

Hi guys,

Okay here is the deal. On this website you will find all the files you need for the summer. They are outlines from the various chapters of the book we will be using, plus some other files I added to help you out. For the questions, you are responsible for chapters 1a to 5. If you can't find the info you need, look it up or contact me. Don't send me unfinished questions or I will mark them wrong.

For contact info, you can email me at [amendive@pacehs.com](mailto:amendive@pacehs.com) . I am also setting up a Diigo page at <https://groups.diigo.com/group/pace-apworld-2013>. I would like all of you to email me either directly so that I can add your name to the diigo list. I will post things there for you to see (things that I find over the summer that might be useful, AP updates, or news reports.) or questions for you to answer. If you have a question, asking it there might be more beneficial to the group (you might be surprised how many people have the same questions) rather than emailing me personally, but I leave that to you.

Good luck, and as always, may the force be with you,

mendive

## AP World History Packet 2016-17

Showbie code: R2C4J

Okay this is the AP Summer Packet. It encompasses the first five chapters (1 - *The Origins of Agriculture* to 5- *Age of Empires Rome and Han China*) files that we will be covering. The PDFs of the chapters will be on the AP World History showbie page. If you cannot find the chapters there, email me and I will send them to you.

If you cannot find the information, look for it online or in books. One of the key components of being a good historian is the understanding that you need to do research (p.s. Wikipedia makes a good starting point, but is ***very unreliable*** – use at your own risk). If you cannot find anything, email me for help. Make sure that you are ready to talk about **all** of this when we first meet (yes we are starting as soon as you walk in the door – remember that we are on a clock that runs out in April, not June). The due dates for the assignments are below:

Questions 1-30: June 27

Questions 31-86: July 15

Questions 87-123: August 2

Questions 124-149: August 21

The questions themselves are due by email and will constitute four quiz grades. Failure to send it in on time constitutes a zero. If you have any questions, feel free to email me at [amendive@pacehs.com](mailto:amendive@pacehs.com).

In addition, geography is a key part of understanding world history. Because of this, you will need to be familiar with certain lands, bodies of water, and all the continents. You will find a list of countries, bodies of water, and other elements of geography on the showbie site. You will be tested on this one week after our first meeting.

It would also be in your best interest to purchase a review guide to the AP World History exam. *Baron's, 5 Steps to a Five, Princeton Review*, or any others are all good. The purpose is for you to be working on that independently of what we do in the class. Believe me it helps.

Now I know that this is a lot, but this is what you signed up for. If it makes you feel any better, I would not have allowed you to take this class if I felt you were not ready.



”Wow, that’s a lot of stuff!”

Keep in mind that reading and questioning are going to be **big** parts of this class. Consequently you are expected to read and answer these to the best of your ability. *(I have no idea why they are in the middle of the page – No matter what I do they will not line up on the left side of the page. If anybody knows why, email me back – it is really annoying):*

- 1) What key element distinguishes the Paleolithic era from the Neolithic era (obviously we are talking about more than just time)?
- 2) So we have culture and/or civilization during the Neolithic period? If not, what was missing?
- 3) How does religion change between the Paleolithic and Neolithic eras? What roles might megaliths have played?
- 4) **What is the difference between a farmer, a forager, and a pastoralist? Why did farming win out?**
- 5) In Mesopotamia, if goats and sheep are raised on a large scale, what other kinds of occupations, in addition to farming, would most likely exist?
- 6) Where did the wood, horses, and camels that were used in Mesopotamian society come from if it is wood poor and the

animals did not appear till after 2,500 BC? This is a common sense question.

- 7) Mesopotamian culture undergoes a change around between 5000 and 2000 BC and why was this unusual (*this is a hard question, but the answer is there if you look hard enough*).
- 8) Why did cities form in Mesopotamia (*and by the way this is the reason they developed all over the world*)? Anytime you become part of a group you lose either control or freedom, so their must have been a reason it was worth it?
- 9) How did priests make money or get food/supplies? (Think about it and it should come to you).
- 10) “*Evidence indicates a popular belief in magic and in the use of magic to influence the gods*” (in Mesopotamia). What do you think that evidence might be?
- 11) What is a scribe? Why did scribes just not teach every one to read?
- 12) What were the three traditional social classes of Mesopotamia?
- 13) What was the lugal and why was it key to the development of the king?
- 14) Given the subject matter, who would be the people most likely to know how to read in Mesopotamia?).
- 15) How did the societal place of women change in Mesopotamia? How does this still play a role today (tough one but here is a hint: look at a map)?
- 16) Why the area nearest the river called the “Black Land” and why was it a good thing (I will give you a hint – it has to do with the Nile itself and its habits)? What was the “Red Land” and why was it bad?
- 17) Why is Upper Egypt in the South and Lower Egypt in the North? Hint: look at a map – if you have the right type, one with elevation, it is easy to figure out.
- 18) What are the four periods of Egyptian history?
- 19) Egyptian “funeral rites and proper preservation of the body were therefore of tremendous importance.” Given that this statement is true, who could gain power from this and why? Hint: Think occupation if you need a clue.
- 20) Pyramids were not limited to Egypt. Find three other areas of the world in which pyramids existed.

- 21) To support its central government, Egypt had to collect taxes. However money did not exist yet. What forms could taxes have taken then?
- 22) How did the roles of women differ between Egypt and Mesopotamia?
- 23) Why do you think that many Egyptian cities have not been excavated yet, despite the passage of years?
- 24) What evidence is there showing how important religion, especially death, was to the Egyptians?
- 25) Did trade play a role in each of these civilizations? How might modern historians/archeologists know this just by examining the remains of the cities?
- 26) Was the social hierarchy Egypt the same as in Mesopotamia? If not, how were they different?
- 27) Was the Indus River more similar to the Nile or to the Tigris/Euphrates in its behavior?
- 28) Regarding the Indus River Valley: What does the city layout say about their engineering skills? Does that lead to any other observations (for instance, math skills)? What evidence is there that they did they understand the connection between disease and waste? Did that put them ahead of the others who did not develop this?
- 29) What we know about the Indus River Valley is filled with supposition and speculation: Why is this so? Given that answer, how do we know what they traded?
- 30) What key elements of science and engineering did these cultures develop? Which of the three was more scientifically advanced?
- 31) Why did the environment favor development in the North of China as opposed to the South? Why did this change? What crops were key to survival?
- 32) How did people deal with the Huang He?
- 33) What advances did Neolithic culture in China produce?
- 34) Why is it reasonable to say that Chinese history begins with the Shang?
- 35) How did the Shang govern their country? How were their cities set up?
- 36) How did religion play a role in Shang political society? What role did divination play?
- 37) How do we know that Bronze mattered to the Shang? What did it represent?

- 38) What was the “mandate of Heaven” and how did the Zhou use it? Why was the use of religion ironic in Shang culture?
- 39) How do Legalism, Confucianism, and Daoism differ?
- 40) How does Confucianism affect the role of women? What about “yin” and “yang”?
- 41) How did geography play a role in early Nubia’s rise?
- 42) What goods were traded through Nubia?
- 43) What physical proof is there that Kush was a successful kingdom? How is this similar to Egypt?
- 44) What was the reason for the constantly reoccurring war between Egypt and Kush?
- 45) What examples of cultural diffusion are evident in the relationship between Egypt and Kush? How did this change over time in Meroe?
- 46) Compare the roles of women in Meroe with that of Hammurabi’s Sumer?
- 47) What two metals were prominent in Meroe?
- 48) How was Celtic society set up? What type of housing did they possess?
- 49) What role did druids play in their society?
- 50) What kind of technological advances did the Celts achieve?
- 51) Compare the roles of Celtic women with that of Chinese women? Who was better off and why?
- 52) How was Celtic religion different from that of other cultures we have covered?
- 53) What elements were common in all early American cultures?
- 54) How did early advances in agriculture help the Olmec develop as a nation?
- 55) What role did astrology play in the life of the Olmec?
- 56) Discuss the nature of Olmec religion. What role did shaman’s play in the political arena?
- 57) What role did the llama play in Chavin society?
- 58) How did Chavin’s geography make it important?
- 59) What religious elements are common in early American religion?
- 60) What proof is there that there was cultural contact between Mesoamerica and the people of the Andean region?
- 61) What are reciprocal labor obligations and why were they important to the Chavin?
- 62) What do the ruins and relics of Minoans culture tell us about them?
- 63) What is the link between the Minoans and the Mycenaean?

- 64) What common patterns exist in Mycenaean citadel construction?
- 65) Why don't we know much about their culture?
- 66) What goods were traded too and from Mycenaean Greece?
- 67) Who brings down the Mediterranean world?
- 68) What metal allowed the Assyrian army to conquer the area that it did? Who did they get it from?
- 69) What change in mentality made the New Kingdom different from earlier dynasties? What event led to this? How is Akhenaten the exception to this rule?
- 70) What were Akhenaten's beliefs? Why were they revolutionary? Who did they offend or cause problem for?
- 71) Why was Hatshepsut unique? What did she accomplish? How did later generations treat her memory?
- 72) How was the Assyrian king viewed? What was the source of his power? What were the obligations that he worked under?
- 73) What methods did the Assyrians use to maintain control over their populations? Are any of these still used today?
- 74) What were the social classes in Assyrian society? What was the Library of Ashurbanipal and why did it matter?
- 75) Why did the Assyrians employ deportation as a tactic?
- 76) What weapons/tactics gave the Assyrians an advantage?
- 77) Why was the Assyrian government involved in trade? What did they trade?
- 78) How is the Old Testament interpreted through the eyes of historians? What issues exist?
- 79) What role do Saul and David play in Israel's development?
- 80) What effect does urbanization have on women? Where have we seen this before?
- 81) What is the Diaspora? How did it change Israel and its people?
- 82) What product was the most important for the Phoenicians?
- 83) What contribution did the Phoenicians make to writing?
- 84) How did Phoenicia grow powerful (how did it make its money)?
- 85) Where did the military power of Carthage come from? Why did this make sense, given its culture? How was its government set up?
- 86) What section of the Mediterranean did the Carthaginians dominate? What was their connection to Phoenicia?
- 87) What are the main geographical features of Iran? How did the people adapt to the problems with water? How is the development of Persian kings linked to this?
- 88) What resources does Iran possess?

- 89) What role did Cyrus play in the development of the Persian Empire? Why were they called the Achaemenids? How was their society structured? What role did the Magi play?
- 90) Why was Cyrus successful in taking over what would become the Persian Empire? What key idea allowed him to make people more accepting of his rule? How did Darius follow the same course?
- 91) What was a satrap? Why was the development of the satrap a benefit to the Empire? What was its most important function and what was the negative effect this would later produce?
- 92) How were upper class women treated in Persia? Why is this information only theoretical?
- 93) How was marriage used in Persia? Why did invading foreign leaders take on the same customs?
- 94) What elements made up the king's entourage? What was the point of traveling with so many people?
- 95) How did land donations link people to the king?
- 96) What do you think was the purpose of building Persepolis?
- 97) What religion does Darius adopt and how might his religion have justified his actions? What was the name of this god and what would be the result of their Armageddon (if you don't know the word, look it up!)? How is it similar to Christianity? How might it have affected it? How were the elements seen and how did that affect their burial customs.
- 98) For what reasons did the Greeks expand into the Mediterranean? How did the region benefit and how did the Greeks benefit? What environmental conditions made it possible for the Greeks to carry their movement without really changing their culture?
- 99) What conditions made the Greeks favor the ocean?
- 100) What culture rescued the Greeks from its dark age? What proof is there of this contact? How did this change Greek society (from a cultural perspective)?
- 101) What led to the Greek population explosion of the 800's BC? Why would the causes not be fully understood? How/why would this later lead to the development of colonies?
- 102) What was the meaning of the word *Hellenes* and why did it matter to the Greeks? What did it symbolize and why did it develop?
- 103) What was the *polis*? What elements made up the *polis*? Why did the development of the *polis* lead to fighting among the Greeks?



