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Based on the Edexcel Scheme of Work, Pearson’s brand-new Exploring History resources for KS3 are designed to inspire young historians and equip them with the skills and knowledge needed to go on to study Edexcel GCSE (9-1) History.

We think our resources speak for themselves, so here’s some hot-off-the-press sample material for you to browse and enjoy.
Welcome to Anglo-Saxon England

Learning objectives

• Know about the chronology of English history from 410 to 1066.
• Understand the importance of the work of archaeologists and historians in finding out about Anglo-Saxon England.

Key terms

Anglo-Saxon*: The name ‘Anglo-Saxon’ comes from the Angles and the Saxons, two of the north European tribes that invaded and lived in Britain from the fifth century onwards.

Historian*: A person who studies the events of the past, usually by working with written sources, objects and paintings left behind.

‘Look to your own defences.’ With these chilling words from their emperor in AD 410, the Roman army left Britain. In the centuries that followed, Scots and Picts, Jutes and Vikings, Angles and Saxons raided and invaded Britain. Some stayed for a short time, some for longer, and some didn’t stay for any more time than it took to grab whatever their raiding parties could lay their hands on. Most of them fought each other. What sort of country, and what sort of people, emerged from these chaotic years?

We are going to look at some items from this period to see what we can learn from them about the people who made them and used them. But first we need to get the raiders and invaders, and the important things they did, in the right order, which is shown in the Timeline.

Source A: Written by a monk, the Venerable Bede, in his Ecclesiastical History of the English People in 731. Here he is describing the arrival of the Saxons in around AD 440.

They came from three very powerful Germanic tribes, the Saxons, Angles and Jutes. From the Saxon country, that is, the district now known as Old Saxony, came the east Saxons, the South Saxons and the West Saxons. It was not long before such hordes of these alien people crowded into the island that the natives who had invited them began to live in terror. These heathen conquerors devastated the surrounding cities and countryside and established a stranglehold over nearly all the doomed island.

What was England like before the Battle of Hastings?

England before the Battle of Hastings was a land of huge forests, great open fields, villages and small towns. It had been part of the Roman Empire since AD 43, but in 410 the Roman army left, along with most of the Roman people who had settled in Britain. Rome itself was being threatened by tribes from northern Europe and the army was needed to defend the city. The same tribes raided, invaded and settled in England, a country that the Romans had left almost defenceless.

In 1042, England was finally peacefully united under one king: King Edward the Confessor. About 1.5 million people, mainly Anglo-Saxons*, lived in England and most of them worked on the land. It was a prosperous country, where agriculture and industry flourished. Governed by the king, who was advised by a council of powerful nobles, Anglo-Saxon England was generally peaceful. Most people understood and accepted their place in society: who they had to obey, and who had to obey them.

This section of the book will look at:

• the chronology of the history of England from 410 to 1066
• the ways in which people lived and were governed in Anglo-Saxon England from 1042 to 1066
• some of the ways that archaeologists and historians* have found out about Anglo-Saxon England.

What can we learn from archaeologists and historians about Anglo-Saxon England?

Historians living in England before 1066 were usually monks. They were among the few people who could both read and write. They took a keen interest in what was happening around them and what had happened in the past. Monks often had a very firm point of view.

Source B: A necklace found in the grave of a Saxon woman. It is made from gold, glass and garnets, which are semi-precious stones. Archaeologists date it from around AD 600.

What do you think?

What do you think life in England was like before 1066?

Timeline

Invaders of Britain, 410–1042

410: Roman army leaves Britain
440s: Saxons raids begin
477–95: Saxons settle in Sussex and Wessex
597: Augustine’s Christian mission arrives in Kent
620s: Sutton Hoo burial
793–95: Viking ‘Great Army’ arrives
865: Viking raids Lindisfarne, Jarrow and Iona
871: Alfred becomes king of Wessex
878: Alfred defeats the Vikings at Edington

Your turn!

1. In which centuries did these events occur:
   a) the Saxon raids began
   b) the Vikings raided Lindisfarne
   c) Alfred became king of Wessex?

2. Work with a partner. Write down everything you can find out from Source A about the Saxon invasions.

3. The author of Source A was a monk. Do you think this would have influenced the way he wrote about the invasions? Discuss this in your class. Try to reach a decision together.

4. Look carefully at Source B. What does it tell you about Anglo-Saxon society at that time? Write two or three sentences about this. For example, you might think about craft skills or the importance in society of some women.
The Sutton Hoo burial

In 1939, archaeologists* excavated a grassy mound at Sutton Hoo in Suffolk. They discovered a huge Anglo-Saxon ship that had been dragged inland and laid in a trench. By comparing it to ship burials in Scandinavia, archaeologists knew the ship had been used as a burial place. The wooden ship had rotted away, but what remained included gold and silver bowls and brooches, spoons and swords, coins and all kinds of treasure. These had been put there in the belief that the dead person could use them in his next life. Archaeologists and historians worked out that this was probably the burial place of Raedwald, king of East Anglia, who died in about AD 625.

Archaeologist*: A person who studies people in the past, usually by excavating (digging) for the remains they have left behind.

Source C: Archaeologists excavating the Sutton Hoo ship. The wood had rotted away but the outline of the ship’s timbers, as well as the rivets that held them together, can still be seen in the sand.

Source D: Two of the objects found in the Sutton Hoo ship. The iron helmet has a beautifully decorated face mask. It shows scenes of war, such as a warrior on a horse trampling an enemy. The buckle is made from gold and the complicated designs involve animals and birds.

Source E: Archaeologists believe that this was the handle of a pointer stick, used for following words when reading a book. It is made from gold, rock crystal and enamel. It was found in 1663 near Athelney in Somerset, which was the stronghold of King Alfred. Around the edge is written ‘Alfred had me made’. Because it belonged to King Alfred, it is called ‘the Alfred jewel’.

