

Early Man to growth of empires

Prehistory – 500 BCE (axial age)

✘ Historiography

✘ Regionalization

✘ Periodization

✘ Systems

✘ Environmental Determinism

- Sedentary vs. Nomadic and migration patterns
- Role of technology

✘ Sustainability

✘ Neolithic Revolution and methods of production

✘ Emergence of Civilization

- Characteristics and interaction of 4 Major River Valley Civilizations
 - Fertile Crescent (Tigris-Euphrates)
 - Egyptian (Nile)
 - East Asia (Yellow River and Hwang He)
 - Harappan and Mohen-jo Daro (Indus)
- Independent civilizations of the Americas and Oceania

✘ Interconnections and development of societies

- Culture diffusion
- Independent discovery and invention

✘ Transition from city-state to empire

- Role of Laws

Objectives for Prehistory and Ancient Civilizations
Rise of Civilization and the environmental influences on that civilization

1. Identify and discuss the issues of the study of history and historiography. (interpretation, methods, classification, type)
 - a. Identify themes of history.
 - b. Define the methods used to study history such as systems approach.
 - c. Define periodization and identify elements of time (big history vs. microhistory)
 - d. Identify common terms for geographical regions.
 - e. Discuss point of view, validity, credibility, agenda of recorder, specific historians, methods of data collection, revisionism, truth, prehistory vs. history, eras, epochs.
2. Explain the interaction of geography and climate with the development of human society.
3. Discuss major population changes resulting from human and environmental factors.
4. Analyze the continuities and breaks within the time span, especially the transition from river valley civilizations to classical civilizations.
 - a. Discuss periodization in early human history.
 - b. Analyze the nature and causes of changes associated with the time span.
5. Explain the issues involved in using "civilization" as an organizing principle in world history.
6. Describe the development and significance of the relationship between hominids and their changing environment
7. Describe the ways in which early humans adapted to different environments.
8. Explain how the earliest societies and civilizations developed in challenging environments.
9. Identify the agricultural, pastoral, and foraging societies, and their demographic characteristics, including Africa, the Americas, Europe, and Asia.
10. Explain the emergence of agriculture and technological change.
11. Discuss the nature of village settlements.
12. Identify the early regional urban centers and their dynamics.
13. Analyze the environmental causes and effects of the transition from hunter-gatherer to food-producing economies.
 - a. Discuss the economic and social results of the Agricultural Revolution
 - b. Describe the relationship between the development of different economies (hunter-gatherer, agricultural, and pastoral) and their different social and cultural characteristics.(sedentary vs. nomadic)
 - c. Differentiate between hunter-gatherer and food-producing economies.
14. Draw connections between the organization of labor resources in early civilizations and their social and political structures.
15. Assess the impact of new technologies on the social development of early civilizations.
 - a. Analyze the process of invention and relationship between the development of societies and the spread of technology.
 - b. Identify the key stages of metal use.
16. Discuss the elements of change such as diffusion of ideas as well as the environment and independent invention.
 - a. Assess the most common source of change: connection or diffusion versus independent invention.
17. Analyze the elements necessary for civilization to first develop then to sustain itself.
 - a. Determine the role of the environment in the **organization** of a society.
 - b. Understand the relationship between the institutions and beliefs and the natural environment.
18. Trace the development of social and political institutions and religious beliefs in river valley Civilizations
19. Analyze the effect of the Neolithic Revolution on gender relations.
20. Explain the impact of agriculture on the environment. (slash and burn)
21. Understand the environmental, technological, political, and cultural factors that led societies in the Mediterranean and Middle East to develop their distinctive institutions and values.
 - a. Outline the basic features of early civilizations in different environments – culture, state, and social structure: Mesopotamia, Egypt, Indus Valley or Harappan civilization, Shang or Huang He (Yellow River) Valley civilization, and Mesoamerica and Andean South America.
 - b. Explain the basis of power, status, and wealth in each of the societies of the ancient era.
22. Compare the political and social structures of two early civilizations: Mesopotamia, Egypt, Indus Valley, Shang, and Mesoamerica and Andean South America..
23. Describe the response of the peoples of early China, Nubia, Celtic Europe, and Central America to the challenges of their environments.
24. Discuss the influence of older cultural centers on the development of Nubian and Celtic society.
25. Analyze change over time in China, Nubia, Celtic Europe, and Central America, in terms of the significance of their varying environments, the roles of bronze, horses, and chariots, and the phenomenon of interdependence.
26. Identify the geographical locations and the fundamental characteristics and historical development of these societies and understand the role of migrations in their development. (environmental determinism)
27. Compare the structure and the goals and analyze the wider influence of the Assyrian and the Carthaginian empires.
28. Explain why some of these societies were destroyed or assimilated while others survived.

