CHAPTER 10: POST-CLASSICAL ASIA AND BEYOND
In this chapter, you will learn about developments in Asia during the “post-classical” era of history, especially in Turkey, Central Asia, India, and China. You will also learn about later developments in parts of Asia, reaching into the next historical time period.
ESSENTIAL QUESTIONS

- What were the major civilizations of Asia in the post-classical era?
- What were the effects of the Mongol invasions?
- What were the achievements of the Ottomans, Mughals, and Ming Chinese?
KEY VOCABULARY

- Ottomans
- Suleiman the Magnificent
- Safavid Empire
- Tamerlane
- Taj Mahal
- Sikhism
- Tang Dynasty
- Song Dynasty
- Samurai
- Mongol Empire
- Chinggis Khan
- Kublai Khan
- Yuan Dynasty
- Marco Polo
- Ming Dynasty
A. The Ottomans established their capital at Istanbul (formerly Constantinople), where the Sultan ruled with an elaborate court. The Ottomans ruled a vast empire that included Eastern Europe and North Africa. Jews and Christians were permitted some self-government.

B. Islam spread to Persia and then across the Himalayas to northwest India. Muslim rulers set up Sultanates, and Shah Jahan built the Taj Mahal.

C. The Sikh religion emerged in India, combining Hindu and Muslim beliefs.
D. China flourished under the Tang and Song Dynasties. China developed paper money, gunpowder, block printing, and the compass.

E. Japanese culture was deeply influenced by China.

F. The Mongols, led by Chinggis Khan, conquered Central Asia, China, and Russia. Kublai Khan adopted Chinese ways.

G. Under the Ming Dynasty, China enjoyed 300 years of peace and prosperity. The Ming built the Forbidden City in Beijing. Later Ming China traded silk and porcelain with Europe for silver and other goods.
1. RISE OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Last chapter, we saw how Arab Muslims created a vast Islamic civilization that eventually spread from Spain to the Indus River. The Ottomans, a nomadic group of Turkish people originally from Central Asia, emerged as rulers of the Islamic world in the 13th century. In 1453, they succeeded in capturing Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire. The Ottoman Empire was located between Europe and Asia and interacted with both Eastern and Western culture throughout its history.
For a time, the Ottomans cut European trade with Asia and took control of the Mediterranean. The Ottomans also conquered Egypt and North Africa, re-uniting all of the Muslim world under their rule, except for Persia and Afghanistan. They also conquered parts of Eastern Europe.
By the mid-1500s, under Suleiman the Magnificent, the Ottoman Empire reached its height. The Ottoman fleet controlled much of the trade in the Mediterranean Sea until their defeat in 1571 by Spaniards and Venetians.
At the heart of the Ottoman system was the Sultan (ruler) and his lavish court. The Sultan in Istanbul (Constantinople) governed the entire empire as an all-powerful ruler. Under the Sultan’s rule, the early Ottoman Empire was well-organized and efficiently governed. He was assisted by a special army – the Janissaries, made up of soldiers recruited in childhood.
The Ottomans recognized the cultural diversity of their empire. Jewish and Christian communities were represented by their own leaders. These communities were governed by their own laws and collected their own taxes. These methods of government, as well as Ottoman control over the crossroads of trade, promoted prosperity and stability.
Islam also spread to Persia. The Safavids created a great Islamic empire in Persia in the early 1500s. Members of a Turkish tribe, the Safavids were Shi’ite Muslims. They were opposed to the Ottomans, who followed the Sunni branch of Islam.
Their association with Shi’ite Islam gave the Safavids an identity separate from their Turkish and Arab neighbors, still affecting Iran today. Safavid rule eventually extended as far south as the Persian Gulf and east to the Indus River. Safavid rulers, known as Shahs, used their large standing armies to maintain control. The Safavid court became famous for its beautiful palace carpets and paintings in miniature.
The impact of Islam was felt even farther east than Turkey and Persia. As early as the 8th century, Muslim invaders reached the Indus Valley by entering across the mountains through the Khyber Pass to the northwest of the Indian subcontinent.
In the 11th and 12th centuries, Turkish Muslims invaded India’s northern plains, destroying Hindu temples and cities. Historians believe large numbers of Hindus were tragically killed in these invasions. Muslims established independent kingdoms in Northern India, known as Sultanates.
The most important Sultanate was established around 1200 at Delhi. For the next 320 years, the Sultans of Delhi ruled much of Northern and Central India. Unlike prior conquerors, the Muslims never fully adopted Indian ways. For example, Muslim women wore veils and remained secluded, even though Hindu women did not. At the end of the 14th century, the Mongol ruler Tamerlane destroyed the city of Delhi and slaughtered its inhabitants. The Delhi Sultanate never fully recovered from this blow.
In 1526, Babur, a descendant of both Tamerlane and Chinggis Khan, defeated the Sultan of Delhi and founded the Mughal Empire. Although the name was taken from “Mongol,” the Mughals were Muslims with close ties to Safavid Persia. Because the later Ottoman and Mughal Empires used guns to control their populations and fight their enemies, historians often refer to these as the “Gunpowder Empires.”
The Ottoman, Safavid, and Mughal Empires

