4 MILLION PLUS YEARS

INTRODUCTION TO GLOBAL HISTORY

Hominids in Africa (4 million BC)

Neolithic Revolution (60,000 BC)

Ancient Civilizations & Religion (4000 BC - 500 AD)

Expanding Zones of Exchange and Encounter (500 AD - 1200 AD)

Global Interactions (1200 – 1650)
First Global Age (1450 – 1770)
Age of Revolutions (1750 – 1914)
Half Century of Crises & Achievement (1900 – 1945)
Homer's Iliad & Odyssey (1945 to Present)
Global Connections & Interactions (Present to Future)

Writing and imagination can change your world.
Examining primary sources develops skills in determining the value of solid evidence (tests of credibility). Looking at secondary sources develops a sense of perspective and recognition of patterns and trends. Secondary sources give a “big picture” to help see how others interpret primary evidence.

Students must learn to use a multiplicity of sources to:
- analyze the assumption(s) from which a narrative of events was constructed
- compare what authors include and exclude from a narrative
- distinguish fact from opinion
- understand the causes and consequences of people’s actions
- understand the relationships that civilizations have to each other in shaping events
- see the dynamic interplay of differing interpretations

The availability, quality, and quantity of information gathered determine the scope and accuracy of the historian’s investigation. No matter how painstaking the research, interpretation and presentations can be very subjective (personal). Certain data will impress one scholar more than another, resulting in a particular analysis (point of view). Often, conflicting interpretations arise and become controversial for years.

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**Skill Activity**

Below is a list of materials reviewed by a student researching the sinking of the British White Star Line’s luxury liner Titanic, 14-15 April 1912:

- Eaton, J. and Ballard, R., *The Discovery of the Titanic*, 1989 (documentary account of underwater exploration for the ship’s remains)
- fragment of the Titanic’s log 14 April 1912 recovered by search submarines in 1993
- “Titanic Hits Iceberg; 1,500 Drown in Icy North Atlantic - Survivors Say Ship Lacked Sufficient Lifeboats” *New York World*, 16 April 1912 (front page newspaper article)

**Answer the following questions based on the information given above.**

1. Which item is primary source?
   1. the novel
   2. the encyclopedia article
   3. the 1989 exploration documentary
   4. the fragment of the ship’s log

2. Which item would give the student the broadest picture of the causes and effects of the sinking?

3. Why would the student bother to use the Walter Lord novel? Why use Eaton and Ballard’s exploration book?

**Note to Student:** On global history exams, questions on specific factual data or graphics usually come in series. The first one is usually directly from the material presented. The next question(s) ask you to apply broader historical concepts and contexts to the material.
**Preface**

Global history is not a romance of the past. It is reality. It makes sense of larger patterns of the past. It examines chains of events that have affected people of different cultures.

Understanding the human experience in a broad context helps us become more aware of ourselves. Understanding the human experience is vital to our way of life, too. As citizens, we are participants in a democracy. We must make thoughtful decisions to keep us free, to have dignity, and to achieve happiness. Simply put, democracy dies without our participation.

To keep democracy alive, citizens must realize that free societies evolved from struggles that people endured over many centuries. To appreciate that fact and act on it, we must be conscious of the problems people face and the sacrifices they must make.

Making rational choices flows from knowing alternatives. A grounding in the past allows us to analyze and select truth, recognize bias, and avoid delusion. Reflection on past experience is the only realistic guide to the present and the future. It gives us a point of reference from which we can make sound choices.

Achieving a global history point of reference requires mastering basic learning standards. Social studies learning standards are tools and methods that students need to analyze the vast amounts of detail. The standards include historical interpretation, geographic awareness, economic assessment, and political analysis.

**Standards of the Social Sciences**

**History**

**Historical Skills and Analysis**

In the broadest sense, history is knowledge of the past. To reconstruct the past, historians analyze physical evidence including oral traditions, art, folklore, written records, and even climatic changes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key Terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>citizen participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>democracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divine Right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>governance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>history (knowledge of the past)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypothesis (thesis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interdependence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market – Command – Tradition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primary source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarcity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary source</td>
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<tr>
<td>sovereignty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spatial relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>trade-offs</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

History is also a perpetual dialog among historians. New sources from research or archeology may prove or disprove long-accepted interpretations. Also, they can lead scholars to new hypotheses. A hypothesis is a tentative explanation that accounts for a set of facts. For example, there is no evidence of a separate indigenous race in the Americas. All available evidence to date has led to the hypothesis that Amerindian ancestors crossed an extinct land bridge in the area of the Bering Strait from Asia. However, this and any other hypotheses can be tested by new evidence found by further investigations. Students of global history must observe how different historians use facts and interpretations to:

- support hypotheses
- identify issues, values, differences of opinion, and raise relevant questions
- formulate a position and explore its consequences

Historians look at primary sources (originated at the time being studied) and secondary sources (analyses written later by...
Connections and Interactions
of People Across Time and Space

Sometimes we think of the past as dead and we ignore the powerful influence it has had on modern life. The forces that moved Christopher Columbus to venture across the Atlantic created the world we live in just as much as Congress approving funds for space exploration.

Actions taken in isolated places often influence life beyond that time and place. For example in Switzerland in 1868, Jean Henri Dunant formed a volunteer society to help people beset by difficulties. Today, his movement (now officially called the International Movement of the Red Cross and Red Crescent) aids millions in wars and natural disasters and promotes cooperation throughout the world. Another example is the 3,000 year-old caste system of India. It still affects the modern nation’s political, economic, and social life.

Across time and space, people have faced common issues and situations. Change is important in life, but continuity is a great force throughout the world. The more students read and learn about history, the more they appreciate that patterns of behavior are often remarkably predictable. Reacting to oppression, coping with geographic factors, tradition clashing with modern ways, leaders influencing events, and people migrating for economic improvement are all constant themes in history. Since they are common and very powerful forces, they are often the focus of historians’ work.

Time Frames and Periodization

Developing a sense of time helps students grasp patterns of human interaction. Knowing the meaning of the BC/AD division, centuries, and decades creates a sense of order. For example, the earliest civilizations evolved over 7,000 years. As agriculture was adopted, human contact slowly spread among the clans. Awareness of the length of this evolution helps students to see it as a basis for more rapid change and development in later periods. Another example is viewing how long the Roman Catholic Church was entrenched as the center of Medieval European life (400-1500 AD). This creates a

Skill Activity

Below is a list of time periods in European history:

- The Enlightenment
- The Neolithic Revolution
- The Cold War
- The Renaissance
- The Industrial Revolution
- The Protestant Reformation

Answer the following questions based on the information given above.

1. Look up the dates for the periods in the list and rearrange in chronological order.

2. Which period is chronologically most distant from the others?

3. Knowing the Renaissance came before the Reformation and the Enlightenment helps to explain the
   1. impact of its questioning spirit
   2. breakdown of the Roman Empire
   3. power of Soviet communism
   4. economic need for a single currency

Note to Student: On global history exams, chronology questions usually involve cause and effect relationships as in question number 3 above. Knowing when an event took place helps to see how it is related to what is being asked in the question.
sense of its power. Knowing major time periods helps in making time connections in narrative essays.

Place is also an important category of knowledge. As with time, knowing where an event occurs helps students see how events in proximity can influence others nearby. (Spatial relationships are further discussed under the geography section below.)

**Conceptual Themes**

Besides time and place, historians use other theme patterns based on certain ideas to clarify the past. Narrative essay questions on global history examinations often reflect these themes:

- multiple causation
- change and its effects
- ends influence means
- role of individual and group actions
- comparing and contrasting differing sets of ideas (religions, ideologies, philosophies) and detecting linkages among them
- moral and / or practical consequences of decisions

**Geography**

Geography is the study of the Earth and its features. It also studies the distribution of life on the Earth, including human life and the effects of human activity.

**Identifying and Defining World Regions**

A region is a large portion of the Earth’s surface, encompassing many inhabitants. Being precise about what defines a region is often difficult. Regions are usually unified by physical or human characteristics, such as proximity to an ocean (e.g., the “Pacific Rim”) or language and culture (e.g., “Latin America”) or a political system (e.g., the “Roman Empire”).

**Skill Activity**

Below is a sample constructed-response question focused on comparing and contrasting differing ideologies.

A "... the power to make laws is given to the many rather than the few. While every citizen has an equal opportunity to serve the public, we reward our most distinguished citizens by asking them to make our political decisions. Nor do we discriminate against the poor. A man may serve his country no matter how low his position on the social scale.” —Pericles, Funeral Oration

B “Whoever undertakes to maintain the organizational structure of another political party or to form a new political party will be punished with penal servitude up to three years, if the deed is not subject to other regulations.” —Law against the establishment of parties, Germany, 14 July 1833

Answer the following questions based on the information given above.

1. Which of the two documents supports democracy?

2. Compare the two documents on participation in government by citizens.
Skill Activity
Using a classroom map or World Atlas, identify the 8 regions of the world. Label the map below with the names of the regions.

In the modern world, political geographers usually refer to eight broad-based regions that are loosely connected by culture and history:

- Middle East
- Europe & Russia
- Sub-Saharan Africa
- South & Southeast Asia
- Central & East Asia
- Oceania & Pacific Rim
- North America
- Latin America

In history, perceptions of regions change often. Historians redefine them as circumstances change. For example, when civilization first developed in the Tigris-Euphrates-Nile area, historians called the region the “Fertile Crescent.” Later in the Classical Greco-Roman Era, historians referred to it as the “Mediterranean World.” A huge, sweeping region from North Africa to Pakistan and into Indonesia is religiously identified as the “Islamic World,” although the followers of Islam can be found in every region on the globe. Thus, regions shift and overlap. Their definition depends on the times and the contexts in which they are being studied.

