe—particularly Hungary and Poland—faced the Mongol attacks alone.
2. The Mongol armies that attacked Europe were actually an international force including Mongols, Turks, Chinese, Iranians, and Europeans and led by Mongol generals. The well-led “Mongol” armies drove to the outskirts of Vienna, striking fear into the hearts of the Europeans; but rather than press on, the Mongols withdrew in December 1241 so that the Mongol princes could return to Mongolia to elect a successor to the recently deceased Great Khan Ogodei.
3. After the Mongol withdrawal, Europeans initiated a variety of diplomatic and trade overtures toward the Mongols. Contact between Europeans and Mongols increased through the thirteenth century and brought knowledge of geography, natural resources, commerce, science, technology and mathematics from various parts of the Mongol realms to Europe. At the same time, the Mongol invasions and the bubonic plague caused Europeans to question their accepted customs and religious beliefs.
4. The rise and fall of Mongol domination in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was accompanied by the rise of stronger centralized states including Lithuania and the various Balkan kingdoms. Lithuania in particular was able to capitalize on the decline of Mongol power to assert control over its neighbors, particularly Poland.
5. During the period of Mongol domination Anatolia functioned as a route by which Islamic culture was transferred to Europe via Constantinople. The Ottomans, who established themselves in eastern Anatolia in the 1300s but were kept in check by the Timurids, expanded eastward in the 1400s and conquered Constantinople in 1453.

XIX. Mongol Domination in China, 1271–1368

A. The Yuan Empire, 1279–1368

1. Khubilai Khan understood and practiced Chinese traditions of government. He constructed a Chinese-style capital at Beijing and a summer capital at Shangdu, where he and his courtiers could practice riding and shooting.
2. When the Mongols came to China, it was politically fragmented, consisting of three states: the Tanggut, the Jin, and the Southern Song. The Mongols unified these states and restored or preserved the characteristic features of Chinese government.
3. The Mongols also made some innovations in government. These included tax farming, the use of Western Asian Muslims as officials, and a hierarchical system of legally defined status groups defined in terms of race and function. Under the Yuan hierarchical system Confucians had a relatively weak role, while the status of merchants and doctors was elevated.
4. Under Mongol rule China’s cities and ports prospered, trade recovered, and merchants flourished. Merchants organized corporations in order to pool money and share risks. The flourishing mercantile economy led the Chinese gentry elite to move into the cities, where a lively urban culture of popular entertainment, vernacular literature, and the Mandarin dialect of Chinese developed.
5. In the rural areas, cotton growing, spinning, and weaving were introduced to mainland China from Hainan Island, and the Mongols encouraged the construction of irrigation systems. In general, however, farmers in the Yuan were overtaxed and brutalized while dams and dikes were neglected.
6. During the Yuan period China’s population declined by perhaps as much as 40 percent, with northern China seeing the greatest loss of population, while the Yangzi Valley actually saw a significant increase. Possible reasons for this pattern include warfare, the flooding of the Yellow River, north-south migration, and the spread of diseases, including the bubonic plague in the 1300s.

B. Cultural and Scientific Exchange

1. Exchange of scientific, technological, and mathematical knowledge was especially common between Iran and China, as the Yuan and the Il-khan regimes enjoyed good relations and had similar economic policies and a similar interest in sponsoring intellectual pursuits. China imported Il-khan science and technology; the Il-khans imported Chinese scholars and texts.
2. During this period Iranian astronomical knowledge, algebra, and trigonometry, and Islamic and Persian medical texts, seeds, and formulas were brought to China.

C. The Fall of the Yuan Empire

1. In 1368 the Chinese leader Zhu Yuanzhang brought an end to years of chaos and rebellion when he overthrew the Mongols and established the Ming Empire. The Mongols continued to hold power in Mongolia, Turkestan, and Central Asia, from which they were able to disrupt the overland Eurasian trade and threaten the Ming dynasty.
2. The Ming Empire was also threatened on its northeastern borders by the Jurchens of Manchuria. The Jurchens, who had been influenced by Mongolian culture, posed a significant threat to the Ming by the late 1400s.