Source F: From the entry in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* for the year 793. It describes the Viking attack on the Holy Island of Lindisfarne, off the coast of Northumbria.

This year came dreadful warnings over the land of the Northumbrians, terrifying the people most woefully. Immense sheets of light rushed through the air, and whirlwinds, and fiery dragons flying across the skies. These tremendous signs were followed by a great famine; and not long after came the dreadful invasions of heathen men. They made terrible havoc in the church of God in Holy Island by rape and slaughter.

Key term

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*: This book was started by monks towards the end of the 9th century and updated by them until about 1154. It detailed the history of the Anglo-Saxons.

Source C

Archaeologists excavating the Sutton Hoo ship. The wood had rotted away but the outline of the ship’s timbers, as well as the rivets that held them together, can still be seen in the sand.

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Two of the objects found in the Sutton Hoo ship. The iron helmet has a beautifully decorated face mask. It shows scenes of war, such as a warrior on a horse trampling an enemy. The buckle is made from gold and the complicated designs involve animals and birds.

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Your turn!

1. Look carefully at Sources D–F. Write down three things that they tell us about the Anglo-Saxons.
2. Share the three things you have found out in question 1 with others in your class. Make a class list of everything you have all found out from these sources.
3. What don’t Sources D–F tell you about the Anglo-Saxons? Make another class list of questions you would like to be answered.
4. Choose one thing from the list you wrote in question 3 and write two to three sentences saying how you would find out about it.
What did the Anglo-Saxons do all day?

Learning objectives

• Learn how people lived in Anglo-Saxon England.
• Know the ways in which Anglo-Saxons made England prosperous.

Did you know?

In 1065, Anglo-Saxon villagers used vegetable dyes to make their clothes brightly coloured. They hadn’t invented buttons and they used moss or grass as toilet paper.

Key term

Hide*: was the amount needed to support a family.

Working on the land

Most Anglo-Saxons lived in villages and worked on the land. There were ceorls, who were free men, and thralls, who were slaves. Each ceorl worked at least one hide* of land in the great open fields that surrounded the villages. They grew barley, rye and wheat, along with peas, beans and flax. Barley was used in brewing beer, rye and wheat in bread-making, and flax was spun and woven into cloth. Sheep, pigs, hens and cows provided wool, meat, eggs and milk, while honey from bees was used for sweetening.

Most villages had a lord, usually a thegn (see page 22) who the villagers looked to for protection in times of trouble. In return for this protection, the village ceorls and thralls worked the lord’s land for him and gave him ‘food rent’ – eggs, meat, peas or milk – whatever it was that they produced.

Source A: In about AD 1000, an unknown monk produced a chronology. This was a calendar with one page for each month. At the bottom of each page the monk drew a picture of the work villagers did in that month. These are two of those pictures.

Working in towns

Some villages grew into towns, and in AD 1000 about 10 percent of the population of England lived in a town. Towns grew from markets where people from the surrounding countryside came to buy and sell; some towns specialised in, for example, leather-work or weaving or soap-making. Towns on the coast became busy ports. Ships would carry goods to other ports on the coast of England, or across the seas to Europe. By the 11th century, England was a prosperous country – a rich prize for any invader.

Key term

Monastaries: places in England where monks lived and worked.

Copper and tin were often used together to make bronze, which was used for tools and jewellery among other things. England was Europe’s chief supplier of tin.

Silver was a very important precious metal. It was mined in a number of places in England.

Lead was very valuable and had been used for water pipes by the Romans.

Fish was in plentiful supply in the seas all around England.

Salt was used to preserve food.

Wool was needed to make cloth and it was the most important industry in England. English wool was sold across Europe.

Honey was produced all over the country. It was used to sweeten food, make beer and prized as medicine.

Silver was a very important precious metal. It was mined in a number of places in England.

London and other leading towns were centres of trade and wealth.

Iron was used for making tools and weapons.

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Iron was used for making tools and weapons.
Running the country
In 1043, Edward the Confessor became king of England. He ruled England with the help of the Witan.

Witans
The Witan was an assembly of ‘wise men’. Edward could invite whoever he wanted to come to a Witan. However, it made good sense to invite the most powerful men in the kingdom. These were the earls, who helped Edward run large areas of England (see the map in Figure 1.2) in return for promising him military help if he needed it. To involve the earls meant they would be likely to support any decisions he made and there would be no rebellions. As well as earls, Edward sometimes invited thegns, bishops and abbots to come to a Witan. Witans did not always meet in the same place and did not always consist of the same people. It all depended on where Edward was and on what problem he was asking for their advice. Witans only gave advice: Edward could still do exactly what he wanted.

Justice
Anglo-Saxon justice was based on the family. If anyone was wronged, their family was expected to seek revenge. Everyone had a life-price, called a ‘wergild’. Thegns were worth more than ceorls, who were worth more than thralls. If a person was murdered, the murderer’s family had to pay the murdered person’s wergild in full. For lesser crimes, proportions of wergild had to be handed over. Saxons held regular open-air meetings, called folk-moots, which dealt with people who broke the law.

Reconstructing the past
Anglo-Saxon houses that were lived in by ordinary people have not survived, and there are no drawings or paintings to tell us what they looked like. So how can we find out?

Interpretation 1: A reconstruction of 11th-century Anglo-Saxon houses in Norwich, Norfolk.

Figure 1.2: Map showing the six earldoms of England in 1065, the earls who ran them and the largest towns.

What was England like before the Battle of Hastings?

Your turn!

1. In two to three sentences, explain why it was a good idea for the king to invite the most powerful nobles in the kingdom to advise him.
2. Look at Interpretation 1. Working with a partner, decide what evidence the artist who drew the reconstruction would have needed to make sure the drawing was as accurate as possible. Look back at pages 20–22 to give you some ideas.

Checkpoint
1. Where did most Anglo-Saxons work?
2. Who was king of England from 1043 to 1066?
3. What were Witans?
4. Name two men who were earls in 1065.
5. Name two things that made Anglo-Saxon people feel secure in 1065.
6. What was wergild and why was it important?
Why was England a battlefield in 1066?