Spatial Relationships

Geographic features have a significant impact on where and how people live. When studying history, geography helps explain the relationship of the natural environment and the human environment. Relationships to climate, water, land forms, and mineral deposits shape how people live and act toward others.

Distances alter relationships, too. One of the greatest expeditions in modern history, Napoleon’s 1812 invasion of Russia, failed in part because French commanders extended supply lines over too vast a distance and underestimated the harshness of the climate.

A more modern instance of geographic factors altering relationships is environmental conditions. For example, nations have industries whose pollution becomes airborne (e.g., acid rain) and affects conditions in other countries. Less developed countries (LDCs) balk when pressed by others to cut down their industrial pollution. The LDCs cite the need for income to raise their nations’ standard of living.

Studying the natural environment reveals much about how civilizations develop (e.g., river valleys as cradles of civilization). Relative location can indicate what motivates a nation (e.g., Russia’s traditional desire for navigable Baltic and Black Sea ports).

People identify with a place’s physical characteristics or have to adapt to them (e.g., mountaineers, islanders, forest dwellers). Their culture, music, and architecture can reflect such characteristics. An area’s livelihood may spring from geographic factors. Examples include fishing – a chief industry for Norway, and sheep herding for the Australian Outback. The Phoenicians became ship builders and therefore, traders in the Ancient Mediterranean World.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TERM</th>
<th>EXPLANATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meridian</td>
<td>an imaginary great circle passing through the North and South geographic poles; lines of <strong>longitude</strong> measuring East or West to 180 degrees of the Prime Meridian (0° - running through Greenwich, England)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel</td>
<td>any of the imaginary lines representing degrees of <strong>latitude</strong> that encircle the Earth parallel to the plane of the Equator (0°) measuring North and South to 90 degrees (geographic poles)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hemisphere</td>
<td>either the northern or southern half of the Earth as divided by the Equator, or the Eastern or Western half as divided by a meridian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continent</td>
<td>one of the principal land masses of the Earth, including Africa, Antarctica, Asia, Australia, Europe, North America, and South America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region</td>
<td>a large portion of the Earth's surface unified by physical or human characteristics such as language, culture, economic activity, or a political system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocean</td>
<td>any of the principal divisions of the Earth's salt water surface (71%), including the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans, their southern extensions in Antarctica, and the Arctic Ocean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea</td>
<td>a relatively large body of salt water completely or partially enclosed by land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strait</td>
<td>a narrow channel joining two larger bodies of water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bay</td>
<td>a body of water partially enclosed by land with a mouth accessible to the sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gulf</td>
<td>a large area of a sea or ocean partially enclosed by land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakes</td>
<td>a large inland body of fresh water or salt water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>River</td>
<td>a large natural stream of water emptying into an ocean, a lake, or another body of water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountains</td>
<td>a significant natural elevation of the Earth's surface having considerable mass, generally steep sides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>an elevated, level expanse of land; a tableland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plain</td>
<td>an extensive, level, usually treeless area of land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peninsula</td>
<td>a piece of land that projects into a body of water</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Climate

As a geographic factor, climate has often played a key role in human development. It shapes culture (e.g., desert dwellers are usually nomadic; monsoons govern the agriculture of the Indian Subcontinent). In each world region, the general climatic conditions govern human progress. Knowing these conditions can often help explain why things have happened in the region throughout history. The chart (key) and map to the right is an adaptation of a climate classification system developed in the Handbook of Climatology, Wladimir Peter Koppen (German, 1846-1940).

Organizing, and Analyzing Geographic Information

Maps (including navigation charts) are a primary way to organize geographic data for use in human activities. Map projections transform the spherical surface to a flat surface while minimizing the distortion.

Maps attempt to represent three-dimensional features in a two-dimensional format. Actually, a globe is the only accurate representation of the Earth's surface. Unfortunately, globes are difficult to handle, can only show the world at a very small scale, and the entire surface of the Earth cannot be viewed at one time.

Ancient cartographers (mapmakers) relied on sketches and stories told by seafarers. Modern cartographers employ technological devices and get data from satellites orbiting the Earth and computers linked to the Global Positioning System (GPS).

Working with different kinds of maps helps visualize historical events and patterns. Some maps are very technical and help navigators, surveyors, and military commanders. On the other hand, the maps in a global history book are called thematic maps. Thematic maps may portray hemispheres, climates, landforms, settlement patterns, the extent of empires, war strategies, and invasion and migration routes.
Just as there are many types of maps to study the globe and its history, there are many dimensions of geography. In a global history course, the geographic emphasis is on human geography. **Human geography** studies the changing distributions of people, their activities, and their interaction with the natural environment. Human geography blends understandings about culture, population, politics, and economics to help comprehend historic patterns.

**Skill Activity**

Using a classroom map or World Atlas, identify (by letter) and describe what each map below portrays.

Representative Maps used to describe or illustrate Global History:

- Physical (or Relief) Map
- Climatic Feature Map
- Population Distribution Map
- Thematic (Historic) Event Map
- Political Boundary Map
ECONOMICS

MAJOR ECONOMIC CONCEPTS

Students beginning a global history course require some grounding in economics, because it is a basic force underlying human activity. People need resources to produce the goods and services to sustain life and give comfort. The basic resources that humans use include:

- **Natural resources** – land, water, trees, minerals …
- **Human resources** – labor, talent, organizational skills …
- **Capital resources** – tools, computers, machinery, financial investment …
- **Information resources** – research, ideas …

These basic resources are vital to human existence. Yet, this is a finite world. While some resources are plentiful at certain times and in certain places, all resources have limits. This presents a very large, persistent problem in life: all the resources listed above are limited in some way. Economists call this the problem of scarcity – there are not enough resources to supply all the demands of humanity for all time.

Since there never has been enough of anything to meet everyone’s needs and desires, scarcity is a basic fact of life. It is also an uneven condition. In reality, supply never equals demand. Of course, at certain times, some people, living in some places, have plenty. Yet, it does not take very much searching to discover that most people on the globe suffer from a lack of resources in some way.

**Supply** is the amount of a resource or service available for meeting a demand. **Demand** is the amount of a resource or service that people are ready and willing to consume. Simply put on a global scale, the supply of resources is finite and the demand for resources is infinite.

**Decision-Making: Trade-offs and Sacrifices**

Scarcity forces individuals, families, communities, and nations to look at the limited resources they have and make basic decisions (and sacrifices). **Economics** is the study of how humans decide:

- What to produce?
- How to produce it?
- Who gets the products?

These questions seem simple enough on a personal level. Individuals assess their resources and consider their needs and desires. They decide to exchange their resources for something. Most often, they want a substantial amount of things, but only have the money for one thing. As a result, they **sacrifice (trade-off)** the purchase of one thing for another. That is **real cost** – the expenditure of resources plus the sacrifice of other opportunities to use the resources.

However, when groups of people have to make decisions, the process becomes harder. People have different values and needs. Satisfying everyone is difficult. Evaluating the needs of the present versus the needs of the future, setting acceptable priorities, and using resources wisely becomes very complex.

For example, should a society use its natural, capital, and human resources to produce pasta, vacuum cleaners, mobile homes, schools, and health care, or should it use those resources for bread, forklifts, computers, railroad cars, airplanes, bridges, and office buildings? (Remember, some resources, such as petroleum, are **non-renewable**. Once used, they are gone forever.) Trying to make decisions on this level can lead to conflict within a society. Civil wars can erupt when groups feel “cut out” of the decision-making process. Conflicting desires can also lead to struggles among societies. Countries have gone to war with others over trade differences, water rights, and mineral deposits.

**Economic Systems**

Societies, nations, and civilizations have evolved different systems or ways to make economic choices about scarce resources. Economists see three general systems for how societies make decisions about scarce resources: traditional, command, market. The kind of system found in a particular society evolves from various elements. These include historic experience, values, culture, the leaders’ political ideology, and current conditions.
### Basic Economic Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Decision-Making</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>based on past experience, custom, religion</td>
<td>common to small, primitive, isolated societies; labor-intensive, static, subsistence level, no chance to produce surplus</td>
<td>not equipped to deal with major change in natural or social environment; with no past patterns or guidelines to follow in emergencies, chiefs or clan elders had to issue orders to deal with dislocations until people could go back to their old ways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>Individual producers and consumers</td>
<td>flexible, rapid change</td>
<td>business activity fluctuates, makes long-term planning difficult; sometimes insecure and unstable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>government planners</td>
<td>slow-moving, often inflexible</td>
<td>personal initiative not rewarded; innovation is limited to government-sponsored programs; lack of competition affects quality of products</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most modern economic systems blend governmental (command) and individual (market) decision-making. These mixed systems vary. Availability of critical resources, cultural values, political and religious beliefs, limitations of the natural environment, and historic experience are just some of the factors that shape a society's mixture of command and market structures.

**Interdependence of Economic Systems Throughout the World**

In the modern world, especially in the age of the Internet, the choices being made every moment all over the globe mean resources are being shifted at a blistering pace. Making informed and well-reasoned economic decisions in a high-speed environment is not an easy task. Millions of individuals – producers and consumers – make resource choices daily. These decisions drive global markets. Public and private organizations or institutions – including various levels of government, corporations, unions, and political parties – make an unending array of decisions at every moment.

The availability (or lack of availability) of resources and the transfer of them on a worldwide basis is the foundation of modern existence. Just thinking about the array of products an individual uses in daily routines, shows the complexity of modern life. Where do these resources come from? How are they put together?

How do they get to the place where they are to be used? It also shows that interdependence is the driving force on the globe today.

Necessity links humanity, and yet, different values and perspectives divide people. Different economic systems and national agendas cause friction and conflict. Making global interdependence work demands understanding and cooperation.

**Political Science**

Political science is the study of the structures, activities, and behavior of government. Global history students need to see that the political philosophies that have evolved with human existence vary greatly. Students must reach beyond their awareness of their own system to compare government and politics in other places and times and note the similarities and differences among them.

