Nomadic Empires and Eurasian Integration
States and Societies of Sub-Saharan Africa
• Between the eleventh and fifteenth centuries, nomadic peoples became heavily involved in Eurasian affairs.

• Turkish peoples migrated to Persia, Anatolia, and India and established new states.

• During the the 13\textsuperscript{th} and 14\textsuperscript{th} centuries the Mongols established themselves as the most powerful people of the central Asian steppes.

• The Mongols also 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 had ever seen. It stretched from Korea and China in the east to Russia and Hungary in the west.

- By the late fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, most of the Mongol states had collapsed, but the collapse of the Mongols did not bring about the end of the influence of nomadic people in European affairs.

- The Mongols continued to threaten the central Asian frontier of China.
• From the fourteenth through the seventeenth century, Turkish peoples expanded into most of India, much of central Asia, all of Anatolia, and a good portion of eastern Europe under their domination.

• The nomadic empires integrated the lives of peoples throughout much of the eastern hemisphere by fostering cross-cultural communication and exchange on an unprecedented scale.

• In 1071 Saljug Turk forces defeated the Byzantine army at Manzikert in eastern Anatolia and took the Byzantine emperor captive.
• After this victory, Saljugs and other Turkish groups entered Anatolia almost at will.

• Turkish groups displaced Byzantine authorities and set up their own political and social institutions.

• By 1453, when Ottoman Turks captured the Byzantine capital at Constantinople, Byzantine and Christian Anatolia had become largely a Turkish and Islamic land.

• The Turkish conquests of Persia, Anatolia, and Indian represented part of a larger expansive movement by nomadic peoples.
• For most of history the nomadic Mongols lived on the high steppe lands of eastern central Asia.

• The Mongols often joined Turkish peoples who built empires on the steppes, but before the thirteenth century they rarely took the lead in organizing states.

• Because of strong loyalties to kinship groups, Mongols found it difficult to organize a stable society on a large scale.

• But during the early thirteenth century Genghis Khan forged Mongol tribes into a powerful alliance that built the largest empire in the world.
• The vast Mongol empire soon dissolved into a series of smaller empires that disappeared within a century, but the imperial venture of the Mongols brought the societies of Eurasia into closer contact than ever before.

• Genghis Khan was born about 1167 into a noble family. When his father who was a prominent warrior was poisoned by rivals when Genghis was about ten years old, the alliance he had forged between several Mongol clans was destroyed.
• Genghis Khan suffered several precarious years of poverty and danger from his father’s enemies, but during the late twelfth century he negotiated an alliance with a prominent Mongol clan leader.

• He mastered the art of steppe diplomacy and consolidated his position and power. He eventually brought all of the Mongol tribes into a single confederation and in 1206 a Mongol confederation proclaimed him Genghis Khan which means “universal ruler.”
• Genghis Khans policies created a strong Mongol state that was not shaken by conflicts between clans and tribes.

• The army was the most important Mongol state institution.

• In the thirteenth century, the Mongol population numbered about one million people and the army of Genghis Khan numbered only about 100,000-125,000 men.

• Even though his army was small in number, it featured some unique qualities that made it successful.
• The Mongol forces were excellent horsemen and their bows were short enough for archers to use while riding. Their arrows had a range of 656 feet.

• Mongols used the psychological aspects of war and used them effectively.

• If enemies surrendered without resisting, the Mongols spared their lives. They treated artisans, craft workers and people with military skills well.

• The Mongols killed those who resisted them, including entire populations.
• Genghis Khan attacked the various Turkish peoples ruling in Tibet, northern China, Persia, and the central Asian steppes.

• Genghis Khan and the Mongols also conquered Afghanistan and Persia.

• By the time he died in 1227, Genghis Khan had laid the foundation of a vast and mighty empire. He united the Mongols, established Mongol supremacy in central Asia, and extended Mongol control to northern China in the east and Persia in the west.
• Genghis Khan did not establish a central government for the lands that he conquered. Instead, he assigned Mongol overlords to supervise local administrator sand and collect tribute.

• The heirs of Genghis Khan continued his conquests, but they also attempted to create a permanent administration to guide the fortunes of the Mongol empire.
• The consolidation of Mongol rule in China came during the reign of Khubilai, one of the grandsons of Genghis Khan.

• Khubilai ruthlessly attacked 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 provided support for Daoists, Muslims, and Christians in his empire.
• The famous Venetian traveler Marco Polo lived almost two decades at Khubila’s court and praised him for his generosity toward the poor and his efforts to build roads.
• From 1264 until he died in 1294, Khubilai Khan presided over the Mongol empire.
• 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 Golden Horde overran Russia between 1237 and 1241.
• The Golden Horde maintained its hegemony in Russia until the mid fifteenth century when the princes of Moscow built a powerful Russian state.

• Khubilai’s brother Hulegi established Mongol rule in Persia. He looted the Abbasid capital of Baghdad after a brief siege and his troops executed the caliph, and massacred more than two hundred thousand residents.

• Although the Mongols conquered Persia they made concessions to local interests and allowed the Persians to run their country as long as they delivered tax receipts and maintained order.
• Over time the Mongols even assimilated Persian cultural traditions.
• In building their empire, the Mongols brought destruction to lands throughout much of Eurasia.
• Yet, the Mongols also sponsored interaction among peoples of different societies and linked Eurasian lands more directly than ever before.
• Mongol rulers encouraged travel and communication over long distances.
• Mongols also worked to secure trade routes and ensure the safety of merchants passing through their territories.
• The Mongols resettled people in new lands and they often took censuses of conquered lands so they could levy taxes, conscript military forces and locate talented people to use at the Mongol capital and other places.