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THE MUGHAL EMPIRE (1526-1837)

- The most famous Mughal ruler was Babur’s grandson, Akbar the Great (1526-1605). Akbar conquered neighboring Muslim and Hindu states, uniting Northern India under his rule.
Akbar next set out to unite all his Muslim and Hindu subjects by promoting religious toleration. He ended the special taxes paid by the Hindus, and made use of Hindu officials in government. To govern his large empire more efficiently, Akbar divided it into twelve provinces. Well-trained imperial officials were sent to supervise local government, enforce laws, and ensure the collection of taxes. Akbar also encouraged learning, painting, music, and literature.
Akbar’s grandson, Shah Jahan (1628-1658), showed less sympathy for Hindus. He re-imposed special taxes on them and ordered the destruction of many Hindu temples. In the northwest and northeast, many people converted to Islam. Some of these people changed their religion to avoid paying the special taxes. Others converted because they were from lower castes and hoped to escape the caste system.
Under Jahan’s rule, Mughal artistic and architectural achievements reached a high point. Jahan built palaces, fortresses, and mosques to glorify his reign. The most famous and beautiful of his buildings, the Taj Mahal, was a tomb built for his wife. It stands as one of the finest examples of Mughal architecture, merging elements of Persian, Islamic and Indian styles. Although the Mughals continued to rule in the north until 1857, a series of small, independent kingdoms developed in Central and Southern India. Soon afterwards, the Mughal Empire began to fall apart.
Sikhism developed in Northern India as a result of the interaction of Muslim and Hindu beliefs. Like Hindus, Sikhs believe in reincarnation. Like Muslims, Sikhs believe in one God, and that God can be known through meditation (a form of deep contemplation). The goal of every Sikh is to build a close and loving relationship with God. Sikhs believe that everyone has equal status in the eyes of God. Sikh scriptures teach the idea of moderation, urging followers to eat little, sleep little, talk little, and to consume as little as possible. Unlike Hindus, Sikhs do not have castes. It is customary for Sikhs of all social ranks to take meals together. Sikh men do not cut their hair, which is often worn under a turban.
Like Western Europe after the decline of the Roman Empire, China entered a long period of turmoil and unrest after the collapse of the Han Dynasty in 220 A.D. As in the West, the advance of the Huns helped plunge China into disunity. Several warring kingdoms arose, and science, art and culture declined. In these same years, Buddhism spread through much of China.
This period in China’s history is known as the Six Dynasties. It took several hundred years before China re-emerged as one of the world’s leading civilizations under the Tang Dynasty.
During the Tang Dynasty, China experienced a Golden Age. Early Tang rulers suppressed peasant uprisings, reunited China, revived traditional feudal relationships, and brought about peace and prosperity. They ruled over an immense empire of more than 50 million people. China expanded into Korea, Manchuria and parts of Central Asia. The government took careful censuses (population counts), gave examinations on Confucian texts to candidates for government service, and built public works. Under the early Tang, every adult male received a fixed amount of land from the government. Peasants had to perform labor for the imperial government and paid taxes in the form of grain and silk.
Under Empress Wu Zetian, government officials made recommendations for reforms. A magnificent capital city was built at Chang’an. At the time, this city was the largest city in the world. Merchants and officials from Persia, India, Arabia, and Syria could be found there.
TANG DYNASTY (618-907)