**The Purposes of Government**

Humans, acting in groups, devise systems to make decisions concerning their common goals. A government is an agency that exercises control and administration of a political unit. Governments – small and large – regulate people and speak for people to other governments.
ECONOMIC DECISION-MAKING CONTINUUM  
*continuous with no part distinguishable from another part*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centralized Decision-making</th>
<th>Mixed Decision-making</th>
<th>Individual Decision-making</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Command Systems</td>
<td>Mixed Systems</td>
<td>Market Systems</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Modern economic systems fall along a simple continuum based on who is answering the three basic questions about allocation of scarce resources (WHAT to produce?, HOW to produce, For WHOM is it produced?). Most systems mix government (centralized) decision-making with individualized decision-making. Traditional systems are not shown on the continuum because there is no conscious dynamic of decision-making – traditions dictate the activities and allocations. If a storm were to disrupt the normal flow of activities in a traditional system, a village leader or council would have to consider the situation and consciously reallocate resources. At that point, tradition fails, and a command structure has temporarily replaced tradition.

Skill Activity

Answer the following questions based on the information given above.

1. In the 1990s, China's communist government began to allow private ownership of small business. Which system change is taking place?
   1. tradition to command
   2. command to market
   3. market to tradition
   4. command to tradition

2. When the tsunami (seismic sea wave) destroyed the boats and docks, the village council had to order all the pineapple growers to work with the fishermen with the rebuilding. Which system change is taking place?
   1. tradition to command
   2. command to market
   3. market to tradition
   4. command to tradition

3. Kelly's father orders her to give up a job at the mall and devote more time to building a grade-point average that will get her into college. Explain which system seems to be operating here.

4. What factors influence the type of system or mix of systems a society adopts?

Note to Student: On global history exams, questions on specific factual data or graphics usually come in series. The first one is usually directly from the material presented. The next question(s) ask you to apply broader historical concepts and contexts to the material.
**Types of Government (Who holds power?)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Type</th>
<th>Power held by</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monarchy</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>Louis XIV in France (absolute)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oligarchy</td>
<td>an enlightened few</td>
<td>Ancient Spartâ’s Ephors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td>many</td>
<td>Ancient Athens (direct); Current U.S.A. (representative democracy)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Political Concepts of Power, Authority, Governance, and Law**

Political science studies the principles on which governments rest, and whether they live up to those principles.

Historically, there have been many theories on where governments get their power and authority. The most common theories include:

- **Divine Right** – the belief that power comes to an individual or group from the authority of some supernatural force

- **Physical Power** – the strongest, or best armed, holds power and offers protection to the weaker

- **Consent of the Governed** – power is granted by the authority of the group being ruled

No matter what is deemed to be the source of authority, to keep control and order, governments need two essential powers – the sword and the purse. First, a government must be able to **enforce** the rules (sword) and order its desires. Second, a government must be able to **finance** (purse) its enforcement and provide services (usually through taxation). Even with these two essentials, a government’s **sovereignty** (supreme independent authority) can be limited in many ways, internally and externally. Internally, constitutions outline the power of government. They often set limits on the government’s scope and authority over the people within their authority. Externally, other governments could compromise sovereignty (e.g., a mother country exerting authority over a colony, or a federal government preempts some power of a state government).

Governments have come in all sizes and configurations – from the clan and tribal councils of primitive times to the superpowers and international governments of today. Some governments have established empires that ruled peoples across national, language, and ethnic boundaries. Modern nation-states have governments that operate at many different levels from villages to cities, counties, provinces, and states.

Governments usually reflect the values and needs of the power groups that run them. If security and order are high priorities, a unitary system may evolve where all authority is linked in a seamless chain of command from the national level through the local. Where freedom and diversity are prized, but order is still important, a loose federal system may form. It distributes power among a central government and subdivisions (e.g., states, provinces). Where individuality is essential, a fragile league or confederation may form. It has a weak central government with very limited power. The smaller units (states) in a confederation retain their sovereignty.

A key function of government is to control the society by setting the rules (laws) and enforcing them. **Law** is a system of standards of conduct, obligations, and rights. Laws include written statutes, administrative rules and regulations, and judicial precedents. There are five general types of law:

- **Constitutional Law** – outlines the body of rules by which the powers of government are exercised

- **Administrative Law** – governs the organization, operation, regulations, and procedures of government agencies
• **Private or Civil Law** – applies rules when one person claims that another has injured his or her person, property, or reputation

• **Criminal Law** – imposes penalties for antisocial behavior

• **International Law** – sets rules on boundary disputes, warfare limits, trade

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**Skill Activity**

“True law is right reason in accord with nature; it is of universal application, unchanging and everlasting...”

— Marcus Tullius Cicero, *Commonwealth* (51 BC)

**Answer the following questions based on the quotation above.**

1. Identify and explain what the source of law is for Cicero.

2. In their historic correspondence, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson said the United States must have

   “…a government of laws rather than men…”

   Why would Cicero agree?

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**Political Systems Around the World**

History shows many attempts of nations and empires to deal with others in rational ways. Yet, only in modern times have permanent organizations been created to promote peace, cooperation, and understanding. Founded as part of World War I's *Treaty of Versailles*, the *League of Nations* lasted from 1919 to 1946. It fell apart in the 1930s but some of its support systems lasted until the *United Nations* (1945) absorbed them. Both of these voluntary organizations became forums for debate and negotiations. The U.N. has gone beyond the League by sending international peacekeeping forces to trouble spots in the world. The United Nations is an international government in theory, but in reality, nations still cling to their sovereignty and do not always cooperate for peace.

Regional associations also have a long history. From the Peloponnesian League of ancient Greek city-states, to the North Atlantic Treaty Organization of modern times, governments have joined with others for defense and to promote trade. Yet, such associations have seldom exerted great control. In modern times, members of the *European Union* struggled to build a supranational government on the basis of the earlier Common Market’s economic cooperation to make Europe stronger in trade and economic competition.

**Rights and Responsibilities of Citizenship Across Time and Space**

Ancient societies and kingdoms did not always perceive individuals as citizens. Today, by virtue of either birth in a country or because of the citizenship of one or both parents, a person becomes a citizen. The citizen possesses certain rights and privileges and is expected to perform certain civic duties.

While various limits exist, in most countries a citizen has the right to:

- enjoy the country's protection and its laws
- hold and transfer all types of property
- vote
- seek elective office
- hold governmental positions
- receive welfare and social benefits

With limits, in most countries citizens have corresponding responsibilities to:

- pay taxes
- obey the laws of the nation
- defend their nation
- serve jury duty
DEFINING CULTURE
AND CIVILIZATION

THE MEANING OF CULTURE

Anthropology studies the cultural development and differences among human beings. Anthropologists define human culture as the sum total of human knowledge and acquired behavior of humankind. Anthropologists record customs and collect artifacts in order to reconstruct the history of societies. Most human societies are organized groups of individuals which have a set of behavioral rules that are transmitted from one generation to another.

ELEMENTS OF CULTURE

There is great diversity among human cultures but in all societies, anthropologists identify certain universals of culture (general concepts).

The key universals include:

- primary means of subsistence — for example, hunting and gathering, agriculture, industrialized labor
- some form of the primary or nuclear family
- system of kinship (extended family)
- set of rules of social conduct
- religion
- material culture (tools, weapons, clothing)
- forms of art

CULTURAL DIFFUSION

Cultural diffusion occurs when elements of one society's culture spread to other geographical areas and change other societies in some significant way. Sometimes religious beliefs, habit, and caution cause rejection, but usually there is a blending and absorbing of the new culture by the older one. For example, the denim jeans once worn by American prospectors, farmers, and cowhands are worn globally.

Skill Activity

Answer the following question based on the information given above.

1. Give a specific example of how any one (1) of the elements could affect the same element of another culture.
In history, Korea was a cultural bridge that filtered Chinese culture into Japan as early as the Ch’in Dynasty, 220 BC. The Crusaders of the 10th century AD observed a blending of Southwest Asian, African, and European ideas.

Today, diffusion is accelerated by “high tech” communications and fast modes of travel. Innovations spread throughout the world with great rapidity.

Of course, cultural differences exist, even within modern nations. When the differences are great or when there is a history of conflict, strains can arise. The violent confrontations among ethnic and religious groups in the Balkans (Bosnia, Croatia, Serbia) are examples.

**CONCLUSION**

A knowledge of the world gives an individual a better perspective on life. Mastering global history requires meeting standards involving a broad range of social sciences.

Understanding how historians analyze facts and ideas is the beginning point. But, the sense of history must be strengthened by the basic analytical tools of political science, anthropology, economics, and geography. Success in studying global history begins by acquiring a basic knowledge of these fields. It is worth the study time and effort to see the interdependence of the fields.
Unit 2

4000 BC – 500 AD

Hominids in Africa (4 million BC)

Neolithic Revolution (60,000 BC)

3500–
Menes unites Egypt (3,100 BC)

3000–
Sumerian City-states emerge (2700 BC)

2500–
Great Pyramids built (2400 BC)

2000–
Hammurabi’s Code (1792 BC)

1500–
Aryans invade Indus Valley (1500 BC)

1000–
Zhou overthrows Shang in China (1027 BC)

100–
Homer’s Iliad & Odyssey (800 BC)

500–
Roman Republic begins (500 BC)

500 AD
Alexander spreads Hellenistic culture (325 BC)

0 BC
Asoka expands Maurya rule in India (272 BC)

AD
Octavian begins Pax Romana (31 BC)

500
Fall of Han Empire (220 AD)

Constantine legalizes Christianity (313 AD)
EARLY PEOPLES
(PREHISTORY — 3000 BC)

Paleontology studies life in prehistoric or geologic times through fossil remains of animals, plants, and other organisms. Using scientific techniques such as radiometric dating, paleontologists trace the evidence of ancestral species of the genus Homo or hominid to 4.4 million years. Discoveries in Africa show species such as Australopithecus living in small family communities. Important sites include Olduvai Gorge (Tanzania) and others in Kenya and Ethiopia. Australopithecus were confined to the African savanna, but were nomadic.