- 104) How were farming and warfare intertwined?
- 105) What were the benefits of coins?
- 106) What were tyrants and how did they change Greece?
- 107) What roles did the gods play in Greek decision making? How was sacrifice a part of the religion?
- 108) What is humanism?
- 109) Who/what were the pre-Socratic philosophers and how did they reject traditional society?
- 110) What did Herodotus invent?
- 111) What role did Helots play in Spartan culture? Why was the Spartan soldier/army so effective (you do not need to go into detail, just the general outline)? What did they have to give up as a society to do this (be general)?
- 112) How did Athens differ from other Greek city states? Describe the transition of Athenian government.
- 113) What event brought about the Persian Wars? How did it lead to the rise of Athens as a power? How did the trimreme (boat) expand the concept of democratic rule in Athens?
- 114) How were Athens' cultural achievements tied in to its naval superiority?
- 115) How did the sophists and the followers of Socratic thought (Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle) change Athenian thought? How did each of the Socratic philosophers develop along different lines?
- 116) How were women treated in Athens? How was this justified by men? Were there any exceptions to this? Why is problematic about the evidence we possess on this matter? How did it differ from that in Sparta?
- 117) How is Athenian democracy ironic?
- 118) What was the Athenian strategy put forth by Pericles during the Peloponnesian war? Why did it eventually fail and why was this ironic (2 reasons)?
- 119) How was the fourth century BC (the 300's) a disaster for the Greeks?
- 120) How did Phillip change warfare? How did Alexander maintain control over the areas he conquered? How is this similar to what Cyrus/Darius did? What is the meaning of the word "Hellenized"? What would be examples of this?
- 121) Why were the Ptolemies better off than the Seleucids? Why did both nations want Greek migration?
- 122) What role did Alexandria play in the development of the sciences? Was Alexandria an Egyptian city or a Greek one and why?

- 123) What was the greatest cultural effect of Alexander's invasion on Western Asia (the Middle East).
- 124) How was Rome's geographical position beneficial to its eventual development? What environmental benefits did it possess? How did it help shape Roman culture?
- 125) How did Rome's government transition to a republic? How did patricians seek to keep power for themselves? How did the plebeians eventually get control.
- 126) How were the paterfamilias and the patron-client system a key part of Roman culture? What was the Pax Deorum and how did it affect Rome?
- 127) How did women do in Roman culture? Were they better off or worse than in Athenian culture?
- 128) How was the Roman military similar to that of the Greeks? How was it different? It has been said that Rome conquered the world in self-defense: How might the Romans have made this claim with some element of legitimacy? How was Rome able to hold onto its empire (beside military force)?
- 129) How was the governor system set up and why did it cause problems?
- 130) What factors led to the fall of the Roman Republic?
- 131) How did Augustus set up the Roman Empire? Who were the equites and what role did they play in the government? How did the empire change Rome? What was the praetor?
- 132) Why can Rome be called an Urban Empire? Contrast the homes of the rich and the poor.
- 133) How did the tenet farmers make Rome better? What was the Pax Romana and how did it benefit Rome? What was Romanization? How did it affect the empire?
- 134) I am not going to ask any questions on Jesus – you should know the answers. What role does Paul play in the spread of Christianity? What people did Christianity spread among first?
- 135) What contributions did the Romans make to architecture? How was the army a key part of it? What was the key development that made it all possible?
- 136) What was the Third Century Crises and how did it bring Rome to the breaking point? Who saved Rome and how?
- 137) What role did Constantine play in the success of Christianity?

- 138) How did geography play a role in the fall of the Western Roman Empire? What was the Emperor Justinian's claim to fame?
- 139) How did the remnants of the Western Roman Empire change after the fall?
- 140) How did agriculture lead to changes in Han China? Think in terms of geography (i.e. movement) and political decisions (how food or production was important to the government).
- 141) How did the concept of family affect the Chinese during the Han Dynasty? How are some concepts similar to Roman ideas?
- 142) How was Feng Shui a natural byproduct of Chinese religious thought?
- 143) What made the Qui successful?
- 144) How did they change government?
- 145) How did the Han change China?
- 146) What role did the mandate of heaven play in the Han dynasty? What role does the emperor play or seem to play? How was the Han government set up?
- 147) How did the Han use the gentry? How did they control the gentry? How did the gentry eventually deal with this?
- 148) What technological advancements did the Han make? How does this link with the DBQ we did earlier?
- 149) Why does the Han Empire fall? How is it similar to the fall of Rome?

## Chapter 1: From the Origins of Agriculture

### I. African Genesis

#### A. Interpreting the Evidence

1. In 1859 Charles Darwin published *On the Origin of Species*, in which he suggested that species evolve over long periods of time through the process of natural selection. With regard to human beings, Darwin speculated that humans must be “descended from a hairy, tailed quadruped,” and that the process of human evolution must have started in Africa.
2. Discoveries of hominid skeletal remains in Java (1891) and Beijing (1929) indicated Asian origins for human beings. However, the African origins of human beings were suggested by the discovery of *Australopithecus africanus* in 1924 and confirmed by the work of the Leakeys in eastern Africa beginning in 1950.
3. Archaeological evidence and understanding of the evolution of other species has helped scientists to trace the evolution of human beings over a period of 4 million years.

#### B. Human Evolution

1. The australopithecines and modern humans are hominids, which are members of the primate family. Hominids such as australopithecines were distinguished from other primates by three characteristics: bipedalism, a very large brain, and a larynx located low in the neck.
2. Scientists theorize that these characteristics gave hominids advantages in the struggle for survival during the climatic changes of the Great Ice Age (Pleistocene period). Further climate changes 2 to 3 million years ago are thought to be the cause of the evolution of *Homo habilis* (*Handy Man*), whose brain was 50% larger than that of the australopithecines.
3. By 1 million years ago *Homo habilis* and all of the australopithecines were extinct. They were replaced first by *Homo erectus* (1.8 million years ago) and then by *Homo sapiens* (400,000 to 100,000 years ago).

#### C. Migrations from Africa

1. Both *Homo erectus* and *Homo sapiens* migrated from Africa to various parts of Europe and Asia, their migration facilitated by the low sea levels associated with the Ice Age. *Homo sapiens* migrated from Africa during a wet period (40,000 years ago) and crossed the land bridge to the Americas during the last glacial period (32,000–13,000 years ago). The low sea levels associated with this period also allowed *Homo sapiens* to reach Japan and New Guinea/Australia.
2. These migrations were accompanied by very minor physical evolutionary changes such as changes in skin pigmentation. For the most part, however, humans adapted to their new environments not through biological evolution, but through a process of cultural adaptation.

### II. History and Culture in the Ice Age

#### A. Food Gathering and Stone Tools

1. The period known as the Stone Age lasted from 2 million years ago to 4 thousand years ago. It is subdivided into the Paleolithic (Old Stone Age—to 10,000 years ago) and the Neolithic (New Stone Age).
2. The Paleolithic age is characterized by the production of stone tools that were used in scavenging meat from dead animals and later in hunting. *Homo sapiens* proved to be particularly good hunters and may have caused or helped to cause the extinction of mastodons and mammoths about 11,000 years ago.

3. The diet of Stone Age people probably consisted more of foraged vegetable foods than of meat. Human use of fire can be traced back to 1 to 1.5 million years ago, but conclusive evidence of cooking (in the form of clay pots) can only be found as far back as 12,500 years ago.
- B. Gender Roles and Social Life
1. The slow maturation rate of human infants and the ability of adult humans to mate at any time of the year are thought to be causes of the development of the two-parent family that is one of the characteristics of the hominids.
  2. Researchers believe that in Ice Age society women would have been responsible for gathering, cooking, and child-care, while men would have been responsible for hunting. The hunter-gatherers probably lived in fairly small groups and migrated regularly in order to follow game animals and to take advantage of seasonal variations in the ripening of foraged foods.
- C. Hearths and Cultural Expressions
1. Migrating hunter-gatherer groups lived in camps, using natural shelter when available and building temporary shelters when the climate required it; permanently established fishing communities made more solid structures. Clothing was made of animal skins sewn together with vegetable fiber and rawhide cords.
  2. Hunter-gatherers probably had to spend no more than three to five hours a day on getting food, clothing, and shelter. This left them a certain amount of time for cultural activities: gathering, organizing and passing on information, art, and religion.
  3. Cave art suggests that Ice Age people had a complex religion. Their burial sites indicate that they may have believed in an afterlife.
- III. The Agricultural Revolutions
- A. The Transition to Plant Cultivation
1. Agricultural revolutions—the domestication of plants and animals—were a series of changes in food production that occurred independently in various parts of the world. Changes in global climate were probably the cause of these transformations.
  2. The first stage of the long process of domestication of plants was semicultivation, in which people would scatter the seeds of desirable food-producing plants in places where they would be likely to grow. The next stage was the use of fire to clear fields and specialized tools to plant and harvest grain.
  3. The transition to agriculture took place first and is best documented in the Middle East, but the same sort of transition took place independently in other parts of the world, including the eastern Sahara, the Nile Valley, Greece, and Central Europe. Early farmers practiced swidden agriculture, changing fields periodically as the fertility of the soil became depleted.
  4. The environments in which agriculture developed dictated the choice of crops. Wheat and barley were suited to the Mediterranean area; sorghum, millet, and teff to sub-Saharan Africa; yams to Equatorial West Africa; rice to eastern and southern Asia, and maize, potatoes, quinoa, and manioc to various parts of the Americas.
- B. Domesticated Animals and Pastoralism
1. Domestication of animals proceeded at the same time as domestication of plants. Human hunters first domesticated dogs; sheep and goats were later domesticated for their meat, milk, and wool.
  2. As with plants, domestication of animals occurred independently in various parts of the world, and the animals domesticated were those that suited the local

environment. In most parts of the world the domestication of plants went along with the domestication of animals as animals were used for pulling plows and supplied manure for fertilizer.

3. There were two exceptions to the pattern of plant and animal domestication accompanying one another. In the Americas there were no animals suitable for domestication other than llamas, guinea pigs, and some fowl, and so hunting remained the main source of meat, and humans the main source of labor power. In the arid parts of Central Asia and Africa, the environment was not appropriate for settled agriculture, but it could support pastoralists who herded cattle or other animals from one grazing area to another.

#### C. Agriculture and Ecological Crisis

1. Most researchers agree that humans made the transition from hunter-gatherer to agricultural or pastoralist economies because the global warming of the Holocene period (beginning 9000 B.C.E.) brought with it environmental changes that reduced the supplies of game and wild food plants. The agricultural revolutions brought about a significant increase in the world's human population—from 10 million in 5000 B.C.E. to between 50 and 100 million in 1000 B.C.E.

