

JERRY H. BENTLEY | HERBERT F. ZIEGLER | HEATHER E. STREETS-SALTER

SAMPLE CHAPTER FOR REVIEW PURPOSES ONLY

# TRADITIONS & ENCOUNTERS

A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE PAST



SIXTH EDITION



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# Traditions & Encounters

A Global Perspective on the Past

2020 UPDATE AP® EDITION

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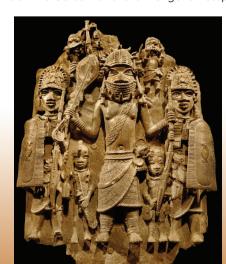


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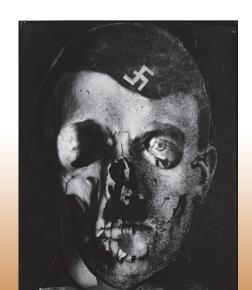
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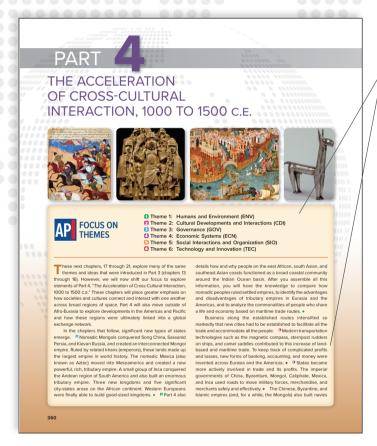
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# Outstanding Features of

# TRADITIONS & ENCOUNTERS AP EDITION



Students are encouraged to think about the content in each part from a thematic perspective.

Each AP part opener has been revised to address the needs of the AP student. AP Course Themes are given prominence with color-coded numbers that represent a theme in a section and a color-coded diamond to designate where the theme ends in the narrative.



consequences of intensified trade and charted routes.

O The Mongols, Mexica, and Inca used well-traveled routes to invade and conquer. The Polynesians and the Swahili states on the east coast of Africa used

their saling and navigational salic to trade and to a set up"disapporic" communities, the original salic to trade and to a set up"disapporic" communities, and reliable to the death of the salic trade and to a set up"disapporic" communities, and reliable to the death of the salic trade and the salic trade to the salic trade tr

the world, it's important not to forget the people who experienced the impact of change or the consequences of continuity. Pay attention to those who work in the business world, on the farms, and at home. When farming techniques improved and new crops were brought to a new region, the "more food = more people" scenario was encountered again. O When there was an escalation in farming, more and different kinds of pale medical continuity of the second of the second continuity of the successes of the Columbian voyages were based on that the successes of the Columbian voyages were based on the choologies acquired from the soft-second continuity.

# **Expanding Horizons** of Cross-Cultural Interaction

# chapter 21

#### AP HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

- La ITSI OTRICAL DEVELOPMENT )

  As exchange networks intensified, an increased number of travelers within Afro-Eurasia wrote about their travels. 
  There was continued diffusion of cryos and pathogens, with epidemic diseases, the bubonic plaque, along trade routes. 
  A deepening and widening of networks of human interaction within and across regions contributed to cultural, technological, and biological diffusion within and between various societies, improved commercial practices let on increased volume of trade and expanded the geographical range of existing trade routes—including the Silk Roads—promoting the growth of powerful new trading cities.
- AP HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS /

Developments and Processes Explain the various impacts

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Interregional travelers tell the story of expanding Afro-Eurasian horizons in the postclassical era, and north African born Ibn

Battuta is the most important traveler for you to know. Historians use the observations in his diaries to analyze the cultural unity of dar of-slom. Study the major Afro-Eurasian rade noutes—the Slik Roads, the trans-Saharan routes, pledindan Ocean basin network, and the Mediterranean—affonce that the Battuta traveled by land and sea on glad off mem.

This chapter presents the end of the postclassical era in western Europe. From the fall p-time vestern Europe. From the fall p-time western Europe Slowly rebuilt pler agricultural productivity and unarh-based societies—afficially like a place of the chapter of the Ch the representation and the final man explorations were based on the prosperity, ideas, and technologies generated from interacting with east Asia and dar al-slam and the network of traderoutes in between.

After the Mongol Yuan dynasty was deposed in China, the

Developments and Processes Explain the various impacts long-distance exchanges had on Afro-Eurasian societies.

Source Claims and Evidence identify and describe the ways in which travel accounts reveal the extent of trade and travel across Afro-Eurasian.

Contextualization identify and describe Byzantine and Islamic influences on the western European Renaissance.

Making Connections Identify connections between long-distance exchanges and the spread of bubonic plague

PREASONING PROCESSES

Causation Describe the effects of long-distance exchange networks on Afro-Eurasian societies.

PC CHAPTER FOCUS

■ AP Chapter Summaries tie chapter content to the AP Themes laid out in the part openers.

> ■ AP Test Practice for each chapter allows students the opportunity to answer the AP-style multiple choice, short answer, and essay questions.

■ The thought-provoking **AP** Assessing Themes questions at the end of each part help students see the "big picture" and make connections to the themes addressed in the AP part openers.

Chapter-level AP Historical **Developments** correlations ensure proper focus by students and teachers.

- AP Historical Thinking Skills provide guided study as students learn to view history through the lens of these skills.
- **▶■ AP Reasoning Processes** help students compare, analyze causes and effects, and see patterns of change and continuity throughout history.
  - AP Chapter Focus explains the core AP concepts students will learn in each chapter and provides direction about what information will appear on the AP exam.

#### AP CHAPTER SUMMARY

As European mariners ventured into the Indian and Atlantic Cocan basins, they unwittingly inaugurated a new era in world history. For millennia, peoples of different societies had traded, communicated, and intenaced, but unprovements in transportation technologies allowed peoples to travel at increasingly greater distances. 90½ 1500 the Indian Coesan served as a highway linking peoples from China to east Africa, and overland traffic kept the Silk Roads busy from China to the Medierranens Sea. 9 Tade goods, diplomatic missions, religious faiths, technological skills, agricultural crops, and disease pathogens all movel readily over the sea lanes and the Silk Roads, and they profoundly influenced the development of societies throughout the eastern hemisphere. 4 In the western hemisphere, trading networks linked lands as distant as Mexico and the Great laces region, while Pacific slanders regularly traveled and traded between Island groups. 4 Never before, however, had peoples of the eastern hemisphere, and Occania dealt with one another on a regular and systematic basis. 9 The voyages of European martiners during the fifteenth and dilowing centuries another on a regular and systematic basis. 9 The voyages of European martiners during the fifteenth and dilowing centuries during the supplies of planet earth into permanent and sustained interaction. 4 The formation and econfiguration of global networks of power, communication, and exchange that followed from those interactions rank among the most prominent themes of modern world history.

#### AP TEST PRACTICE

MULTIPLE CHOICE Use the image on page 457 and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1–3.

- The battle depicted in the image best reflects warfare influ-enced by which of the following?
  - A Medieval feudal armies and weaponry
  - B Traditional siege methods against defensive fortifications
- c Cross cultural influx of military technology and tactics
- D The use of professional mercenary soldiers
- 2. The protracted conflict of the Hundred Years' War led most
- A Ideals and emotions of a patriotic nature
- B Political fragmentation and feuds among the nobility

- D Extreme demographic changes due to plague and warfare
- In order to maintain armies, such as those depicted in the image, rulers of both England and France developed which of the following?
  - A Profits based on industrial production and trade
- B Centralized authority to levy taxes
- c Collection of tribute from conquered territories
- D Creation and selling of treasury bonds

SHORT ANSWER Use your knowledge of world history to answer questions 4-5.

- 4. Use the map on pages 450-451 to answer parts A, B, and C.
- A Explain ONE factor that dictated the routes traveled by Marco Polo or Ibn Battuta in their careers.
  - B Identify ONE effect that the writings of travelers, su as Marco Polo and Ibn Battuta, had on intercultural
- Provide ONE piece of historical evidence to support your answer in part B.
- 5. Answer parts A. B. and C.
  - A Identify ONE way in which long-distance trade fostered change in the societies of Afro-Eurasia.
  - B Identify ONE way in which long-distance trade provided continuity in the societies of Afro-Eurasia.
  - c Explain ONE way in which long-distance trade affected the process of state building in the societies of Afro-Eurasia.

LONG ESSAY Develop a thoughtful and thorough historical argument that answers the question below. Begin your essay with a thesis statement and support it with relevant historical

Causation Using specific examples, describe the effects of the bubonic plague, or Black Death, on society in Afro-Eurasia during the period circa 1300 c.e. to circa 1500 c.e.

#### AP ASSESSING THEMES

- How did the intensification of trade routes facilitate the spread of new foods, agricultural techniques, and diseases within the eastern hemisphere?
   How do the writings of international travelers illustrate.
- within the eastern hemisphere?

  2. How did disports merchant communities foster cose-cultural interactions along trade routes in this period?

  3. What political, social, and economic conditions present in this period concuraged or allowed the formation of new types of governments?



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Connecting the Sources feature asks students to compare and contrast two documents or images and think critically about the different ways the given information can be interpreted. This feature occurs once per part, and includes AP-Style questions for additional Exam practice.

# Connecting the Sources

#### Individual experiences of the bubonic plague

The problem The rapid spread of bubonic plague from China to most of Eurasia in the fourteenth century was a disaster that had profound and lasting effects on historical developments in China, central and southwest Asia, north Africa, and Europe, from massive population decline to economic disruption to socia and political unrest. Although historians and scientists continue to dispute exact mortality rates, it is clear that the plague killed many millions of people, reducing populations wherever it struck by at least 25 percent, and sometimes much more. When exploring the least 20 pertent, and sometimes much mide. When exploring the history of disasters like the plague, it can be easy to forget that each individual who lived through the event—or died from It—had his or her own story, feelings, and family. In world history, while it is important to understand the "big picture," it is also important to remember that the "big picture" is always composed of millions of individual stories. These individual stories remind us that experiencing terrible events was not easier for individuals just because many suffered similar fates, or because they occurred a long

The following documents are only two examples—one from Italy and the other from Syria—of how individuals experienced the plague as it tore through Europe and southwest Asia in 1348.

The documents Read the documents below, and consider carefully the questions that follow

Document 1: Francesco Petrarca (1304–1374) was an Italian scholar and early, humanist who lived through the plague that struck Italy in 1348. Scholars believe he wrote the following letter, known as the Metrica, to himself in about 1348.

O what has come over me? Where are the violent fates pushing me back to? I see passing by, in headlong flight, time which makes the world a fleeting place. I observe about me dying throngs of both young and old, and nowhere is there a refuge. No haven beckons in any part of the globe, nor can any hope of longed for salvation be seen. Wherever I turn my frightened eyes, their gaze is troubled by continual funerals; the churches groun encumbered with biers, and, without last respects, the corpses of the noble and the commoner lie in confusion alongside each other. The last hour of life comes to mind, and, oblived to recollect my misfortunes. conversations of friends, the sweet faces which suddenly vanished, and the hallowed ground now insufficient for repeated burials. This is what the people of Italy bemoan, weakened by so many deaths: this is what France laments, exhausted and strinned of inhabitants; the same goes for other peoples, under whateve skies they reside. Either it is the wrath of God, for certainly I would think that our misdeeds deserve it, or it is just the harsh sault of the stars in their perpetually changing conjunctions Dense shadows have covered me with fear. For whosoever thinks they can recall death and look upon the moment of their passing
with fearless face is either mistaken or mad, or, if he is fully aware, then he is very courageous.

Document 2: Ibn al-Wardi (ca. 1290-1349) was a Muslim write. who lived and worked in Aleppo (modern Syrid). He wrote the following "Essay on the Report of the Pestilence" after the plague struck his region in the spring of 1348. The next year, in March 1349, al-Ward himself died of the plague. This plague is for the Muslims a martyrdom and a reward, and for the disbelievers a punishment and a rebuke. . . . I take refuge in God from the yoke of the plague. Its high explosion has burst into all countries and was an examiner of astonishing things. Its sudden attacks perplex the people. The plague chases the screaming without pity and does not accept a treasure for ransom. Its engine is far-reaching. The plague enters into the house and swears it will not leave except with all of its inhabitants. . . . Among the benefits of this . . . is the removal of one's hopes and the improvement of his earthly works. It awakens men from their indifference for the provisioning of their final journey. . . . Come then, seek the aid of God Almighty for raising the plague, for He is the best helper. Oh God, we call You better than anyone did before. We call You to raise from us the pestilence and plague. . . . We plead with You, by the most honored of the advocates, Muhammad, the Prophet of mercy, that You take away from us this distress. Protect us from the evil and the torture

#### **AP** Test Practice

- 1. Which conclusion about contemporary understanding of which conclusion about contemporary understanding of the bubonic plague is best supported by Documents 1 and 2? A Efforts to wipe out the disease's main cause achieved the opposite effect by forcing carriers to leave home.
- B Knowing the causes of bubonic plague helped Europeans
- control its spread better than Muslims.

  C Trade declined greatly as people sought to halt the spread of plague by traveling merchants.

  D People in affected areas struggled to halt the disease's
- diffusion because they were unable to trace its source.



Toggenburg Bible

- What social effect did the bubonic plague have on those individuals living in Afro-Eurasia during this period?
   A Beliefs that the plague was sent to punish heretics led to
- a surge in forceful religious conversions.
- Fears over the plaque, and sorrow over the deaths it caused, resulted in immense personal suffering.
   Heightened distrust weekneed traditional family bonds.
   High death tolls caused people to value survival of the
- group over their own personal health.