Paleontologists have found evidence of a more advanced hominid, homo habilis, living in the Paleolithic Era, preceding the emergence of agriculture. Homo habilis showed the ability to make and use chipped stone implements. In the middle of that era, paleontologists have identified remains of an even more advanced hominid species — homo erectus.

Homo erectus lived in hunter-gatherer groups mastering fire, creating clothing, and using language while ranging over wide areas. The Zhoukoudian site near Beijing, China (first excavated in the 1920s) is evidence that homo erectus existed beyond Africa. Use of language enabled these groups to organize work and pass skills and culture to their young.

In addition to paleontologists’ work, knowledge of ancient life comes from archaeologists. These scientists study artifacts to gather knowledge of early human activity. Archaeological findings indicate that in the later part of the Paleolithic Era, approximately 100,000 – 26,000 BC, the modern hominid species emerged. This was homo sapiens or Neanderthals. Homo sapiens increased rapidly in numbers and migrated to the other continents.

Dating to 50,000 BC, the remains of Cro-Magnon homo sapiens, discovered in Europe and Asia, show significant development. These prehistoric people were still nomadic hunter-gathers. However, they lived in more permanent shelters and caves. They domesticated dogs for hunting, practiced primitive forms of medicine, and depicted life in cave paintings and stone figures such as those found in Lascaux (France) and Altamira (Spain).

NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION & EARLY RIVER CIVILIZATIONS

THE NEOLITHIC ERA (NEW STONE AGE)

Paleontologists and anthropologists detected a gradual fundamental change in human behavior occurring between 65,000 and 30,000 BC. Because the change was so radical, scientists call it the Neolithic Revolution. It began at different sites over a long period, but it...
marked a shift away from hunting-gathering to agriculture. Scientists have unearthed many simple farming sites that date to Neolithic times. Discoveries have been made in Thailand (Non Nok Tha on the Mekong River), in Southwest Asia (the Fertile Crescent of Mesopotamia, Egypt, Greece, Turkey, the Caucasus Mountains), in China (Yangshao culture on the Yellow River), and in Mexico.

In the Orkney islands off Scotland's northeast coast, are the remains of the Skara Brae settlement (c. 3000 BC). They indicate Neolithic peoples established remote villages devoted to herding, fishing, and primitive agriculture.

Agricultural life was more intense and organized than hunting and gathering. People had to work constantly to experience success. Yet, farming could provide a steady supply of food in one place, and that meant more people could survive and be secure. Families, clans, and communities grew. This led to a more settled form of civilization. Staying in one place, as opposed to nomadic movement, meant population increased, because better care could be offered infants. Staying in one place and waiting for crops to mature also allowed people to increase possessions and improve their lives. There was time to develop better techniques for making tools, utensils, pottery, and even jewelry. There is evidence in the ancient ruins of Jericho (Israel, c. 8000 BC) that more permanent dwellings multiplied into sizeable settlements with commercial activity, religious practices, writing, and central governments.

Technology developed rapidly in the settled agricultural communities. It accelerated the pace of change. The invention of the wheel and training animals to pull primitive wooden plows to till the soil made the lives of Neolithic farmers easier. These innovations also allowed time for developing other pursuits, such as weaving cloth, building strong, durable dwellings, and working with metals to make better tools and weapons.

Creating better weapons became important as villages clashed in wars over the land and the water needed to sustain their new agricultural way of life. Specialized talent, such as pottery and weapon making, led certain individuals to become artisans. Such specialization led to more technological progress such as making alloys by mixing metals (e.g., soft copper + soft tin = tougher bronze).

Cultural diffusion increased as individuals and groups traveled outside the community to trade for scarce goods.

Although farming was an individual or family pursuit, small-scale governments emerged from the need to make decisions involving the whole community. Chiefs and consulting councils deliberated on issues such as water rights, public works (e.g., irrigation systems, community grain storage), natural disasters, penalties for anti-social behavior, and defense against other communities.

Spiritual beliefs and rituals predate the Paleolithic Era. Neolithic farmers sought spiritual assistance, as they struggled to deal with the natural environment. Storms, floods, droughts, landslides, and earthquakes disrupted the cycles of agricultural life. Neolithic farmers' desires to control the forces of nature led most groups to create polytheistic worship systems for intercession and protection. Administering these worship systems gave rise to another new class - priests and shamans - that grew in power and prestige as the societies matured.

**CAUSES OF RIVER VALLEY SETTLEMENT**

Production of larger quantities of food drew Neolithic farmers to river valleys because of the availability of water and richer soils (silt or loess carried down river by currents and spread by floods). Rivers also made transportation and trade easier. It was natural for the early African and Asian cities and civilizations to emerge along the banks of major rivers such as the Nile, Tigris and Euphrates, Indus, and Huang He (Yellow).

The transformation of small agricultural communities into civilizations was complicated. Because of their location and management, some river villages grew into cities that evolved into commercial and administrative centers of...
civilization. These levels of human society were marked by complex social and political development. This development included key elements such as concentration of population into cities, surplus agricultural production to support city population, the adoption of writing for communication and records, calendars for keeping planting schedules, religious systems, central government, and specialized labor.

With river valley cities growing, large concentrations of non-agricultural groups such as priests, artisans, merchants, government officials, and military units presented a problem. Cities had to offer farmers protection and public services (dams, irrigation projects). These groups performed such needed services, but they depended on farmers to raise and deliver enough surplus products to feed them.

As cities grew and exerted authority over the surrounding region, traditional systems could not change to provide answers to rapidly changing economic needs. A barter system evolved with people trading goods and services for items they needed. However, bartering is cumbersome, and societies eventually developed money. Coins and paper money were first used in ancient China and were in widespread use after 1000 BC in most areas of human activity. However, bartering remained as a useful exchange system in local communities.

As life in early civilizations became more complex, so did economic decision-making. Simple village cultures evolved traditional economies. In these structures, people looked to past practices plus cultural and religious beliefs to decide what to produce, how to produce it, how products would be distributed, and even when tasks should be performed. Focusing only on rituals and on the past, traditional economies were static (not flexible) and not open to change or growth.

At first, priests, as spokesmen of the gods, exercised enough spiritual authority to make city governments work. As cities expanded in wealth, stronger demands for defense and the need for collecting revenue put warriors in positions of control. Enforcing the law, directing public works, and managing finances created a need for a bureaucracy.

When emergencies arose or conditions changed, the traditional societies had to temporarily convert into a command economic structure where basic decisions were made by a central authority. The rulers of the great cities sometimes issued commands that reallocated economic resources. For example, Egyptian pharaohs (rulers) ordered farmers and artisans to work on dikes, temples, pyramids, and other public works. This took people and raw material out of the normal flow and disrupted economic activity. In some cases, kings and their advisors began deciding what crops were to be produced, what supplies were needed, and in what quantities. However, these were never the comprehensively planned economic management systems one would find in modern command economies. After a special need was satisfied or an emergency was met, economic activity returned to being tradition-driven.

**CIVILIZATIONS DRAW INVASIONS**

When human populations settled into river valleys, reorganized into agricultural communities, built up cities, and engaged in commerce, they produced stability. Nomadic and seminomadic peoples on the edges of these civilizations were drawn to their better way of life. Because of the differences in behavior between the two groups, clashes often took place. Frequency of contact, coupled with the desire by the nomadic and semi-nomadic groups to acquire the advantages of the civilization, led to invasions. At times, the invaders destroyed the civilization. More often, they subdued the civilization and tried to confiscate wealth and live within them (sometimes enslaveing them). Quite often, the stronger, better organized culture of the civilization would absorb the invaders, and they would become part of it. Scholars refer to this as the process of assimilation. This process repeated itself over the thousands of years of these early river valley civilizations.

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1 civilization (level of human society marked by complex social and political development)
2 barter (trading goods and services without money)
3 money (exchangeable equivalent of all other commodities used as a measure of their comparative values)
4 revenue (government income from taxes and fees)
5 bureaucracy (a corps of administrators, clerks, and officials that carry out the laws, policies, programs, and decrees of a government)
6 assimilation (to incorporate and absorb into the mind)
RESULTS OF RIVER VALLEY SETTLEMENT

The expansion of river valley civilizations accelerated the growth of social institutions. Religious, governmental, and educational systems grew larger and became more complex. The spread of authority brought civilizations into conflict and wars of conquest increased. The building of temples and water control and distribution systems increased architectural knowledge and engineering technology.

OVERVIEW: ANCIENT EGYPTIAN CIVILIZATION:
5000 -1000 BC

GEOPGRAPHY

A warm desert climate (Koppen classification: BW type) and annual flooding (as opposed to steady rainfall) created a narrow corridor of rich land irrigated by the Nile River that attracted Neolithic farmers to the lower Nile Valley. Nearly 700 miles of rich silt ran from the Nile's first cataract (falls) through the Nubian and Libyan Deserts and into the wide delta at the eastern edge of the Mediterranean Sea. This rich northern third of the Nile was a stable environment for agricultural development. In addition, the river—world's longest river at over 4,132 miles—provided transportation for regional traders.

GOVERNMENT

Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt were united around 3100 BC by the Nubian King Menes (the first pharaoh). Succeeding pharaohs and dynasties created a strong absolute monarchy with the aid of viziers who presided over large standing armies and a bureaucracy of tax collectors, scribes, and officials. Tradition supported the pharaohs' claim to rule by divine right. Eventually, this concept elevated the pharaohs to the status of gods. Stability was also a key factor in the growth of Egyptian Civilization. For more than a thousand years, Egypt did not have to absorb large new populations with languages and ideas different from those already established.