### IV. Life in Neolithic Communities

#### A. Cultural Expressions

1. The early food producers appear to have worshiped ancestral and nature spirits. Their religions centered on sacred groves, springs, and wild animals and included deities such as the Earth Mother and the Sky God. Some of these beliefs may be reflected in ancient Hindu texts.
2. Early food-producing societies used megaliths (big stones) to construct burial chambers and calendar circles and to aid in astronomical observations.
3. The expansion of food-producing societies may be reflected in the patterns in which the Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, and Afro-Asiatic language groups are dispersed around the Eastern Hemisphere.

#### B. Early Towns and Specialists

1. Most people in early food-producing societies lived in villages, but in some places, the environment supported the growth of towns in which one finds more elaborate dwellings, facilities for surplus food storage, and communities of specialized craftsmen. The two best-known examples of the remains of Neolithic towns are at Jericho and Çatal Hüyük. Jericho, on the west bank of the Jordan River, was a walled town with mud-brick structures and dates back to 8000 B.C.E.
2. Çatal Hüyük, in central Anatolia, dates to 7000–5000 B.C.E. Çatal Hüyük was a center for the trade in obsidian. Its craftsmen produced pottery, baskets, woolen cloth, beads, and leather and wood products. There is no evidence of a dominant class or centralized political leadership.
3. The art of Çatal Hüyük reflects a continued fascination with hunting, but the remains indicate that agriculture was the mainstay of the economy. The remains also indicate that the people of Çatal Hüyük had a flourishing religion that involved offerings of food. Evidence indicates that the religion may have centered on the worship of a goddess and have been administered by priestesses.
4. The remains at Çatal Hüyük include decorative or ceremonial objects made of copper, lead, silver, and gold. These metals are naturally occurring, soft, and easy to work, but not suitable for tools or weapons, which continued to be made from stone.

5. The presence of towns like Jericho and Çatal Hüyük indicates the emergence of a form of social organization in which food producers had to support non-producing specialists such as priests and craftspeople and their labor had to be mobilized for nonproductive projects such as defensive walls, megalithic structures, and tombs. We do not know whether this labor was free or coerced.

## Chapter 2 (second part of chapter 1 in textbook) - The First River-Valley Civilizations, 3500–1500 B.C.E.

### I. Mesopotamia

#### A. Settled Agriculture in an Unstable Landscape

1. Mesopotamia is the alluvial plain area alongside and between the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The area is a difficult environment for agriculture because there is little rainfall, the rivers flood at the wrong time for grain agriculture, and the rivers change course unpredictably.
2. Mesopotamia does have a warm climate and good soil. By 4000 B.C.E. farmers were using cattle-pulled plows and a sort of planter to cultivate barley. Just after 3000 B.C.E. they began constructing irrigation canals to bring water to fields farther away from the rivers.
3. Other crops and natural resources of the area included date palms, vegetables, reeds and fish, and fallow land for grazing goats and sheep. Draft animals included cattle and donkeys and, later (second millennium B.C.E.), camels and horses. The area has no significant wood, stone, or metal resources.
4. The earliest people of Mesopotamia and the initial creators of Mesopotamian culture were the Sumerians, who were present at least as early as 5000 B.C.E. By 2000 B.C.E. the Sumerians were supplanted by Semitic-speaking peoples who dominated and intermarried with the Sumerians but preserved many elements of Sumerian culture.

#### B. Cities, Kings, and Trade

1. Early Mesopotamian society was a society of villages and cities linked together in a system of mutual interdependence. Cities depended on villages to produce surplus food to feed the nonproducing urban elite and craftsmen. In return, the cities provided the villages with military protection, markets, and specialist-produced goods.
2. Together, a city and its agricultural hinterland formed what we call a city-state. The Mesopotamian city-states sometimes fought with each other over resources like water and land; at other times, city-states cooperated with each other in sharing resources. City-states also traded with one another.
3. City-states could mobilize human resources to open new agricultural land and to build and maintain irrigation systems. Construction of irrigation systems required the organization of large numbers of people for labor.
4. Although we know little of the political institutions of Mesopotamian city-states, we do have written and archeological records of two centers of power: temples and palaces. Temples were landholders, and their priests controlled considerable wealth. Their religious power predates the secular power of the palaces.
5. Secular leadership developed in the third millennium B.C.E. when “big men” (*lugal*), who may have originally been leaders of armies, emerged as secular leaders. The *lugal* ruled from their palaces and tended to take over religious control of institutions. *The Epic of Gilgamesh* provides an example of the exercise of secular power.
6. Eventually some of the city-states became powerful enough to absorb others and thus create larger territorial states. Two examples of this development are the Akkadian state, founded by Sargon of Akkad around 2350 B.C.E. and the Third Dynasty of Ur (2112–2004 B.C.E.)
7. A third territorial state was established by Hammurabi and is known to historians as the “Old Babylonian” state. Hammurabi is also known for the Law Code



associated with his name, which provides us with a source of information about Old Babylonian law, punishments, and society.

8. The states of Mesopotamia needed resources and obtained them not only by territorial expansion, but also through a flourishing long-distance trade. Merchants were originally employed by temples or palaces; later, in the second millennium B.C.E., private merchants emerged. Trade was carried out through barter.

#### C. Mesopotamian Society

1. Mesopotamia had a stratified society in which kings and priests controlled much of the wealth. The three classes of Mesopotamian society were: (1) the free landowning class; (2) dependent farmers and artisans; and (3) slaves. Slavery was not a fundamental part of the economy, and most slaves were prisoners of war.
2. Some scholars believe that the development of agriculture brought about a decline in the status of women as men did the value-producing work of plowing and irrigation. Women had no political role, but they could own property, control their dowry, and engage in trade. The rise of an urban merchant class in the second millennium B.C.E. appears to have been accompanied by greater emphasis on male privilege and an attendant decline in women's status.

#### D. Gods, Priests, and Temples

1. The religion of Mesopotamia was an amalgam of Sumerian and later Semitic beliefs and deities. Mesopotamian deities were anthropomorphic, and each city had its own tutelary gods.
2. Humans were regarded as servants of the gods. In temples, a complex, specialized hereditary priesthood served the gods as a servant serves a master. The temples themselves were walled compounds containing religious and functional buildings. The most visible part of the temple compound was the ziggurat.
3. We have little knowledge of the beliefs and religious practices of common people. Evidence indicates a popular belief in magic and in the use of magic to influence the gods.

#### E. Technology and Science

1. Technology is defined as "any specialized knowledge that is used to transform the natural environment and human society." Thus defined, the concept of technology includes not only things like irrigation systems, but also nonmaterial specialized knowledge such as religious lore and ceremony and writing systems.
2. The Mesopotamian writing system (cuneiform) evolved from the use of pictures to represent the sounds of words or parts of words. The writing system was complex, required the use of hundreds of signs, and was a monopoly of the scribes.
3. Cuneiform was developed to write Sumerian, but was later used to write Akkadian and other Semitic and non-Semitic languages. Cuneiform was used to write economic, political, legal, literary, religious, and scientific texts.
4. Other technologies developed by the Mesopotamians included irrigation, transportation technologies (boats, barges, and the use of donkeys), bronze metallurgy, brickmaking, engineering, and pottery, including the use of the potter's wheel.
5. Military technology employed in Mesopotamia included paid, full-time soldiers, horses, the horse-drawn chariot, the bow and arrow, and siege machinery. Mesopotamians also used numbers (a base-60 system) and made advances in mathematics and astronomy.

## II. Egypt

### A. The Land of Egypt: "Gift of the Nile"

1. The land of Egypt is defined by the Nile River, the narrow green strip of arable land on either side of its banks, and the fertile Nile delta area. The rest of the

country is barren desert, the unfriendly “Red Land” that contrasted with the “Black Land,” which was home to the vast majority of the Egyptian population.

2. Egypt was traditionally divided into two areas: Upper Egypt, along the southern part of the Nile as far south as the First Cataract, and Lower Egypt, the northern delta area. The climate was good for agriculture, but with little or no rainfall, farmers had to depend on the river for irrigation.
  3. The Nile floods regularly and at the right time of year, leaving a rich and easily worked deposit of silt. Egyptian agriculture depended upon the floods, and crops could be adversely affected if the floods were too high or not high enough. Generally speaking, however, the floods were regular, and this inspired the Egyptians to view the universe as a regular and orderly place.
  4. Egypt's other natural resources included reeds (such as papyrus for writing), wild animals, birds and fish, plentiful building stone and clay, and access to copper and turquoise from the desert and gold from Nubia.
- B. Divine Kingship
1. Egypt's political organization evolved from a pattern of small states ruled by local kings to the emergence of a large, unified Egyptian state around 3100 B.C.E. Historians organize Egyptian history into a series of thirty dynasties falling into three longer periods: the Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms. These three periods were divided by periods of political fragmentation and chaos.
  2. Kings known as pharaohs dominated the Egyptian state. The pharaohs were regarded as gods come to earth to ensure the welfare and prosperity of the people. The death of a pharaoh was thought to be the beginning of his journey back to the land of the gods. Funeral rites and proper preservation of the body were therefore of tremendous importance.
  3. Early pharaohs were buried in flat-topped rectangular tombs. Stepped pyramid tombs appeared about 2630 B.C.E. and smooth-sided pyramids a bit later.
  4. The great pyramid tombs at Giza were constructed between 2550 and 2490 B.C.E. The great pyramids were constructed with stone tools and simple lever, pulley, and roller technology and required substantial inputs of resources and labor.
- C. Administration and Communication
1. Egypt was governed by a central administration in the capital city through a system of provincial and village bureaucracies. Bureaucrats at the center kept track of land, labor, taxes, and people; collected resources from throughout the country; and used them to support the central government institutions (the palace, the bureaucracy, and the army) and to maintain temples and construct monuments.
  2. The ancient Egyptians developed two writing systems: hieroglyphics and a cursive script. Egyptians wrote on papyrus and used writing for religious and secular literature as well as for record keeping.
  3. Tensions between central and local government are a constant feature of Egyptian political history. At times when the central power was predominant, provincial officials were appointed and promoted by the central government on the basis of merit. When central power was weak, provincial officials tended to become autonomous, made their positions hereditary, and had themselves buried in their own districts rather than near the tombs of their kings.
  4. Egypt was more rural than Mesopotamia. It did have cities, but since they have not been excavated, we know little about urban life in Egypt.
  5. Egypt regarded all foreigners as enemies, but its desert nomad neighbors posed no serious military threat. Egypt was generally more interested in acquiring resources than in acquiring territory; resources could often be acquired through trade.
  6. Egypt traded directly with the Levant and Nubia and indirectly with the land of Punt (probably part of modern Somalia). Items of trade included exports of

papyrus, grain, and gold and imports of incense, Nubian gold, Lebanese cedar, and tropical African ivory, ebony, and animals.