- Architecture, sculpture, painting, and porcelain all made great advances. Stimulated by its contacts with India and the Middle East, the Tang Dynasty became one of the high points of Chinese civilization, especially with its accomplishments in literature and art. Artists developed a distinct style of pottery with painted glazed figures of green, yellow and orange.
Artists also excelled in metalwork and jade. Vessels and utensils of all kinds were made by skilled craftsmen. Tang painters depicted nature with brushwork or scrolls, and Tang poets celebrated court life.
Under the Tang, the Chinese developed a unique form of garden – with streams, rocks, and trees – designed for peaceful contemplation. The Tang also made important innovations in map-making, medicine, and printing. Tang China developed block printing, so that copies of Confucian texts could be printed to help candidates for government service with their examinations.
The Tang encouraged commerce and handicrafts, making the Silk Road busier than ever before. Tang China benefited from its trade with Persia, Arabia, Japan and the Byzantine Empire.
SONG DYNASTY (960-1279)

- After the fall of the Tang Dynasty in 907, China again shrank in size. In 960, the Song Dynasty emerged in the south. Later, a rival dynasty was established in the north. Despite this reduction in area, Song China continued to build upon the achievements of the Tang.
The Song Dynasty was one of the most brilliant cultural eras in Chinese history. It was a time of great social and economic progress. China saw the first use of paper currency, making it possible to pay taxes using money rather than grain. The government further minted strings of standardized coins, made of copper and iron.
The Song also eliminated forced labor for the emperor. These factors helped bring about a large increase in farm production, which led to greater wealth for China’s people and government.
Song China was the most populous and advanced civilization of its day. Merchants, craftspeople, and scholars lived in the larger towns and cities. Bustling shops lined city streets. The Song capital housed more than a million people. China engaged in trade with many other parts of the world.
The Grand Canal, connecting Beijing, the Hwang Ho, and the Yangtze River, was used to ship grain within China. Caravans carried silks over the Silk Road. Large ships brought Chinese goods to Korea, Japan, Southeast Asia, India, and Africa.
Science and technology also made advances. Song astronomers developed new instruments; doctors studied acupuncture; and mathematicians solved advanced equations. They introduced the use of gunpowder in war, the compass in navigation, and invented moveable type for printing.
The greatest threat the Song faced consisted of tribes on China’s northern border. In order to secure their borders, the Song allied themselves with a new people in the north, the Mongols. The alliance proved to be a mistake. The Mongols soon overran the empire and established a foreign dynasty to rule over China – the Yuan Dynasty.
Technology. Block printing, the crossbow, gunpowder, and the abacus (a machine that counts beads for arithmetic) were first developed in China during the Tang and Song dynasties.

Compass. The Chinese discovered that a magnetized needle floating in a water bowl always points north-south. Traders at sea used the compass to determine their direction when sailing.