XX. The Early Ming Empire, 1368–1500

A. Ming China on a Mongol Foundation

1. Former monk, soldier, and bandit Zhu Yuanzhang established the Ming Empire in 1368. Zhu's regime established its capital in Nanjing and made great efforts to reject the culture of the Mongols, close off trade relations with Central Asia and the Middle East, and to reassert the primacy of Confucian ideology.
2. At a deeper level, the Ming actually continued many institutions and practices that had been introduced during the Yuan. Areas of continuity include the Yuan provincial structure, the use of hereditary professional categories, the Mongol calendar and, starting with the reign of the Yongle emperor, the use of Beijing as capital.
3. Between 1405 and 1433 the Ming dispatched a series of expeditions to Southeast Asia and the Indian Ocean under the Muslim eunuch admiral Zheng He. The goals of these missions were to reestablish trade links with the Middle East and bring Southeast Asian countries and their overseas Chinese populations under Chinese control, or at least under its influence.
4. Zheng He's expeditions retraced routes that were largely known to the Chinese already. The voyages imported some luxury goods (including two giraffes) to China and added as many as fifty countries to China's list of tributaries. However, there was not significant increase in long-distance trade and the voyages were, overall, not profitable.
5. Many historians wonder why the voyages ceased and whether or not China could have gone on to become a great mercantile power or acquire an overseas empire. In answering this question it is useful to remember that the Zheng He voyages did not use new technology, were not profitable, were undertaken as the personal project of the Yongle Emperor, and may have been inspired partly by his need to prove his worth.
6. The end of the Zheng He voyages may also be related to the need to use limited resources for other projects, including coastal defense against Japanese pirates and defense of the northern borders against the Mongols. The end of the Zheng He voyages was not the end of Chinese seafaring: it was only the end of the state's organization and funding of such large-scale expeditions.

B. Technology and Population

1. The Ming saw less technological innovation than the Song; in the area of metallurgy, the Chinese lost the knowledge of how to make high-quality bronze and steel. Reasons for the slowdown in technological innovation include the high cost of metals and wood, the revival of a civil service examination system that rewarded scholarship and administration, a labor glut, lack of pressure from technologically sophisticated enemies, and a fear of technology transfer.
2. Korea and Japan moved ahead of China in technological innovation. Korea excelled in firearms, shipbuilding, meteorology, and calendar making, while Japan surpassed China in mining, metallurgy, and novel household goods.

C. The Ming Achievement

1. The Ming was a period of great wealth, consumerism, and cultural brilliance.
2. One aspect of Ming popular culture was the development of vernacular novels like *Water Margin* and *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*. The Ming was also known for its porcelain-making and for other goods including furniture, lacquered screens, and silk.

XXI. Centralization and Militarism in East Asia, 1200–1500

A. Korea from the Mongols to the Yi, 1231–1500

1. Korea's leaders initially resisted the Mongol invasions but gave up in 1258 when the king of Koryo surrendered and joined his family to the Mongols by marriage. The Koryo kings then fell under the influence of the Mongols, and Korea profited from exchange with the Yuan in which new technologies including cotton, gunpowder, astronomy, calendar making, and celestial clocks were introduced.
2. Koryo collapsed shortly after the fall of the Yuan and was replaced by the Yi dynasty. Like the Ming, the Yi reestablished local identity and restored the status of Confucian scholarship while maintaining Mongol administrative practices and institutions.
3. Technological innovations of the Yi period include the use of moveable type in copper frames, meteorological science, a local calendar, the use of fertilizer, and the engineering of reservoirs. The growing of cash crops, particularly cotton, became common during the Yi period.
4. The Koreans were innovators in military technology. Among their innovations were patrol ships with cannon mounted on them, gunpowder arrow-launchers, and armored ships.