1066 was a dreadful year for Anglo-Saxon England. In January, King Edward the Confessor died. Three noblemen – Harold Godwinson, Harald Hardrada and William of Normandy – all thought they should be king, and they fought each other for the throne. The country was torn apart. This section of the book will look at:

• what made a good medieval monarch
• the claims of the three challengers for the throne of England
• the Battle of Stamford Bridge and its impact on Harold Godwinson’s army
• the Battle of Hastings and the reasons for the victory of William of Normandy.

What made a good medieval monarch?

Learning objectives

• Know about the qualities that were essential to be a good monarch.
• Understand the claims of the three men who wanted to occupy the throne of England.

In the Middle Ages, the monarch was the most important person in the country. They had an enormous amount of power. But being a monarch could be a dangerous occupation.

Your turn!

1. Play the Snakes and Ladders game in Figure 1.4. Did you reach the end and enjoy a long and happy reign? Write a paragraph to explain what happened during your reign.

2. Look at these words: cruel, brave, strong, greedy, clever, artistic, handsome, cowardly, mean, weak. Choose three of them and put them in a sentence that describes what a medieval king should be. Then choose another three and put them in a sentence that describes what a medieval king shouldn’t be.

3. Look at the two sentences you wrote in answer to question 2. For one of those sentences explain why you chose the words you did.

Figure 1.3: Qualities needed by a medieval monarch.

Figure 1.4: Snakes and Ladders: did you have a long and happy reign?

Did you know?

Eighteen kings reigned in England between 1066 and 1485. Two died from severe diarrhoea, two died in battle and four were murdered – one, some believe, by having a red hot poker pushed up his bottom!
The Norman Conquest

What qualities did a Norman monk call William of Jumièges in his book *The Deeds of the Norman Dukes*?

He wrote the book in 1070 after King William asked him to write an account of the Norman Conquest.

In 1051 Edward, king of the English, having no heir, sent Robert, Archbishop of Canterbury, to William of Normandy to appoint him as the next King of England. But he also, at a later date, sent to him Harold, so that Harold could swear loyalty to William.

Did you know?

The Bayeux Tapestry isn’t really a tapestry at all, but an embroidery. It was commissioned by Bishop Odo of Bayeux, William’s half-brother, and was probably stitched in about 1070 by women working in Kent, England. It tells the story of the Norman Conquest from the Norman point of view. There is nothing similar that tells the story from the Anglo-Saxon viewpoint.

Source A:

A Norman monk called William of Jumièges in his book *The Deeds of the Norman Dukes*. He wrote the book in 1070 after King William asked him to write an account of the Norman Conquest.

Source B:

Part of the Bayeux Tapestry, which was made in about 1070. It shows Harold Godwinson making a promise to Duke William.

Your turn!

1. a) Read Source A. What had Edward done to promise the throne to Duke William?
   b) Read Source A and look at Source B. Write two or three sentences to describe the ways in which they tell the same story.
   c) Sources A and B were both produced by Normans. Does this mean we can’t trust what they tell us? Write a paragraph to explain your answer.

2. You have read about the three challengers for the throne, and you are going to decide whose claim you think was the best. Give the answer to each question on their Fact files a score out of ten. Add up the scores to find out who you think has the best claim.

3. Now write a paragraph to explain why your ‘winner’ from question 3 has the best claim to the throne of England.

Checkpoint

1. What qualities did a medieval monarch need in order to be successful?
2. In what ways could being a medieval monarch be dangerous?
3. Who were the three challengers for the throne of England?
4. Whose claim was the strongest, and why?

Fact file

**William of Normandy**

Who was he? He was the duke of Normandy, a powerful duchy in northern France.

What were his links to English royalty? Edward had lived in Normandy from 1016 to 1041, and William said they regarded each other as brothers.

What was his claim to the English throne? He claimed that, in 1051, Edward had promised him the throne. He also claimed that, in 1064, Harold Godwinson had promised to support his claim.

Who supported him? The pope, who was head of the Church.

Was he a good warrior? He had been in control of Normandy since he was a boy, helped by his mother’s family, and was used to fighting off would be invaders. While at war with other dukes in France he captured the town of Alençon. He ordered that those in the town who had insulted him were to have their hands and feet cut off.

Fact file

**Harold Godwinson**

Who was he? He was the earl of Wessex, the most powerful noble in England and, after 6 January 1066, the king of England.

What were his links to English royalty? His sister was married to King Edward.

What was his claim to the English throne? King Edward had promised him the throne, and the Witan had agreed he should be king. He had governed England well when Edward was ill.

Who supported him? The Witan.

Was he a good warrior? He was brave and respected, but experienced only in Britain where he cruelly put down a revolt in Wales.

Fact file

**Harald Hardrada**

Who was he? He was the king of Norway.

What were his links to English royalty? None.

What was his claim to the English throne? He claimed that King Canute, who ruled England from 1040 to 1042, had promised Harald’s father that his descendants would have the throne of England.

Who supported him? Tostig, Harold Godwinson’s brother, who was a powerful English noble.

Was he a good warrior? He was the most feared warrior in the whole of Europe. He was brave and cruel. He was experienced in fighting alongside Norwegian and foreign leaders.

Who was to be king of England?

On 5 January 1066, King Edward the Confessor died. He was 62 years old and had been king of England for 24 years. During that time England had been peaceful and prosperous. Edward had no children, so there was no obvious person to succeed him. Edward had many times – and even on his deathbed – promised the throne to Harold Godwinson, the most powerful noble in England. The Witan agreed Harold should be king, and he was crowned the following day, 6 January. That should have been the end of the matter, but it wasn’t. Two other men each believed they had a rightful claim to the throne of England, and would stop at nothing to get it.