D. The People of Egypt

1. Ancient Egypt had a population of about 1 to 1.5 million physically heterogeneous people, some dark-skinned, and some lighter-skinned. The people were divided into several social strata: (1) the king and high-ranking officials; (2) lower-level officials, local leaders and priests, professionals, artisans, well-off farmers; and (3) peasants. The majority of the population was peasants.
2. Peasants lived in villages, cultivated the soil, and were responsible for paying taxes and providing labor service.
3. Slavery existed on a limited scale. Treatment of slaves was generally humane.
4. Paintings indicate that women were subordinate to men and engaged in domestic activities. Egyptian women did have the right to hold, inherit, and will property and retained rights over their own dowry after divorce. They probably had more rights than Mesopotamian women.

E. Belief and Knowledge

1. Egyptian religious beliefs were based on a cyclical view of nature. Two of the most significant gods, the sun-god Re and Osiris, god of the Underworld, who was killed, dismembered, and then restored to life, represented renewal and life after death.
2. The kings who were identified with Re and with Horus, the son of Osiris, served as chief priests. The supreme god of the Egyptian pantheon was generally the god of the city that was serving as the capital.
3. The Egyptians spent a large amount of their wealth in constructing fabulous temples. Temple activities included regular offerings to the gods and great festivals.
4. We know little about popular religious beliefs. What we do know indicates that the Egyptians generally believed in magic and in an afterlife. Concern with the afterlife inspired Egyptians to mummify the bodies of the dead before entombing them.
5. Tombs were usually built at the edge of the desert to avoid wasting arable land. Tombs contain pictures and samples of food and other necessities and thus are a valuable source of information about daily life in Egypt. The amount and quality of tomb goods and the form of the tombs themselves reflect the social status of the deceased.
6. The ancient Egyptians acquired much advanced knowledge and technology. Knowledge of chemistry and anatomy was gained in the process of mummification. Other areas of scientific and technological advance included mathematics, astronomy, calendar making, irrigation, engineering and architecture, and transportation technology.

III. The Indus Valley Civilization

A. Natural Environment

1. The central part of the Indus Valley area is the Sind region of modern Pakistan. Adjacent related areas included the Hakra River (now dried up), the Punjab, and the Indus delta region.
2. The Indus carries a lot of silt and floods regularly twice a year. Access to river water for irrigation allowed farmers in the Indus Valley and related areas to produce two crops a year despite the region's sparse rainfall.

B. Material Culture

1. The Indus Valley civilization flourished from 2600 to 1900 B.C.E. Knowledge of the civilization is gained from archaeological excavation of the remains of Indus Valley settlements. The two largest and best-known sites are those at Harappa and Mohenjo-daro.
2. We know little of the identity, origins, or fate of the people of the Indus Valley, nor do we know what historical circumstances led to the development of a

sophisticated urban civilization. Part of the problem is that, although they had a writing system, modern scholars are unable to decipher it.

3. The two major urban centers of the Indus Valley were Harappa (3½ miles in circumference, population about 35,000) and Mohenjo-daro (several times larger). Both settlements are surrounded by brick walls, have streets laid out in a grid pattern, and are supplied with covered drainage systems to carry away waste. There are remains of something like a citadel that may have been a center of authority, structures that may have been storehouses for grain, and barracks that may have been for artisans.
  4. Both urban centers may have controlled the surrounding farmland. Harappa was located on the frontier between agricultural land and pastoral economies and may have been a nexus of trade in copper, tin, and precious stones from the northwest.
  5. The Indus Valley civilization is characterized by a high degree of standardization in city planning, architecture, and even the size of the bricks. Some scholars have sought to explain this uniformity by hypothesizing the existence of an authoritarian central government, while others argue that it may have been a result of extensive trade within the region.
  6. The people of the Indus Valley had better access to metal than did the Egyptians and the Mesopotamians. Thus the Indus Valley artisans used metal to create utilitarian goods as well as luxury items.
  7. Technological achievements of the Indus Valley civilization included extensive irrigation systems, the potter's wheel, kiln-baked bricks, a sophisticated bronze metallurgy, and a system of writing. The people of the Indus Valley carried out an extensive trade with the northwestern mountain areas, Iran and Afghanistan, and even Mesopotamia.
- C. Transformation of the Indus Valley Civilization
1. Scholars formerly believed that the Indus Valley cities were abandoned around 1900 B.C.E. because of an invasion. Further evidence has convinced researchers that the decline of the Indus Valley civilizations was due to a breakdown caused by natural disasters and ecological change.
  2. Ecological changes that probably led to a decline in agricultural production and the eventual collapse of the Indus Valley civilizations include the drying up of the Hakra River, salinization, and erosion. When urban centers collapsed, so did the way of life of the elite, but the peasants probably adapted and survived.

## Chapter 2 - New Civilizations in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres, 2200—250 B.C.E.

### I. Early China, ca. 2000–221 B.C.E.

#### A. Geography and Resources

1. China is divided into two major geographical regions: the steppe, desert, and high plateau west and northwest; and the eastern zone, more suitable for settled agriculture.
2. The eastern zone is subdivided into two areas: north and south. The northern area includes the Yellow River Valley and has a dry, cold climate; the southern area includes the Yangzi Valley, has plentiful rainfall, and is relatively warm.
3. China's natural resources include timber, stone, and metals. The loess soil and cool climate of the north are suitable for growing millet; rice may be cultivated in the warmer and rainier south.
4. Agriculture in this region required the coordinated effort of large numbers of people.

#### B. The Shang Period, ca. 1750–1027 B.C.E.

1. Pre-Shang China was a land of Neolithic communities. Pigs, chickens, and millet were domesticated, silk textiles developed, and bronze metallurgy begun (ca. 2000 B.C.E.)
2. There are no contemporary documents to confirm the existence of the legendary Xia dynasty. Later documents concerning the Xia may be referring to one of the late Neolithic societies of the Yellow River Valley.
3. The Shang dynasty had its origins in the Yellow River Valley and later expanded to include territory from Mongolia to Gansu and south to the Yangzi Valley. The Shang kings ruled directly over the core area of their kingdom and exercised indirect rule over peripheral areas.
4. Shang kings carried out military campaigns against nomadic enemies and engaged in a far-flung commerce that may even have included some indirect trade with Mesopotamia. The kings worshiped the spirits of male ancestors, practiced divination and sacrifice, and presented themselves as intermediaries between the gods and the human world.
5. Shang technology included the use of bronze for weapons and ceremonial vessels. Other technological advances include the horse-drawn chariot, the use of water buffalo as draft animals, and extensive civil engineering projects.
6. The Chinese writing system (Chinese characters) developed during the Shang period. The Chinese writing system of today is directly related to the writing of the Shang dynasty. The chief written remains are oracle bones used in divination.

- C. The Zhou period, 1027–221 B.C.E.
1. The Zhou territory was a dependent state of the Shang. They defeated the Shang in the eleventh century B.C.E. and invented the concept of the “Mandate of Heaven” in order to justify their actions. The Zhou dynasty is subdivided into two periods: the Western Zhou and the Eastern Zhou periods.
  2. During the Zhou period, the priestly power of the elite faded, resulting in the separation of religion and government. The Zhou period saw the development of a number of important secular philosophies.
  3. During the Western Zhou period (eleventh–ninth centuries B.C.E.), the Chinese developed a model of government that defined kingship in moral terms. Like the Shang, the Zhou exercised direct control over their core territory and administered the peripheral areas indirectly.
  4. The Eastern Zhou period was characterized by a decline in the strength of the central government as regional elites began to rule their territories as independent states, often fighting with each other. The Eastern Zhou period is further sub-divided into two periods: the Spring and Autumn Period (771–481 B.C.E.) and the Warring States Period (480–221 B.C.E.).
  5. Technological innovations of the Eastern Zhou include the construction of long walls for defense, iron and steel metallurgy, and horse riding.
  6. The Eastern Zhou is particularly known as the era in which influential political philosophies were developed. The most significant of these schools of philosophy were Legalism, Confucianism, and Daoism.
  7. Legalism assumes that human nature is essentially wicked and selfish, and that people will only behave if they are ruled by strict laws and harsh punishments. Legalism functioned as the ideological basis of the various independent states as they expanded their bureaucracies, strengthened the power of the state, and issued written codes of law.
- D. Confucianism, Daoism, and Chinese Society
1. Confucianism was founded by Confucius and assumes that human nature is essentially good, has a hierarchical view of the universe, society, and the family, and is concerned with establishing the moral foundations of government. Confucius was not influential in his own time, but Confucianism later became the dominant political philosophy of imperial China.
  2. Daoism is said to have been founded by Laozi. Daoism assumes that the universe is in constant flux, that there are no absolute moral standards, and that people should take the world as they find it. Daoism developed into a complex

system of popular beliefs and magic and offered the Chinese an alternative to Legalism and Confucianism.

3. In society, the Eastern Zhou period saw the development of the three-generation family and the development of the concept of private property, including privately owned land. Women were more firmly subordinated to the patriarchal hierarchy; their subordinate position was justified by the concepts of yin and yang.

## II. Nubia, ca. 3100 B.C.E.–ca. 350 C.E.

### A. Early Cultures and Egyptian Domination, ca. 2300–ca. 1100 B.C.E.

1. Nubia is located in the Nile valley from Aswan south to Khartoum and forms a link between tropical Africa and the Mediterranean world. Nubia's natural resources included gold, semi-precious stones, and copper.
2. The development of civilization in Nubia was spurred by the need for irrigated agriculture and by its trading relationship with Egypt. Nubian culture and Egyptian culture developed through a process of mutual influence and borrowing.
3. Early Nubia carried out trade with Old Kingdom Egypt, and the northern part of Nubia was occupied by Egypt during the Middle Kingdom period.
4. In the southern part of Nubia, the Kingdom of Kush developed by 1750 B.C.E. Kush was noted for its metalworking and construction.
5. Egypt invaded Kush during the New Kingdom period. The results of Egyptian occupation included the brutal exploitation of Nubian laborers and the imposition of Egyptian culture on the Nubian people.

### B. The Kingdom of Meroë, 800 B.C.E.–350 C.E.

1. A Nubian kingdom arose in the eighth century B.C.E., and for a time the Nubians ruled Egypt as the Twenty-Fifth Dynasty (712–660 B.C.E.)
2. The Nubian kingdom had its capital at Napata from 660 B.C.E. to the fourth century. The Napata period is characterized by continued Egyptian cultural influence, including the use of Egyptian hieroglyphs and pyramids.
3. In the fourth century B.C.E. the kingdom moved its capital to Meroë, which was better located for both agriculture and trade. Egyptian cultural influence waned during the Meroitic era.
4. The ruling dynasty of Meroë practiced a matrilineal family system, and queens often were influential.
5. The city of Meroë dominated trade routes, used reservoirs to catch rainfall, and became an important center of iron smelting.
6. Meroë declined due to a combination of factors: a shift in trade routes, the rise of the kingdom of Aksum, and the depredations of camel-riding nomads.

### III. Celtic Europe, ca. 1000– 50 B.C.E.

#### A. The Spread of the Celts

1. Celtic civilization originated in Central Europe in the first millennium B.C.E.
2. Around 500 B.C.E., the Celtic groups began a rapid expansion in several directions.
3. The Celts shared cultural traits, but there was no Celtic “state.”

#### B. Celtic Society

1. Celtic society was divided into an elite class of warriors, professional groups of priests and bards, and the common people.
2. The warriors owned land and livestock and monopolized wealth and power.
3. The priests, called Druids, were teachers and judges as well as religious leaders.
4. Celts were successful farmers and engaged in trade, shipbuilding, and metallurgy.
5. Celtic women were involved primarily in child rearing, food production, and some crafts.
6. Celtic women, particularly elite women, enjoyed more freedom than their Middle Eastern, Greek, and Roman counterparts.