Mini Assessment

1. Neolithic agricultural societies paved the way for civilization by
   1. converting earliest farmers into hunter-gatherers
   2. fostering settled and secure communities
   3. depicting life in cave paintings and stone figures
   4. mastering fire and using language while traveling over wide areas

2. Early civilizations arose along the Nile, Tigris-Euphrates, Indus, and Huang He because
   1. easy access invited invasion
   2. rivers contributed to nomadic lifestyles
   3. building materials were easy to find
   4. climate and geography favored agriculture

3. As cities expanded in wealth, which factor put warriors in positions of control?
   1. organization of religion
   2. educational systems
   3. demands for defense
   4. cultural diffusion

Constructed Response:

"Between the planting and the harvest, the Pharaoh decreed that all able-bodied farmers and artisans leave their fields and assist in building of his great temple."

—An Egyptian Diary

1. Why is the above quotation characteristic of a command economy?

2. Why might the building of a temple be more important to a ruler than agriculture?

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1. dynasties (family of hereditary rulers)
2. viziers (prime ministers)
3. divine right (god-given absolute right to rule with no responsibility to those ruled)
From 1550 to 1100 BC, pharaohs such as Queen Hatshepsut and Ramses II rebuilt power and extended the Egyptian Empire south into Nubia and northeastward into Palestine and Syria. After 1100 BC, Egyptian power declined again during waves of invasions from Assyria, Persia, Greece, and Rome.

**Writing and the Arts**

At an early stage, Egyptians developed a writing system based on **hieroglyphics** that flowed from “sacred carved letters” for holy scriptures. The writing was later streamlined into a cursive **demotic** for commerce. Scribes recorded events and transactions on stone and wooden tablets and later on paper-like **papyrus** plant leaves. This aided in the expansion and maintenance of the far-flung empire. Scribes compiled the **Book of the Dead** containing prayers and advice on achieving the afterlife.

In the arts, the ancient Egyptians left paintings and statuary to depict momentous events, conquests, and scenes from everyday life that tell us much about their 3000 year-old culture.

**Religion**

Egyptians were polytheistic. They worshiped deities such as **Ra Horakhty** – the sun-god (later Amon-Re), **Osiris** – the god of the afterlife, **Isis** – goddess of fertility and nature, and **Horus** – god of light and son of Amon-Re whom the pharaohs supposedly personified. In the 3000-1000 BC period, belief in an afterlife and

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1. **hieroglyphics** (pictorial symbols)
2. **demotic** (common language)
the early pharaohs’ belief in their own divinity led them to build monumental pyramid tombs. In the tombs, their bodies were mummified for the afterlife.

**Social Structure**

Egyptian society was stratified with the pharaohs at the pinnacle, followed by the priestly class, noble warriors, merchants and artisans, peasants, and slaves. Women in ancient Egypt had more freedom than in other ancient societies. They could own property, engage in commerce, and even be a priestess.

**Technology**

Egyptian scholars developed a 12-month calendar, geometric systems for land development and reclamation, elaborate irrigation and dike systems, and surgical procedures and pharmacology in the medical field.

**Architecture**

The great stone pyramid tombs and temples to various gods in places like Giza and Karnak are still considered monumental achievements in building technology.

**Legal Systems**

Justice was administered tightly through provincial governors and magistrates who were controlled by the pharaohs’ bureaucracy. Judgments were arbitrary and adhered to central bureaucratic codes.

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1. mummified (process of maintaining the dead body of a human being or an animal that has been embalmed and prepared for burial, as according to the practices of the ancient Egyptians)

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**Mini Assessment**

1. In ancient Egypt, which item was a cause of the other three?
   1. stable agricultural development
   2. geometric systems for land development and reclamation
   3. warm desert climate and annual flooding of the Nile
   4. building elaborate irrigation and dike systems

2. Which factor contributed most to the growth and development of ancient Egypt for the thousand years after King Menes rule (c. 3100 BC)?
   1. polytheism and slavery
   2. flexible social structure
   3. widespread use of hieroglyphics
   4. unity and stability

3. The importance of religion in ancient Egypt is portrayed in the
   1. development of medical sciences
   2. divine right rule of the Pharaohs
   3. dominance of warriors over other groups
   4. courts following central bureaucracy codes

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**Constructed Response:**

"If the Nile smiles, the Earth is joyous, Every stomach is full of rejoicing Every spine is happy Every jawbone crushes its food."

— ancient Egyptian hymn

1. Why did Egyptians find joy in the annual flooding of the Nile?

2. In what ways did the Nile unify Egyptian society?
OVERVIEW: ANCIENT MESOPOTAMIAN CIVILIZATIONS: 5000 - 1600 BC

GEOGRAPHY

Mesopotamia means "land between the rivers." It has the generally mild mid-latitude desert (Koppen classification Bw) and steppe (Koppen classification Bsk) climates of Southwest Asia. The mild climate and dual river system created an environment for agriculture. The Tigris and Euphrates flow southeastward from the highlands of Turkey and empty into the Persian Gulf. This Fertile Crescent cradled a number of civilizations (see map below). The need for irrigation and flood control often brought groups together from which city-states eventually emerged.

Sumer/Akkad (3100-2000 BC) were the first of the major Mesopotamian civilizations. The ancient city-states of Erech, Kish, Lagash, Uruk, and Ur were first unified as a monarchy by the Akkad's leader Sargon the Great (c. 2300 BC). Akkad rule weakened, and Ebla and Ur briefly dominated the region until 2000 BC.

Babylon/Assyria (2000-500 BC) became strong after an invasion by the Amorite people of western Syria. The Babylonian's great leader, Hammurabi (c. 1792-1750 BC), unified the city-states into a kingdom. He oversaw a golden age of scientific, legal (see Code of Hammurabi), and literary achievement. Afterwards, the region was dominated by the Hittite Empire (modern Turkey) and Assyria.

Babylon reemerged for a brief period from 800-500 BC. The great king of this era, Nebuchadnezzar (c. 612 BC) built the famed Hanging Gardens and enslaved the Hebrews of Israel. The Babylonian Empire fell to two Persian conquerors, Cyrus the Great (c. 559 BC), and Darius (c. 500 BC).

GOVERNMENT

City-states had different forms of government such as monarchies and oligarchies. The unified empires were monarchies ruled by priest-warriors such as Sargon and Hammurabi.

WRITING AND THE ARTS

Sumer originated cuneiform¹ (c. 3100 BC). It is believed to be the world's first writing system and slowly evolved into an easier-to-use script writing. Sumer set up schools for training scribes in cuneiform. Sumerian literature includes the epic tale of the heroic king, Gilgamesh. Stone carvings, jewelry, and pottery celebrated great military victories and were tributes to the gods of the various cities.

RELIGION

Although Mesopotamians had polytheistic beliefs, each city-state had its own special god as protector (e.g., Marduk, protector of Babylon) and a large ziggurat² to honor the god. After 600 BC, the Persian conquerors introduced the monotheistic teachings of Zoroaster. His sacred book, Zend-Avesta, taught devotion to the one god, Ahura Mazda, and the god's fight against evil. The religion spread rapidly throughout the areas under Persian rule.

¹ cuneiform (wedge-style ideographs on wet clay tablets)
² ziggurat (pyramidal templo to honor a god)
Social Structure

The social hierarchy of the Mesopotamian civilizations varied little from that of Egypt. The rulers, priests, and nobles were at the top, the artisans and merchants made up a small middle class, and the vast majority were peasants. Slaves were conquered people taken as hostages in wars or debtors who sold themselves and their families into bondage. Mesopotamian women were more subject to the will of their husbands than those in Egypt. However, they could own possessions, operate businesses, and own and buy slaves.

Technology

Mesopotamian culture introduced bronze for use in tool and weapon making. The Hittites introduced iron during their invasions of the region (c. 1400 BC). Mesopotamian cultures developed a 12-month lunar calendar and the sundial. The feared Assyrians introduced wheeled chariots that made their mobile armies invincible. The Babylonians developed higher mathematics (algebra, geometry - 360 degree circle).

Mini Assessment

1. In which way did ancient Egypt and ancient Mesopotamia differ?
   - Mesopotamia enslaved conquered people. Egypt did not.
   - In Mesopotamia, merchants exercised power. In Egypt, priests exercised power.
   - Mesopotamia had competing city-states. Egypt had a unified kingdom.
   - Mesopotamia had an independent court system. In Egypt, the Pharaoh dominated the courts.

2. In addition to being great warrior-kings, Babylonia's Hammurabi and Nebuchadnezzar were also
   - lawgivers and builders
   - businessmen and religious leaders
   - farmers and scholars
   - geographers and mathematicians

3. Which was the most common reason for the emergence of city-state societies in Mesopotamia?
   - organization of religion
   - educational systems
   - irrigation and flood-control
   - slave labor

Constructed response:

Sumerians developed cuneiform, using a wedge-shaped implement on clay tablets to represent syllables and sounds.

1. Cuneiform was an early system of __________.

2. Why did scribes hold such a special position in ancient civilizations?
ARCHITECTURE

The Sumerians introduced canal-building for transportation, flood relief, and irrigation to offset scarce rainfall. The canals unified the area via commerce and travel. Mesopotamian cultures also introduced the arch allowing more flexibility and strength in building design.

LEGAL SYSTEMS

Priests, sometimes acting as magistrates, enforced the king's laws such as the Code of Hammurabi. The Code was an ordered arrangement dealing with labor, personal property, and business. It sought to protect the state and the gods, promised harsh penalties, and held that the strong should not injure the weak.