Fact file

**Deeds of the Norman Dukes**

Source A:

Written by a Norman monk called William of Jumièges in his book *The Deeds of the Norman Dukes*. He wrote the book in 1070 after King William asked him to write an account of the Norman Conquest.

Source B:

Part of the Bayeux Tapestry, which was made in about 1070. It shows Harold Godwinson making a promise to Duke William.

What were the rules?

There were no rules as to who should succeed. There were only customs that were generally accepted.

- The dying king had the right to say who should succeed him.
- The new king should be a blood relative of the royal family and an experienced warrior.

What do you think?

Who had the best claim?
Invasion in the North

Learning objectives

• Know what happened when Harald Hardrada invaded England.
• Understand how the Battle of Stamford Bridge affected Harold Godwinson’s army.

Did you know?

Tostig, Harold Godwinson’s brother, was once earl of Northumbria. In 1065, the people there rebelled against him, accusing him of murder. Harold took the side of the rebels and forced Tostig to leave England. This is why Tostig supported Harald Hardrada.

Harald Godwinson had been crowned in January 1066 but he knew his position as king of England was not secure. He expected to have to fight Harald Hardrada and William of Normandy if he was to hold on to his throne. He knew they would invade England – but he didn’t know when and he didn’t know which attack would come first. So Harold divided his army in half. One half guarded the south coast in case of an invasion from Normandy; the other half waited in the North in case of an invasion from Norway. Nine months passed and nothing happened. In September 1066, Harold was forced to send his armies home. He could not afford for them to stand around doing nothing, and they were needed at home to gather in the harvest. It was then that his enemies struck – the Vikings had landed.

The Vikin...
Who will win: Anglo-Saxons or Normans?
The celebrations in York, following Harold’s victory at Stamford Bridge, stopped abruptly because of the news that William and his Norman army had landed on the south coast of England. Harold and the Anglo-Saxon army had defeated the Viking invasion in the North; they were determined to defeat the Norman invasion in the South, too.

Harold’s Anglo-Saxon army
Harold’s army consisted of housecarls and the fyrd. These were very different groups of fighting men.

Anglo-Saxon housecarls
Who were they? Professional soldiers, highly trained, well paid and fiercely loyal to Harold.
How were they armed? Their main weapon was a battle axe. The handle was a metre long and the axe head was made from sharpened iron. One swing of the axe could cut the head off a horse or split a man’s head in half. Sometimes they used a double-edged sword. They carried shields, and wore short coats of chain mail and pointed iron helmets.
What were their tactics? In defence, they formed a shield wall. In attack, they swung their axes. They fought on foot.

Anglo-Saxon fyrd
Who were they? Working men who were called up to help the king in time of danger. Led by the king’s thegns, they were trained as fighters.
How were they armed? The thegns had swords and spears and some were archers; the ordinary working men used their own farming tools like axes, pitchforks and scythes.
What were their tactics? The fyrd fought on foot and engaged the enemy in hand-to-hand fighting.

Harold could usually depend on having over 2000 housecarls to fight for him. However, over half had been killed at Stamford Bridge. Harold and his remaining housecarls, exhausted from battling with the Vikings, marched south to meet the invading Normans. Men joined the fyrd as the housecarls marched south. Even so, when they reached London, Harold’s army was only up to half the strength it could have been if Harold had waited for more Saxons to join him.

Gyrth, Harold’s brother, had a plan. He would lead the army against William so that Harold wouldn’t risk being killed. Meanwhile, the crops and villages in the surrounding countryside would be burned. The Normans would have nothing to live on as winter closed in, and would be forced to return to France. Those that stayed behind would be wiped out by the Anglo-Saxons. But would Harold agree?

William’s Norman army
William’s Norman army was very different from Harold’s Anglo-Saxon one.

Norman archers
Who were they? Trained and well-paid members of the army.
How were they armed? They had bows and arrows but very little armour.
What were their tactics? They could fire up to six arrows a minute, killing a man from 180 metres away.

Norman knights
Who were they? William’s best soldiers, highly trained, well paid and loyal to William.
How were they armed? They had spears, swords and heavy iron clubs covered in spikes.
What were their tactics? They charged at the enemy, riding on strong war horses, cutting down the enemy’s foot soldiers.

Your turn!
1. a) Write down one strength and one weakness of Harold’s Anglo-Saxon army.  
   b) Write down one strength and one weakness of William’s Norman army.
2. Which army do you think you would prefer (a) to make a surprise attack, (b) a pre-arranged battle and (c) a series of battles over a few days? Write two to three sentences to explain each of your choices.

Checkpoint
1. List three ways in which Harold and the Anglo-Saxons managed to defeat Harald Hardrada and the Vikings.
2. What was the fyrd and what weapons did they use?
3. How did thegns fight?
4. What was a shield wall?
5. What weapons did William’s army have that Harold’s army did not?
6. Who do you think had the strongest army, William or Harold?
The Battle of Hastings, 14 October 1066

Learning objectives

• Learn what happened at the Battle of Hastings and why King Harold lost.
• Understand that there are different accounts of the battle, and the reasons for these differences.
• Understand that historians have different interpretations of the reasons why Harold lost.

Early tactics
Harold positioned his army on Senlac Hill. He was planning to wear the Normans out by forcing them to fight uphill and then, when the Normans were exhausted, to send in the housecarls and the fyrd to slaughter them.

The Normans attacked, trying to gain ground, but this was difficult as they were fighting uphill. Anglo-Saxon battle axes cut through the Normans’ armour. The noise – the shouting and screaming of the men, the bellowing of the horses and the clash of weapons – would have been tremendous. The Anglo-Saxon shield wall held firm.

Source A: Part of the Bayeux Tapestry, showing the Normans trying to break through the Anglo-Saxon shield wall.

Figure 1.6: The positions of the two armies at the start of the Battle of Hastings.

At nine o’clock on the morning of 14 October 1066, two armies faced each other. The Anglo-Saxon army, led by Harold Godwinson, king of England, was defending its country against foreign invaders. Duke William of Normandy and his army were fighting for the throne of England that William believed was rightfully his. With the throne would come the rich rewards of England.