The Arts. Chinese artists perfected the art of making porcelains and painting with black ink on silk paper. Chinese poets and historians wrote important works.
The Tang and Song followed the traditional beliefs of Confucianism – a woman must obey her father, husband and son. Girls left their families when they married. So long as they gave birth to sons, they would eventually gain a respected place in their new family by marriage. If a woman’s husband died, she could share in receiving a portion of her husband’s land. Divorce was allowed if accepted by both husband and wife.
The practice of female footbinding began under the Song Dynasty and illustrated the desire to limit female mobility. Girls’ feet were bound in tight bandages. This gave wealthy women small feet, which were considered attractive, but which often made it difficult for them to walk.
One area deeply influenced by Chinese culture was Japan. Chinese and Korean scholars and merchants brought many aspects of Chinese culture to Japan, a group of islands located close to Korea. Confucianism instilled loyalty to the family and ruler. Buddhism taught the Japanese to renounce selfish desires, while Daoism encouraged a love of nature.
The Chinese method of writing characters was also adopted in Japan. Chinese music, art, dance and even cooking influenced Japanese styles and tastes. The Japanese were greatly impressed by the quality of many Chinese goods, such as silks and pottery. The ruler of Japan set up an imperial court, in imitation of China, and declared himself emperor.
Although greatly influenced by China, Japanese society was not an exact copy. As time passed, Japanese emperors freed some of their nobles from their tax burdens. Many noble landowners began to raise their own private armies of warriors. The imperial government, collecting less taxes, grew weaker.
Open warfare finally broke out between the leading noble families. In 1192, one of the nobles emerged as the most powerful. Instead of overthrowing the emperor, he had the emperor appoint him as Japan’s “Supreme Military Governor,” known in Japanese as the Shogun. For the next 600 years, the Shoguns were the real rulers of Japan, with the emperors merely acting as figurehead.
The Shogun stood at the top of Japan’s feudal system. To provide military protection for their lands, noble landowners recruited samurai warriors – knights on horseback with armor of leather and iron, and swords. Each samurai swore an oath of loyalty to the emperor and to his local daimyo (noble). A samurai promised to follow a strict code of honor (bushido) that emphasized the loyalty of the samurai to the daimyo. In return for this loyalty, the daimyo provided the samurai with social status and economic support.
What were some of the ways in which Japanese culture was affected by China?
The Geographic Setting. Stretching across Eurasia from the Carpathian Mountains of Eastern Europe to Manchuria in Northeast Asia is an almost unbroken band of treeless grasslands, known as the steppes. This band is situated between forests to the north and mountains and deserts to the south.
From earliest times, nomadic people have lived in this area by herding horses, sheep, camels, and goats. They have made use of the vast grasslands as pastures for their livestock.
The steppes provided a unique environment in which these nomadic peoples developed excellence at horsemanship and fierce fighting skills. Throughout history, a series of nomadic peoples have pushed out of this region to conquer their more civilized neighbors, sometimes with devastating effects.
The Huns, repelled by the Chinese emperors, invaded Europe and contributed to the collapse of the Roman Empire. Later, the Turks and Mongols also came out of Central Asia. The Mongols lived in the steppes of the eastern part of Central Asia, northwest of China. They slept in domed tents of felt, which could be easily moved. Like other Central Asian nomads, the Mongols were excellent horsemen and archers. During the 1200s, the Mongols established the greatest empire the world had ever seen.
Like other nomadic peoples, the Mongols were divided into several loosely organized tribes. A Mongol leader named Chinggis Khan (or Ghengis Khan) united the various Mongol tribes by 1206. After he had established himself as undisputed master of Mongolia, he set out on a career of conquest. Chinggis Khan next began attacking neighboring peoples beyond Mongolia.
Others had little chance against 200,000 skilled Mongol horsemen, riding with sturdy stirrups, carrying strong bamboo bows, and attacking cities with giant catapults. The Mongols became known for their fierce brutality, sometimes killing all the defenders of a city that refused to surrender without resistance.
Chinggis Khan attacked Northern China, successfully taking the city of Beijing. In 1219, he turned westward and captured the Muslim states of Central Asia.
Although he was greatly feared as a brutal warrior, Chinggis Khan was tolerant of other religions within his conquered territories. He made use of local administrators and craftspeople. He promoted trade throughout the vast Mongol Empire and even ordered the creation of a written script for the Mongol language.
Under Chinggis Khans’ successors, Mongol rule extended into Persia, Russia, Iraq, and the rest of China. The Mongols then held sway over one of the largest empires the world has ever seen – from the Black Sea to the Pacific Ocean. Under this “Pax Monglia,” people could safely trade from one end of the empire to the other. The Mongol Empire was so vast that it soon divided into four separate kingdoms, each ruled by a different descendant of Chinggis Khan.
Chinggis' grandson, **Kublai Khan**, was born a Mongolian, but developed a great fascination with Chinese culture, traditions, and art. He became emperor of Northern China in 1260. In 1279, he reunited Northern and Southern China under his rule. Mongols served as his military aristocracy, ruling China with the help of Chinese officials. Kublai Khan encouraged the Mongols to adopt Chinese ways and even adopted the Chinese name Yuan for his dynasty. He claimed the Mandate of Heaven in ruling China.
Marco Polo, a merchant from Venice, journeyed along the Silk Road and visited China in the 1270s. He was astounded at the magnificence of Kublai Khan’s court and the technological superiority of the Chinese over the Europeans of his day. He was especially impressed by their use of gunpowder and their burning of coal as a source of heat.
In the 13th century, Mongol warriors also conquered most of Russia. They controlled it for the next 200 years. Mongol words, customs, and even clothing styles found their way into Russian culture. Moscow and its surrounding territories, known as Muscovy, became the strongest Russian state. Muscovites eventually rebelled against the Mongols. In 1480, Ivan the Great declared Muscovy’s independence from the Mongols. He proclaimed himself Tsar (“Caesar” or Emperor). Ivan soon set about increasing Muscovy’s size by conquering neighboring lands.
In the 14th century, Mongol power enjoyed a brief resurgence in Central Asia. Tamerlane, a Turkish-Mongol ruler, expanded his kingdom from Samarkand into Persia, Afghanistan, Russia, Syria, Turkey, and Northern India. Tamerlane was known for his brutality in warfare and his massacre of civilian populations. His empire did not long outlast his death.
APPLYING WHAT YOU HAVE LEARNED