B. Political Transformation in Japan, 1274–1500

1. The first (unsuccessful) Mongol invasion of Japan in 1274 made the decentralized local lords of Kamakura Japan develop a greater sense of unity as the shogun took steps to centralize planning and preparation for the expected second assault.
2. The second Mongol invasion (1281) was defeated by a combination of Japanese defensive preparations and a typhoon. The Kamakura regime continued to prepare for further invasions. As a result, the warrior elite consolidated their position in Japanese society, and trade and communication within Japan increased, but the Kamakura government found its resources strained by the expense of defense preparations.
3. The Kamakura shogunate was destroyed in a civil war and the Ashikaga shogunate was established in 1338. The Ashikaga period was characterized by a relatively weak shogunal state and strong provincial lords who sponsored the development of markets, religious institutions, schools, increased agricultural production, and artistic creativity.
4. After the Onin war of 1477, the shogunate exercised no power and the provinces were controlled by independent regional lords who fought with each other. The regional lords also carried out trade with continental Asia.

C. The Emergence of Vietnam, 1200–1500

1. The area of Vietnam was divided between two states: the Chinese-influenced Annam in the north and the Indian-influenced Champa in the south. The Mongols extracted tribute from both states, but with the fall of the Yuan Empire, they began to fight with each other.
 2. The Ming ruled Annam through a puppet government for almost thirty years in the early fifteenth century until the Annamese threw off Ming control in 1428. By 1500 Annam had completely conquered Champa and established a Chinese-style government over all of Vietnam.
- IX. Classic-Era Culture and Society in Mesoamerica, 200–900
- A. Teotihuacan
 1. Teotihuacan was a large Mesoamerican city at the height of its power in 450–600 C.E. The city had a population of 125,000 to 200,000 inhabitants and was dominated by religious structures, including pyramids and temples where human sacrifice was carried out.
 2. The growth of Teotihuacan was made possible by forced relocation of farm families to the city and by agricultural innovations including irrigation works and chinampas (“floating gardens”) that increased production and thus supported a larger population.
 3. Apartment-like stone buildings housed commoners, including the artisans who made pottery and obsidian tools and weapons for export. The elite lived in separate residential compounds and controlled the state bureaucracy, tax collection, and commerce.
 4. Teotihuacan appears to have been ruled by alliances of wealthy families rather than by kings. The military was used primarily to protect and expand long-distance trade and to ensure that farmers paid taxes or tribute to the elite.
 5. Teotihuacan collapsed around 650 C.E. The collapse may have been caused by mismanagement of resources and conflict within the elite, or as a result of invasion.
 - B. The Maya
 1. The Maya were a single culture living in modern Guatemala, Honduras, Belize, and southern Mexico, but they never formed a politically unified state. Various Maya kingdoms fought each other for regional dominance.
 2. The Maya increased their agricultural productivity by draining swamps, building elevated fields and terraced fields, and by constructing irrigation systems. The Maya also managed forest resources in order to increase the production of desired products.
 3. The largest Maya city-states dominated neighboring city-states and agricultural areas. Large city-states constructed impressive and beautifully decorated buildings and monuments by means of very simple technology—levers and stone tools.
 4. The Maya believed that the cosmos consisted of three layers: the heavens, the human world, and the underworld. Temple architecture reflected this cosmology, and the rulers and elites served as priests to communicate with the residents of the two supernatural worlds.
 5. Maya military forces fought for captives, not for territory. Elite captives were sacrificed, commoners enslaved.
 6. Maya elite women participated in bloodletting rituals and other ceremonies, but rarely held political power. Non-elite women probably played an essential role in agricultural and textile production.
 7. The most notable Maya technological developments are the Maya calendar, mathematics, and the Maya writing system.
 8. Most Maya city-states were abandoned or destroyed between 800 and 900 C.E. Possible reasons for the decline of Maya culture include the disruption of Mesoamerican trade attendant upon the fall of Teotihuacan, environmental pressure caused by overpopulation, and epidemic disease.
- XXII. The Post-Classic Period in Mesoamerica, 900–1500
- A. The Toltecs
 1. The Toltecs arrived in central Mexico in the tenth century and built a civilization based on the legacy of Teotihuacan. The Toltecs contributed innovations in the areas of politics and war.
 2. The Toltec capital at Tula was the center of the first conquest state in the Americas. Dual kings ruled the state—an arrangement that probably caused the internal struggle that undermined the Toltec state around 1000 C.E. The Toltecs were destroyed by invaders around 1156 C.E.
 - B. The Aztecs
 1. The Aztecs were originally a northern people with a clan-based social organization. They migrated to the Lake Texcoco area, established the cities of Tenochtitlan and Tlatelolco around 1325, and then developed a monarchical system of government.
 2. The kings increased their wealth and power by means of territorial conquest. As the Aztec Empire increased in size, commoners lost their ability to influence political decisions and inequalities in wealth grew more severe.
 3. The Aztecs increased agricultural production in the capital area by undertaking land reclamation projects and constructing irrigated fields and chinampas. Nonetheless, grain and other food tribute met nearly one quarter of the capital’s food requirements.
 4. Merchants who were distinct from and subordinate to the political elite controlled long-distance trade. The technology of trade was simple: no wheeled vehicles, draft animals, or money was used. Goods were carried by human porters and exchanged through barter.
 5. The Aztecs worshiped a large number of gods, the most important of whom was Huitzilopochtli, the Sun god. Huitzilopochtli required a diet of human hearts that were supplied by sacrificing thousands of people every year.
- XXX. Northern Peoples
- A. Southwestern Desert Cultures
 1. Irrigation-based agriculture was introduced to Arizona from Mexico around 300 B.C.E. The most notable Mexican-influenced civilization of the area was the Hohokam, who constructed extensive irrigation works in the Salt and Gila valleys around 1000 C.E.
 2. The more influential Anasazi developed a maize, rice, and bean economy and constructed underground buildings (kivas) in the Arizona/New Mexico/Colorado/Utah region around 450–750 C.E.