Change of tactics
A rumour went round that William was dead. Immediately he took his helmet off and stood up in his stirrups so everyone could see him.

Then William used an old trick. Norman soldiers attacked up Senlac Hill, but then pretended to run away. Some of the fyrd chased them.

Once the fyrd were off the hill and no longer behind a shield wall the Normans turned round and massacred them. Leofwine and Gyrth, Harold’s brothers, were killed.

Some of the fyrd took fright and ran away. The remaining housecarls formed a tight shield wall around Harold but it was too late. Harold was killed along with all the housecarls.

Why was England a battlefield in 1066?
The death of King Harold: a puzzle

There is no doubt that King Harold was killed at the Battle of Hastings, along with his brothers and all of his housecarls. There is, however, a mystery as to how exactly Harold met his death. The problem is that all the sources say something a bit different to one another. We need to ask whether or not the sources are reliable – how far can they be trusted to tell us the truth about the death of King Harold? One problem is that there is no surviving Saxon account of how Harold died. We have to depend on the Norman accounts.

- The Bayeux Tapestry is the earliest source, but it was made on the orders of a Norman, Odo, to record the Norman victory. He was present at the battle.
- Guy of Amiens was a French ally of William. He was not present at the battle.
- William of Malmesbury was an English monk. He believed it was important to use original source material. Historians believe he wrote his account after seeing the Bayeux Tapestry.
- William of Poitiers was a Norman who served under Duke William as a soldier, although he wasn’t involved in the Battle of Hastings. He would have spoken to soldiers who had been involved.

After the battle

Hundreds of bodies were left on the battlefield, some half alive and moaning in agony, others clearly dead. William needed to be sure that Harold was dead. If Harold escaped the battlefield he could rally the Saxons and fight back. However, most of the Saxon bodies were so mutilated that it was impossible to tell who they were. Faces had been slashed, arms and legs cut off and many Saxons stripped naked.

Saxon women, wives, sisters and mothers came to the battlefield to identify their loved ones and take them home for proper burial. This was what usually happened after any battle. There is a legend that Edith Swanneck, the woman by whom Harold had had six children, came looking for him. She found his crushed body and knew it was Harold by a special mark that only she knew about.

William of Poitiers records that Countess Gytha, Harold’s mother, went to William and begged him for her son’s body so that she could give Harold a Christian burial. William refused. He refused again even when Gytha offered him Harold’s weight in gold. William was probably afraid that Harold’s grave would become a place of pilgrimage for the English, and the focus of rebellions against the Normans. Instead, William gave Harold’s body to a trusted Norman and ordered it to be buried in an unmarked grave beside the sea. ‘Buried’, as one storyteller says, ‘beside the shore he failed to defend.’

Source B: Part of the Bayeux Tapestry, showing the death of King Harold. The Latin words ‘Haroldus rex interfectus est’ mean ‘King Harold has been killed’. But which person is King Harold?

Source C: Written by Guy of Amiens, a French ally of William, in 1068.

The first knight pierced Harold’s shield with his sword that then penetrated his chest, drenching the ground with his blood. With his sword, the second knight cut off Harold’s head below the protection of his helmet, and the third pierced the inwards of his belly. The fourth knight hacked off his leg at the thigh. Struck down, Harold’s dead body lay on the ground.

Source D: Written by William of Malmesbury, an English monk and historian, in about 1125.

Harold fell from having his brain pierced by an arrow and gave himself up to death. One of William’s soldiers gashed his thigh with a sword as he lay on the ground. For this shameful and cowardly action he was condemned by William and expelled from the army.

Source E: Written by William of Poitiers, a Norman soldier, in 1071.

Victory won, the duke [William] returned to the field of battle. He was met with a scene of carnage, which he regarded with pity. Far and wide the ground was covered with the best of English nobility and youth. Harold’s two brothers were found lying beside him.

Your turn!

1. a) Draw a table headed ‘Why Harold lost the Battle of Hastings’, with three columns headed ‘Luck’, ‘Good decisions by William’ and ‘Poor decisions by Harold’. Work with a partner and, starting with Harold leaving York and ending with his death, complete the table.

2. Write a paragraph explaining why Harold lost the Battle of Hastings.

3. Look at Source B. Read Source C and use it to help you find Harold on the Bayeux Tapestry. Now use Source D to find Harold on the Bayeux Tapestry. Did you find the same person?

4. Read Source E. William of Poitiers doesn’t mention Harold’s death by an arrow in his eye at all. Write down two reasons why you think this was.

5. Write a paragraph to explain how Harold died. Remember to use evidence to back up your ideas. It is all right to say it’s impossible to say exactly how he was killed, provided you say why.

Interpretation 1: Edith Swanneck finding Harold’s body.
Where was Harold, and his army, positioned at the start of the Battle of Hastings?

Interpretation 2: Jason Askew is an artist who specialises in painting historical scenes. This is his interpretation of the Battle of Hastings, painted in around 1990.

Interpretation 3: This interpretation was written by Richard Humble in his book The Fall of Saxon England, published in 1975.

Interpretation 4: This interpretation was written by Ian W. Walker in his book Harold: The Last Anglo-Saxon King, published in 1997.

Interpretation 5: This interpretation was written by Frank Barlow in his book The Godwins, published in 2002.

Your turn!

1. Look carefully at Interpretation 2. In your class, discuss which sources of information the artist would have needed to consult in order to make sure his painting was accurate. How much would have been left to his imagination?

2. Read Interpretations 3, 4 and 5. What reasons do they give for William's victory?

3. Write a paragraph to say which interpretation you agree with most, and why.

Why was England a battlefield in 1066?