• The Mongol policy of resettling allies and conquered peoples promoted Eurasian integration by increasing communication and exchange between peoples of different societies.
Soon after the long and prosperous reign of Khubilai Khan, the Mongols encountered serious difficulties governing both Persia and China. 

Even though the Mongol regimes collapsed in both Persia and China, Mongol states did not completely disappear. 

The Mongols threatened the northwestern borders of China until the eighteenth century. 

The khanate of the Golden Horde dominated the Caucasus and the steppe lands north of the Black and Caspian Seas until the mid sixteenth century.
• Like the Mongols in China, the Mongols in Russia continued to threaten until the eighteenth century and Mongols who had settled in the Crimean Peninsula remained there until Josef Stalin forcibly moved them to other parts of the Soviet Union in the mid twentieth century.

• As Mongol strength declined, Turkish peoples resumed their campaign of expansion that the Mongols had interrupted.

• During the late fourteenth and early fifteenth centuries, Turkish conquerer Tamerlane built a central Asian empire.
• Tamerlane’s empire disintegrated soon after he died, but 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 embraced much of southwest Asia, southeastern Europe, and north Africa.

• When the last traces of Tamerlane’s empire disappeared in the early sixteenth century, the Mughal, Safavid and Ottoman empires that replaced it all clearly reflected the Turkish Muslim legacy of Tamerlane.
• In 1453 Sultan Mehmed II, known as Mehmed the Conqueror, captured the Byzantine capital of Constantinople, sacked it, and made it his own capital under the Turkish name of Istanbul.

• Using Istanbul as a base, the Ottomans quickly absorbed the rest of the Byzantine Empire. By 1480 they controlled all of Greece and the Balkan region.

• Throughout the sixteenth century they continued to expand and extended their rule to southwest Asia, southeastern Europe, Egypt, and north Africa.
• The age of nomadic empires from 1000 to 15000 foreshadowed the integrated world of modern times.
States and Societies of Sub-Saharan Africa
• From the classical era on, peoples from east Asia to the Mediterranean basin established extensive networks of trade and communication.
• African peoples living south of the Sahara desert participated in the larger economy of the eastern hemisphere, although not as fully as their counterparts in north Africa.
• The Sahara desert poses a formidable challenge to overland travel.
• The African coastlines do not feature many natural harbors and cataracts impede travel up Africa’s major rivers.

• Despite these geographical barriers, the peoples of sub-Saharan Africa organized productive societies, built powerful states, and participated in large scale networks of communication and exchange.

• Between 1000 and 1500 population increases in sub-Saharan Africa led societies there to organize states, develop centers of economic specialization, and conduct regional trade.
• One of the important results of the Bantu and other migrations was spreading agriculture and herding to almost all parts of Africa.

• As they established agricultural societies, cultivators and herders displaced or absorbed many of the hunting, gathering, and fishing peoples who previously inhabited sub-Saharan Africa.

• The expansion of agriculture brought about increased agricultural production, rising population, and pressure for continuing migration to new territories.
Insterad of migrating to find new lands to cultivate, African peoples developed increasingly complex forms of government that enabled them to organize their existing societies more efficiently.

- They developed kin based societies and chiefdoms.

- Kin based societies did not disappear with the emergence of formal states. Many survived well into the nineteenth century.

- Yet regional states and large kingdoms became increasingly prominent during the centuries after 1000 as Bantu and other African peoples responded to population pressures and military challenges facing their societies.
• Bantu peoples organized societies on the basis of African traditions, merchants from north Africa and southwest Asia introduced their Islamic faith to sub Saharan Africa.

• Islam came to Africa by two routes. It went to west Africa overland by trans Saharan camel caravans, and it traveled to coastal east Africa over the sea lanes of the Indian Ocean in the vessels of merchant mariners.

• After the eighth century, Islam profoundly influenced the political, social, and economic development of sub Saharan Africa as well as its cultural and religious development.
• Islam along with native African traditions profoundly influenced the development of sub Saharan societies.
• After the eighth century, ruling elites in both west Africa and coastal east Africa mostly accepted Islam and strengthened its position in their societies by building mosques, consulting Muslim advisors, and supporting Islamic schools.
• By 1500, African traditions and Islamic influences had combined to fashion a series of powerful, productive, and distinctive societies in sub-Saharan Africa.
• The institution of slavery occupied a place in Africa since antiquity.
• Most slaves were captives of war. Others came from the ranks of debtors, suspected witches, and criminals.
• Slaves were an important source of personal wealth in sub Saharan Africa. In the absence of private property, sub Saharans turned to the accumulation of slaves as a means to enhance and exhibit their wealth
• Slaves also enhanced their position in society, and increased their agricultural production.
• Slave trading and slave holding were prominent features of sub Saharan African society.

• After about the ninth century, the expansion of the trans Saharan and Indian Ocean trade networks stimulated increased traffic in African slaves.

• As the demand for slaves became greater than eastern Europe could supply, Muslim merchants turned to sub Saharan Africa as an alternative source for slaves.

• Slave raiding became increasingly frequent within Africa itself.
• In some years, 10,000-20,000 Africans left their homes as slaves.

• Between 750 and 1500 the number of African slaves transported to foreign lands may have exceeded ten million in this Islamic slave trade which was smaller than the Atlantic slave trade.

• The Islamic slave trade led to the creation of networks within Africa that supplied slaves and served as a foundation for the Atlantic slave trade in later centuries.