OVERVIEW: ANCIENT INDUS VALLEY CIVILIZATION

The earliest ancient river valley civilization of the Indus Valley was the Harappa culture. It was a group of related, but widely dispersed, cities in northwestern India (modern Pakistan). Remains of the cities of Mohenjo-daro and Harappa show they were contemporary with civilizations of Egypt and Mesopotamia. These cities spread over a wide region. They were well developed with grid patterns, large blocks, and uniform housing. Surrounding farmers produced a wide variety of grains.

Floods and other ecological disasters weakened the civilization around 1700 BC, but some scholars believe there was a final massacre. It may have been done by conquering Aryan peoples whose epics refer to their conquest of walled cities.

From 1500-500 BC nomadic people, called Aryans from the Black and Caspian Sea region of central Asia, invaded the Indus Valley. They descended south and eastward through the Hindu Kush (western Himalayas) with horses, chariots, and cattle. Their rajahs enjoyed war, chariot races, and festivals. As herdsman, their wealth was measured in cattle, and they frequently raided each others' herds. Merging with the native people of the Indus Valley, they gradually changed to agriculturalists.

GEOGRAPHY

The Himalayas to the north and deserts to the west of the Indian subcontinent cut off the people but did not completely isolate them. As with Egypt and Mesopotamia, mild climates (Koppen-type: Bs [steppe], Cw [mid-latitude mild] made the area hospitable. However, life in the subcontinent was (and still is) determined by the monsoons. In summer, air rising over the hot land areas produces maximum precipitation. Inland mountain streams contribute to the Indus, Ganges, and Brahmaputra Rivers. During winter, cool winds from the interior of Asia dry the subcontinent. A late monsoon may bring drought, and a few more monsoon disturbances than normal may produce floods.

GOVERNMENT

The Indus Valley cities of the 4000-2000 BC era appear to have been well-organized. Yet, little is known about their governmental structures.

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1. rajahs (warrior chiefs)
2. subcontinent (large landmass, such as India, that is part of a continent but is considered either geographically or politically as an independent entity)
3. monsoon (wind system that influences large climatic regions and reverses direction seasonally)
There are no known records of great kings or empires uniting these early settlements.

**Writing System**

Archaeological evidence shows that Harappans placed pictograms on commercial seals, but no other evidence of writing has been found, and the images remain a mystery. Later, under the Aryans, children attended school and learned the written language, Sanskrit, which has constructions similar to those found in English, Spanish, French and German. From Sanskrit evolved hymns and epics (the 100,000 verse *Mahabharata* and the 24,000 verse *Ramayana*).

**Religion**

Early religion involved polytheistic worship of gods connected to nature and an eternal spirit, *Brahman Nerugna*. The Hindu religion’s holy books stemmed from centuries of oral traditions. The *Vedas* were written down between 1500 and 500 BC. The *Vedas* represented a cultural blend of Aryan religious ideas with those of original peoples of South Asia. Over many centuries, their religious customs flowing from the *Vedas* and other epics gradually merged into Hinduism.

Between 800 and 400 BC, Hindu beliefs were blended in the writings that became the *Upanishads*. The key idea was that all living things have souls under *Brahman Nerugna* (the one eternal spirit). Even animals became sacred, and killing them was forbidden. This moved Hinduism toward vegetarian practices. The *Upanishads* also taught the concept of *reincarnation*. The object of life was to commit to the ideal way of life through *dharma* and *ahimsa*. The soul had to move through several reincarnations. In each successive phase of existence, actions and conduct (*karma*) had to be purer. Ultimately, this would lead to achieving *moksa* with Brahman Nerugna.

**Social Structure**

The *Vedas* outlined the 5 basic *varnas* from which grew subclasses called *jati*. This developed a very complex and rigid *caste system*. To some extent, the system remains in place today. The five classes, in order of importance or rank in Vedic/Aryan society were:

- **Brahmins** (priests) = ± 1% of population
- **Kshatriyas** (warriors) = ± 9% of population
- **Vaisyas** (herders, farmers, merchants, artisans) = ± 10% of population
- **Sudras** (servants, laborers) = ± 30% of population
- **Pariahs** (outcasts, slaves) = ± 50% of population (later called untouchables)

Aryan society was male-dominated, but women played active economic and social roles. In the earlier Harappan civilization, women had high status. In later Aryan society, women were more restricted.

**Technology**

Harappans were among the first people in the world known to have kept chickens. They also had dogs, buffalo, and cattle. They may also have had domesticated pigs, horses, camels, and possibly, elephants. The Harappans cultivated wheat, barley, and cotton. Their artifacts show varied pottery forms and designs along with spears, knives, and other objects of copper and bronze.

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1. reincarnation (rebirth of the soul)
2. dharma (responsible action and conduct proper to the varna - social class)
3. ahimsa (non-violence)
4. karma (the total effect of a person’s actions and conduct)
5. moksa (liberation from the world and union with Brahman Nerugna)
6. varnas (social classes)
Literary Works of Ancient India

Mahabharata relates the turbulent history of the ancient kingdom of Kurukshetra and contains the teaching of the god Krishna. With the Ramayana, the Mahabharata is the principal source of Hindu social and religious doctrine.

Ramayana describes the efforts of Kosala’s heir, Rama, to regain his throne and rescue his wife, Sita, from the demon King of Lanka, Ravana.

Bhagavad Gita is one of the most widely studied sacred writings of Hinduism. Taken from the Mahabharata, the Bhagavad Gita, written as a poem, is Krishna’s response to questions posed by Arjuna, a warrior prince, concerning his responsibility in good and evil as he is about to go into battle.

Architecture

Harappan cities were remarkably similar. Each had baked brick construction with a citadel (fortress) at the center, silos for grain, baths, sophisticated dikes, and drainage systems against floods. Aryans were nomadic peoples and left few significant architectural remains in the Indus Valley.

Overview: Ancient Chinese Civilization

Geography

The Huang He (Yellow) River Valley is surrounded by mountains on three sides and bordered by the Pacific on the east. This environment gave protective isolation to the early Neolithic farmers who were drawn by fertile loess and

Mini Assessment

1. Which frequent pattern characterizes the Aryan conquest of Harappan civilization of the Indus Valley?
   1. Warriors settled down to become hunter-gatherers.
   2. Conquerors blended into conquered civilizations.
   3. Technological progress was reversed.
   4. The values of the conquerors obliterated the religion of the conquered society.

2. A major determinant of life in the subcontinent of India is the monsoon, a
   1. wind system influencing large climatic regions
   2. ranking system of social classes
   3. process for domesticating animals
   4. Sanskrit writing system

3. Harappan cities were similar in construction and layout. What does this indicate about their political organization?
   1. Democracy allowed for diversity.
   2. Harrapans had highly centralized rule.
   3. Only the educated held high office.
   4. Harrapans had no political organization.

Constructed Response:

1. Which of the groups below make up the majority of the people in Aryan Society?

2. Why are priests and warriors considered superior in social status in ancient civilizations?

1% Priests
9% Warriors
10% Herders, Farmers, Merchants, Artisans
30% Servants, Laborers

50% Outcasts, Slaves, Conquered Groups
water resources. The rainy, mild winter and rainy cool winter climates (Koppen-types Cf and Df) made the area hospitable. Like those in other river valley civilizations, the early Huang He inhabitants had to deal with periodic flooding from winter snow melt and summer monsoons. Though not as intense a factor as in the Indus Valley, the summer monsoons blowing across China from the Pacific intensified flooding in the Huang He River Valley.

**Government**

As with other river valley civilizations, the common need for flood control and irrigation projects led to the organization of governments. Although myths and legends go back to before 5000 BC, the first documented Chinese civilization was the Shang Dynasty (1700 BC). Up to c. 1027 BC, Shang rulers gradually conquered a large area of the Huang He River Valley. From the walled capital Anyang, the Shangs controlled a loose confederation of settlement groups in the Henan region of Northern China. The kingdom was divided among loyal family members and followers. Control was in the form of a *feudal system*. It involved the exchange of military service by *vassals*¹ for a noble's grant of land, and it bound them together by complex codes of allegiance, honor, and duty. The right to govern was a modified divine right system called the "Mandate of Heaven." This meant the ruler's power depended on heaven's continued favor of his personal behavior. If nobles or war lords sensed a dynasty was weakening and losing divine favor (or even because of severe natural disasters sent by the heavens), the dynasty could be replaced.

Around 1027 BC, King Wu, leader of the Zhou (Chou), a semi-nomadic people from the northwest (Xi'an), overthrew the weak Shang king, Zhouxin. The early Zhou rulers continued most practices of the Shangs. They reorganized a bureaucracy of aristocrats in the central region and put the outlying areas under the rule of vassals. After 770 BC, the Zhou kings presided over a period of great intellectual achievement — China's "Golden Age." It developed classical Chinese literature and the philosophies of Confucianism, Taoism, and Legalism.

**Writing System**

Shang civilization was characterized by an advanced system of ideographs that evolved into a complex universal writing system of 10,000 basic characters. *Calligraphy*² became an admired skill. The king's scribes recorded much ancient oral myth in works such as *I Ching* and

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¹ vassals (subordinate people who held land from a feudal lord and received protection in return for homage and allegiance)
² calligraphy (creative and artistic manner and style of fine handwriting)
The Book of Songs (c. 500 BC).

Social Structure

The classes in China were similar to those in other early river valley civilizations – warriors, artisans, merchants, peasants. The warriors' feudal code also had a parallel in civilian life in the form of complex rules of social etiquette and personal deportment called **II**.

Technology

Artisans of the Shang and Zhou civilizations practiced sophisticated skills with bronze and iron. These ancient civilizations also had a system of coinage, developed the first 365-day calendar, used chariots in war, and cultivated silk and soy bean crops.

Religion

As was the case in Mesopotamia, the Shang kings functioned as high priests of the supreme deity, **Shang-Di**. Aided by a priestly class, the Shang kings called on their powerful ancestral spirits to intercede on their behalf with the gods of nature. The people looked to the most powerful of the Shang gods to bring rain for good crops and other blessings.