- The Bayeux Tapestry tells the story of William’s claim to the throne of England, the preparations for the Norman invasion and the Battle of Hastings. As a group, plan, design and draw a frieze that tells the story of the defeat of Harald Hardrada. You will need to copy the pattern of the Bayeux Tapestry: include sections on the claim of Harold Godwinson, the march north, the Battle of Fulford, the Battle of Stamford Bridge and what happened afterwards.

- There is no surviving Saxon evidence about the Battle of Hastings. All Harold’s thegns were killed and the fyrd couldn’t read or write. Imagining you are a young Saxon who watched everything. Write your account of the battle – and remember you are a Saxon.

Why do we know about the past?

Present-day historians and historical artists interpret the past. They show us and tell us what they think happened during events long before they were born. The best historians and historical artists take great care in using as many sources as they can find in order to be sure their interpretation is accurate.

The problem with the Battle of Hastings

The problem with the Battle of Hastings is that only one person who fought there left any record of what it was like. This was Bishop Odo of Normandy. He commissioned the Bayeux Tapestry, but no one knows whether he gave the embroiderers detailed instructions, nor whether he checked it for accuracy once it was finished. No one knows when it was made; experts in the history of embroidery say that it was made in about 1070, four years after the battle. That is all the information we have. There are no Anglo-Saxon records.

Modern historians collect all the evidence they can that relates to the event about which they are writing. In the case of the Battle of Hastings, the obvious starting point is the Bayeux Tapestry. Then they would look at later accounts (like Sources C and D on page 34) until they can build up a picture of what actually happened. As you have seen, some sources provide conflicting accounts. Historians need to decide which sources are likely to give an accurate account of what happened. It is then that historians need to prioritise their source material: they need to put it in order of importance. Not all historians will have the same order of importance.

Checkpoint

1. Where was Harold, and his army, positioned at the start of the Battle of Hastings?
2. Where was William, and his army, positioned at the start of the Battle of Hastings?
3. What tactics were used (a) by Harold and (b) by William?
4. What was the key change of tactic by William that won him the battle?
5. Why were there different ideas in the 11th and 12th centuries about how Harold was killed?
6. How do historical artists make sure their paintings are as accurate as possible?
7. Give one reason why historians reach different conclusions about what happened in the past?
What have you learned?

In this section, you have learned:

• that a single event, like the Battle of Hastings, can have many causes.

The study of history is all about asking questions. Historians ask ‘How?’, ‘Where?’, ‘When?’ and, most important, ‘Why?’ As soon as you think you have the answer to ‘Why?’, you need to follow that with ‘Why then, and not at any other time?’ When you ask why something happened, you are thinking about causation. You are working out what caused something, like the Battle of Hastings, to happen. Just as importantly, you will go on to ask and answer the question ‘Why then, and not in 1065 or 1067?’

Figure 1.7: Why did the Norman Conquest happen?

Your turn!

1. The flow chart in Figure 1.7 shows that the Norman Conquest had several causes.
   a) Using the flow chart, decide which causes you think were so important that the Norman Conquest wouldn’t have happened without them.
   b) Which causes were so unimportant that, if they hadn’t happened, the Norman Conquest would have happened anyway?
   c) Draw up two lists, one of important causes and one of unimportant causes, and then discuss them in your class. Produce two lists with which you all agree.

2. Write a paragraph in answer to the question ‘Why did the Norman Conquest happen in 1066?’

Introduction

This is where you show you understand the question, and grab the attention of the reader.

You could, for example, begin with:

‘In October 1066, Harold, king of England, suffered a violent and bloody death at the hands of the Norman invaders. There were many reasons why the Saxon king lost his throne.’

Paragraphs

You now need to develop your answer in a logical way, giving reasons why Harold lost the battle. Use one paragraph for each reason.

1. You could begin each paragraph with ‘One reason was…’, ‘A second reason was…’. This makes it clear each time you are talking about a new reason.

2. Remember to support what you are saying with factual evidence, otherwise people will not believe you! For example, don’t just say ‘Harold’s troops were tired’, but add that they were tired because they had just marched hundreds of kilometres.

3. Remember, too, to use connective words such as ‘therefore’, ‘however’ and ‘because’ to show how your ideas link together.

An example of a strong paragraph could look something like this:

‘One reason that Harold lost the Battle of Hastings was that his troops were tired and depleted. This was because they had fought the Battle of Stamford Bridge only two weeks before. Some of Harold’s troops had died in the battle, and the rest had had to march south very quickly to face the Normans. Therefore the Saxon army was not at full strength at Hastings.’

Conclusion

This is where you sum up your ideas and say which reason was the most important. In other words, you provide a direct answer to the question. Your paragraphs should have already provided the evidence for your conclusion.

You could begin your conclusion with:

‘The most important reason why Harold lost the battle of Hastings was…’

Now go ahead and write an answer to the question ‘Why did Harold, king of England, lose the Battle of Hastings?’ Use all the advice above.
How did William take control of England?

William had won the Battle of Hastings, but one battle was not enough to give him control of the whole of England. The Anglo-Saxons were not going to give in that easily. However, within just 21 years Norman power reached every corner of England. William was firmly in control and his throne was safe. This section of the book will look at:

- the way in which castles and terror were used by the Normans to establish control of England
- the way in which the feudal system and the Domesday Book helped to maintain control
- the extent to which the Norman Conquest changed the lives of the Anglo-Saxons.

Learning objectives

- Learn how William used terror to frighten the Saxons.
- Understand why the Normans used castles to control the Saxons.

Taking control using terror

What do you think?

Are there problems with establishing control by force?

William knew he had to act quickly. He had killed the king of England at the Battle of Hastings, but that did not give him control of the whole country. William marched on London, burning villages and destroying crops as he went. This sent a powerful message to the Saxon people. The Normans would not tolerate any opposition. Faced with this level of destruction, the Saxon earls reluctantly agreed to accept William as their king.

On Christmas Day 1066, William was crowned in Westminster Abbey. As the coronation ceremony was taking place, Saxons and Normans were fighting in the streets. This was not a good beginning to William’s reign.