Source Citations: Document 1: http://www.brown.edu/Departments/ Italian\_Studies/dweb/plague/perspectives/petrarca2\_php Document 2: John Aberth, The First Horseman: Disease in Human History (Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson Prentice Hall, 2007), pp. 42–43.

Sources from the Past features showcase a significant primary source document of the period, such as a poem, journal account, religious writing, or letter. Thought-provoking questions prompt readers to analyze key issues raised in the document.

# **Sources**fromthe **Past**

#### Ibn Battuta on Customs in the Mali Empire

Long-distance travelers often encountered unfamiliar customs in foreign societies. The Moroccan traveler Ibn Battuta approved heartily when staying with hosts who honored the values of his own Muslim society, but he had little tolerance for those who did not. Here he describes what he witnessed at the sultan's court in the Mali empire

The Blacks are the most respectful of people to their king and abase themselves most before him. They swear by him, saving Mansa Sulaiman ki [the law of Mansa Sulaiman, the Mali sultan]. If he summons one of them at his session in the cupola . . . the man summoned removes his robe and puts on a shabby one, takes off his turban, puts on a dirty skull-cap and goes in with his robe and his trousers lifted half way to his knees. He comes forward humbly and abjectly, and strikes the ground hard with his elbows. He stands as if he were prostrating himself in prayer, and hears what the Sultan says like this. If one of them speaks to the Sultan and he answers him, he takes his robe off his back, and throws dust on his head and back like neone making his ablutions with water. I was astonished that they did not blind themselves.

When the Sultan makes a speech in his audience those present take off their turbans from their heads and listen in silence. Sometimes one of them stands before him, recounts what he has done for his service, and says: "On such and such a day I did such and such, and I killed so and so on such and such a day." Those who know vouch for the truth of that and he does it in this way. One of them draws the string of his bow, then lets it go as he would do if he were shooting. If the Sultan says to him: "You are right" or thanks him, he takes off his robe and pours dust on himself. That is good manners among them.

Among their good practices are their avoidance of injustice; there is no people more averse to it, and their Sultan does not allow anyone to practice it in any measure; [other good practices include] the universal security in their country, for neither the traveller nor the resident there has to fear thieves or bandits. their punctiliousness in praying, their perseverance in joining the congregation, and in compelling their children to do so; if a man does not come early to the mosque he will not find a place to pray because of the dense crowd; it is customary for each man to send his servant with his prayer-mat to spread it out in a place reserved for him until he goes to the mosque himself. . . . They dress in clean white clothes on Fridays; if one of them has only a threadbare shirt he washes it and cleans it and wears it for praye on Friday. They pay great attention to memorizing the Holy

Among their bad practices are that the women servants, slave-girls and young daughters appear naked before people, exposing their genitals. I used to see many like this in [the fasting month of I Ramadan, for it is customary for the fararis [commanders] to break the fast in the Sultan's palace, where their food is brought to them by twenty or more slave-girls, who are naked. Women who come before the Sultan are naked and unveiled, and so are his daughters. On the night of the twenty-seventh of Ramadan I have seen about a hundred naked slave-girls come out of his palace with food; with them were two daughters of the Sultan with full breasts and they too had no veil. They put dust and practice: Many of them eat carrion, dogs and donkeys.

#### For Further Reflection

Discuss the various ways in which Islamic influences and established local customs came together in the Mali empire

Source: H. A. R. Gibb. trans. The Travels of Ibn Battuta, A.D. 1325-1354. 4 vols, London: Hakluyt Society, 1958-94, 4:960, 965-66



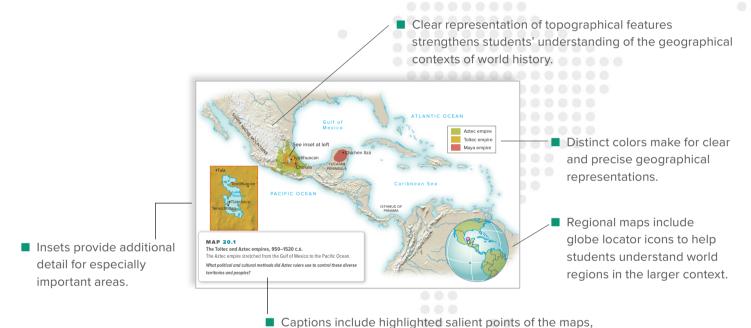
Reverberations feature helps students draw connections across chapters. Taking a "big picture" topic like the Columbian exchange, industrialization, or technological change, it traces the reverberations of such large-scale processes through different regions and cultures to encourage thinking about cause and effect. The Reverberations feature appears in the first chapter of every part and then reappears as a shorter boxed feature titled "Reverberations of . . ." in each subsequent chapter.

# 

# The Columbian Exchange

Think back to the effects of Eurasian diseases on the original inhabitants of the Americas after 1492. In what ways was the massive death toll among indigenous Americans related to the origins of the Atlantic slave trade?

**Historical Maps** Bright colors and high contrast in the maps promote clarity, highlight topographical information, and enhance digital display.



TRADITI NS

& ENCOUNTERS

Our new AP Teacher Manual gives teachers the tools to help students navigate the new AP World History: Modern course and succeed on the AP exam. The content supports and deepens understanding of the content covered in the Student Edition.

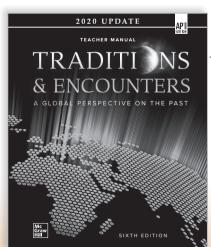
information presented in the book.

The Teacher Manual, available in print and digital format, provides:

- A chapter to help with the transition to the 1200 course start date
- Pacing Guide
- Sample Syllabus
- AP Key Terms
- AP Discussion and Activities focused on core themes

followed by critical-thinking questions that prompt students to link the book's narrative to geographic

- Answers and rubrics for the end-of-chapter AP Test Practice questions in the Student Edition



# To the AP World History Student

Welcome to AP World History! *Traditions & Encounters* is one of the most widely-used textbooks for AP World History. Professor Jerry Bentley, one of the two authors, was closely involved in the AP program for many years. He helped design the original AP course, worked on committees to fine-tune the curriculum, and scored the AP World History Exam for ten years in order to gauge how students performed and how his textbook could help them and their teachers. As you work with this book, I think you will see his high regard for the AP course and its students.

Professors Bentley and Zeigler wrote this text for college students. My job, as an AP World History teacher, has been to tailor the textbook to high school AP classes. I've modeled the adaptations on the College Board's Curriculum Framework for the AP World History course and AP Exam, which can be found on the College Board's Web site.

Each chapter opens with AP Historical Development (essential course content knowledge linked to the Curriculum Framework) and AP Historical Thinking Skills and Reasoning Processes—directives to help you practice the historical thinking skills and reasoning processes that are assessed on the AP Exam. Additionally, each chapter opener provides you with an AP Chapter Focus that previews what's in the chapter and tells you what you need to know for the AP Exam.

Turn to the part openers in this book—AP Focus on Themes—to find an Introduction for each of the four AP World History Periods (use the colorful tabs along the right edge of each page). I've written these Introductions to help you align the textbook to the themes in the Curriculum Framework.

To help you practice for the AP Exam, every chapter ends with AP Test Practice questions, including multiple-choice and short-answer questions tied to a stimulus, like those you will see on the AP Exam. In addition, the AP Assessing Themes questions at the end of each part ask you questions that tie together the set of chapters within a Period.

AP World History is not a date-driven course in which you need to memorize dates for the AP Exam. The only dates you absolutely must know and understand are the dates of each of the four Periods, because those dates form the skeleton of the course. You also have to know geography. Study the map below. These are the regions you must know, and all AP Exam questions will use regional names.

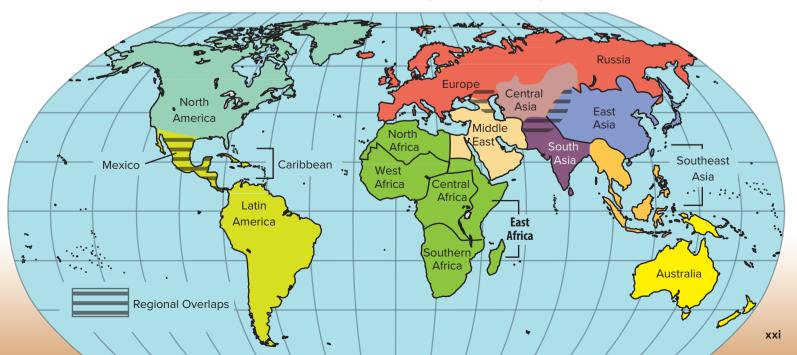
I hope you enjoy this course, start analyzing like historians, and open yourself to all that can be learned through world history.

Sincerely, Ane Lintvedt McDonogh School Owings Mills, Maryland

# McGraw-Hill Education would also like to thank the following contributors to this program:

Paul Philp, John Paul II High School, Plano, Texas (Teacher Manual), Barbara Ozuna, R. L. Paschal High School, Fort Worth, Texas (Chapter and Part test banks), and Wendy Eagan, Walt Whitman High School, Bethesda, Maryland (Chronological and Thematic correlations).

# **AP World History: World Regions**





# Personalized, Adaptive, and Dynamic Digital Posseurses

# Digital Resources

**Traditions & Encounters 2020 Update** is enriched with resources including AP practice test banks primary and secondary sources, and adaptive learning tools that provide students with an opportunity to contextualize and apply their understanding.

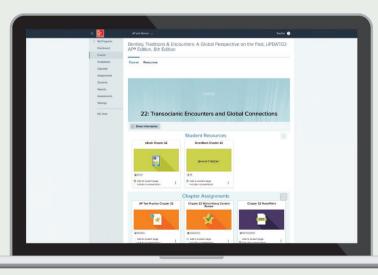
Authored by the world's leading subject matter experts and organized by part and chapter level, the resources provide students with multiple opportunities to contextualize and apply their understanding. Teachers can save time, customize lessons, monitor student progress, and make data-driven decisions in the classroom with the flexible, easy-to-navigate instructional tools.

# **Intuitive Design**

Resources are organized at the part and chapter level. To enhance the core content, teachers can add assignments, activities, and instructional aides to any lesson.

The chapter landing page gives students access to:

- · assigned activities
- resources and assessments
- · interactive eBook
- adaptive SmartBook®
- · primary and secondary sources



Chapter landing page links students to resources that support success.



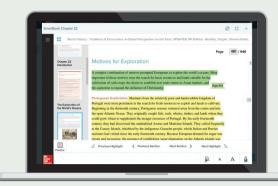
**Mobile Ready** Access to course content on-the-go is easier and more efficient than ever before with the ReadAnywhere mobile app.

# Because learning changes everything.

# **Adaptive Study Tool**

SMARTBOOK\* is the online adaptive study tool. The interactive features engage students and personalize the learning experience with self-guided tools that:

- · assess a student's proficiency and knowledge,
- · track which topics have been mastered,
- · identify areas that need more study,
- improve reading comprehension by highlighting key content that needs additional study,
- present focused content specific to the student's individual needs.



Highlighted content continuously adapts as students work through exercises.



Practice sets
measure depth of
understanding and
present a personalized
learning path based
on student responses.

# **Teacher Resources**

Teachers have access to the interactive eBook, adaptive *SmartBook®*, plus a wealth of customizable part and chapter resources and powerful gradebook tools.

# Resources include:

- updated Teacher Manual with a chapter to help with the transition to the 1200 course start date, teaching suggestions, and pacing guides
- student performance reports to help teachers identify gaps, make data-driven decisions, and adjust instruction
- · customizable PowerPoint presentations
- labeled visual aids and additional ideas for lecture enrichment
- updated AP-style test practice and test banks



**Customizable assignments** and quiz banks are automatically graded and populate easy-to-read reports.



Harness technology, unlock success with the digital resources for this text **Visit My.MHEducation.com** 

# **About the AP World History Course**

The Advanced Placement (AP) program was created by the College Board, which also developed other standardized tests taken in high school, including the PSAT/NMSQT and the SAT. The AP World History course description and AP Exams are written by the AP World History Development Committee, which consists of college history professors and high school teachers who are experienced AP World History course teachers. This committee has studied world history course descriptions from hundreds of university professors to determine which concepts to include in the AP World History course and exam.

starting with Columbus. In this textbook, however, the authors begin this period earlier starting with Part 3 in which Professors Bentley and Zeigler highlight the years c. 500 to c. 1000 as an era of major readjustment from collapsing empires; and in Part 4, the years c. 1000 to c. 1500 as an era of outreach that concludes with the Atlantic voyages that ultimately connect people around the globe. Professors Bentley and Zeigler see these voyages as the conclusion of an older era.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

Telp tede.			
Historical Periods and Dates	Weight on AP Exam		
Regional and Interregional Interactions (c. 1200 to c. 1450)			
<ol> <li>The Global Tapestry</li> <li>Networks of Exchange</li> </ol>	8–10% 8–10%	13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21	
Global Interactions (c. 1450 to c. 1750)			
Land-Based Empires     Trans-Oceanic Interconnections	12–15% 12–15%	22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27	
Industrialization and Global Integration (c. 1750 to c. 1900)			
<ul><li>5. Revolutions</li><li>6. Consequences of industrialization</li></ul>	12–15% 12–15%	28, 29, 30, 31, 32	
Accelerating Global Change and Realignments (c. 1900 to the present)			
<ol> <li>Global Conflict</li> <li>Cold War and Decolonization</li> <li>Globalization</li> </ol>	8–10% 8–10% 8–10%	33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38	

Each Period is defined by Historical Developments that help teachers and students focus on the most important

information in a particular Period. Global in nature, the Historical Developments help you tie specific events to larger global processes. The required content you need to know for the AP Exam is indicated in each Historical Development in the AP World History Full Course Description College Board site.