3. The large Anasazi community at Chaco Canyon had a population of about 15,000 people engaged in hunting, trade, and irrigated agriculture. Chaco Canyon people seem to have exerted some sort of political or religious dominance over a large region. The Anasazi civilization declined in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries as a result of drought, overpopulation, and warfare.

B. Mound Builders: The Adena, Hopewell, and Mississippian Cultures

1. The Adena people were a hierarchical hunter-gatherer society in the Ohio Valley that engaged in limited cultivation of crops and buried their dead in large mounds. Around 100 c.E. the Adena culture blended into the Hopewell culture.
2. The Hopewell culture was based in the Ohio Valley but its trade and influence extended as far as Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, New York and Ontario, and south to Florida. Like the Adena, the Hopewell economy was based on hunting and gathering and supplemented by agriculture.
3. The major Hopewell centers were ruled by hereditary chiefs. Chiefs served as priests and managed secular affairs such as long-distance trade. The Hopewell people built large mounds both as burial sites and as platforms upon which temples and residences of chiefs were constructed.
4. Hopewell sites were abandoned around 400 c.E., but the Hopewell technology and mound-building are linked to the development of the Mississippian culture (700–1500 c.E.). Urbanized Mississippian chiefdoms were made possible by increased agricultural productivity, the bow and arrow, and expanded trade networks.
5. The largest Mississippian center was Cahokia, with a population of about 30,000 around 1200 c.E. Cahokia was abandoned around 1250, perhaps because of climate changes and population pressure.

XXXI. Andean Civilizations, 200–1500

A. Cultural Response to Environmental Challenge

1. The harsh environment of the high-altitude Andes, the dry coastal plain, and the tropical headwaters of the Amazon forced the human inhabitants of these areas to organize labor efficiently in order to produce enough food to live.
2. The basic unit of Andean labor organization was the clan (ayllu). Clans held land collectively and clan members were obligated to assist each other in production and to supply goods and labor to the clan chief.
3. The territorial states organized after 1000 c.E. introduced the institution of the mit'a, which required each ayllu to provide a set number of workers each year to provide labor for religious establishments, the royal court, or the aristocracy.
4. Work was divided along gender lines. Men were responsible for hunting, war, and government; women wove and cared for the crops and the home.
5. The Andean region is divided into four major ecological zones: the coast, mountain valleys, higher elevations, and the Amazonian region. Each region produced different goods, and these goods were exchanged between the various regions through a network of trade routes.