#### C. Belief and Knowledge

1. The Celts worshiped a large number of gods and goddesses.
2. In Celtic mythology, the barrier between the natural and the supernatural world was quite permeable.
3. In the first three centuries C.E., Roman conquest and Germanic invasion halted the development of Celtic society.

### IV. First Civilizations of the Americas: The Olmec and Chavin, 1200–250 B.C.E.

#### A. The Mesoamerican Olmecs, 1200-400 B.C.E.

1. The Olmecs, the most important Mesoamerican preclassic civilization, were at their strongest between about 1200 and 400 B.C.E.
2. Major centers of Olmec civilization were located along the coast of Mexico.
3. The use of raised fields provided the agricultural surpluses the Olmec needed to sustain urban centers.
4. The center of early Olmec civilization was located at San Lorenzo. San Lorenzo was surpassed by La Venta around 900 B.C.E., which, in turn, gave way to Tres Zapotes around 600 B.C.E.
5. Large earthen mounds dominated Olmec urban centers.
6. It is likely that Olmec political structures were built around some form of kingship.
7. Olmec power rested on the control of certain commodities and the popularity of their religious practices.



8. Given their limited technology, Olmec architecture was very impressive.
  9. The Olmec played a role in the early development of writing and astronomy.
- B. Early South American Civilization: Chavín, 900—250 B.C.E.
1. Chavín was the first major urban civilization in South America.
  2. Chavín was politically and economically dominant between 900 and 250 B.C.E.
  3. A combination of military strength and the appeal of its religious system explains Chavín's influence and control over its territory.
  4. Chavín possessed all the essential characteristics of later Andean civilizations, including a clan-based system of labor.
  5. The evidence suggests that increased warfare led to the fall of Chavín around 200 B.C.E.

## CHAPTER 4

### **The Mediterranean and Middle East, 2000–500 B.C.E.**

- I. The Cosmopolitan Middle East, 1700–1100 B.C.E.
  - A. Western Asia
    1. In the southern portion of western Asia, the Kassites ruled Babylonia during this period. Babylonia did not pursue territorial conquest. In the north, the Assyrians had their origins in the northern Tigris area. They were involved in trade in tin and silver.
    2. The Hittites had their capital in Anatolia, used horse-drawn chariots, and had access to important copper, silver, and iron deposits.
    3. During the second millennium B.C.E. Mesopotamian political and cultural concepts spread across much of western Asia.
  - B. New Kingdom Egypt
    1. The New Kingdom period was preceded by the decline of the Middle Kingdom and by the subsequent period of rule by the non-Egyptian Hyksos. A native Egyptian dynasty overthrew the Hyksos to begin the New Kingdom period. This period was characterized by aggressive expansion into Syria-Palestine and into Nubia.
    2. Innovations during the New Kingdom period include Queen Hatsheput's attempt to open direct trade with Punt and Akhenaten's construction of a new capital at Amarna. Akhenaten also made Aten the supreme deity of Egypt and carried out a controversial reform program.
    3. The general Haremhab seized power in 1323 B.C.E. and established a new dynasty, the Ramessides. The Ramessides renewed the policy of conquest and expansion neglected by Akhenaten and their greatest king, Ramesses II (r. 1290–1224 B.C.E.), dominated his age.
  - C. Commerce and Communication
    1. The Syria-Palestine area was an important crossroads for the trade in metals. For this reason, the Egyptians and the Hittites fought battles and negotiated territorial agreements concerning control over Syria-Palestine.
    2. Access to metals was vital to all bronze-age states, but metals, including copper and tin for bronze, often had to be obtained from faraway places. The demand for metals spurred the development of trade in copper from Anatolia and Cyprus, tin from Afghanistan and Cornwall, silver from Anatolia, and gold from Nubia.
    3. New modes of transportation introduced during this period included horses, chariots, and camels.
- II. The Aegean World, 2000—1100 B.C.E.
  - A. Minoan Crete
    1. Minoan civilization is known through legendary accounts of King Minos, the labyrinth beneath his palace, and the Minotaur. Archaeological evidence for Minoan civilization includes excavated palace sites at Cnossus, Phaistos, and Mallia, and widely distributed remains of Cretan pottery and other artifacts. The evidence suggests that Minoan civilization was influenced by the civilizations of Egypt, Syria, and Mesopotamia.

2. Minoan civilization was destroyed, probably by Mycenaean Greeks, about 1450 B.C.E.
- B. Mycenaean Greece
1. The Mycenaean Greek people are thought to be descended from a combination of an indigenous population and Indo-European invaders. The civilization developed suddenly around 1600 B.C.E.
  2. Although it was first known only through the accounts of *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*, the existence of Mycenaean civilization was proved by the archeological expedition of Heinrich Schliemann in 1876 at Mycenae in southern Greece. Schliemann and other archeologists have discovered shaft graves, gold and silver jewelry, a palace complex, and other artifacts.
  3. Later Greek legend explains the development of Mycenaean civilization as being the result of immigration from Phoenicia or liberation of the Greeks from Minoan tyranny. There is no archeological evidence to back up these legendary accounts. The evidence does, however, indicate that Mycenaean civilization was influenced by Minoan civilization and that the Mycenaeans rose to power on profits from trade and piracy.
  4. Mycenaean sites share certain common characteristics including hilltop citadels with thick fortification walls that enclosed palaces and administrative buildings. Also typical of Mycenaean civilization were luxury-filled tombs for departed rulers, large houses for the aristocracy, and the use of Linear B writing. Linear B was an early form of Greek that used symbols to represent syllables.
  5. The Mycenaean state controlled the economy, organizing grain agriculture and wool production. However, we know little about the Mycenaean political system, religion, society, or particular historical events. The uniformity that is characteristic of the Mycenaean territory may have been due to some sort of political unity, or it may have been the result of extensive contact and trade.
  6. Evidence for long-distance contact and trade includes wall paintings of ships in Egypt and Thera and excavated remains of the ships themselves. Other evidence includes the widespread dispersal of Cretan and Mycenaean pottery and other goods around the Aegean world and in the Middle East. The evidence indicates that Cretan traders came first, and were later joined and then replaced by Mycenaeans.
  7. In this trade, Crete and Greece exported wine or olive oil, weapons, craft goods, slaves, and mercenaries. They imported amber, ivory, grain, and metals (gold, copper, and tin). The fine line between trade and piracy can be seen in the strained relations between the Mycenaeans and the Hittites and in the siege of Troy.
- C. The Fall of Late Bronze Age Civilizations
1. Destruction of Old Centers of Civilization in the Middle East
  2. Unknown invaders destroyed the Hittite kingdom. Syria likewise fell to invasions.
  3. The Egyptians battled invasions from the sea in the north and lost control of Nubia in the south.
  4. Mycenaean civilization fell due to a combination of internal decline and external aggression. Annihilation of the trading routes of the eastern Mediterranean undermined the position of the Mycenaean elite and probably led to internal unrest and collapse.
  5. The collapse of Mycenaean civilization demonstrates the degree to which the civilizations of the Late Bronze Age were interdependent; their prosperity and their very existence relied on the trade networks that linked them and gave them

access to natural resources, particularly metals. When this cosmopolitan world collapsed, the Mediterranean and the Middle East entered a “Dark Age”—a period of poverty, isolation, and loss of knowledge.

### III. The Assyrian Empire, 911–612 B.C.E.

#### A. Background and Location

1. The Assyrian homeland was in northern Mesopotamia. It had more rain and a more temperate climate than Sumer and Akkad, but it was also more exposed to raiders.
2. Assyrian power revived in the ninth century B.C.E. and the Assyrians built an empire, expanding along trade routes westward toward the Mediterranean, north to modern Armenia, east to modern Iran, and south to Babylonia.

#### B. God and King

1. Assyrian kings were regarded as the center of the universe, chosen by the gods as their surrogates in earth. Kings had secular and religious duties.
2. The secular duties of kings included receiving information, hearing and deciding on complaints, and carrying out diplomacy and military leadership. The religious duties of kings included supervision of the state religion, performance of public and private rituals, and consulting and gaining the approval of the gods.
3. Assyrian kings were celebrated in propaganda that was designed to produce feelings of awe and fear in the hearts of their subjects. Such propaganda included the public display of royal inscriptions relating to conquests and punishments and artistic renderings of the kings as large, muscular, and fierce men.

#### C. Conquest and Control

1. At their peak, the Assyrian armies had half a million troops divided into functionally specialized units. The Assyrian troops used a variety of military technologies, including iron weapons, cavalry, couriers, signal fires, and spy networks.
2. Assyrian techniques of conquest included terror tactics and mass deportation of civilian populations. Mass deportation served a dual purpose: to destroy the morale of the enemy and to transfer needed laborers to the core area of the empire.
3. The Assyrians found it difficult to control their vast and diverse territory. Their level of control varied, being more effective at the core and less effective in the peripheral parts of the empire.
4. Within the empire, the duties of Assyrian officials were to collect tribute and taxes, to maintain law and order, to raise and provision troops, and to construct and maintain public works. The central government included high-ranking officials and professionals.
5. The central government exploited the wealth and resources of the empire for the benefit of the center, but also invested in provincial infrastructure, and so was not entirely parasitic.

#### D. Assyrian Society and Culture

1. Assyrian society had three major social strata: free, land-owning citizens; farmers and artisans; and slaves. The Assyrian economy was based on agriculture but also included artisans and merchants.
2. In the realm of knowledge and learning, the Assyrians both preserved the knowledge inherited from older Mesopotamian societies and made original contributions to mathematics and astronomy. The Assyrian Empire maintained libraries that were attached to temples in the cities, such as the Library of Ashurbanipal in Ninevah.

### IV. Israel, 2000–500 B.C.E.

- A. Background and Location
  - 1. The Israelite people were nomadic herders and caravan drivers who developed a complex sedentary agricultural civilization. As they did so, their cult of a desert god evolved into an influential monotheistic religion.
  - 2. Israel's location makes it a crossroads for trade. However, the area has few natural resources.
- B. Origins, Exodus, and Settlement
  - 1. Sources for the early history of the Israelite people include the Hebrew Bible, which is based in part on oral traditions compiled in the fifth century B.C.E., and archeological excavations.
  - 2. Biblical accounts of the origins of the Israelite people include the stories of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. These stories may be a compressed account of the experiences of many generations of nomads. The story of Cain and Abel and the stories of the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah reflect the tensions between the nomadic Israelite people and settled agricultural people.
  - 3. The Biblical account of the Egyptian captivity is not confirmed by Egyptian sources but may be linked to the rise and fall of the Hyksos rulers of Egypt. The period of Israelite slavery according to the Bible corresponds to the period of large-scale construction projects under Sethos I and Ramesses II, while the Biblical account of the exodus may reflect the memories of a migration from Egypt and nomadic life in the Sinai.
  - 4. The cult of Yahweh with its exclusive devotion to one god developed during the period of nomadism in the Sinai.
  - 5. The Biblical account of Israelite settlement in the land of Canaan says that Joshua led the Israelites into Canaan and destroyed Jericho and other Canaanite cities. The archeological evidence of what probably happened is that the nomadic Israelite tribes settled in the hills of Canaan, where they were joined by other groups and by refugees from a troubled Canaanite society.
- C. Rise of the Monarchy
  - 1. Wars with the Philistines brought about the need for a strong central government. Saul, the first king, established the Israelite monarchy. David, the second king, completed the transition to monarchy.
  - 2. The Israelite monarchy reached the height of its power in the reign of King Solomon, who forged alliances and sponsored trade. Solomon also expanded the bureaucracy and the army, and built the First Temple in Jerusalem. The temple priesthood sacrificed to Yahweh, received a portion of the agricultural tax, and became very wealthy.
  - 3. The wealth and prestige of the temple priesthood was indicative of the increasing gap between the rural and urban, and the wealthy and the poor in Israeli society.
  - 4. Israelite people lived in extended families and practiced arranged marriage. Monogamy was the norm. Men were allowed to have extramarital relations; women were not.
  - 5. In early Israel, women enjoyed relative equality with their husbands in social life, but at the same time, they suffered certain legal disadvantages: women could not inherit property, nor could they initiate divorce. The main occupations of women were bearing and raising children, maintaining the household, and engaging in agriculture or herding. As society became more urbanized, some women began to work outside the home in a variety of occupations.
  - 6. There are some records of women exercising political influence. Examples include the story of Deborah and references to "wise women." However, the status of women declined during the period of monarchy.