Did you know?

Today we hear about terror and terrorist acts where extremists try to frighten the civilian population and spread fear. The Normans used terror, too, to frighten the English people into obeying them.

Source A: Part of the Bayeux Tapestry showing the Normans burning a Saxon house, and a woman and child escaping.

The harrying of the North

Revolts broke out across the country and were cruelly put down by the Norman army.

The most serious revolt happened in the North of England in 1069. Trouble began when the Saxons massacred William’s trusted friend, Earl Robert, and 900 of William’s soldiers when they were sent to rule Durham. The earls Morcar and Edwin turned against William. Helped by a small force of Vikings sent by the king of Denmark, they seized York and threatened to set up a separate kingdom in northern England. William responded in the only way he knew: he marched north with specially selected soldiers. They massacred men, women and children, burned their villages, destroyed their crops and slaughtered their animals. Those who survived faced famine and disease. The Vikings, bribed by William and seeing the Saxons defeated and destroyed, sailed away, never to return.

Did you know?

Historians call William’s destruction of Northern England ‘the harrying of the North’, ‘Harring’ means to repeatedly attack someone or something over a period of time.

Source B: Written by an English monk, Orderic Vitalis, in The Ecclesiastical History, between 1123 and 1141. Orderic said that this was William’s deathbed confession. William died in 1087 and Orderic wasn’t there at the time. He relied on what people had told him.

I fell upon the English in the northern shires like a hungry lion. I ordered their houses and corn, with all their tools and belongings, to be burned. I used large herds of cattle and beasts of burden to butcher wherever they were found. By so doing, alas, I became the barbarous murderer of many thousands, both young and old, of that fine race of people.

Source C: Written by a monk, Simeon of Durham, in the 1100s.

There was such hunger that men ate human flesh, and the flesh of horses and dogs and cats. Others sold themselves into slavery so they could live out their miserable lives. It was horrible to look into the ruined farmyards and houses and see the rotting human corpses, for there were none to bury them... There was no village inhabited between York and Durham.

Figure 1.8: Map showing the locations of the most important Saxon revolts.

1. Look at the map in Figure 1.8 showing Saxon revolts against Norman rule. Imagine William has asked for your advice. Write a short paragraph saying what you would advise him to do, and why. Should he, for example, send in troops to put down the revolt, build a castle or burn all the countryside in the area of the revolt so that the people starve?

2. In what ways do Sources A and B agree?

3. Choose one of the sources and explain how a historian could use it as evidence of the way William treated the Saxons in the North of England.

4. What can you learn from Source B about William? Why would a historian have to be careful using this source as evidence of William’s character?

5. Source C describes a terrible situation. What questions would a historian have to ask before using it as evidence of the harrying of the North?
Control by castles

Castles were vital to William’s takeover of England. Wherever his army took control, they built castles. They built castles to:

• keep Normans safe in hostile areas and have a base from which to launch attacks
• control the surrounding countryside, making sure there were no rebellions
• remind people of the power of the Normans.

The first castles were made from wood. This was later replaced by stone. A castle might be built on a ‘motte’, which was a simple mound or hill. If there wasn’t a suitable hill, then earth was dug to make a mound. If the Normans decided to build a castle in a town, then houses were pulled down to clear a big enough space. A ‘bailey’ was a cleared space which gave a good view of the surrounding area. It prevented people sneaking up in a surprise attack and gave defenders a clear area from which to shoot. It was also a safe place where Normans could live and work.

The Normans made the English carry out all the hard work involved in building the castles. A castle was usually the highest building in an entire area. There were no castles like these in England before the Norman Conquest, and this gave castles an air of sinister mystery and importance.

Did you know?


Interpretation 1: A modern artist, Sue Walker-White, drew this picture in 2002 to show what early Norman castles would have looked like.

Checkpoint

1. What was the ‘harrying of the North’?
2. Why did William order the harrying of the North?
3. What impact did the harrying of the North have on the people who lived there?
4. Give two things historians need to check when using sources to write about the past.
5. Give two ways in which the Normans used castles to control the English people.

Your turn!

1. There were no rebellions in England after 1070. Does this mean that William’s castle-building programme was a success? Use the map in Figure 1.9 and discuss this in your class.
2. You are one of a band of English people who don’t want to co-operate with the Normans. Use Interpretation 1 and work with a partner to plan your attack on a Norman castle. Think about where the castle’s weak points are and how you could get to them without Norman soldiers pouring out of the castle and wiping you out.

Figure 1.9: Map to show the extent of Norman control over England by 1070.
Taking control peacefully

**Learning objectives**

- Know how the feudal system and the Domesday survey helped William keep control of England.
- Understand how much change the Normans brought to England after 1066.

William realised that he could not hold England by sheer force forever. He needed a plan. He needed help to run England. He had to reward the powerful Normans who had supported him while at the same time making sure they stayed loyal.

**The feudal system**

William developed the feudal system. He started by saying that all the land in England belonged to him. However, he would lend it to trusted followers in exchange for their loyalty. The feudal system meant that William had a constant supply of money and loyalty, and still owned the land.

**The Domesday survey**

In order for the feudal system to work properly, William had to have an accurate record of the state of his land. He had to know exactly who owned what and how much it was worth, so that he could tax them correctly. He also wanted to know how much tax had been paid during Edward the Confessor’s reign. This was so that he could show people he was continuing to follow what was customary in Edward’s time.

In 1085, William sent royal commissioners over all the country to collect this evidence. People, animals and land were all counted so that William could see how rich or poor his subjects were.

**Source A:** An entry in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle for the year 1085.

The king had great deliberations and very deep speech with his counsellors about this land, how it was occupied and by what men. He then sent his men over all England into each shire to find out how many hides of land there were, what and how much each man was holding in England, in land, in livestock, and how much money it was worth. So very closely did he let it be searched out that there was not a single hide of land, not an ox, a cow, a pig was left out, and all the documents were brought to him afterwards.