Records of these priestly activities have survived in the form of **oracle bones**. Priests wrote questions about the future on animal bones, heated them until they cracked, and interpreted the cracks. One key spiritual belief for the ancient Chinese was that life revolved around maintaining a balance between the opposing forces in the universe – **yin** (represented by the Earth/Moon) and **yang** (represented by Heaven/Sun).

**Chinese Symbol – Yin Yang**

1. scholars note that the earliest of China's dynasties, the Shang, exercised control through a feudal system. This involved the exchange of military service for a ceremony to pacify angry gods central bureaucracy contract to build great temples grant of land

2. Functioning as high priests of the supreme deity increased the Shang kings power because the people expected them to control the philosophy of Confucianism interpret the oracle bones maintain a balance between yin and yang intercede with the gods to bring rain for good crops

3. Shang and Zhou warriors had a technological advantage against enemies in using calligraphy oracle bones the mandate of heaven wheeled chariots

**Constructed Response:**

Use the relief map on the opposite page to assist in answering the following questions:

1. Which physical barriers surround China?

2. In what way did the environment of China differ from ancient Egypt, Mesopotamia, and India?
CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS
AND CONTRIBUTIONS

GEOGRAPHY OF CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS

In the period between 600 BC and 500 AD civilization expanded rapidly out of the river valley "cradles" and over the continents of the globe. The search for economic betterment, acquiring resources, and seeking trade caused civilizations to expand. That expansion spread the ideals and philosophies, religions and institutions, and laws and technologies born in the river valleys. In most cases the spread of civilization and economic enrichment set the scene for "golden ages" of intellectual and creative achievement.

Despite a sometimes near paranoiac fear of outside influence and invasion, Q'in and Han rulers spread China's civilization from the Huang He Valley southward into the Yangzte and Si River Valleys. They influenced life to the north and east toward Manchuria, Korea, and Japan. Their merchants spread westward through the deserts and mountains of Central Asia toward Persia along the Silk Route (see pg. 51). In the process, China became an empire.

The Indus River Valley Civilization spread eastward into the Ganges Valley and across the northern plains of the subcontinent. With Maurya and Gupta rulers came the spread of Hinduism and Buddhism.

Out of Mesopotamia grew the Persian Empire of Darius and Cyrus who conquered lands east to the Indus and west around the Mediterranean Basin into Egypt, North Africa, Asia Minor, and the edge of Europe. They created tight-knit administrations by dividing their empires into provinces. They protected merchant caravans so that trade and commerce would strengthen the ties of their realms.

New empires arose in this classical period as older ones weakened. On the edges of ancient empires, seafaring traders built sophisticated societies that linked the older civilizations. The Lydians, Minoans, and Phoenicians traded with the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Hittites across the Eastern Mediterranean Sea. To broaden their commerce, they sailed westward and founded colonies that reached into less developed areas. They settled and traded from stations on Cyprus, Crete, Sicily, the islands of the Aegean and the Adriatic Seas, and the Greek mainland. The societies they contacted developed and grew into Hellenistic, Carthaginian, and Roman civilizations.

First, Greek city-states colonized the Mediterranean World. Then, Alexander spread Hellenistic culture from the Mediterranean to the Indus. Eventually, Rome wrested control of the Mediterranean from Carthage and went on to build an empire that stretched from the British Isles to Egypt and Syria.

In the turmoil of this great economic and political expansion arose the great world religions. Hinduism, Judaism, Buddhism, and Christianity spread along the cultural highways of the great empires.
CLASSICAL CHINESE CIVILIZATION

By 256 BC, the Zhou (Chou) Dynasty began to disintegrate as various vassal states warred with the Zhou kings. The fighting with local nobles destroyed the 800-year rule of the Zhou Dynasty.

A new dynasty emerged from the struggles that followed the downfall of the Zhou – the Q'in (or Chi'in). It lasted only a brief time (221-206 BC), but it united all the warring factions into China's first centralized empire. The young Q'in king adopted the title Shi Huangdi (First Emperor).

During eleven years, he and his chief minister, Li Si, replaced feudal states with military districts. They assigned military officials to govern them while requiring nobles to live in the capital. They standardized weights and measures, coinage, and the language. They built roads to move troops quickly throughout the empire. Shi Huangdi squashed opposition and began building the Great Wall for defense against nomadic invaders. Li Si made the Legalist school of philosophy the basis of the system. Shi Huangdi built irrigation systems as well as huge palaces and tombs. In the 1970s AD, excavation
of the grave complex of Shi Huangdi in Xi'an (Sian) yielded a magnificent treasure of life-sized terra cotta men and horses.

After Shi Huangdi's death in 210 BC, harsh policies and high taxes led to unrest among nobles. Conditions indicated the Qin had lost the mandate of heaven and the dynasty was overthrown in 207 BC.

A new ruling family emerged under peasant military leader, Liu Bang (or Liu Qi, r. 210-195 BC), who founded the Han Dynasty. It ruled China for the next 400 years (210 BC-220 AD). China experienced another golden age of culture. Liu Bang created a central government system, trained a scholarly corps of Confucian administrators, and picked the most able among them to run his government. The dynasty grew stronger over the next 100 years.

The greatest of the Han emperors was Liu Qi (Liu Chi), later called Wudi (Han Wu Ti - martial emperor). He ruled for half a century (141-87 BC) and began China's classical golden age. Wudi developed a testing system for civil officials to avoid corruption. He pushed the Han borders northward into Manchuria and Korea, outward to the Pacific, and westward into Tibet. With expeditions to drive nomadic peoples away from China's borders, Han armies brought back knowledge of civilizations in the west such as Persia, Greece, and Rome. Ancient Central Asian trade routes were re-explored and China's silk found markets in the Middle East. At the same time, agricultural products such as figs, dates, and grapes found their way to China.

Confucianism became the Han official belief system. Scholars returned to studying Classic works of the Zhou era. Poets such as Sima Xiangru flourished, and Shi Ji (Records of the Historian, c. 100 BC), the first major history of China was written by Sima Qian. The growth of an educated class led to achievements in astronomy, chemistry, medicine, engineering, and literature. Under the Han leadership, trade expanded marked by walled cities with magnificent wooden temples.

ANCIENT HEBREW CIVILIZATION

Around 2000 BC, a nomadic people of the Fertile Crescent settled on the eastern Mediterranean shore (Canaan) and founded the ancient civilization of the Hebrews. It became unique for its contribution of monotheistic religion - Judaism. It remains the oldest living religion in the Western World. Its value system - concern for ethical behavior, justice, and the dignity of the individual - became the moral foundation for Western civilization.

The Torah, the first five books of the Hebrew Bible (called the "Old Testament" by Christians), became the basis for Judaism. According to the Bible, the one true God promised the Hebrew leader Abraham special protection for the twelve tribes (descendants of his grandson Jacob, or Israel). The ancient Hebrews developed a system of law (Halachah) encompassing personal, family, and social responsibilities, as well as civil and criminal procedures.

Famines caused the tribes to migrate from Canaan to Egypt (c. 1800 BC) where they became enslaved. Around 1200 BC, the Hebrew leader, Moses, led a mass exodus into the Sinai Desert. Following the exodus, Moses received the divine revelation resulting in basic laws called the Ten Commandments.

Several military campaigns resulted in the Israelite tribes resettling in southern Canaan or Palestine. By 1000 BC, David was able to unite the tribes into a Kingdom of Israel. His son, Solomon, turned Jerusalem into a major urban settlement and erected a great temple for worship.

1 terra cotta (hard, semifired, waterproof ceramic clay used in pottery and building construction)
2 monotheistic religion (belief in one God)
After King Solomon's death (c. 930 BC), dissension and revolts split the kingdom and weakened it. In the 8th century, Assyria conquered Israel and Judea. In 586 BC, Jerusalem was destroyed and the Hebrews were enslaved and exiled to Babylon (Diaspora).

In 539 BC, the Persian King Cyrus the Great allowed the Hebrew exiles to return and resettle in Palestine – the southern area of their former kingdom, near the Dead Sea – living as a subject people of the Persians. After Persia fell to Alexander the Great (c. 330 BC), their country of Judea was dominated by Egypt and Syria, and Jews resettled throughout the Middle East. There was a brief period of independence for Judea under the Maccabees (139-63 BC) before Judea came under the rule of Rome in 63 BC. Later, many of the teachings of Judaism became the basis for two other great monotheistic belief systems, Christianity and Islam.

**ANCIENT GREEK CIVILIZATION**

Unlike early civilizations, Greek civilization did not arise from river valleys, but from migrations and trading ventures of other peoples on the edges of the older civilizations. Archaeologists theorize that the first Greek speaking peoples, the Mycenaeans, migrated from Central Asia into the Balkans around 2000 BC. They conquered the Greek mainland, Peloponnesus and finally settled Crete.

In the mild, rainy climate (Koppen-type Cs) of the Mediterranean and Aegean Seas, the Mycenaeans set up a trading empire that lasted until 1200 BC. From their chief fortified cities at Mycenae (Peloponnesus) and Knossos (Crete) warrior-kings had commercial connections to most of the civilizations of the Eastern Mediterranean. There was great cultural diffusion as the trade contacts blended elements of Egyptian, Mesopotamian, and other cultures into early Greek or Hellenic culture. The Mycenaeans amassed huge fortunes in their citadels and kept tight control through palace
bureaucracies. Mycenae declined because of a combination of natural disasters and wars with surrounding peoples, such as the fabled Trojan War (c. 1300 BC), described by Homer in the Iliad.

Other regional people launched conquests. By 1100 BC, the invasions by a northern warlike people, the Dorians, began an era when civilization faded amid constant warfare from 1200 to 800 BC. Each small polis (city-state) grew in strength, but remained as isolated outposts of civilization in the rugged terrain of the Balkan peninsula. The poet Homer's Iliad and Odyssey are epic poems of life in this chaotic era.