# THEMATIC LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Not only does the College Board organize AP World History information chronologically by the four Time Periods, it also gives you a way to compare information *across* Periods. Six overarching themes provide categories to make comparisons as well as to recognize continuities and changes over time:

# **HISTORICAL PERIODS**

The 2019 updated AP World History: Modern course is divided into four historical periods spanning from c. 1200 C.E. to the present. These historical periods are organized into nine units, and form the backbone of the AP World History course. The breakdown of these Periods, along with their weight on the AP Exam and corresponding chapters in *Traditions & Encounters*, are shown above. To encourage flexibility with dates, note that *c.* or *circa*—meaning "about"—has been added as a prefix to all the dates in all the Periods. Organizing historical information chronologically helps you compare what was happening in one region to what was happening *at the same time* in other regions.

As shown in the table, the first period covers events from c. 1200 to c. 1450, just before the age of Atlantic exploration

Theme 1: Humans and the Environment (ENV)

Theme 2: Cultural Development and Interactions (CDI)

Theme 3: Governance (GOV)

Theme 4: Economic Systems (ECN)

Theme 5: Social Interactions and Organization (SIO)

Theme 6: Technology and Innovation (TEC)

Learning Objectives for the AP World History course and AP Exam support the six themes above. Learning to think in terms of themes can help you recognize patterns and trends that developed over thousands of years and around the globe. Thinking "thematically" can also help you organize large amounts of information. Turn to any part opener in the textbook, and you'll see information color-coded to these themes. Turn to any chapter assessment page, and you'll see color-coded themes highlighted in the Chapter Summary.

# HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS AND REASONING PROCESSES

The AP World History course and AP Exam evaluate not merely your content knowledge but also how well you have developed the application of historical thinking skills and reasoning processes. These skills and processes are best developed by investigating the past through exploration and interpretation of primary sources and secondary texts as well as through the regular development of historical argument in writing. Every question on the Exam will require you to respond using one or more of these practices and skills.

# **Historical Thinking Skills**

**Skill 1: Development and Processes** Identify and explain historical development and processes.

**Skill 2: Sourcing and Situation** Identify and explain the point of view, purpose, historical situation, and/or audience of primary and secondary sources and their significance.

**Skill 3: Source Claims and Evidence** Identify and describe a claim or argument in a text or non-text source and identify the evidence used to support an argument; compare the arguments in two or more sources; explain how claims or evidence support, modify, or refute a source's argument.

**Skill 4: Contextualization** Identify and describe a historical context for historical developments and process and explain historical developments and processes within a broader historical context.

**Skill 5: Making Connections** Identify patterns and connections among historical developments and processes and how a development or process relates to another development or process.

**Skill 6: Argumentation** Make a historically defensible claim in the form of an evaluative thesis, specific and relevant evidence to support the argument; use historical reasoning to explain relationships among pieces of evidence; and consider diverse or alternative evidence that could be used to corroborate, qualify, or modify an argument.

# Reasoning Processes

**Reasoning Process 1: Comparison** This reasoning skill requires you to describe and explain relevant similarities and/or differences between different historical developments or processes and explain the relative historical significance of the similarities and/or differences.

Reasoning Process 2: Causation You need to be able to describe causes and effects and explain the relationship between causes and effects of a specific historical development or process. You also must be able to explain the relative historical significance of different causes and/or effects and explain the differences between primary and secondary causes, and between short- and long-term effects.

**Reasoning Process 3: Continuity and Change** You must be able to describe and explain patterns of continuity and/or change over time and explain the relative historical significance of specific historical developments in relation to a larger pattern of continuity and/or change.

# About the AP World History Exam

answer section, a document-based question, and a long

he AP World History Exam is 3 hours and 15 essay. All questions will test students' proficiency in AP minutes long. There are four sections to the AP Historical Thinking Skills and Reasoning Processes, as World History Exam: a multiple-choice section, a short- well as the Thematic Learning Objectives and Historical Developments of the AP World History course.

Section	Question Type	Number of Questions	Timing	Percentage of Total Exam Score
I	Part A: Multiple-choice questions	55 Questions	55 minutes	40%
	Part B: Short-answer questions	3 Questions	40 minutes	20%
II	Part A: Document-based question	1 Question	60 minutes	25%
	Part B: Long essay question	1 Question	40 minutes	15%

# **UNDERSTANDING THE FORMAT**

# **Multiple-Choice Questions**

There are 55 multiple-choice questions with four answer choices (A–D). Only one answer is correct for each question, and there is no penalty for guessing incorrectly, so answer every question even if you don't know the answer or feel uncertain about your choice. Students are given 55 minutes to complete this section. The multiple-choice questions are stimulus-based, which means that a primary or secondary source (excerpts, photos, maps, charts, etc.) is provided, followed by between two and five questions based on that stimuli.

# **Short-Answer Questions**

The short-answer section of the Exam includes four questions closely aligned with the course skills that must be answered within 40 minutes (roughly 13 minutes for each question). Students are required to answer the first two questions but can choose between two options for the final required short-answer question, each focused on a different time period. Each question will have three parts and is worth three points. At least two of the short-answer questions are accompanied with stimulus material. There will be a finite amount of space in which student answers must be contained, and no credit will be given for writing outside of this finite area. Student answers must be in complete sentences (bulleted answers will not receive credit), but a thesis statement is not required. Students must be extremely careful to follow the directions and explicitly answer the question they are asked.

# **Document-based Questions (DBQ)**

The DBQ requires students to analyze and interpret historical documents, and then use the documents as well as outside information to support a well-developed thesis statement that directly answers the question and takes a position. Thesis statements that simply restate the prompt as a statement will not receive credit. DBQs will contain seven historical documents. You begin the DBQ with a recommended 15-minute reading period intended for you to read and analyze the documents. After the reading period ends, you will have 85 minutes to complete the DBQ and the long essay, so plan to take 45 minutes of this time to answer the document-based question.

# Tips for writing the DBQ essay:

- 1. Read the prompt (essay question) carefully and **thoroughly.** Mark it to indicate the key words, phrases, or tasks required. Do not begin any other step until you know what the question is asking.
- 2. Jot down your thoughts as you begin to read the source documents. You should begin to see some connections or contradictions among the documents. Underline or circle key ideas in each document. You can refer to these marks after you begin to write your essay. Begin a list of these ideas in the margins of your test booklet so you can refer to them later.
- 3. Draft a clear 1 or 2 sentence thesis paragraph that fully addresses the prompt, is historically defensible,

and establishes a line of reasoning. Position the thesis paragraph at the start or the end of the essay so readers do not need to hunt for it.

b. Evidence beyond the Documents

- 4. Use your thesis as a map for putting the essay together. specific historical evidence (beyond that found in Use words from your thesis in each body paragraph the documents) relevant to an argument about topic sentence. Follow your thesis order to organize each body paragraph and to answer the prompt.
- **Provide historical context.** Connect your response to related broader historical events, developments, or processes that occurred before, during, or continued after the time frame in question.
  - **6. Always cite the documents.** You should cite each document every time you use it. Putting a (Doc. 1) or a (1), for example, after each usage is fine.
- 7. Use documents to support your argument in response to the prompt. Your response must accurately describe—rather than simply quote—the content of the documents to support your argument. You must also describe additional evidence from documents not given to you in the DBQ to support your argument.
  - For the source documents, analyze point of view, the intended audience, the author's purpose, or historical **context.** Practice these analytical skills with your teacher's help and feedback.
    - 9. Demonstrate a complex understanding of historical **developments.** You should be able to analyze multiple variables, explain similarities and differences or continuity and change or causes and effects, explain connections within and across time periods, corroborate multiple perspectives across themes, or consider diverse or alternative views or evidence as part of your argument.

# Scoring the DBQ

The DBQ will be scored on a 0–7 scale using an analytic rubric. The key elements of the rubric are:

- 1. (0–1 point) Thesis/Claim
  - (1 point) Responds to the prompt with a historically defensible thesis/claim that establishes a line of reasoning.
- 2. (0–1 point) Contextualization
  - (1 point) Describes a broader historical context relevant to the prompt.
- 3. (0–3 points) Evidence
  - a. Evidence from the Documents
    - (1 point) Uses the content of at least three documents to address the topic of the prompt.

• (2 points) Supports an argument in response to the prompt using at least six documents.

• (1 point) Uses at least one additional piece of the the prompt.

# 4. (0-2 points) Analysis and Reasoning

- (1 point) For at least **three** documents, explain how or why the document's point of view, purpose, historical situation, and/or audience is relevant to an argument.
  - (1 point) Demonstrates a complex understanding of the historical development that is the focus of the prompt, using evidence to corroborate, qualify, or modify an argument that addresses the question.

# **Long Essay Question**

You will have the choice of answering one of three long essay questions. All three essays will test the same theme but focus on different chronological periods, so you can choose which period you are most prepared to write about.

The long essay is designed to measure your ability to use historical reasoning through the demonstration of thesis development, organized presentation of historical argument, and evidence given to support the argument. You will have 40 minutes to write the long essay.

# Tips for writing the Long Essay:

- 1. Read the prompt (essay question) carefully and thoroughly. Mark it to indicate key words, phrases, or tasks required. Especially note the reasoning processes required: Comparison, Causation, or Continuity and Change. Do not begin any other step until you know what the question is asking.
- Write a 1 or 2 sentence thesis that contains a claim (position, premise, or idea) that you can support and that will guide the rest of your essay. Your thesis should identify and quantify comparisons (similarities/ differences), change/continuities, or causes/effects. In other words, your thesis must have some value-added concepts, which means you must demonstrate some applicable knowledge. Do not just repeat the prompt.
- 3. Follow your thesis order for your paragraph order. This will keep you on track and reduce the time required to write the essay because you will not be wondering what to write about next.
- **4. Provide historical context.** Similar to the DBQ, connect your response to related broader historical events, developments, or processes that occurred before, during, or continued after the time frame in question.

OR

- 5. Use historical evidence to support each part of the 2. (0–1 point) Contextualization **argument in your topic sentences.** Although you might know more about one aspect of the essay than another, use ample historical evidence to support each 3. (0-2 points) Evidence element in your topic sentence.
- Remember this mantra: describe examples, and then *analyze and explain them.* If the reasoning process is comparison, list similarities and differences—and then analyze and explain the reasons for them. If the reasoning process is causation, describe causes and/ or effects—and then analyze and explain them. If the reasoning process is continuity and change, list examples of continuities—and analyze and explain them. Then list examples of changes—and analyze and explain them.
- Demonstrate a complex understanding of historical developments using reasoning processes. Use reasoning processes to structure your argument. Also, as in the DBQ, analyze multiple variables, explain similarities and differences or continuity and change or causes and effects, explain connections within and across time periods, corroborate multiple perspectives across themes, or consider diverse or alternative views or evidence as part of your argument to demonstrate a complex understanding.

# Scoring the Long Essay

The Long Essay will be scored on a 0-6 scale using an analytic rubric. The key elements of the rubric are:

- 1. (0-1 point) Thesis/Claim
  - Responds to the prompt with a historically defensible thesis/claim that establishes a line of reasoning.

 Describes a broader historical context relevant to the prompt.

- (1 point) Provides specific examples of evidence relevant to the topic of the prompt. OR
- (2 points) Supports an **argument** in response to the prompt using specific and relevant examples of evidence.

# 4. (0-2 points) Analysis and Reasoning

- (1 point) Uses reasoning processes (e.g. comparison, causation, continuity and change) to frame or structure an argument that addresses the prompt. OR
- (2 points) Demonstrates a complex understanding of the historical development that is the focus of the prompt, using evidence to corroborate, qualify, or modify an argument that addresses the question.

# Grading of the AP Exam

Colleges and universities often grant credits equivalent to that which is offered for their introductory World History survey course to those students who successfully complete the AP Exam. The criteria for receiving credit vary widely from institution to institution and you should find out from each college and university you plan to apply to what their standards are. You may also choose to have your scores sent to colleges and universities to which you are applying. The AP Exam is scored on the following 5-point scale: 5 is "extremely well qualified"; 4 is "well qualified"; 3 is "qualified"; 2 is "possibly qualified"; 1 is "no recommendation."

# PART

# THE ACCELERATION OF CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION, 1000 TO 1500 C.E.











1 Theme 1: Humans and Environment (ENV)

2 Theme 2: Cultural Developments and Interactions (CDI)

3 Theme 3: Governance (GOV)

Theme 4: Economic Systems (ECN)

5 Theme 5: Social Interactions and Organization (SIO)

**13** Theme 6: Technology and Innovation (TEC)

These next chapters, 17 through 21, explore many of the same themes and ideas that were introduced in Part 3 (chapters 13 through 16). However, we will now shift our focus to explore elements of Part 4, "The Acceleration of Cross-Cultural Interaction, 1000 to 1500 C.E." These chapters will place greater emphasis on how societies and cultures connect and interact with one another across broad regions of space. Part 4 will also move outside of Afro-Eurasia to explore developments in the Americas and Pacific and how these regions were ultimately linked into a global exchange network.