**Source B:** A description of the city of York, from the Domesday Book.

In the city of York, before 1066 there were 6 shires and one belonging to the archbishop. One of these has now been laid waste for the castles. In 5 shires there were 1418 inhabited dwellings. There are now 391 inhabited, 400 dwellings are not inhabited; the better ones pay 1 penny and the others less; and 540 dwellings so empty that they pay nothing at all. The Frenchmen hold 145 dwellings.

**Source C:** A description of the village of Coleshill, Warwickshire, from the Domesday Book.

Richard holds Coleshill from William, son of Ansculf and it pays him £1 in rent. The lord in King Edward’s time was Wulwin and the value to him was £1. There are 9 households and land for six ploughs. There is one lord’s plough team* and 2 men’s plough teams. There is a wood that is half a mile long.

**Did you know?**

The Domesday Book was first called the Book of Winchester because that is the town where it was kept. After about 100 years it was nicknamed the Domesday Book because people thought that by counting everything, it marked the end of the world, or ‘dooms day’, when God would judge the world and everything in it.

**Key term**

Plough team*: A plough team was made up of eight oxen and two men. The oxen pulled the plough. One man guided the plough and the other led the oxen over the fields.

**Your turn!**

1. Look back at the triangle showing Saxon roles that you drew in answer to the first enquiry question on page 23. Put it beside the diagram of the feudal system in Figure 1.10. Make a list of the differences you can find, and another list of what stayed the same.

2. Read Source A. List the information it gives us about how the Domesday survey was carried out.

3. Read Sources B and C. Which area changed the most? Discuss with a partner why there was this difference.

4. Explain how the feudal system and the Domesday survey worked together to help William control England.
What did the Norman Conquest change?

Imagine you are Wigberht, a Saxon shepherd looking after a large flock of sheep. The spring lambs are fattening up nicely and you are wondering what price they will fetch at market. Suddenly you look up and gaze in puzzlement at the horizon. A cluster of what look like black dots has appeared at sea. As they grow closer, you see to your horror that they are ships. You don’t know it, but your life is about to change forever. Or is it?

The Norman Conquest changed many things in England. Some of the changes were huge and affected a large number of people; some were small and affected only a few people. Some changes may seem big, but had little impact on the lives of ordinary people.

- The landscape changed: huge castles dominated much of the countryside. The landscape in the North of England was devastated: burnt fields and destroyed villages were all that could be seen.
- Land ownership changed: by 1087, only two of the great landowners were English; all the rest were Normans. The new landowners created luxury areas like deer parks and planted vineyards.
- The Church changed: by 1090, only one out of the 16 bishops was English; the rest were Norman. By 1200, all the wooden Saxon churches had been replaced by stone ones.
- Language changed: new words came into the language. People began using first names like Robert, William and Richard. Words like ‘beef’ and ‘pork’ were used to describe meat from cows and pigs.
- Two new laws were introduced by William:
  - Forest Laws protected William’s hunting. There were vast forests in England. After the Norman Conquest some were named ‘royal’ forests. Ordinary people were not allowed to kill or capture any animals in royal forests and there were severe punishments for poaching.
  - A Murdrum fine was imposed on any area where a Norman had been killed and his murderer had not been caught.

Apart from these new laws, William kept the old Saxon legal system, even though it was different from the one he was used to. But he made sure the legal system was run by the Normans, not the English. William had won England by conquest and controlled the country partly by force and partly by making peaceful changes. He needed to show the English people that he was the true heir to Edward the Confessor, with as much continuity as change in the way he ran the country.
In this section, you have learned:

• that historians use sources to find out about the past.

What must I use to find out about Anglo-Saxon and Norman England?

I must check my interpretation against the work of other historians. I might agree with them, or I might have discovered something new.

Figure 1.13: A historian gets to work.

Historians can use a lot of different sources to help them find out about the past. Which type of source in Figure 1.13 would historians find the most useful if they were trying to find out about:

a) the lives of ordinary Anglo-Saxon people
b) what the Saxons thought about the Normans?

Quick quiz

1. Give two ways in which England was a prosperous country before 1066.
2. What was a Witan?
3. Give two qualities a good medieval monarch had to have.
4. Who led the Vikings at the Battle of Stamford Bridge?
5. What happened on Christmas Day 1066?
6. What was the date of the harrying of the North?
7. Give two ways in which the Normans changed the lives of the Saxons.
8. Give two ways in which the lives of Saxons stayed the same after the Norman Conquest.
9. Who did the Normans say owned all the land in England?
10. In the feudal system:
    a) what did the peasants have to do for their lord and
    b) what did their lord have to do for them in return?
12. What was the Domesday Book for?

Your turn!

Your turn!

Student 1

The Norman knights are wearing chainmail and they are fighting on horseback.

Now let’s try using the same skill with a written source.

Read Source C on page 41. What two inferences can you draw from this source about the results of the harrying of the North?

Student 1

As a result of the harrying of the North, corpses were left to rot and no villages between York and Durham were lived in.

People were forced to eat human flesh – this suggests that all the food and farm animals had been taken or destroyed by the Normans.

The fact that a monk wrote about the harrying of the North so long afterwards shows that it was such a terrible event that people remembered it for a long time.

Student 2

The chainmail and helmets the Normans are wearing show that they were well prepared for battle. The Saxons aren’t wearing armour at all, so would have been easier to kill.

As a result of the harrying of the North, corpses were left to rot and no villages between York and Durham were lived in.

People were forced to eat human flesh – this suggests that all the food and farm animals had been taken or destroyed by the Normans.

The chainmail and helmets the Normans are wearing show that they were well prepared for battle. The Saxons aren’t wearing armour at all, so would have been easier to kill.

Your turn!

• Read Source A on page 17.

• What two inferences can you draw from this source about the Saxon invasions of England in about AD 440?
Acknowledgements

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(Key: b-bottom; c-centre; I-left; r-right; t-top)

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