D. Fragmentation and Dispersal

1. After Solomon, Israel divided into two kingdoms: Israel in the north (capital: Samaria), and Judah in the south (capital: Jerusalem). The two kingdoms were sometimes at peace with each other, and sometimes fought.
2. There were some significant religious developments during the period of fragmentation. The concept of monotheism was sharpened, but at the same time, some Israelites were attracted to the worship of Canaanite gods.
3. Political developments during the period of fragmentation include the Assyrian destruction of the northern kingdom (Israel) in 721 B.C.E. and the fall of the southern kingdom (Judah) to the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar in 587 B.C.E. Nebuchadnezzar deported a large number of Jewish elites and craftsmen to Babylon. This was the beginning of the Jewish Diaspora.
4. During the Diaspora, the Jewish people developed institutions to preserve Jewish religion and culture. These developments continued even after some of the Babylonian Jews were permitted to return to Jerusalem. Developments of the Diaspora included a stronger commitment to monotheism, strict dietary rules, and veneration of the Sabbath.

V. Phoenicia and the Mediterranean, 1200–500 B.C.E.

A. The Phoenician City-States

1. The Phoenicians were the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Syria, Lebanon, and Israel who were pushed into the strip of land between the mountains and the sea in modern Lebanon by about 1100 B.C.E. There, the Phoenicians established a number of small city-states that were deeply involved in commerce. They also invented the first alphabetical writing system.
2. The major Phoenician city-states were Byblos, Berytus, Sidon, and Tyre.

B. Expansion into the Mediterranean

1. Phoenician expansion into the Mediterranean was carried out by Tyre, beginning in the ninth century B.C.E. Colonies were established first on Cyprus, then on the North African coast, the south and southeast Spanish coast, Sardinia, Sicily, and Malta.
2. Phoenician expansion into the Mediterranean was the work of a combination of state and private enterprise. Expansion was a response to the Assyrian invasions of Syria and Palestine, the shortage of agricultural land in Tyre, and opportunities for trade and access to resources.
3. Expansion brought the Phoenicians into conflict with the Greeks, who were also seeking resources and establishing colonies in the western Mediterranean during this period. Conflict with Greece was most significant in the violent struggle for control of Sicily—a struggle in which the Phoenicians had the upper hand by the mid-third century B.C.E.

C. Carthage's Commercial Empire

1. The city of Carthage was established on a narrow promontory near modern Tunis around 814 B.C.E. The walled city was governed by two judges selected from upper-class families and by a Senate that was dominated by the leading merchant families.
2. The navy was the most important arm of Carthaginian power. Citizens served as rowers and navigators of the fast, maneuverable warships.
3. Carthaginian foreign policy and military activity were in the service of trade and were deployed in enforcing a commercial monopoly in the Mediterranean and developing new trading opportunities. Carthaginian merchants were active around the Mediterranean and traded with sub-Saharan Africa, along the Atlantic coasts of Spain and France, and with Cornwall.

D. War and Religion

1. The Carthaginians made no attempt to build a territorial empire; their empire was an empire of trade routes and ports. The Carthaginian military was subordinate to the civilian government and consisted of mercenary soldiers commanded by Carthaginian officers.
2. Carthaginian religion involved the worship of capricious gods that needed to be appeased by sacrifice, including the sacrifice of Carthaginian children. The Greeks and Romans thought that the Carthaginians were a hard, gloomy people who treated their subjects harshly.

VI. Failure and Transformation, 750–550 B.C.E.

A. Consequences of the Assyrian Conquest

1. The Assyrian conquest brought about the destruction of Israel, deportation of the Jewish population of Israel, and pressure on the kingdom of Judah.
2. The Assyrian conquest put pressure on the Phoenicians; Assyrian threats and Assyrian demands for tribute helped to spur the Phoenicians to establish colonies in the western Mediterranean.
3. The Assyrian conquest also resulted in the invasion and occupation of Egypt and in Assyrian control over Babylonia and western Iran.
4. As their empire grew, the resources of the Assyrians became overextended and they had difficulty ruling over a large, ethnically complex territory with subjects and neighbors who had come to hate Assyria.
5. The major sources of resistance to the Assyrian Empire were the Neo-Babylonian dynasty of Babylon and the kingdom of the Medes in Iran. The Assyrian Empire was destroyed when the Medes captured the Assyrian homeland in northern Mesopotamia and eastern Anatolia, and the Neo-Babylonians took over much of the other territory of the Assyrian Empire.

## CHAPTER 5

### Greece and Iran, 1000–30 B.C.E..

- I. Ancient Iran, 1000–30 B.C.E.
  - A. Geography and Resources
    1. Iran's location, bounded by mountains, deserts, and the Persian Gulf, left it open to attack from Central Asian nomads. The fundamental topographical features included high mountains on the edges, salt deserts in the interior, and a sloping plateau crossed by mountain streams.
    2. Iran had limited natural resources. Water was relatively scarce, and Iran's environment could only support a limited population. Because of the heat, irrigation networks had to use underground tunnels. Construction and maintenance of underground irrigation networks was labor-intensive and advanced under a strong central authority. Iran had mineral resources—copper, tin, iron, gold, and silver—and plentiful timber.
  - B. The Rise of the Persian Empire
    1. The Median kingdom in northwestern Iran helped to destroy the Assyrian Empire in the late seventh century B.C.E. The Persian Achaemenid dynasty was related to the Median court by marriage, and in 550 B.C.E., Cyrus overthrew the Median king and built a larger Persian empire that included Medes and Persians.
    2. The Persian Empire was built up by a series of three kings: Cyrus, Cambyses, and Darius I. Cyrus captured the kingdom of Lydia (546 B.C.E.), thus bringing all of Anatolia under his control, and later took Mesopotamia (539 B.C.E.)
    3. Cambyses defeated Egypt and sent expeditions to Nubia and Libya. Under Darius I, the role of the Medes declined as the Persians asserted greater dominance. Darius extended the empire east to the Indus valley and west to European Thrace.
  - C. Imperial Organization and Ideology
    1. From Darius on, the empire was divided into twenty provinces; a satrap who was related or connected to the royal court administered each province. The position of satrap tended to become hereditary. Satraps in distant provinces had considerable autonomy.
    2. Provinces were required to pay annual tribute. The central government tended to hoard so much gold and silver that these metals became scarce and more expensive. The provinces were crossed by a system of well-maintained roads that converged on the capital city of Susa (in southwestern Iran), and garrisons were installed at key locations.
    3. The Persian kings developed a style of kingship in which they were held aloof and majestic, masters of all their subjects and nobles. Kings owned and administered vast tracts of “king's land” in areas around the empire.
    4. Kings acted as lawgivers, but allowed each people of the empire to live in accordance with its own traditions. Kings managed a central administration at the capital of Susa and also performed ceremonies at Persepolis, in the Persian homeland.
    5. The major religion of the Persian Empire was Zoroastrianism. The origins of this religion are unclear. Tradition ascribes the Gathas (the hymns of Zoroastrianism) to Zoroaster (Zarathustra), who lived sometime between 1700 and 500 B.C.E.



Zoroastrianism posited the existence of a dualistic universe in which the god of good, Ahuramazda, was locked in an epic struggle against the god of evil, Angra Mainyu. Zoroastrianism's dualism may have had an influence on Judaism and thus on Christianity.

## II. The Rise of the Greeks, 1000–500 B.C.E.

### A. Geography and Resources

1. Greece is part of the Mediterranean ecological zone, an area in which all the various lands have a similar climate, similar seasons, and similar crops. This characteristic of the Mediterranean zone is highly conducive to migration, transfer of crops and technology, and trade. The Greek culture area itself included the Greek mainland and islands and the western edge of Anatolia.
2. The areas inhabited by the Greeks relied entirely on rainfall, having no water resources sufficient for irrigation. Limited water and limited, thin arable soil meant that the area could not support large populations. Greece had few metal resources and little timber, but it did have plentiful harbors.

### B. The Emergence of the Polis

1. The “Dark Age” that followed the Mycenaean period lasted from 1150–800 B.C.E. The Dark Age ended when contact and trade with the Mediterranean lands was reestablished. The Phoenicians played an important role and provided an alphabetic writing system. This began the Archaic period (800–480 B.C.E.)
2. One of the notable features of the Archaic period was explosive population growth. Possible causes of this population growth include the shift from a pastoral to an agricultural economy and importation of foods and raw materials. The effects of population growth included urbanization, specialization, and the development of the polis.
3. The *polis* (city-state) was an urban center and its rural territory. Characteristic features of the *polis* included an acropolis, an agora, fortified walls, and public buildings. There was no sharp distinction between urban and rural areas or their inhabitants.
4. There were frequent wars between the various city-states. The Greeks developed a style of warfare that used hoplites—a close formation of heavily armored infantrymen who would try to break the enemy's line of defense. The soldiers were mostly farmer-citizens who served for short periods of time when called.
5. When population growth outstripped available resources, the Greeks sent excess population to colonize other areas in the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Colonization brought the Greeks into closer contact with other peoples.
6. Colonization introduced the Greeks to new ideas, but it also sharpened their sense of Greek identity. One of the most significant new developments of this period was the invention of coins in Lydia in the early sixth century B.C.E.
7. Increasing prosperity and the growth of a middle class in Archaic Greek society led to the emergence in the mid-seventh and sixth centuries B.C.E. of one-man rule by tyrants, who reduced the power of traditional elites. The tyrants were eventually ejected and government developed in one of two directions: oligarchy or democracy.
8. Greek religion involved the worship of anthropomorphic sky gods, many of which represented forces of nature. These gods were worshiped at state ceremonies. Sacrifice was a central part of religious practice and helped to create a sense of community. In addition, Greeks sought advice from oracles such as the oracle of Apollo at Delphi and also revered female fertility deities.