In the chapters that follow, significant new types of states emerge. Nomadic Mongols conquered Song China, Sassanid Persia, and Kievan Russia, and created an interconnected Mongol empire. Ruled by related khans (emperors), these lands made up the largest empire in world history. The nomadic Mexica (also known as Aztec) moved into Mesoamerica and created a new powerful, rich, tributary empire. A small group of Inca conquered the Andean region of South America and also built an enormous tributary empire. Three new kingdoms and five significant city-states arose on the African continent. Western Europeans were finally able to build good-sized kingdoms.

details how and why people on the east African, south Asian, and southeast Asian coasts functioned as a broad coastal community around the Indian Ocean basin. After you assemble all this information, you will have the knowledge to compare how nomadic peoples ruled settled empires, to identify the advantages and disadvantages of tributary empires in Eurasia and the Americas, and to analyze the commonalities of people who share a life and economy based on maritime trade routes. •

Business along the established routes intensified so markedly that new cities had to be established to facilitate all the trade and accommodate all the people. Modern transportation technologies such as the magnetic compass, sternpost rudders on ships, and camel saddles contributed to this increase of landbased and maritime trade. To keep track of complicated profits and losses, new forms of banking, accounting, and money were invented across Eurasia and the Americas. States became more actively involved in trade and its profits. The imperial governments of China, Byzantium, Mongol, Caliphate, Mexica, and Inca used roads to move military forces, merchandise, and merchants safely and effectively. The Chinese, Byzantine, and Islamic empires (and, for a while, the Mongols) also built navies

PART

for the same purposes. Study the maps to learn where the key trading cities and trade routes (land-based and maritime) were located. These are certain to appear on the AP exam.

It is one thing to know where the trade routes were, but quite another to know who and what traveled on those routes.



were numerous There consequences of intensified trade and charted routes. The Mongols, Mexica, and Inca used well-traveled routes to invade and conquer. The Polynesians and the Swahili states on the east coast of Africa used their sailing and navigational skills to trade and to set up "diasporic" communities. Merchants, especially around the Indian Ocean

basin, had communities along the coasts where they would live until the monsoon winds blew in the return direction. • In their international travels and dealings, military men, merchants, missionaries, and migrants also played important roles in spreading Hinduism, Buddhism, Christianity, and neo-Confucianism from their homelands. • Some of these intrepid travelers kept diaries of their experiences that bestow a great deal of information about how much or how little intercultural knowledge and understanding there was at the time. Many of these fascinating travelers' accounts regularly appear on the AP exam.

There was a significant increase in the cross-fertilization of linguistic and cultural traditions in this period. Indian Ocean basin merchants combined the Bantu and Arabic languages to create the new language of Swahili on the east coast of Africa. Turkic and Arabic languages spread to conquered or converted lands. Mongols brought gunpowder weapons and the technologies of paper-making and the printing press from China to dar al-Islam, and from there into western European kingdoms. Indian, Persian, Arab, and Greek science and math—as well as technologies in universities and libraries within dar al-Islam—slowly trickled into western Europe from merchants and scholars and formed the backbone of the Renaissance. • • • Foods, animals, and diseases were transported by merchants from their places of origin to new lands, thereby dramatically changing agriculture and frequently affecting birth and death rates. •

Although World History often focuses on the considerable forces of change and continuity in whole societies and regions of

the world, it's important not to forget the people who experienced the impact of change or the consequences of continuity. Pay attention to those who work in the business world, on the farms, and at home. When farming techniques improved and new crops were brought to a new region, the "more food = more people" scenario was encountered again. 

When there was an escalation in farming, more and different kinds of labor was needed for different kinds of crops. Historians use the terms "free labor" and "unfree" or "forced labor" when they analyze the organization of labor. "Free labor" refers to those who were free to quit their jobs at any given time if they wanted to; "unfree or forced labor" refers to those who could not guit even if they wanted to. Forced labor organization varied from place to place and from economy to economy. In this period there was serfdom in western Europe and Japan, and slave labor in African communities, dar al-Islam, Mexica, and Inca societies. •

Women have played divergent roles throughout history, and historians scrutinize how women fared in each of these postclassical societies by asking questions such as: What was considered "women's work" in a particular society? How much influence or power did women of different classes or caste have on the work that men performed? Roles and characterizations of women within societies is a topic brimming with material for comparison. Southeast Asian women, for example, had much more authority in the business world than did women of European or east Asian descent. Why might that have been the case, and did it influence how international business was conducted? When new people, new ideas, and religions drift into a city or community, historians look to see the effect on women and their influence in what were mostly patriarchal societies. ◆

Chapter 21 highlights the transition from hemispheric to global trade. AP students need to understand and appreciate that the successes of the Columbian voyages were based on technologies acquired from the sophisticated East and a great deal of luck. The consequences of these voyages will be examined during the remainder of the course.

# **AP THINKING ABOUT THEMES**

- 1. What were some of the positive and negative effects of the nomadic invasions that occurred after 1000 C.E.?
- 2. What might have been some of the long-term effects of European mariners linking Afro-Eurasia with the Americas?

# Nomadic Empires and Eurasian Integration

# chapter 17

# **AP** HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENTS

- Empires collapsed in different regions of the world, and in some areas were replaced by new imperial states, including the Mongol khanates.
- The expansion of empires—including the Mongols—facilitated Afro-Eurasian trade and communication as new people were drawn into their conquerors' economies and trade networks.
- Interregional contacts and conflicts between states and empires, including the Mongols, encouraged significant technological and cultural transfers.

# **AP HISTORICAL THINKING SKILLS**

**Developments and Processes** Identify and explain the role of the Mongols in facilitating long-distance exchange and technological development across Afro-Eurasia.

**Source Claims and Evidence** Explain how the natural environment shaped nomadic pastoralist society and culture using images and written primary accounts.

**Contextualization** Explain how the nomadic migrations and conquests in this chapter fit into a longer historical pattern of relationships between nomadic and settled societies.

**Making Connections** Identify the connections between nomadic pastoralist society and the manner in which the Turks and Mongols acted as conquerors and rulers.

**Argumentation** Support the argument that the brief rule of the Mongols in Eurasia has long-term historical significance.

# **AP** REASONING PROCESSES

**Continuity and Change** Explain the significance of the Mongol Empire in larger patterns of continuity and change across Afro-Eurasia.

**Causation** Describe the social and cultural effects of the Turkish and Mongol conquests.

# **AP CHAPTER FOCUS**

From the eleventh through fifteenth centuries, nomadic conquerors established empires in Eurasia. You do not need to know the intricacies of specific nomadic campaigns of conquest, but you should recognize the advantages of nomadic warfare in general as well as the defense weaknesses of settled societies. You also should be able to explain why the Mongol khanates, the Delhi sultanate, and Tamerlane had initial successes and why they ultimately failed to maintain their power.

While the conquests of the Mongols and other nomadic groups during this period were violent and destructive, some historians use the term Pax Mongolica to describe the period of relative peace and stability which followed. Note how the khanate governments made sure that merchants and trade routes across much of Eurasia were protected, resulting in a peaceful transfer of technology and culture. The Mongol khans, especially in China, continued the imperial strategy of hiring foreigners as administrators. Foreigners had no allegiance to anything in the empire except the ruler who hired them. This was how and why the Venetian Marco Polo was able to travel through Yuan (Mongol) China: he worked for the Great Khan.

Earlier nomadic social structures were family- or clan-based and relatively egalitarian, which adapted well to the environment in which nomads lived. When postclassical nomadic peoples took over settled societies, they brought these structures with them. This was particularly noticeable regarding the status of nomadic women: they had to ride, hunt, and survive in the same rough environment as men. Thus, Mongol rulers of China valued their wives' advice as much as that of their male advisors. Several rulers retained other nomadic traditions in the civilizations they conquered. The khanate of the Golden Horde, for example, set up yurts on the steppes outside Moscow and collected tribute but did not interfere with governance.

# **Turkish Migrations and Imperial Expansion**

Economy and Society of Nomadic Pastoralism Turkish Empires in Persia, Anatolia, and India

# The Mongol Empires

Chinggis Khan and the Making of the Mongol Empire

The Mongol Empires after Chinggis Khan

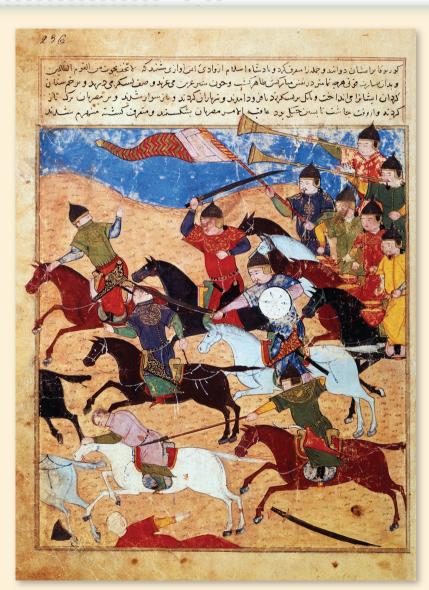
The Mongols and Eurasian Integration

Decline of the Mongols in Persia and China

# After the Mongols

Tamerlane and the Timurids
The Foundation of the Ottoman Empire





A thirteenth-century painting from an illustrated Persian history text depicts Mongol mounted warriors pursuing their fleeing enemies. Note the superb discipline and coordination of the Mongols, who used their superior military skills and organization to regularly defeat armies from a wide range of cultures and states.

# **EYEWITNESS:**

# The Goldsmith of the Mongolian Steppe

uillaume Boucher was a goldsmith who lived during the early and middle decades of the thirteenth century. At some point, perhaps during the 1230s, he left his native Paris and went to Budapest where he was captured by Mongol warriors campaigning in Hungary. The Mongols noticed and appreciated Boucher's talents, so when they left Hungary in 1242, they took him along with other skilled captives to their central Asian homeland. For at least the next fifteen years, Boucher lived at the Mongol capital at Karakorum. Though technically a slave, he enjoyed some prestige. He supervised fifty assistants in a workshop that produced decorative objects of fine metal for the Mongol court. His most ingenious creation was a spectacular silver fountain in the form of a tree. Four pipes, concealed by the tree's trunk, carried wines and other intoxicating drinks to the top of the tree and then dispensed them into silver bowls from which courtiers and guests filled their cups. Apart from his famous fountain, Boucher also produced statues in gold and silver, built carriages, designed buildings, and even sewed ritual garments for Roman Catholic priests who sought converts and conducted services for Christians living at Karakorum in the Mongol empire.

Karakorum (kahr-uh-KOR-uhm)

Boucher was by no means the only European living at the Mongol court. His wife was a woman of French ancestry whom Boucher had met and married in Hungary. The Flemish missionary William of Rubruck visited Karakorum in 1254, and during his sojourn there he encountered a Frenchwoman named Paquette, an artisan from Russia (Paquette's husband), an unnamed nephew of a French bishop, a Greek soldier, and an Englishman named Basil. Other European visitors to the Mongol court found Germans, Slavs, and Hungarians as well as Chinese, Koreans, Turks, Persians, and Armenians, among others. Many thirteenth-century roads led to Karakorum.

Nomadic peoples had made their influence felt throughout much of Eurasia as early as classical times, but between the eleventh and the fifteenth centuries, nomadic peoples became more prominent than ever before in Eurasian affairs. Turkish peoples migrated to Persia, Anatolia, and India, where they overcame existing authorities and established new states. During the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the Mongols established themselves as the most powerful people of the central Asian steppes and then turned on settled societies in China, Persia, Russia, and eastern Europe. By the early fourteenth century, the Mongols had built the largest empire the world has ever seen, stretching from Korea and China in the east to Russia and Hungary in the west.

The military campaigns of nomadic peoples were sometimes exceedingly destructive. Nomadic warriors often demolished cities, slaughtered urban populations, and ravaged surrounding agricultural lands. Yet those same forces also encouraged systematic peaceful interaction between peoples of different societies. Between the eleventh and the fifteenth centuries, like nomadic peoples of the Arabian and Saharan deserts, Turkish and Mongol peoples forged closer links than ever before between peoples of neighboring lands. By fostering cross-cultural communication and exchange on an unprecedented scale, the nomadic empires integrated the lives of peoples and the experiences of societies throughout much of the eastern hemisphere.

# TURKISH MIGRATIONS AND IMPERIAL EXPANSION

Turkish peoples never formed a single, homogeneous group but, rather, organized themselves into clans and tribes that often fought bitterly with one another. Turkish clans and identities seem to have emerged in the power vacuum that followed the fragmentation of the Xiongnu confederation in the first and second centuries c.e. All Turkish peoples spoke related languages, and all were nomads or descendants of nomads. From modest beginnings they expanded their influence until they dominated not only the steppes of central Asia but also settled societies in Persia, Anatolia, and India.

# Economy and Society of Nomadic Pastoralism

Nomadic Pastoralists and Their Animals Nomadic peoples of central Asia were pastoralists who kept herds of animals—horses, sheep, goats, cattle, and camels. They built societies by adapting to the ecological conditions of arid lands. Central Asia does not receive enough rain to support large-scale agriculture, but grasses and shrubs flourish on the steppe lands. Maintenance of flocks required pastoral

peoples of central Asia to move frequently. They drove their animals to lands with abundant grass and then moved them along as the animals thinned the vegetation. They did not wander aimlessly through the steppes but, rather, followed migratory cycles that took account of the seasons and local climatic conditions. They lived mostly off the meat, milk, and hides of their animals. They used animal bones for tools and animal dung as fuel for fires. They made shoes and clothes out of wool from their sheep and skins from their other animals. Wool was also the source of the felt that they used to fashion large tents called *yurts* in which they lived. They even prepared an alcoholic drink from animal products by fermenting mare's milk into a potent concoction known as *kumiss*.