B. Moche and Chimú

1. The Moche culture emerged in the north coastal region of Peru in about 200 c.E. The Moche used the mit'a labor system to construct an extensive irrigated agriculture that produced maize, quinoa, beans, and manioc.
2. Moche society was stratified and theocratic. Wealth and power were concentrated in the hands of an elite of priests and military leaders who lived atop large platforms and decorated themselves with magnificent clothing, jewelry, and tall headdresses. Commoners cultivated their fields and supplied mit'a labor to the elite.
3. Moche artisans were skilled in the production of textiles, portrait vases, and metallurgy. Gold and silver were used for decorative purposes, copper and copper alloy for farm tools and weapons.
4. The decline and fall of the Moche civilization may be attributed to a series of natural disasters in the sixth century and to pressure from the warlike Wari people in the eighth century.
5. The Chimú civilization emerged at the end of the Moche period and reached the height of its military power and territorial expansion around 1200 c.E. At their capital of Chan Chan, the Chimú rulers were distinguished by their conspicuous consumption of luxury goods and by their burial compounds.

C. Tiwanaku and Wari

1. The civilization of Tiwanaku, in Bolivia, experienced increased agricultural productivity and urbanization in the years following 200 c.E. Tiwanaku cultivated potatoes and grains on raised fields reclaimed from marshland.
2. Tiwanaku's urban construction included a large terraced pyramid, walled enclosures, and a reservoir. Construction was done with large stones quarried, moved, and laid by thousands of laborers working with simple technology and copper alloy tools.
3. Tiwanaku society was highly stratified, ruled by a hereditary elite, and included specialized artisans. Some scholars believe that Tiwanaku was the capital of a vast empire, but archeological evidence suggests that it was only a ceremonial and political center for a large regional population.
4. The Wari culture was located near the city of Ayacucho, Peru. Wari had contact with Tiwanaku but was a separate culture; the city being built without central planning, with different techniques, and on a much smaller scale than Tiwanaku. Both Tiwanaku and Wari declined to insignificance by 1000 c.E.

D. The Inca

1. The Inca were a small chiefdom in Cuzco until their leaders consolidated political authority and began a program of military expansion in the 1430s. By 1525, the Inca had constructed a huge empire.
2. The key to Inca wealth was their ability to develop a strong professional military and to use it in order to broaden and expand the traditional exchange system that had linked the various ecological zones of the Andes region together. The Inca used the mit'a labor system to man their armies, to build their capital city, to maintain their religious institutions, and to provide for the old, the weak, and the ill.
3. The Inca generally left local rulers in place, controlling them by means of military garrisons and by taking their heirs to Cuzco as hostages. At the central level, the Inca created an imperial bureaucracy led by a king. Each king was required to prove himself by conquering new territory.

4. The capital city of Cuzco was laid out in the shape of a puma and its buildings constructed of stone laid together without mortar. Cuzco's palaces and richly decorated temples were the scene of rituals, feasts, sacrifices of textiles, animals, other tribute goods, and the occasional human.
5. The cultural attainments of the Inca Empire include astronomical observation, weaving, copper and bronze metallurgy, and gold and silver working. The Inca did not introduce new technologies, but made more efficient use of existing technology in order to increase the profits gained by the trade between the ecological zones of the Andean region.
6. Inca domination resulted in increased wealth, but also in reduced levels of local autonomy. When the elite fell into civil war in 1525, Inca control over its vast territories was weakened.

XXV. Tropical Lands and Peoples

A. The Tropical Environment

1. The tropical zone falls between the Tropic of Cancer in the north and the Tropic of Capricorn in the south. The Afro-Asian tropics have a cycle of rainy and dry seasons dictated by the alternating winds known as monsoons.
2. While those parts of the tropics such as coastal West Africa, west-central Africa, and southern India get abundant rainfall, there is also an arid zone extending across northern Africa (the Sahara) and northwest India, and another arid zone in southwestern Africa. Altitude also affects climate, with high-altitude mountain ranges and plateaus having cooler weather and shorter growing seasons than the low-altitude coastal plains and river valleys. Major rivers bring water from these mountains to other areas.