Throughout history, different groups have possessed advantages in warfare that enabled them to defeat others. What were some of the advantages of the Mongols?
Despite their achievements, the Mongols remained unpopular in China. In 1368, the Mongols were overthrown by a Chinese monk, who established the Ming Dynasty.
Under the Ming Dynasty, China enjoyed nearly 300 years of peace and prosperity. Ming emperors expanded the empire to include Korea, Burma, and Vietnam. The Ming constructed an immense imperial palace in Beijing. Known as the Forbidden City, it became home to all later Chinese emperors, where they were revered as gods.
Under the Ming, Chinese society consisted of two main classes. Most people were peasants, barely earning a living. The peasants were largely illiterate, and their lives centered around their relatives and the village. The other main social group consisted of the scholar-gentry class. They owned the land on which the peasants worked. The gentry greatly respected learning. The Ming restored China's civil service examinations, and children of the scholar-gentry studied to pass these demanding tests, which focused on Confucian teachings.
In addition to these two classes, there were merchants and craftsmen, who lived in the Ming cities. Craftsmen excelled at printing and in producing silks and porcelains of great beauty. Urban life and trade prospered, while China exported silk, porcelain, and other luxury goods.
The Ming emperor sponsored several great naval expeditions in the early 1400s in order to spread the news of China's wealth and power. The Chinese explorer Zheng He sailed to the coasts of India and Arabia. However, in the 1430s, the Ming emperor suddenly ordered an end to these voyages because of the opposition of several noble families at court. Thus, just when Europe began expanding its horizons, Chinese rulers halted their explorations, believing their system was already in perfect balance and that change would be harmful.
Direct European contact with China was already established in the 16th century. In 1557, Portuguese traders established a settlement on China's southern coast. Catholic missionaries followed these merchants to China. They attempted to convert the Chinese to Christianity. Ming China became involved in a pattern of global trade. China exported silk and porcelain to Europe and imported silver as well as new foods such as sweet potatoes and corn.
What explanation does the Ming emperor give for the fall of the Mongol Dynasty in China?

This chapter explored several cultures over a long time period. Construct a multi-tier timeline showing how those different cultures related to each other. A multi-tier timeline shows more than one line of events occurring within the same time period.
Complete the graphic organizer about China below. For each dynasty, include its time period and some of its chief characteristics.

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