The aridity of the climate and the nomadic lifestyle limited the development of human societies in central Asia. Only at oases did agriculture make it possible for dense populations to congregate. Settlements were few and small—and often temporary as well, since nomads carried their collapsible felt yurts with them as they drove their herds. Nomads often engaged in small-scale cultivation of millet or vegetables when they found sources of water, but the harvests were sufficient only to supplement animal products, not to sustain whole societies. Nomads also produced limited amounts of pottery, leather goods, iron weapons, and tools. Given their migratory



A painting from the late fourteenth century by the central Asian artist Mehmed Siyah Qalem suggests the physical hardships of nomadic life. In this scene from a nomadic camp, two men wash clothes (upper left), while another blows on a fire, and a companion tends to a saddle. Bows, arrows, and other weapons are readily available (top right).

habits, however, both intensive agriculture and large-scale craft production were practical impossibilities.

Nomadic and Settled Peoples Thus nomads avidly sought opportunities to trade with settled peoples, and as early as the classical era brisk trade linked nomadic and settled societies. Much of that commerce took place on a small scale as nomads sought agricultural products and manufactured goods to satisfy their immediate needs. Often, however, nomads also participated in long-distance trade networks. Because of their mobility and their familiarity with large regions of central Asia, nomadic peoples were ideally suited to organize and lead the caravans that crossed central Asia and linked settled societies from China to the Mediterranean basin. During the postclassical era and later, Turkish peoples were especially prominent on the caravan routes of central Asia.

Nomadic Society Nomadic society generated two social classes: elites and commoners. Elite charismatic leaders acquired the prestige needed to organize clans and tribes into alliances. Normally, these elite leaders did little governing because clans and tribes looked after their own affairs and resented interference. During times of war, however, elite rulers wielded absolute authority over their

forces, and they dealt swiftly and summarily with those who did not obey orders.

This nomadic "nobility" was a fluid class. Leaders passed elite status along to their heirs, but the heirs could lose their status if they did not continue to provide appropriate leadership for their clans and tribes. Over the course of a few generations, elites could return to the status of commoners who tended their own herds and followed new leaders. Meanwhile, commoners could win recognition as elites by outstanding conduct, particularly by courageous behavior during war. Then, if they were clever diplomats, they could arrange alliances between clans and tribes and gain enough support to displace established leaders.

Gender Relations Adult males dominated nomadic pastoral societies, but women enjoyed much higher status than their counterparts in settled agricultural societies. In most nomadic pastoral societies, able-bodied men were frequently away from their herds on hunting expeditions or military campaigns. Thus women were primarily responsible for tending to the animals. Nomadic women were excellent horse riders and skilled archers: indeed, they sometimes fought alongside men in war. Because of their crucial economic roles, women wielded considerable influence in nomadic pastoral

# **SourcesfromthePast**

# William of Rubruck on Gender Relations among the Mongols

From 1253 to 1255 the French Franciscan missionary William of Rubruck traveled extensively in the recently established Mongol empire in hopes of converting the Mongols to Christianity. He was unsuccessful in his principal aim, but he met all the leading Mongol figures of the day, including the Great Khan Möngke. After his return to France, William composed a long account of his journey with descriptions of life on the steppes.

The married women make themselves very fine wagons.... One rich [Mongol] or Tartar has easily a hundred or two hundred such wagons with chests. Baatu [a prominent Mongol general and grandson of Chinggis Khan] has twenty-six wives, each of whom has a large dwelling, not counting the other, smaller ones placed behind the large one, which are chambers, as it were, where the maids live: to each of these dwellings belong a good two hundred wagons....

One woman will drive twenty or thirty wagons, since the terrain is level. The ox- or camel-wagons are lashed together in sequence, and the woman will sit at the front driving the ox, which all the rest follow at the same pace. . . .

It is the women's task to drive the wagons, to load the dwellings on them and to unload again, to milk the cows, to make butter and *grut* [a kind of cheese], and to dress the skins and stitch them together, which they do with a thread made from sinew. They divide the sinew into tiny strands, and then twist them into a single long thread. In addition they stitch shoes,

socks and other garments. They never wash clothes, for they claim that this makes God angry and that if they were hung out to dry it would thunder: in fact, they thrash anyone doing laundry and confiscate it. (They are extraordinarily afraid of thunder. In that event they turn out of their dwellings all strangers, and wrap themselves up in black felt, in which they hide until it has passed.) They never wash dishes either, but instead, when the meat is cooked, rinse the bowl in which they are to put it with boiling broth from the cauldron and then pour it back into the cauldron. In addition [the women] make the felt and cover the dwellings.

The men make bows and arrows, manufacture stirrups and bits, fashion saddles, construct the dwellings and wagons, tend the horses and milk the mares, churn the [kumiss] (that is, the mare's milk), produce the skins in which it is stored, and tend and load the camels. Both sexes tend the sheep and goats, and they are milked on some occasions by the men, on others by the women. The skins are dressed with curdled ewe's milk, thickened and salted.

## For Further Reflection

Why did women play such prominent social and economic roles in nomadic pastoral societies?

Source: William of Rubruck. The Mission of Friar William of Rubruck. Trans. by Peter Jackson. Ed. by Peter Jackson with David Morgan. London: Hakluyt Society, 1990, pp. 74, 90–91.

societies—sometimes as advisors with strong voices in family or clan matters and occasionally as regents or rulers in their own right.

Nomadic Religion The earliest religion of the Turkish peoples revolved around shamans—religious specialists who possessed supernatural powers, communicated with the gods and nature spirits, invoked divine aid on behalf of their communities, and informed their companions of their gods' will. Yet many Turkish peoples became attracted to the religious and cultural traditions they encountered when trading with peoples of settled societies. They did not abandon their inherited beliefs or their shamans, but by the sixth century C.E. many Turks had converted to Buddhism, Nestorian Christianity, or

**Manichaeism.** Partly because of their newly adopted religious and cultural traditions and partly because of their prominence in Eurasian trade networks, Turkish peoples also developed a written script.

Turkish Conversion to Islam Over the longer term, most Turks converted to Islam. The earliest converts were Turkish nomads captured in border raids by forces of the Abbasid caliphate in the early ninth century and integrated into the caliphate's armies as slave soldiers. The first large-scale conversion came in the late tenth century, when a Turkish ruling clan known as the Seljuqs turned to Islam and migrated to Iran in hopes of improving their fortunes through alliance with Abbasid authorities and service to the caliphate. Between the tenth and the fourteenth centuries, most Turkish clans on the steppes of central Asia also adopted Islam, and they carried the new religion with them when they expanded their political and military influence to new regions.

## Thinking about **TRADITIONS**

#### **Social Organization on the Steppes**

Nomadic pastoral peoples organized their societies along lines very different from their counterparts in settled agricultural societies. To what extent did the natural environment and the demands of a pastoral economy influence social organization on the Eurasian steppe lands?

Military Organization That expansion took place when nomadic leaders organized vast confederations of peoples all subject, at least nominally, to a *khan* ("ruler"). In fact, khans rarely ruled directly but, rather, through the leaders of allied tribes. Yet when organized on a large scale, nomadic peoples wielded enormous military power, mostly because of their outstanding cavalry forces. Nomadic warriors learned to ride horses as children, and they had superior equestrian skills. Their arrows flew with deadly accuracy even when launched from the backs of galloping horses. Moreover, units of warriors coordinated their movements to outmaneuver and overwhelm their opponents.

Few armies were able to resist the mobility and discipline of well-organized nomadic warriors. When they found themselves at a disadvantage, they often were able to beat a hasty retreat and escape from their less speedy adversaries. With that military background, several groups of Turkish nomads began in the tenth century C.E. to seize the wealth of settled societies and build imperial states in the regions surrounding central Asia.

### Turkish Empires in Persia, Anatolia, and India

Seljug Turks and the Abbasid Empire Turkish peoples entered Persia, Anatolia, and India at different times and for different purposes. They approached Abbasid Persia much as Germanic peoples had earlier approached the Roman empire. From about the mid-eighth to the mid-tenth century, Turkish peoples lived mostly on the borders of the Abbasid realm, which offered abundant opportunities for trade. By the mid- to late tenth century, large numbers of Seljuq Turks served in Abbasid armies and lived in the Abbasid realm itself. By the mid-eleventh century the Seljuqs overshadowed the Abbasid caliphs. Indeed, in 1055 the caliph recognized the Seljuq leader Tughril Beg as *sultan* ("chieftain" or "ruler"). Tughril first consolidated his hold on the Abbasid capital at Baghdad, then he and his successors extended Turkish rule to Syria, Palestine, and other parts of the realm. For the last two centuries of the Abbasid state, the caliphs served as figureheads of authority while actual governance lay in the hands of the Turkish sultans.

#### Seljug Turks and the Byzantine Empire

While some Turkish peoples established themselves in Abbasid Persia, others turned their attention to the rich land of Anatolia, breadbasket of the Byzantine empire. Led by the Seljuqs, Turkish peoples began migrating into Anatolia in large numbers in the early eleventh century. In 1071, Seljuq forces inflicted a devastating defeat on the Byzantine army at Manzikert in eastern Anatolia and even took the Byzantine emperor captive. Following that victory, Seljuqs and other Turkish groups entered Anatolia al-

most at will. The peasants of Anatolia, who mostly resented their Byzantine overlords, often looked upon the Seljuqs as liberators rather than conquerors.

The migrants thoroughly transformed Anatolia. Turkish groups displaced Byzantine authorities and set up their own political and social institutions. They levied taxes on the Byzantine church, restricted its activities, and sometimes confiscated church property. Meanwhile, they welcomed converts to Islam and made political, social, and economic opportunities available to them. By 1453, when Ottoman Turks captured the Byzantine capital at Constantinople, Byzantine and Christian Anatolia had become largely a Turkish and Islamic land.

Ghaznavid Turks and the Sultanate of Delhi While the Seljugs spearheaded Turkish migrations in Abbasid Persia and Byzantine Anatolia, Mahmud of Ghazni led the Ghaznavid Turks of Afghanistan in raids on lucrative sites in northern India. When the Ghaznavids began their campaigns in the early eleventh century, their principal goal was plunder. Gradually, though, they became more interested in permanent rule. They asserted their authority first over the Punjab and then over Gujarat and Bengal. By the thirteenth century, the Turkish sultanate of Delhi claimed authority over all of northern India. Several of the Delhi sultans conceived plans to conquer southern India and extend Muslim rule there, but none was able to realize those ambitions. The sultans faced constant challenges from Hindu princes in neighboring lands, and they periodically had to defend their northern frontiers from new Turkish or Mongol invaders. They maintained an enormous army with a large elephant corps, but those forces enabled them to hold on to their territories rather than to expand their

Turkish rule had great social and cultural implications in India, as it did in Anatolia. Mahmud of Ghazni was a zealous foe of Buddhism and Hinduism alike, and he launched frequent raids on shrines, temples, and monasteries. His forces

empire.





An artist's impression of Sultan Ahmed III, a Turkish Ottoman ruler of the eighteenth century, seated on his throne.

stripped Buddhist and Hindu establishments of their wealth, destroyed their buildings, and often slaughtered their residents and attendants as well. As Turkish invaders repressed Buddhism and Hinduism, they encouraged conversion to Islam and enabled their faith to establish a secure presence in northern India.

Though undertaken by different groups, for different reasons, and by different means, the Turkish conquests of Persia, Anatolia, and India represented part of a larger expansive movement by nomadic peoples. In all three cases, the formidable military prowess of Turkish peoples enabled them to move beyond the steppe lands of central Asia and dominate settled societies. By the thirteenth century, the influence of nomadic peoples was greater than ever before in Eurasian history. Yet the Turkish conquests represented only a prelude to an astonishing round of empire building launched by the Mongols during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

#### THE MONGOL EMPIRES

For most of their history the nomadic Mongols lived on the high steppe lands of eastern central Asia. Like other nomadic peoples, they displayed deep loyalty to kin groups organized into families, clans, and tribes. They frequently allied with Turkish peoples who built empires on the steppes, but they rarely played a leading role in the organization of states before the thirteenth century. Strong loyalties to kinship groups made it difficult for the Mongols to organize a stable society on a large scale. During the early thirteenth century, however, Chinggis Khan (sometimes spelled "Genghis Khan") forged the various Mongol tribes into a powerful alliance that built the largest empire the world has ever seen. Although the vast Mongol realm soon dissolved into a series of smaller empires—most of which disappeared within a century—the Mongols' imperial venture brought the societies of Eurasia into closer contact than ever before.

# Chinggis Khan and the Making of the Mongol Empire

The unifier of the Mongols was **Temüjin**, born about 1167 into a noble family. His father was a prominent warrior who forged an alliance between several Mongol clans and seemed likely to become a powerful leader. When Temüjin was about ten years old, however, rivals poisoned his father and destroyed the alliance. Abandoned by his father's allies, Temüjin led a precarious existence for some years. He lived in poverty, since rivals seized the family's animals, and several times eluded enemies seeking to eliminate him as a potential threat to their own ambitions. A rival once captured him and imprisoned him in a wooden cage, but Temüjin made a daring midnight escape and regained his freedom.