### C. New Intellectual Currents

1. During the Archaic period, Greeks began to develop the concepts of individualism and humanism.
  2. The pre-Socratic philosophers of the Archaic period also began to question traditional Greek religion. Instead, they tried to explain rationally why the world was created, what it is made of, and why it changes.
  3. In the late sixth century B.C.E. a group of “logographers” in Ionia began to gather information on the various peoples of the Mediterranean, the founding of important cities, and the background of important Greek families. Their method of investigation/research, *historia*, was adopted by Herodotus in his *Histories*.
  4. Herodotus went beyond the simple collection and recording of information to offer explanations as to why the Greeks and the Persians had gone to war. In doing so, Herodotus invented the discipline of “history” in its modern sense.
- D. Athens and Sparta
1. Sparta was a polis located in the Peloponnese in southern Greece. In order to assure its supply of food, Sparta took over the more fertile land of Messenia and enslaved the Messenians. Fear of an uprising of their Messenian slaves inspired the Spartans to create a severely ascetic and highly militarized society in which all Spartan males trained for the army and devoted their lives to the needs of the state.
  2. Athens had an unusually large hinterland (Attica) that supported a population of about 300,000 in the fifth century B.C.E. Athens went through a period of rule by tyrants in the sixth century B.C.E.
  3. In the late sixth and early to mid-fifth centuries B.C.E., Athens ejected the tyrant family and developed a democracy. Pericles completed the transition to democracy in the 460s-450s. The popular organs of government included the Assembly, the Council of 500, and the People’s Courts.
- III. The Struggle of Persia and Greece, 526–323 B.C.E.
- A. Early Encounters
1. In 499 B.C.E. the Greek cities of Anatolia, aided by Eretria and Athens, staged a five-year revolt against Persian rule. This led to the Persian Wars—two Persian attacks on Greece. In the First Persian War, the generals of Darius I captured Eretria and attacked Athens (490 B.C.E.). The attack on Athens was foiled when Athenian forces defeated the Persians at Marathon.
  2. In the Second Persian War, Xerxes led a large army and a fleet against the Greeks in 480 B.C.E. Many Greek city-states submitted. In southern Greece, Sparta organized the Hellenic League, an alliance of city-states that defeated the Persians. Then the Greeks, led by Athens and organized in the Delian League (477 B.C.E.), went on the offensive and drove the Persians out of most of the eastern Mediterranean (except Cyprus).
- B. The Height of Athenian Power, 480–323 B.C.E.
1. The Classical period of Greek history (480–323 B.C.E.) was marked by the dominant role of Athens, which subordinated the other states of the Delian League and became an imperial power. Athenian power was based on the Athenian navy.
  2. The keys to the strength of the Athenian navy were technological innovation and the use of lower-class men as rowers. The major technological innovation was the development of the trireme—a fast, maneuverable 170-oar boat. The use of lower-class rowers meant further democratization of Athenian society as these men, realizing their importance, demanded the full rights of citizenship.
  3. Athens used its power to carry out profitable trade and to extract annual tribute from subject states. The wealth of the empire made it possible for Athens to

construct impressive public works, put on grand festivals, and support development of the arts and sciences.

4. The two most influential philosophers of the Classical period were Socrates and Plato. Socrates turned the focus of philosophy to ethics, probed the precise meaning of words, and created the Socratic method of question and answer. He was tried on charges of corrupting the youth and not believing in the gods of the city and sentenced to death.
5. Socrates' disciple, Plato, wrote dialogs exploring concepts such as justice, excellence, and wisdom. Plato taught that the world as we see it is a pale reflection of a higher, ideal reality. Plato's intellectual activity is representative of the transition from oral to written culture: Plato read and wrote books, and he founded a school, the Academy.

#### C. Inequality in Classical Greece

1. Athenian democracy was very limited in its scope. Only free adult males participated in Athenian democracy. They accounted for about 10 or 15 percent of the total population. Women, children, slaves, and foreigners did not have the rights of citizens.
2. Slaves were mostly foreign, accounted for one third of the population, and were regarded as property. The average Athenian family owned one or more slaves who were treated like domestic servants. Slaves provided male citizens with the leisure for political activity.
3. The position of women varied in different Greek communities. In Sparta, women were relatively free and outspoken. In Athens, women were more confined and oppressed. Athenian marriages were unequal arranged unions of younger women to older men. The duties of a wife were to produce and raise children (especially sons), to weave cloth, and to cook and clean.
4. Since there were no meaningful relations between men and women, men sought intellectual and emotional companionship with other men. This gave rise to a common pattern of bisexuality in which older men engaged in extended social, intellectual, and sexual relationships with younger men.

#### D. Failure of the City-State and Triumph of the Macedonians

1. Imperial Athens aroused the resentment of other Greek city-states, which led (in 431 B.C.E.) to the Peloponnesian war—a conflict between the alliance systems of Athens and Sparta. Sparta, with a navy paid for by the Persians, finally defeated Athens in 404 B.C.E.
2. Sparta's arrogance then inspired the opposition of the other Greek city-states. This internal conflict among the Greeks gave Persia the opportunity to recover its territory in western Asia, including the Greek communities of the Anatolian coast.
3. As the Greek city-states declined in power, the backward northern Greek kingdom of Macedonia was developing into a great military power. King Philip of Macedonia strengthened his army by equipping his soldiers with longer spears, using both cavalry and infantry forces, and developing new siege equipment including catapults.
4. Philip's son and heir Alexander (the Great) invaded Persia in 336 B.C.E. and defeated the forces of the Persian Empire. Alexander, who conquered as far as Pakistan, built his own empire in which he maintained the administrative apparatus of the Persian Empire, used Persian officials as well as Greeks and Macedonians, and began to present himself as a successor to the Persian king.

### IV. The Hellenistic Synthesis

#### A. The Hellenistic Kingdoms

1. After Alexander died, his empire broke up into three kingdoms, each ruled by a Macedonian dynasty. The period of time covered by these kingdoms is called the Hellenistic Age (323–30 B.C.E.).
2. The Seleucid kingdom included the core area of Mesopotamia, Syria, parts of Anatolia, and peripheral possessions including Iran and the Indus valley. The peripheral areas were entirely lost by the second century B.C.E. The Seleucids maintained a Persian-style administrative system and continued Alexander's policy of establishing new Greek-style cities.
3. The Ptolemies ruled Egypt and sometimes Palestine. They took over the highly centralized and well-controlled Egyptian administrative and taxation systems. The Ptolemies made Alexandria their capital and actively encouraged Greek immigration.
4. The Ptolemies did not build other Greek-style cities; the lifestyle and language of the majority of the Egyptian population did not change significantly. Native Egyptians did, however, resent Greek rule and uprisings were increasingly common from the early second century B.C.E.
5. The Antigonids ruled Macedonia and the adjacent parts of Greece. The Spartans, however, as well as new confederations of city-states, resisted Macedonian rule, while Athens remained neutral.
6. Alexandria was the greatest city of the Hellenistic age. With a population of nearly half a million, the Mausoleum of Alexander, the Library, and the Museum, Alexandria was a political center, a great center of learning, and a major trading city.
7. Alexandria was a Greek city. Its Greek residents enjoyed citizenship and took part in the institutions of government (the Assembly and the Council). Public baths, theatres, and gymnasiums offered residents all the amenities of Greek life. The city also had a significant Jewish population that dominated two of the five residential districts of the city.
8. Hellenization included intermarriage between Greeks and non-Greeks, the spread of the Greek language and lifestyle, and a synthesis of indigenous and Greek culture.

## CHAPTER 6

### An Age of Empires: Rome and Han China, 753 B.C.E.–330 C.E.

- I. Rome's Creation of a Mediterranean Empire, 753 B.C.E.–330 C.E.
  - A. Geography and Resources
    1. Italy and Sicily are at a crossroads of the Mediterranean and serve as a link between Africa and Europe. Rome is at a crossroads of the Italian peninsula.
    2. Italy's natural resources included navigable rivers, forests, iron, a mild climate, and enough arable land to support a large population of farmers whose surplus product and labor could be exploited by the Roman state.
  - B. A Republic of Farmers, 753–31 B.C.E.
    1. Rome was inhabited at least as early as 1000 B.C.E. According to legend it was ruled by seven kings between 753 B.C.E. and 507 B.C.E. Kingship was eliminated in 507 B.C.E. when representatives of the senatorial class of large landholders overthrew the last king and established a republic.
    2. The centers of political power were the two consuls and the Senate. In practice, the Senate made laws and governed.
    3. The Roman family consisted of several generations living under the absolute authority of the oldest living male, the *paterfamilias*.
    4. Society was hierarchical. Families and individuals were tied together by patron/client relationships that institutionalized inequality and gave both sides of the relationship reason to cooperate and to support the status quo.
    5. Roman women had relatively more freedom than Greek women, but their legal status was still that of a child, subordinate to the *paterfamilias* of her own or her husband's family. Eventually procedures evolved which made it possible for some women to become independent after the death of their fathers.
    6. Romans worshiped a large number of supernatural spirits as well as major gods such as Jupiter and Mars. Proper performance of ritual ensured that the gods continued to favor the Roman state.
  - C. Expansion in Italy and the Mediterranean
    1. Rome began to expand, at first slowly and then very rapidly in the third and second centuries B.C.E. until it became a huge Mediterranean empire. Possible explanations for this expansion include greed, aggressiveness, the need for consuls to prove themselves as military commanders during their single year in office, and a constant fear of being attacked.
    2. During the first stage of expansion, Rome conquered the rest of Italy (by 290 B.C.E.). Rome won the support of the people of Italy by granting them Roman citizenship. As citizens, these people then had to provide soldiers for the military.
    3. In the next stages of expansion, Rome first defeated Carthage to gain control over the western Mediterranean and Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain (264–202 B.C.E.). Next, between 200 and 30 B.C.E., Rome defeated the Hellenistic kingdoms to take over the lands of the Eastern Mediterranean. Between 59 and 51 B.C.E., Gaius Julius Caesar conquered the Celts of Gaul.
    4. The Romans used local elite groups to administer and tax the various provinces of their rapidly expanding and far-flung empire. A Roman governor, who served a single one-year term in office, supervised the local administrators. This system was inadequate and prone to corruption.

D. The Failure of the Republic

1. As Rome expanded, the social and economic bases of the Roman republic in Italy were undermined. While men from independent farming families were forced to devote their time to military service, large landowners bought up their land to create great estates called *latifundia*. This meant both a decline in Rome's source of soldiers and a decline in food production, as *latifundia* owners preferred to grow cash crops like grapes rather than staple crops such as wheat.
2. Since slave labor was cheap in an expanding empire, Italian peasants, driven off the land and not employed by the *latifundia*, drifted into the cities where they formed a fractious unemployed underclass.
3. As the independent farming family that had been the traditional source of soldiers disappeared, Roman commanders built their armies from men from the underclass who tended to give their loyalty, not to the Roman state, but to their commander. This led to generals taking control of politics, to civil wars, and finally to the end of the republican system of government.
4. Julius Caesar's grandnephew Octavian (also known as Augustus) took power in 31 B.C.E., reorganized the Roman government, and ruled as a military dictator. After Augustus died, several members of his family succeeded him. However, the position of emperor was not necessarily hereditary; in the end, armies chose emperors.