B. Human Ecosystems

1. Human societies adopted different means of surviving in order to fit into the different ecological zones found in the tropics. In areas such as central Africa, the upper altitudes of the Himalayas, and some seacoasts, wild food and fish was so abundant that human societies thrived without having developed agricultural or herding economies.
2. Human communities in the arid areas of the tropics relied on herding and supplemented their diets with grain and vegetables obtained through trade with settled agriculturalists. The vast majority of the people of the tropics were farmers who cultivated various crops (rice, wheat, sorghum millet, etc.) depending on the conditions of soil, climate, and water.
3. In those parts of South and Southeast Asia that had ample water supplies, intensive agriculture transformed the environment and supported dense populations. In most parts of sub-Saharan Africa and many parts of Southeast Asia, farmers abandoned their fields every few years and cleared new areas by cutting and burning the natural vegetation.
4. The tropics have an uneven distribution of rainfall during the year. In order to have year-round access to water for intensive agriculture, tropical farming societies constructed dams, irrigation canals, and reservoirs.
5. In India, Cambodia, and Sri Lanka, governments mobilized vast resources to construct and maintain large irrigation and water-control projects. Such huge projects increased production, but they were highly vulnerable to natural disasters and political disruptions. In contrast, the smaller irrigation systems constructed at the village level were easier to reconstruct and provided greater long-term stability.

C. Mineral Resources

1. Tropical peoples used iron for agricultural implements, weapons, and needles. Copper, particularly important in Africa, was used to make wire and decorative objects. Africa was also known for its production of gold.
2. Metalworking and food-producing systems mobilized the labor of ordinary people in order to produce surpluses that in places supported powerful states and profitable commercial systems. Neither of those elite enterprises would have been possible without the work of ordinary people.

XXVI. Transition to the Modern World - Learning, Literature, and the Renaissance

A. Universities and Learning

1. After 1100 Western Europeans got access to Greek and Arabic works on science, philosophy, and medicine. These manuscripts were translated and explicated by Jewish scholars and studied at Christian monasteries, which remained the primary centers of learning.
2. After 1200, colleges and universities emerged as new centers of learning. Some were established by students; most were teaching guilds established by professors in order to oversee the training, control the membership, and fight for the interests of the profession.
3. Universities generally specialized in a particular branch of learning; Bologna was famous for its law faculty, others for medicine or theology. Theology was the most prominent discipline of the period as theologians sought to synthesize the rational philosophy of the Greeks with the Christian faith of the Latin West in an intellectual movement known as scholasticism.

B. Humanists and Printers

1. Dante Alighieri (1265–1321) and Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) were among the great writers of the later Middle Ages. Dante's *Divine Comedy* tells the story of the author's journey through the nine layers of Hell and his entry into Paradise, while Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* is a rich portrayal of the lives of everyday people in late medieval England.
2. Dante influenced the intellectual movement of the humanists—men such as Petrarch and Boccaccio, who were interested in the humanities and in the classical literature of Greece and Rome. The humanists had a tremendous influence on the reform of secondary education.
3. Some of the humanists wrote in the vernacular. Most of them wrote in Latin; many worked to restore the original texts of Latin and Greek authors and of the Bible through exhaustive comparative analysis of the many various versions that had been produced over the centuries. As a part of this enterprise, Pope Nicholas V established the Vatican Library and the Dutch humanist Erasmus produced a critical edition of the New Testament.
4. The influence of the humanist writers was increased by the development of the printing press. Johann Gutenberg perfected the art of printing in 1454; Gutenberg's press and more than two hundred others had produced at least 10 million printed works by 1500.

C. Renaissance Artists

1. Fourteenth and fifteenth century artists built on the more natural paintings of Giotto as they developed a style of painting that concentrated on the depiction of Greek and Roman gods and of scenes from daily life. The realistic style was also influenced by Jan van Eyck's development of oil paints. Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo were two of the famous artists of this period.
2. Wealthy merchant and clerical patrons like the Medicis of Florence and the church contributed to the development of Renaissance art. The artistic and intellectual developments of the Renaissance did not stop in Europe; the university, printing, and oil painting were later adopted all over the world.