Chinggis Khan's Rise to Power During the late twelfth century, Temüjin made an alliance with a prominent Mongol clan leader. He also mastered the art of steppe diplomacy, which called for displays of personal courage in battle, combined with intense loyalty to allies—as well as a willingness to betray allies or superiors to improve one's position—and the ability to entice previously unaffiliated tribes into cooperative relationships. Temüjin gradually strengthened his position, sometimes by forging useful alliances, often by conquering rival contenders for power, and occasionally by turning suddenly against a troublesome ally. He eventually brought all the Mongol tribes into a single confederation, and in 1206 an assembly of Mongol leaders recognized Temüjin's supremacy by proclaiming him Chinggis Khan ("universal ruler").

Mongol Political Organization Chinggis Khan's policies greatly strengthened the Mongol people. Earlier nomadic state



#### **MAP 17.1**

Turkish empires and their neighbors, ca. 1210 c.e.

After about 1000 c.e., nomadic Turkish peoples conquered and ruled settled agricultural societies in several regions of Eurasia and north Africa.

What motivated Turkish people to expand so far from their original homeland, and why were they so successful in creating new states?

builders had ruled largely through the leaders of allied tribes. Because of his personal experiences, however, Chinggis Khan mistrusted the Mongols' tribal organization. He broke up the tribes and forced men of fighting age to join new military units with no tribal affiliations. He chose high military and political officials not on the basis of kinship or tribal status but, rather, because of their talents or their loyalty to him. Chinggis Khan spent most of his life on horseback and did not establish a proper capital, but his successors built a sumptuous capital at Karakorum—present-day Har Horin, located about 300 kilometers (186 miles) west of the modern Mongolian capital of Ulaanbaatar. As command center of a growing empire, Karakorum symbolized a source of Mongol authority superior to the clan or the tribe.

The most important institution of the Mongol state was the army, which magnified the power of the small population. In the thirteenth century the Mongol population stood at about one million people—less than 1 percent of China's numbers. During Chinggis Khan's life, his army numbered only 100,000 to 125,000 Mongols, although allied peoples also contributed forces. How was it possible for so few people to conquer the better part of Eurasia?

Mongol Arms Like earlier nomadic armies, Mongol forces relied on outstanding equestrian skills. Mongols grew up riding horses, and they honed their skills by hunting and playing competitive games on horseback. Their bows, short enough for archers to use while riding, were also stiff, firing arrows that could fell enemies at 200 meters (656 feet). Mongol horsemen were among the most mobile forces of the premodern world, sometimes traveling more than 100 kilometers (62 miles) per day to surprise an enemy. Furthermore, the Mongols understood the psychological dimensions of warfare and used them to their advantage. If enemies surrendered without resistance, the Mongols usually spared their lives, and they provided generous treatment for artisans, crafts workers, and those with military skills. In the event of resistance, however, the Mongols ruthlessly slaughtered whole populations, sparing only a few, whom they sometimes drove before their armies as human shields during future conflicts.

Once he had united the Mongols, Chinggis Khan turned his army and his attention to other parts of central Asia and particularly to nearby settled societies. He attacked the various Turkish peoples ruling in Tibet, northern China, Persia, and the central Asian steppes. His conquests in central Asia were important because they protected him against the possibility that other nomadic leaders might challenge his rule. But the Mongol campaigns in China and Persia had especially far-reaching consequences.

Mongol Conquest of Northern China Chinggis Khan himself extended Mongol rule to northern China, dominated since 1127 c.e. by the nomadic **Jurchen** people, while the Song dynasty continued to rule in southern China. The conquest of China began in 1211 c.e. when Mongol raiding parties invaded

the Jurchen realm. Raids quickly became more frequent and intense, and soon they developed into a campaign of conquest. By 1215 the Mongols had captured the Jurchen capital near modern Beijing, which under the new name of **Khanbaliq** ("city of the khan") served also as the Mongol capital in China. Fighting between Mongols and Jurchen continued until 1234, but by 1220 the Mongols had largely established control over northern China.

Mongol Conquest of Persia While part of his army consolidated the Mongol hold on northern China, Chinggis Khan led another force to Afghanistan and Persia, ruled at that time by a successor to the Seljuqs known as the Khwarazm shah. In 1218 Chinggis Khan sought to open trade and diplomatic relations with the Khwarazm shah. The shah despised the Mongols, however, and he ordered his officials to murder Chinggis Khan's envoys and the merchants accompanying them. The following year Chinggis Khan took his army west to seek revenge. Mongol forces pursued the Khwarazm shah to an island in the Caspian Sea where he died. Meanwhile, they shattered the shah's army and seized control of his realm.

To forestall any possibility that the shah's state might survive and constitute a challenge to his own empire, Chinggis Khan wreaked destruction on the conquered land. The Mongols ravaged one city after another, demolishing buildings and



This painting by a Chinese artist depicts Chinggis Khan at about age sixty. Though most of his conquests were behind him, Chinggis Khan's focus and determination are readily apparent in this portrait.

massacring hundreds of thousands of people. Some cities never recovered. The Mongols also destroyed the delicate *qanat* irrigation systems that sustained agriculture in the arid region, resulting in severely reduced agricultural production. For centuries after the Mongol conquest, Persian chroniclers cursed the invaders and the devastation they visited upon the land.

By the time of his death in 1227, Chinggis Khan had laid the foundation of a vast and mighty empire. He had united the Mongols, established Mongol supremacy in central Asia, and extended Mongol control to northern China in the east and Persia in the west. Chinggis Khan was a conqueror, however, not an administrator. He ruled the Mongols themselves through his control over the army, but he did not establish a central government for the lands that he conquered.



Mongol soldiers firing their arrows from horseback, from a thirteenth-century illustrated history produced by Persian historian Rashid al-Din.

# **Sources**fromthe**Past**

### **Marco Polo on Mongol Military Tactics**

The Venetian Marco Polo traveled extensively through central Asia and China in the late thirteenth century, when Mongol empires dominated Asia. His book of travel writings is an especially valuable source of information about the Mongol age. Among other things, he described the Mongol way of making war.

**Their arms are bows and** arrows, sword and mace; but above all the bow, for they are capital archers, indeed the best that are known....

When a Mongol prince goes forth to war, he takes with him, say, 100,000 men. Well, he appoints an officer to every ten men, one to every hundred, one to every thousand, and one to every ten thousand, so that his own orders have to be given to ten persons only, and each of these ten persons has to pass the orders only to another ten, and so on, no one having to give orders to more than ten. And every one in turn is responsible only to the officer immediately over him; and the discipline and order that comes of this method is marvellous, for they are a people very obedient to their chiefs. . . .

When they are going on a distant expedition they take no gear with them except two leather bottles for milk, a little earthenware pot to cook their meat in, and a little tent to shelter them from rain. And in case of great urgency they will ride ten days on end without lighting a fire or taking a meal. On such an occasion they will sustain themselves on the blood of their horses, opening a vein and letting the blood jet into their mouths, drinking till they have had enough, and then staunching it. . . .

When they come to an engagement with the enemy, they will gain the victory in this fashion. They never let themselves get

into a regular medley, but keep perpetually riding round and shooting into the enemy. And as they do not count it any shame to run away in battle, they will sometimes pretend to do so, and in running away they turn in the saddle and shoot hard and strong at the foe, and in this way make great havoc. Their horses are trained so perfectly that they will double hither and thither, just like a dog, in a way that is quite astonishing. Thus they fight to as good purpose in running away as if they stood and faced the enemy because of the vast volleys of arrows that they shoot in this way, turning round upon their pursuers, who are fancying that they have won the battle. But when the Mongols see that they have killed and wounded a good many horses and men, they wheel round bodily and return to the charge in perfect order and with loud cries, and in a very short time the enemy are routed. In truth they are stout and valiant soldiers, and inured to war. And you perceive that it is just when the enemy sees them run, and imagines that he has gained the battle, that he has in reality lost it, for the Mongols wheel round in a moment when they judge the right time has come. And after this fashion they have won many a fight.

#### For Further Reflection

In what ways do the military practices described by Marco Polo reflect the influence of the steppe environment on the Mongols?

Source: Marco Polo. The Book of Ser Marco Polo, 3rd ed. Trans. and ed. by Henry Yule and Henri Cordier. London: John Murray, 1921, pp. 260–63. (Translation slightly modified.)

Instead, he assigned Mongol overlords to supervise local administrators and to extract a generous tribute for the Mongols' own uses. Chinggis Khan's heirs continued his conquests, but they also undertook the task of designing a more permanent administration to guide the fortunes of the Mongol empire.

### The Mongol Empires after Chinggis Khan

Chinggis Khan's death touched off a struggle for power among his sons and grandsons, several of whom had ambitions to succeed the great khan. Eventually, his heirs divided Chinggis Khan's vast realm into four regional empires. The great khans ruled China, the wealthiest of Mongol lands. Descendants of Chaghatai, one of Chinggis Khan's sons, ruled the **khanate**  of Chaghatai in central Asia. Persia fell under the authority of rulers known as the ilkhans, and the khans of the Golden Horde dominated Russia. The great khans were nominally superior to the others, but they were rarely able to enforce their claims to authority. In fact, for as long as the Mongol empires survived, ambition fueled constant tension and occasional conflict among the four khans.

Khubilai Khan The consolidation of Mongol rule in China came during the reign of Khubilai (sometimes spelled Qubilai), one of Chinggis Khan's grandsons. Khubilai was perhaps the





most talented of the great conqueror's descendants. He unleashed ruthless attacks against his enemies, but he also took an interest in cultural matters and worked to improve the welfare of his subjects. He actively promoted Buddhism, and he provided support also for Daoists, Muslims, and Christians in his realm. The famous Venetian traveler Marco Polo, who lived almost two decades at Khubilai's court, praised him for his generosity toward the poor and his efforts to build roads. Though named great khan in 1260, Khubilai spent four years fighting off contenders. From 1264 until his death in 1294, Khubilai Khan presided over the Mongol empire at its height.

Mongol Conquest of Southern China Khubilai extended Mongol rule to all of China. From his base at Khanbaliq, he relentlessly attacked the Song dynasty in southern China. The Song capital at Hangzhou fell to Mongol forces in 1276, and within three years Khubilai had eliminated resistance throughout China. In 1279 he proclaimed himself emperor and established the **Yuan dynasty**, which ruled China until its collapse in 1368.

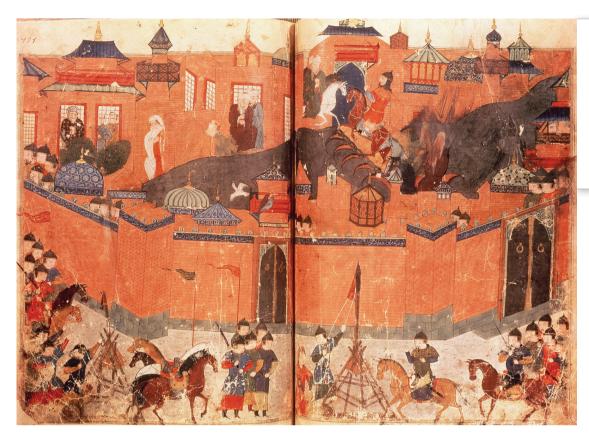
Beyond China, Khubilai had little success as a conqueror. During the 1270s and 1280s, he launched several invasions of

Vietnam, Cambodia, and Burma as well as a naval expedition against Java involving five hundred to one thousand ships and twenty thousand troops. But Mongol forces did not adapt well to the humid, tropical jungles of southeast Asia. Pasturelands

ca. 1300 c.E. The Mongol empires stretched from Manchuria and China to Russia and eastern Europe. In what ways did Mongol empires and Mongol policies facilitate trade, travel, and communication throughout Eurasia?

were inadequate for their horses, and the fearsome Mongol horsemen were unable to cope with the guerrilla tactics employed by the defenders. In 1274 and again in 1281, Khubilai also attempted seaborne invasions of Japan, but on both occasions typhoons thwarted his plans. The storm of 1281 was especially vicious: it destroyed about 4,500 Mongol vessels carrying more than one hundred thousand armed troops—the largest seaborne expedition before World War II. Japanese defenders attributed their continued independence to the kamikaze ("divine winds").

The Golden Horde As Khubilai consolidated his hold on east Asia, his cousins and brothers tightened Mongol control on lands to the west. Mongols of the group known as the



The siege of Baghdad in 1258 c.e.: a Persian manuscript illustration depicts Mongol forces camped outside the city walls while residents huddle within. What role did catapults play in sieges like this?

Golden Horde overran Russia between 1237 and 1241 and then mounted exploratory expeditions into Poland, Hungary, and eastern Germany in 1241 and 1242. Mongols of the Golden Horde prized the steppes north of the Black Sea as prime pastureland for their horses. They maintained a large army on the steppes from which they mounted raids into Russia. They did not occupy Russia, which they regarded as an unattractive land of forests, but they extracted tribute from the Russian cities and agricultural provinces. The Golden Horde maintained its hegemony in Russia until the mid-fifteenth century, when the princes of Moscow rejected its authority while building a powerful Russian state. By the mid-sixteenth century, Russian conquerors had extended their control to the steppes, but Mongol khans descended from the Golden Horde continued to rule the Crimea until the late eighteenth century.