E. An Urban Empire

1. About 80 percent of the 50 to 60 million people of the Roman Empire were rural farmers, but the empire was administered through and for a network of cities and towns. In this sense, it was an urban empire. Rome had about a million residents, other large cities (Alexandria, Antioch, and Carthage) had several hundred thousand each, while many Roman towns had populations of several thousand.
2. In Rome, the upper classes lived in elegant, well-built, well-appointed houses; many aristocrats also owned country villas. The poor lived in dark, dank, fire-prone wooden tenements in squalid slums built in the low-lying parts of the city.
3. Provincial towns imitated Rome both in urban planning and in urban administration. The local elite, who served the interests of Rome, dominated town councils. The local elite also served their communities by using their wealth to construct amenities such as aqueducts, baths, theatres, gardens, temples, and other public works and entertainment projects.
4. Rural life in the Roman Empire involved lots of hard work and very little entertainment. Rural people had little contact with representatives of the government. By the early centuries C.E., absentee landlords who lived in the cities owned most rural land, while the land was worked by tenant farmers supervised by hired foremen.
5. Manufacture and trade flourished under the "pax romana." Grain had to be imported to feed the huge city of Rome. Rome and the Italian towns (and later, provincial centers) exported glass, metalwork, pottery, and other manufactures to the provinces. Romans also imported Chinese silk and Indian and Arabian spices.
6. One of the effects of the Roman Empire was Romanization. In the western part of the Empire, the Latin language, Roman clothing, and the Roman lifestyle were adopted by local people. As time passed, Roman emperors gradually extended Roman citizenship to all free male adult inhabitants of the empire.

F. The Rise of Christianity

1. Jesus lived in a society marked by resentment against Roman rule, which had inspired the belief that a Messiah would arise to liberate the Jews. When Jesus

sought to reform Jewish religious practices, the Jewish authorities in Jerusalem turned him over to the Roman governor for execution.

2. After the execution, Jesus' disciples continued to spread his teachings; they also spread their belief that Jesus had been resurrected. At this point, the target of their proselytizing was their fellow Jews.
3. The target of proselytizing changed from Jews to non-Jews in the 40s–70s C.E. First, Paul of Tarsus, an Anatolian Jew, discovered that non-Jews (gentiles) were much more receptive to the teachings of Jesus than Jews were. Second, a Jewish revolt in Judaea (66 C.E.) and the subsequent Roman reconquest destroyed the original Jewish Christian community in Jerusalem.
4. Christianity grew slowly for two centuries, developing a hierarchy of priests and bishops, hammering out a commonly accepted theological doctrine, and resisting the persecution of Roman officials. By the late third century, Christians were a sizeable minority in the Roman Empire.
5. The expansion of Christianity in the Roman Empire came at a time when Romans were increasingly dissatisfied with their traditional religion. This dissatisfaction inspired Romans to become interested in a variety of “mystery cults” and universal creeds that had their origins in the eastern Mediterranean.

#### G. Technology and Transformation

1. The Romans were expert military and civil engineers. Among their accomplishments were: bridge-building, ballistic weapons, elevated and underground aqueducts, the use of arches and domes, and the invention of concrete.
2. Following Augustus' death, the army was organized primarily for defense. The Rhine-Danube frontier was protected by a string of forts; long walls protected the frontiers of North Africa and Britain. On the eastern frontier, the Romans fought for centuries against the Parthians. Neither side made any significant gains.
3. The state system constructed by Augustus worked well until what historians call Rome's “third-century crisis.” The symptoms of this crisis were frequent change of rulers, raids by German tribesmen from across the Rhine-Danube frontier, and the rise of regional power when Rome seemed unable to guarantee security.
4. Rome's economy was undermined by the high cost of defense, debasement of the currency and consequent inflation, a disruption of trade, reversion to a barter economy, disappearance of the municipal aristocracy of the provincial cities, and a movement of population out of the cities and back into the rural areas.
5. The emperor Diocletian (r. 284–305 C.E.) saved the Roman state by instituting a series of reforms that included price controls and regulations that required certain people to stay in their professions and to train a son to succeed them. Some side effects of these reforms include a flourishing black market and a growing feeling of resentment against the government.
6. Constantine (r. 306–37 C.E.) formally ended the persecution of Christians and patronized the Christian church, thus contributing to the rise of Christianity as the official religion of the empire. Constantine also transferred the capital of the empire from Rome to the eastern city of Byzantium, which he renamed Constantinople.

## II. The Origins of Imperial China, 221 B.C.E.–220 C.E.

### A. Resources and Population

1. China is a large region marked by significant ecological, topographical, biological, and climatic diversity.

2. The two most important resources that supported the imperial Chinese state were agricultural production and labor. Agricultural production in China was intensive and was taxed by the government. The most productive agricultural region was the Yangzi Valley, which began to be linked to the centers of political power (Chang'an and Luoyang) by canals.
  3. Both the Qin and the Han governments exploited the labor power of rural China by demanding that peasant families supply men for labor and for service in the military. A periodic census and regularly updated records of land and households enabled officials to collect the proper amount of taxes, labor service, and military service.
  4. Throughout antiquity, the Han Chinese people expanded at the expense of other ethnic groups. Han expanded into areas that were suitable for settled agriculture. They did not expand into areas that were suitable only for nomadic economies.
- B. Hierarchy, Obedience, and Belief
1. The family was the basic unity of society. The family was conceived of as an unbroken chain of generations including the ancestors as well as the current generations. Ancestors were thought to take an active interest in the affairs of the current generation, and they were routinely consulted, appeased, and venerated.
  2. The teachings of Confucius were a fundamental source of values for family, social, and political organization. Confucius regarded hierarchy as natural and placed absolute authority in the hands of the father. Family members were thought of as part of the group, not as individuals. Confucius also believed that people would properly fulfill their roles if they were correctly instructed and imitated good role models.
  3. According to the ideals of the upper classes, women were to cook, take care of household chores, respect their parents-in-law, and obey their husbands. Lower-class women may have been less constrained. Marriages were arranged, and a new wife had to prove herself to her husband and to her mother-in-law through hard work, obedience, devotion, and by bearing sons.
  4. Chinese believed in a number of nature spirits to whom they sacrificed. Unusual natural phenomena were regarded as ill omens. The landscape was thought to channel the flow of evil and good power, and experts in fengshui (geomancy) were employed to identify the most fortunate location and orientation for buildings and graves.
- C. The First Chinese Empire, 221 – 201 B.C.E.
1. After the Warring States Period (480–221 B.C.E.), the state of Qin united China. Factors that enabled Qin to accomplish reunification may include: the ability and ruthlessness of the Qin ruler, Shi Huangdi and his prime minister, Li Si; Qin's location in the Wei valley with its predominantly rural population of independent farming households; and Qin's experience in mobilizing manpower for irrigation and flood-control projects, which had strengthened the central government.
  2. Upon uniting China, the Qin established a strong centralized state on the Legalist model. Shi Huangdi and Li Si suppressed Confucianism, eliminated rival centers of authority, abolished primogeniture and slavery, and constructed a rural economy of free land-owning/tax-paying farmers. They standardized weights and measures, knit the empire together with roads, and defended it with a long wall.
  3. The oppressive nature of the Qin regime and its exorbitant demands for taxes and labor led to a number of popular rebellions that overthrew the dynasty after the death of Shi Huangdi in 210 B.C.E.
- D. The Long Reign of the Han (206 B.C.E.–220 C.E.)



1. Liu Bang, a peasant who defeated all other contestants for control of China, established the Han dynasty. The Han established a political system that drew on both Confucian philosophy and Legalist techniques.
  2. After a period of consolidation, the Han went through a period of territorial expansion under Emperor Wu (r. 140–87 B.C.E.). During the Western Han period (202 B.C.E.–8 C.E.) the capital was at Chang’an. During the Eastern Han (23–220 C.E.) the capital was at Luoyang.
  3. Chang’an was an easily defended walled city with easy access to good arable land. The population in 2 C.E. was 246,000. Other cities and towns imitated the urban planning of Chang’an.
  4. The elite of Chang’an lived in elegant multistoried houses arranged on broad, well-planned boulevards. They dressed in fine silks, were connoisseurs of art and literature, and indulged in numerous entertainments. The common people lived in closely packed houses in largely unplanned, winding alleys.
  5. The emperor was supreme in the state and in society. He was regarded as the Son of Heaven, the link between heaven and the human world. Emperors were the source of law. But anything that went seriously wrong could be interpreted to mean that the emperor was guilty of misrule and that he was losing the Mandate of Heaven. Emperors lived in seclusion, surrounded by a royal retinue that included wives, family, servants, courtiers, and officials.
  6. The central government was run by two chief officials and included a number of functionally specialized ministers. Local officials collected taxes, drafted men for corvée labor and military service, and settled local disputes. Most people had no contact with the central government.
  7. Local officials were supplied by a class of moderately wealthy, educated local landowners whom historians refer to as the “gentry.” The gentry adopted Confucianism as their ideology and pursued careers in the civil service.
- E. Technology and Trade
1. In the field of metallurgy, China advanced from bronze to iron by about 500 B.C.E. Rather than make wrought-iron goods (as the Romans did), Chinese ironworkers melted the iron and used molds to make harder and more durable cast-iron and steel tools and weapons.
  2. Other technological innovations of the Han period include the crossbow, cavalry, the watermill, and the horse collar. New transportation and communications technology included a road system, courier systems for carrying government communications, and canals.
  3. The Han period also saw significant growth in the size and number of urban areas. Somewhere from 10 to 30 percent of the population of Han China lived in towns.
  4. Long-distance commerce was a significant part of the Han economy. The most important export was silk, and the most important export route was the Silk Road through Central Asia. The Chinese government sought to control this route by sending armies and colonists to Central Asia.
- F. Decline of the Han Empire
1. The Han Empire’s major security problem was the nomadic tribes on its northern border. Nomadic groups were usually small, but during the Han, the Chinese faced a confederacy of nomads called the Xiongnu. China attempted to deal with the Xiongnu threat by strengthening its defenses (particularly its cavalry) and by making more compliant nomads into “tributaries.”
  2. The Han Empire was undermined by a number of factors. First, the expense of defending the northern borders was a tremendous financial burden. Second,

nobles and merchants built up large landholdings at the expense of the small farmers. These large landholders were able to resist taxation and became independent of government control. Third, the system of military conscription broke down and the central government had to rely on mercenaries whose loyalty was questionable.

3. These factors compounded by factionalism at court, official corruption, peasant uprisings, and nomadic attacks led to the fall of the dynasty in 220 C.E. China entered a period of political fragmentation that lasted until the late sixth century.

### III. Imperial Parallels

#### A. Similarities

1. The Han and Roman Empires were similar in respect to their family structure and values, their patterns of land tenure, taxation, and administration, and in their empire building and its consequences for the identity of the conquered areas.
2. Both empires faced common problems in terms of defense, and found their domestic economies undermined by their military expenditures.
3. Both empires were overrun by new peoples who were then deeply influenced by the imperial cultures of Rome and of China.

#### B. Differences

1. In China, the imperial model was revived and the territory of the Han Empire re-united. The former Roman Empire was never again reconstituted.
2. Historians have tried to explain this difference by pointing to differences between China and the Roman world in respect to the concept of the individual, the greater degree of social mobility in Rome than in Han China, and the different political ideologies and religions of the two empires.