Aboriginal	extended families	Mayan math	Samsara
Achaemenid	Filial Piety	Media	San Lorenzo
agrarian revolution	Foraging societies	Menes	Sanskrit
Agricultural revolution	Gandhara	Mesoamerica	Sargon I of Akkad
Agricultural transition	Ganges River	Mesopotamia	Sasanid
Ahmosis	Gathas	Middle Kingdom	Sati
Ahura Mazda	Gaugamela	Minoans	Satrapy
Akhenaton	gurus	Mithradates I	secular
Alexander of Macedon	Hammurabi	Mochika	Sedentary
Amon-Re	Harappan civilization	Mohenjo-Daro	Seleucid/Seleucus
Anatolia	Hatshepsut	Moksha	<i>Shang</i>
Angra Mainyu	Hegemony	monotheism	Shanidar cave
animism	Herodotus	<i>monsoons</i>	Shapur I
Anthropology	Hieroglyphics	Moses	<i>shi</i>
Arabian Sea	Himalaya Mountains:	Mummification	Shiva, Vishnu, Kali, and
Archaic Period	Histogrphay	Mycenae	Lakshmi
Archeology	Historiography	Natufian complex (pre-	Shudras
Arthashastra:	Hittites	Neolithic)	Sinica
Aryans	<i>Homo erectus</i>	Neanderthals	Slash-and-burn agriculture
Ashoka	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Neolithic	Southwest Asia
<i>Australopithecus</i>	<i>Homo sapiens sapiens</i>	Neolithic Age	Ssu-Ma Chien
Austronesian	Horus	New Kingdom	stupas
Avesta	Huanghe or Yellow river	nirvana	Sudras
Babylonian Empire	basin	Nomadic	Sumerians
Bactria	Huanghe river	nomads	surplus
Band	hunting and gathering	<i>nuclear households</i>	sustainability
barter	Hyksos	Old Kingdom	Sympathetic magic
Bering Strait	ideographic writing	Olmec calendar	Syncretic/Sycretism
Black Sea	Immortals	Olmecs	Systems
Book of the Dead	India	<i>oracles</i>	Technology
Brahmins	Indo-European	<i>Ordos bulge</i>	Temple of the Giant Jaguar
Bronze Age	Indra	Osiris	Teotihuacan
Buddha	Indus River	Paleolithic	Theocracy
Cambyses	<i>Indus river valley</i>	Paleolithic Age	Thucydides
Caspian Sea	Infanticide	Parthia/Parthian	Tikal
Caste	Ionia	Pasargadae	transmigration:.
<i>caste system</i>	Jati	pastoralism	Tres Zapotes
Catal Huyuk	Jericho	Patriarchal	Tuthmosis III
Chavin cult	John Carter	patriarchate	untouchables:
city-state	Kalidasa	Patriarchial	<i>Upanishads</i>
civilization	Kamasutra	<i>patrilineal</i>	Urban
clan	Karma	Periodization	Vaishyas
corvee	Kshatriyas	Periphery	Varna
Core area	Kush	Persepolis	<i>varnas</i>
Cosmology	Kushanas:	Persia	<i>vassal retainers</i>
Cro-Magnon	La Venta	Phoenicians	<i>Vedas</i>
Ctesiphon	Lascaux	<i>polyandry</i>	Venus figurines
culture	<i>Lawbook of Manu</i>	<i>polygamy</i>	Vigesimal
Culture diffusion	Legalism	<i>Popol Vuh</i>	Wuwei
Cuneiform	<i>Lex talionis</i>	potter's wheel	Xerxes
Cyrus	<i>loess</i>	Pre-history	<i>Xia</i>
<i>daises</i>	<i>loess</i>	Punjab	<i>Xian and Loyang</i>
Daoism	<i>Longshan culture</i>	Pyramid of Khufu	Yahweh
Darius	Lydia/Lydians	Pyramid of the Sun	<i>Yangshao culture</i>
dharma	Macedonia	Pyramids	<i>Yu</i>
Dravidian	Mandate of Heaven	Rama:.	Zarathustra
Dynastic Cycle	Matriarchal	Regionalization	<i>Zhou</i>
Environmental Determinism	Matriarchial	reincarnation	Ziggurats
<i>Epic of Gilgamesh</i>	matrilineal	<i>Rig Veda</i>	Zoroastrianism
Evolution	matrilocal	Rural	

Prehistory to Ancient Civilizations (Prehistory – 500 BCE)

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*, 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.
- V. 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.
 - a. The three classes of Mesopotamian society were:
 - (1) the free landowning class;
 - (2) dependent farmers and artisans; and
 - (3) slaves.
 - II. Slavery was not a fundamental part of the economy & 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.**
 - a. Women had no political role, but they could own property, control their dowry, and engage in trade.
 - b. 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.

V. Egypt (Unification period, Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom, and New Kingdom)

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.
 - a. Prevailing winds connected lower and upper Egypt as you could sail north on the currents and return to their origins using the prevailing winds. Traders could go up and down the Nile.
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.

VII. 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.

VII. 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 known today as the Mandate of Heaven. 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.
- VII. 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.
- XVIII. 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.
- XI. 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.
- XII. 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.
- XIII. 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 Knossos, 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.

XIVX. 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.

XV. 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.

XXII. 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.

XXII. 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.