The likhanate of Persia While the Golden Horde established its authority in Russia, Khubilai's brother Hülegü toppled the Abbasid empire and established the Mongol ilkhanate in Persia. In 1258 he captured the Abbasid capital of Baghdad after a brief siege. His troops looted the city, executed the caliph, and massacred more than two hundred thousand residents by Hülegü's own estimate. From Persia, Hülegü's army ventured into Syria, but Muslim forces from Egypt soon expelled them and placed a limit on Mongol expansion to the southwest.

When the Mongols crushed ruling regimes in large settled societies, particularly in China and Persia, they discovered

that they needed to become governors as well as conquerors. The Mongols had no experience administering complex societies, where successful governance required talents beyond the equestrian and military skills esteemed on the steppes. They had a difficult time adjusting to their role as administrators. Indeed, they never became entirely comfortable in the role, and most of their conquests fell out of their hands within a century.

Mongol Rule in Persia The Mongols adopted different tactics in the different lands that they ruled. In Persia they made important concessions to local interests. Although Mongols and their allies occupied the highest administrative positions, Persians served as ministers, provincial governors, and state officials at all lower levels. The Mongols basically allowed the Persians to administer the ilkhanate as long as they delivered tax receipts and maintained order.

Over time, the Mongols even assimilated to Persian cultural traditions. The early Mongol rulers of Persia mostly observed their native shamanism, but they tolerated all religions—including Islam, Nestorian Christianity, Buddhism, and Judaism—and they ended the privileges given Muslims during the Abbasid caliphate. Gradually, however, the Mongols themselves gravitated toward Islam. In 1295 Ilkhan Ghazan publicly converted to Islam, and most of the Mongols in



Persia followed his example. Ghazan's conversion sparked large-scale massacres of Christians and Jews, and it signaled the return of Islam to a privileged position in Persian society. It also indicated the absorption of the Mongols into Muslim Persian society.

Mongol Rule in China In China, by contrast, the Mongol overlords stood aloof from their subjects, whom they scorned as mere cultivators. They outlawed intermarriage between Mongols and Chinese and forbade the Chinese from learning the Mongol language. Soon after their conquest some of the victors went so far as to suggest that the Mongols exterminate the Chinese people and convert China itself into pastureland for their horses. Cooler heads eventually prevailed, and the Mongols decided simply to extract as much revenue as possible from their Chinese subjects. In doing so, however, they did not make as much use of native administrative talent as did their counterparts in Persia. Instead, they brought foreign administrators into China and placed them in charge. Along with their nomadic allies, the Mongols' administrative staff included Arabs, Persians, and perhaps even Europeans: Marco Polo may have served as an administrator in the city of Yangzhou during the reign of Khubilai Khan.

The Mongols also resisted assimilation to Chinese cultural traditions. They ended the privileges enjoyed by the Confucian scholars, and they dismantled the Confucian educational and examination system, which had produced untold generations of civil servants for the Chinese bureaucracy. They did not persecute Confucians, but they allowed the Confucian tradition to wither in the absence of official support. Meanwhile, to remain on good terms with subjects of different faiths, the Mongols allowed the construction of churches, temples, and shrines, and they even subsidized some religious establishments. They tolerated all cultural and religious traditions in China, including Confucianism, Daoism, Buddhism, and Christianity. Of Khubilai Khan's four wives, his favorite was Chabi, a Nestorian Christian.

The Mongols and Buddhism For their part the Mongols mostly continued to follow their native shamanist cults, although many of the ruling elite became enchanted with the Lamaist school of Buddhism that developed in Tibet. Lamaist Buddhism held several attractions for the Mongols. It made a

## Thinking about **ENCOUNTERS**

#### **Cultural Preferences of the Mongols**

While building a massive Eurasian empire, Mongols encountered Muslims, Buddhists, Confucians, and representatives of other cultural traditions as well. Consider their reactions to these various traditions. Why might the Mongols have shown strong interest in some traditions but not others?

prominent place for magic and supernatural powers, and in that respect it resembled the Mongols' shamanism. Moreover, Lamaist Buddhist leaders officially recognized the Mongols as legitimate rulers and went out of their way to court the Mongols' favor. They numbered the Mongols in the ranks of universal Buddhist rulers and even recognized the Mongol khans as incarnations of the Buddha. Thus it is not surprising that the Mongol ruling elites would find Lamaist Buddhism attractive.

#### The Mongols and Eurasian Integration

In building their vast empire, the Mongols brought tremendous destruction to lands throughout much of the Eurasian landmass. Yet they also sponsored interaction among peoples of different societies and linked Eurasian lands more directly than ever before. Indeed, Mongol rulers positively encouraged travel and communication over long distances. Recognizing the value of regular communications for their vast empire, Chinggis Khan and his successors maintained a courier network that rapidly relayed news, information, and government orders. The network included relay stations with fresh horses and riders so that messages could travel almost nonstop throughout Mongol territories. The Mongols' encouragement of travel and communication facilitated trade, diplomatic travel, missionary efforts, and movements of peoples to new lands.

The Mongols and Trade As a nomadic people dependent on commerce with settled agricultural societies, the Mongols worked to secure trade routes and ensure the safety of merchants passing through their territories. The Mongol khans frequently fought among themselves, but they maintained reasonably good order within their realms and allowed merchants to travel unmolested through their empires. As a result, long-distance travel and trade became much less risky than in earlier times. Merchants increased their commercial investments, and the volume of long-distance trade across central Asia dwarfed that of earlier eras. Lands as distant as China and western Europe became directly linked for the first time because of the ability of individuals to travel across the entire Eurasian landmass.

Diplomatic Missions Like trade, diplomatic communication was essential to the Mongols, and their protection of

roads and travelers benefited ambassadors as well as merchants. Chinggis Khan destroyed the Khwarazm shah in Persia because the shah unwisely murdered the Mongol envoys Chinggis Khan dispatched in hopes of opening diplomatic and commercial relations. Throughout the Mongol era the great khans in China, the ilkhans in Persia, and the other khans maintained close communications by means of diplomatic embassies. They also had diplomatic dealings with rulers in Korea, Vietnam, India, western Europe, and other lands as well. Some diplomatic travelers crossed the



Chabi, a Nestorian Christian and the favorite wife of Khubilai Khan, wearing the distinctive headgear reserved for Mongol women of the ruling class.

entire Eurasian landmass. Several European ambassadors traveled to Mongolia and China to deliver messages from authorities seeking to ally with the Mongols against Muslim states in southwest Asia. Diplomats also traveled west: Rabban Sauma, a Nestorian Christian monk born in Khanbaliq, visited Italy and France as a representative of the Persian ilkhan.

Missionary Efforts Like the Silk Roads in earlier times, Eurasian routes during the era of the Mongol empires served as highways for missionaries as well as merchants and diplomats. Sufi missionaries helped popularize Islam among Turkish peoples in central Asia, while Lamaist Buddhism from Tibet attracted considerable interest among the Mongols. Nestorian Christians, who had long been prominent in oasis communities throughout central Asia, found new opportunities to win converts when they went to China to serve as administrators for Mongol rulers there. Roman Catholic Christians also mounted missionary campaigns in China.

(See chapter 21 for further discussion of travel during the Mongol era.)

Resettlement Another Mongol policy that encouraged Eurasian integration was the practice of resettling peoples in new lands. As a nomadic people, the Mongols had limited numbers of skilled artisans and educated individuals, but the more their empire expanded, the more they needed the services of specialized crafts workers and literate administrators. Mongol overlords recruited the talent they needed largely from the ranks of their allies and the peoples they conquered, and they often moved people far from their homelands to sites where they could best make use of their services. Among the most important of the Mongols' allies were the Uighur Turks, who lived mostly in oasis cities along the Silk Roads. The Uighurs were literate and often highly educated, and they provided not only many of the clerks, secretaries, and administrators who ran the Mongol empires but also units of soldiers who bolstered Mongol garrisons. Arab and Persian Muslims were also prominent among those who administered the Mongols' affairs far from their homelands.

Conquered peoples also supplied the Mongols with talent. When they overcame a city, Mongol forces routinely surveyed the captured population, separated out those with specialized skills, and sent them to the capital at Karakorum or some other place where there was demand for their services. From the ranks of conquered peoples came soldiers, bodyguards, administrators, secretaries, translators, physicians, armor makers, metalsmiths, miners, carpenters, masons, textile workers, musicians, and jewelers. After the 1230s the Mongols often took censuses of lands they conquered, partly to levy taxes and conscript military forces and partly to locate talented individuals. The Parisian goldsmith Guillaume Boucher was only one among thousands of foreign-born individuals who became permanent residents of the Mongol capital at Karakorum because of their special talents. Like their protection of trade and diplomacy, the Mongols' policy of resettling allies and conquered peoples promoted Eurasian integration by increasing communication and exchange between peoples of different societies.

# Decline of the Mongols in Persia and China

Collapse of the llkhanate Soon after the long and prosperous reign of Khubilai Khan, the Mongols encountered serious difficulties governing Persia and China. In Persia excessive spending strained the treasury, and overexploitation of the peasantry led to reduced revenues. In the early 1290s the ilkhan tried to resolve his financial difficulties by introducing paper money and ordering all subjects to accept it for payment of all debts. The purpose of that measure was to drive precious metals into the hands of the government, but



## **Reverberations** • • • • • •

### **The Diffusion of Technologies**

Between about 1000 and 1500 c.E., the ever-increasing pace of human interaction in many parts of the world led to a spectacular diffusion of technologies. Technologies include both tools and techniques that humans use to adapt the natural environment to their needs, and thus can range from items like plows and horseshoes to irrigation systems or ideas about which crops to plant. Of course, both the existence of technologies and their diffusion were hardly unique to the period between 1000 and 1500 c.E.-indeed, we have already seen numerous examples of technological diffusion (such as the spread of horse-drawn chariots and iron smelting, among many others) in Parts I-III. But during the period between 1000 and 1500 c.E., increased intercultural interactionsespecially across and between Eurasia and Africa-led not only to the more rapid diffusion of technologies, but also to the diffusion of particular technologies that would impact the world's history for centuries to come. One of the reasons for the increased pace of interactions across Eurasia and Africa was because of the spread of the dar-al-Islam after the eighth century, which we read about in Part III, and especially because of the Muslim merchants who established stable trade routes within and beyond its bounds. Another reason was the huge conquests made by nomadic Turkic and Mongolian peoples from the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries. In the thirteenth century, Mongol conquests alone provided stable trade routes that connected Eurasia all the way from China to eastern Europe. Each of these developments provided the pathways not only for the introduction of new trade items and spiritual beliefs, but also for the diffusion of technologies from distant regions. Here, we discuss two types of technologies that were widely diffused in this period: technologies of warfare and technologies of transportation.

#### **Technologies of Warfare**

In this chapter, we have already seen that Mongols learned about gunpowder from the Chinese during the thirteenth century. Gunpowder, of course, was not new to the Chinese: as we saw in chapter 13, Chinese alchemists discovered the compound during the Han dynasty, and by the eighth century Chinese strategists were using it for military purposes. But

when Mongol invaders were introduced to gunpowder, they quickly incorporated its destructive powers into their arsenal of weapons: as early as 1214, for example, Chinggis Khan's armies included an artillery unit. Faced with the power of gunpowder-especially its usefulness in breaking siegessocieties all over Eurasia quickly sought to acquire the technology. Since the Mongols used gunpowder weapons to conquer Persia and other parts of southwest Asia in the midthirteenth century, Muslim armies were inspired to guickly incorporate the technology in order to defend themselves. By the mid-thirteenth century gunpowder technology had also reached Europe, and by the early fourteenth century armies across Eurasia possessed cannons. Although early cannons were not particularly accurate, the diffusion of gunpowder technologies permanently altered the nature of warfare. Indeed, over the eight centuries since Mongol armies began to use it, the use of gunpowder technologies has impacted every part of the globe in profound ways.

#### **Technologies of Transportation**

The period from around 1000 to 1500 c.E. also witnessed the widespread diffusion of technologies that improved both animal and maritime transportation—technologies that, in turn, allowed for both greater economic integration across long distances as well as greater economic growth. For example, Islamic merchants from north Africa utilized camels to cross the Sahara desert by the late eighth century c.E. (chapter 18). The diffusion of camels across the Sahara led to significant and long-term changes in a variety of sub-Saharan African societies, which included both the introduction of Islam as well as growing wealth resulting from being incorporated into much larger Eurasian markets. In Europe, meanwhile, the diffusion of the horse collar-most likely from both central Asia and north Africa—during the high middle ages helped to fuel European economic growth by allowing horses to pull much heavier loads without choking (chapter 19). The result was that Europeans could use horses for plowing and for transporting heavy loads rather than much slower oxen, which increased the amount of land that could be plowed as well as the rapidity with which goods could be brought to market.

the policy was a miserable failure: rather than accept paper that they regarded as worthless, merchants simply closed their shops. Commerce ground to a halt until the ilkhan rescinded his order. Meanwhile, factional struggles plagued the Mongol leadership. The regime went into steep decline after the death of Ilkhan Ghazan in 1304. When the last of the Mongol rulers died without an heir in 1335, the ilkhanate itself simply collapsed. Government in Persia devolved to local levels until late in the fourteenth century when Turkish peoples reintroduced effective central government.





Siege of a north African town, fourteenth century.

Maritime technologies also diffused widely in this period. For example, the magnetic compass was invented by the Chinese during the Tang or Song dynasty, but by the mideleventh century it was being used by mariners throughout the Indian Ocean basin. By the mid-twelfth century, Europeans were also using compasses in the Mediterranean and Atlantic—devices that helped Portuguese mariners find their way into the Indian Ocean in the fifteenth century (chapter 21). In subsequent centuries, European mariners adopted many other maritime technologies from distant cultures—including

the astrolabe—which were eventually used to cross the Atlantic to the Americas. Maritime technologies were not only important in Eurasia, however: during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, voyages using sophisticated maritime techniques between the Hawaiian Islands and Tahiti allowed for the transfer of improved fishhook technologies to Hawaii (chapter 20).

When reading subsequent chapters, consider the effects that the diffusion of technologies have had on societies around the world over the very long term.

Decline of the Yuan Dynasty Mongol decline in China was a more complicated affair. As in Persia, it had an economic dimension. The Mongols continued to use the paper money that the Chinese had introduced during the Tang and Song dynasties, but they did not maintain adequate reserves of the bullion that backed up paper notes. The general population soon lost

confidence in paper money, and prices rose sharply as a reflection of its diminished value. As in Persia, too, factions and infighting hastened Mongol decline in China. As the richest of the Mongol empires, China attracted the attention of ambitious warriors. Beginning in the 1320s power struggles, imperial assassinations, and civil war convulsed the Mongol regime in China.

Bubonic Plaque Apart from financial difficulties and factional divisions, the Mongol rulers of China also faced an onslaught of epidemic disease. By facilitating trade and communications throughout Eurasia, the Mongols unwittingly expedited the spread of bubonic plague (discussed in chapter 21). During the 1330s plague erupted in southwestern China. From there it spread throughout China and central Asia, and by the late 1340s it had reached southwest Asia and Europe, where it became known as the Black Death. Bubonic plague sometimes killed half or more of an exposed population, particularly during the furious initial years of the epidemic, and it seriously disrupted economies and societies throughout much of Eurasia. In China depopulation and labor shortages that followed on the heels of epidemic plague weakened the Mongol regime. (Plague would also have caused serious problems for the Mongol rulers of Persia had the ilkhanate not collapsed before its arrival.)

The Mongols also faced a rebellious subject population in China. The Mongols stood apart from their Chinese subjects, who returned the contempt of their conquerors. Beginning in the 1340s southern China became a hotbed of peasant rebellion and banditry, which the Mongols could not control. In 1368 rebel forces captured Khanbaliq, and the Mongols departed China en masse and returned to the steppes.

Surviving Mongol Khanates Despite the collapse of the Mongol regimes in Persia and China, Mongol states did not completely disappear. The khanate of Chaghatai continued to prevail in central Asia, and Mongols posed a threat to the northwestern borders of China until the eighteenth century. Meanwhile, the khanate of the Golden Horde continued to dominate the Caucasus and the steppe lands north of the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea until the mid-sixteenth century when a resurgent Russian state brought the Golden Horde down. Like Mongols in China, however, Mongols in Russia continued to threaten until the eighteenth century, and Mongols who had settled in the Crimean peninsula retained their identity until Josef Stalin forcibly moved them to other parts of the Soviet Union in the mid-twentieth century.

#### **AFTER THE MONGOLS**

By no means did the decline of the Mongols signal the end of nomadic peoples' influence in Eurasia. As Mongol strength waned, Turkish peoples resumed the expansive campaigns that the Mongols had interrupted. During the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries, the Turkic-Mongol conqueror **Tamerlane** built a central Asian empire rivaling that of Chinggis Khan himself. Although Tamerlane's empire foundered soon after his death, it deeply influenced three surviving Turkish Muslim states—the Mughal empire in India, the Safavid empire in Persia, and the **Ottoman** empire based in

Anatolia—and also embraced much of southwest Asia, southeastern Europe, and north Africa.

#### Tamerlane and the Timurids

The Lame Conqueror The rapid collapse of the Mongol states left gaping power vacuums in China and Persia. While the native Ming dynasty filled the vacuum in China, a self-made Turkic-Mongol conqueror named Timur moved on Persia. Because he walked with a limp, contemporaries referred to him as Timur-i lang—"Timur the Lame," an appellation that made its way into English as Tamerlane.

Born about 1336 near Samarkand, Tamerlane took Chinggis Khan as his model. Like Chinggis Khan, Tamerlane came from a family of minor Mongol and Turkish elites, and had to make his own way to power. Like Chinggis Khan, too, he was a charismatic leader and a courageous warrior, and he attracted a band of loyal followers. During the 1360s he eliminated rivals to power, either by persuading them to join him as allies or by defeating their armies on the battlefield, and he won recognition as leader of his own tribe. By 1370 he had extended his authority throughout the khanate of Chaghatai and begun to build a magnificent imperial capital in Samarkand.

**Tamerlane's Conquests** For the rest of his life, Tamerlane led his armies on campaigns of conquest. He turned first to the region between Persia and Afghanistan, and he took special care to establish his authority in the rich cities so that he could levy taxes on trade and agricultural production. Next he attacked the Golden Horde in the Caucasus region and Russia, and by the mid-1390s he had severely weakened it. During the last years of the century, he invaded India and subjected Delhi to a ferocious sack: contemporary chroniclers reported, with some exaggeration, that for a period of two months after the attack not even birds visited the devastated city. Later, Tamerlane campaigned along the Ganges, although he never attempted to incorporate India into his empire. He opened the new century with campaigns in southwest Asia and Anatolia. In 1404 he began preparations for an invasion of China, and he was leading his army east when he fell ill and died in 1405.

Like his model Chinggis Khan, Tamerlane was a conqueror, not a governor. He spent almost his entire adult life planning and fighting military campaigns: he even had himself carried around on a litter during his final illness, as he prepared to invade China. He did not create an imperial administration but, rather, ruled through tribal leaders who were his allies. He appointed overlords in the territories he conquered, but they relied on existing bureaucratic structures and simply received taxes and tributes on his behalf.

Tamerlane's Heirs Given its loose organization, it is not surprising that Tamerlane's Timurid empire experienced stresses and strains after the conqueror's death. Tamerlane's sons and grandsons engaged in a long series of bitter conflicts that resulted in the contraction of the Timurid empire and its division into four main regions. For a century after Tamerlane's



#### **MAP 17.3**

Tamerlane's empire, ca. 1405 c.E.

Notice the similarity between Tamerlane's empire and the ilkhanate of Persia outlined in Map 17.2.

To what extent do you think the cities and the administrative infrastructure of the region both helped and hindered Tamerlane's efforts to control his empire?

Spoils from Tamerlane's campaigns and raids enriched the conqueror's capital at Samarkand. They financed, among other buildings, the magnificent tomb where Tamerlane's remains still rest.

death, however, they maintained control over the region from Persia to Afghanistan. When the last vestiges of Tamerlane's imperial creation disappeared, in the early sixteenth century, the Mughal, Safavid, and Ottoman empires that replaced it all clearly reflected the Turkish, Mongol, and Muslim legacy of the lame conqueror.

### The Foundation of the Ottoman Empire

Chapter 27 will discuss the Mughal empire in India and the **Safavid** empire in Persia, both of which emerged during the early sixteenth century as Tamerlane's empire finally dissolved. The early stages of Ottoman expansion predated Tamerlane, however, and the foundation of the influential Ottoman empire throws additional light on the influence of nomadic peoples during the period 1000 to 1500 c.E.

Osman After the Mongol conquest of Persia, large numbers of nomadic Turks migrated from central Asia to the ilkhanate and beyond to the territories in Anatolia that the Seljuq Turks had seized from the Byzantine empire. There they followed charismatic leaders who organized further campaigns of conquest. Among those leaders was Osman, who during the late thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries carved a small state for himself in northwestern Anatolia. In 1299 Osman declared independence from the Seljuq sultan and launched a campaign to build a state at the expense of the Byzantine empire. After every successful operation, Osman attracted more and more followers, who came to be known as Osmanlis or Ottomans.



Although besieged by Ottoman forces, Constantinople received supplies from the sea for almost two months before Ottomans destroyed the city walls and completed their conquest of the Byzantine empire.

Ottoman Conquests During the 1350s the Ottomans gained a considerable advantage over their Turkish rivals when they established a foothold across the Dardanelles at Gallipoli on the Balkan peninsula. The Ottomans quickly moved to expand the boundaries of their Balkan holdings. Byzantine forces resisted Ottoman incursions, but because of political fragmentation, ineffective government, and exploitation of the peasantry, the Ottomans found abundant local support. By the 1380s the Ottomans had become by far the most powerful people on the Balkan peninsula, and by the end of the century they were poised to capture Constantinople and take over the Byzantine empire.

Tamerlane temporarily delayed Ottoman expansion in the Byzantine realm. In 1402 Tamerlane's forces crushed the Ottoman army, captured the sultan, and subjected the Ottoman state to the conqueror's authority. After Tamerlane's death, Ottoman leaders had to reestablish their rule in their own realm. This undertaking involved both the repression of ambitious local princes who sought to build power bases at Ottoman expense and the defense of Ottoman territories against Byzantine, Venetian, and other Christian forces that sought to turn back the advance of the Turkish Muslims. By the 1440s the Ottomans had recovered their balance and begun again to expand in the Byzantine empire.

The Capture of Constantinople The campaign culminated in 1453 when Sultan Mehmed II captured the city of Constantinople, thus bringing to an end more than a thousand years of Byzantine rule. After subjecting it to a sack, he made the city his own capital under the Turkish name of Istanbul. With Istanbul as a base, the Ottomans quickly absorbed the remainder of the Byzantine empire. By 1480 they controlled all of Greece and the Balkan region. They continued to expand throughout most of the sixteenth century as well, extending their rule to southwest Asia, southeastern Europe, Egypt, and north Africa. Once again, then, a nomadic people asserted control over a long-settled society and quickly built a vast empire.

CHRONOLOGY	
1055	Tughril Beg named sultan
1071	Battle of Manzikert
1206-1227	Reign of Chinggis Khan
1211–1234	Mongol conquest of northern China
1219-1221	Mongol conquest of Persia
1237–1241	Mongol conquest of Russia
1258	Mongol capture of Baghdad
1264-1279	Mongol conquest of southern China
1264-1294	Reign of Khubilai Khan
1279–1368	Yuan dynasty
1295	Conversion of Ilkhan Ghazan to Islam
1336-1405	Life of Tamerlane
1453	Ottoman capture of Constantinople

## **AP** CHAPTER SUMMARY

Nomadic peoples of central Asia played a larger role than ever before in world history during the half millennium from 1000 to 1500 C.E. Because of their mobility and their familiarity with large regions of central Asia, nomadic peoples were ideally suited to organize and lead the caravans that crossed central Asia and linked settled societies from China to the Mediterranean basin. • From 1000 to 1500 their relations with neighboring peoples changed, as they dominated affairs in most of Eurasia through their conquests and their construction of vast transregional empires. • Turkish peoples built the most durable of the nomadic empires, but the spectacular conquests of the Mongols most clearly demonstrated the potential of nomadic peoples to project their formidable military power to settled agricultural societies. 2 By establishing connections that spanned the Eurasian landmass, the nomadic empires laid the foundation for increasing communication, exchange, and interaction among peoples of different societies and thereby fostered the integration of the eastern hemisphere. • The age of nomadic empires from 1000 to 1500 C.E. foreshadowed the integrated world of modern times.

## AP TEST PRACTICE

Questions assume cumulative knowledge from this chapter and previous chapters.

**MULTIPLE CHOICE Use the text on page 371** and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1–3.

- **1.** In the text, Marco Polo not only describes Mongol military tactics but also most strongly offers evidence of which of the following?
  - A The structural nature of Mongol military organization
  - **B** The development of the Mongol army as a powerful yet symbolic institution
  - **c** The Mongol preference for wreaking destruction on all conquered peoples
  - **D** The disadvantages faced by Mongol armies due to ecological conditions

- **2.** In attempting to unify the Mongol people, both militarily and politically, rulers faced most strong opposition from which of the following?
  - A The influence of nomadic religion and shamans
  - **B** The rigid hierarchies of nomadic society
  - **c** The culture of tribal affiliations and loyalties
  - **D** The temporary nature of nomadic settlements
- **3.** The Mongol military encounters depicted by Marco Polo best reflect the influence of
  - A defensive military strategies.
  - **B** siege warfare.
  - c advanced warfare technologies.
  - **D** psychological warfare.

**SHORT ANSWER** Use your knowledge of world history to answer questions 4–5.

- **4. Use the map on page 379** and your knowledge of world history to answer parts A, B, and C.
  - A Explain ONE way in which the empire of Tamerlane may have benefitted from the organization of past empires as seen from its geographic boundaries on the map.
  - **B** Identify and explain ONE flaw in the administration of the government of Tamerlane's empire.
  - **c** Explain ONE way in which Tamerlane unintentionally rescued the Byzantine empire from Ottoman incursions.
- **5.** Answer parts A, B, and C.
  - A Identify ONE way in which Chinggis Khan restructured Mongol society in order to secure his rule.
  - **B** Identify ONE factor that allowed the Mongols to conquer and control such a vast empire.
  - **c** Explain ONE way in which Mongol religious policy varied over time or by region.

**LONG ESSAY** Develop a thoughtful and thorough historical argument that answers the question below. Begin your essay with a thesis statement and support it with relevant historical evidence.

6. Comparison Using specific examples, explain relevant similarities and/or differences between the conquest and governance of the Turkish empires to that of the Mongols.