Two factors kept communication alive among the Greek poleis1 (plural of polis): the sea and religion. The rocky coasts and islands forced Greeks to look to the sea for survival. They became fishermen and traders for food and resources, which brought them into rivalries with each other, but also brought them into alliances. Sailing farther for goods also brought them into contact with other civilizations. As they traveled, they absorbed others' ideas and customs. The Hellenic alphabet evolved from contacts with the Phoenicians of the Eastern Mediterranean coast.

The ancient Greeks were also unified by worshiping a similar pantheon2. They celebrated common festivals of the gods, whom they believed resided on Mount Olympus. Delphi was a sacred city where the temple of the god Apollo became a religious center that drew Greeks from most of the poleis. The prophecies of the oracle3 that resided at Delphi were used to help rulers make key decisions. This common religious contact led to a sharing of values that supported rules among the poleis on basic conduct in war.

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1 poleis (city-states of ancient Greece)
2 pantheon (all the gods of a people)
3 oracle (an authoritative religious counselor)

---

**MAJOR DEITIES IN ANCIENT GREECE'S OLYMPIAN PANTEON**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>God</th>
<th>Associated With</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zeus</td>
<td>King of the gods; most prominent deity of Greek mythology; god of the sky, lightning, rain; a ruler-father, sovereign, and controller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hera</td>
<td>goddess of the original inhabitants of Greece; of marriage, virtue, women, and childbirth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athena</td>
<td>patron goddess of Athens; wisdom and good sense; a major warrior figure; creator of the olive tree and handicrafts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hermes</td>
<td>protector of flocks and shepherds; guide and protector of travelers; conductor of souls to the underworld; messenger of Zeus; bringer of good luck; patron of orators, writers, athletes, merchants, and thieves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aphrodite</td>
<td>goddess of love and beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>god of prophecy, medicine, the fine arts, archery, beauty, flocks and herds, law, courage, and wisdom; god of the sun, light, truth, and music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artemis</td>
<td>goddess of the hunt; mistress of wild things; the protectress of youth and women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poseidon</td>
<td>producer of thunder; also the earth-shaker, god of the sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dionysus</td>
<td>god of fertility, ritual dance, and mysticism; supposedly invented wine making and was considered the patron of poetry, song, and drama</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mini Assessment

1. The spread of civilization beyond the "cradles" of the river valleys
   1. strengthened the original river valley civilizations
   2. set the scene for great "golden ages" of cultural achievement
   3. had a negative effect on global communications
   4. led to equality among all ancient peoples

2. The Q'in Dynasty (221-206 BC)
   1. created the first democracy in the ancient world
   2. conquered India, Persia, and Egypt
   3. relaxed strict laws and lowered taxes
   4. united factions into China's first centralized empire

3. The Mycenaean established the base for the first Greek civilizations that developed into
   1. poleis
   2. oracles
   3. pantheons
   4. monotheists

Constructed Response:

"And God spoke these words, saying: I am the Lord your God, which [who] has brought you out of Egypt, out of the house of bondage. You shall have no other gods before me ..."

- Exodus

1. According to the quotation, why did the Hebrews leave Egypt?

2. In what way did the ancient Hebrew belief system differ from those of surrounding cultures?

Greek Influence in the Mediterranean World

Between 750 and 500 BC, the Greek city-states prospered and their populations grew. They colonized other areas of the Mediterranean (see chart below). Colonies supplied their "mother city" with agricultural products. As Hellenic civilization spread across the Mediterranean, trade expanded. Markets grew for Greek oil, wine, and other products in return for precious metals, timber, and grain.

Greek City-State Colonial Expansion: 8th - 6th Century BC

Note: Neither Sparta nor Athens were colonial powers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother City</th>
<th>Colony</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corinth</td>
<td>Epidamnus, Corcyra, Syracuse, (greatest Greek city in the west)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalcis (modern Khalkis)</td>
<td>Naxus, Scione, Methone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miletus, Samos, Phocaea,</td>
<td>Side, Appolonia, Istrus, Odesseus, Olbia, Theodosia, Sinope, Siri, Elea, Nicaea, Agatha, Hemerscorphian, Molaca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thera, Samos, and Rhodes</td>
<td>Gelia, Lipari, founded kingdom of Cyrene in northeast Libya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Megara</td>
<td>Byzantium, Megara Hyblaia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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In 546 BC, Cyrus the Great of Persia (599-530 BC) conquered Lydia near the Ionian coast (today = Anatolia or western Turkey). Ionia revolted in 499 BC, and Persia's King Darius I (522-480 BC) put down the revolt. Darius then tried to punish Athens for aiding the rebels. Athens surprised the Persians and defeated them at Marathon (490 BC). Darius' son, Xerxes (485-465 BC), attacked Athens again in 480 BC. Sparta aided Athens and a sea attack

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RIVAL CITY-STATES - ATHENS AND SPARTA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SPARTA</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location:</strong> Peloponnesus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Founders:</strong> Dorians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economy:</strong> agricultural (non-colonial)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labor:</strong> helots (farm slaves or serfs) and foreign artisans provided most labor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Order:</strong> military society; boys went into military training at age 7; from ages 20-30 men did frontier military service; at age 30 they married but lived in barracks until age 60; women given physical training to increase strength to marry at 14-19 to breed sons for the military; women were not citizens but could own property and interact socially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government:</strong> oligarchy evolved slowly; dual kings had military role, but did not govern; the assembly (all male citizens over 20) had general law-making role; main power was in Council of 5 Ephors (veto power over actions of the Assembly); a Council of (28) Elders formed the judiciary and counseled the Assembly and the Ephors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **ATHENS**                             |
| **Location:** Attica Peninsula         |
| **Founders:** Mycenaeans               |
| **Economy:** seafaring traders and some (non-colonial) agriculture |
| **Labor:** common people were artisans, and farmers; middle and upper class were merchants and traders; conquered people, used as slaves, did mining, farm work, and tutoring |
| **Social Order:** private education for males 7-18 (studies included math, literature, music, and rhetoric, as training for citizenship); 2-year military service, ages 18-20; no formal education for females, trained at home in domestic skills |
| **Government:** democracy evolved slowly; at first, just natural born landholders could be citizens; later, all males could be citizens regardless of class and participate in the Assembly; later, foreigners could become citizens; from 621-508 BC there were periods of rule by tyrants (benevolent dictators supported by the Assembly): |
| - Draco (621 BC) encoded laws; severe punishments |
| - Solon (594 BC) abolished debt-slavery; bicameral legislature (Council of 400 = aristocrats plus Assembly=commoners) |
| - Peisistratus (561 BC) reformer; redistributed land |
| - Cleisthenes (510 BC) expanded democracy; Assembly chose military high command and a lottery chose Council of 500 (= bureaucracy); developed a large scale jury system |

| **Achievement:** strong military role in Greek conflicts (Persian and Peloponnesian Wars); strict military rule and tight social control stifled intellectual development, creativity, and technical advancement |
| **Achievement:** prosperity led to an expansive creativity, especially in drama, and allowed the city to adorn itself with magnificent public buildings such as the Parthenon (c. 447) |
Prosperity meant homes and public buildings reflected more care in design. The 5th century design of the Parthenon, the great temple to Athena, manifests the Athenians’ love of beauty and simplicity. The simple rectangular building is surrounded by slim, yet substantial Doric order columns. They give the building a sense of depth, height, and strength that pays tribute to the beloved goddess. The low, triangular pediment (roof gable) and columns are a design that has been used for centuries.

PARthenon
©PhotoDisc, Inc 1994

cut off Xerxes’ supply ships and destroyed his fleet at Salamis.

The clashes with Persia raised the Greek city-states’ consciousness of their wealth and power but did not unite them. Athens became the central polis of a naval alliance — the Delian League. Athens came to dominate the League and drew tribute from other members. Sparta, because of pride in its different social and political order, resisted Athens’ leadership. Sparta formed a military alliance of its own — the Peloponnesian League. Eventually, the two city-state alliances clashed.

GOVERNMENT IN THE GREEK CITY-STATes

At first mostly monarchies, the Greek poleis gradually changed into many different forms of government. As wealth grew, kings (monarchs) were challenged for power. Eventually, power in most city-states shifted to a small number of individuals. The general name for rule by a small group is oligarchy. There are various types of oligarchies, depending on the nature of the decision-makers. For example, as the growth of trade increased the wealth of landholders, merchants, and artisans, these wealthy groups sought more decision-making power. They formed the type of oligarchy called an aristocracy.

As Hellenic education, knowledge, and military service broadened to encompass more members of the community, some city-states sought to bring larger numbers of citizens into the process of decision-making. Rule by a broad-based citizenry is democracy. While only a few city-states like Athens ever offered participation to the majority of inhabitants, establishing limited democracy had a great influence on civilization. Opening government decisions to debate and opinions of a large number of people (but not all) set an enduring example in human affairs. The ideal of a true, universal participation became a goal still sought by people.

RIVAL CITY-STATes – ATHENS & SPARTA

In the 5th century BC, the rivalry between Athens and Sparta spawned a great conflict. While not colonial powers, their leadership in the Persian wars elevated them to the strongest powers in Greece — Athens through trade and a strong navy and Sparta through its stringent military discipline. They symbolized differing social and governmental systems of the ancient Greek poleis.

ATHENS v. SPARTA: PELOPONNESIAN WAR

Athens rebuilt itself with great energy after the destruction of the Persian Wars, and its culture reached a peak during the golden Age of Pericles (461-429 BC). The Athenians created beautiful temples (including the Parthenon) on the Acropolis (high hill). Pericles’ skill as a statesman elevated...
Athens to supreme power over other city-states in the Delian League (Aegean Sea area) and created an Athenian Empire. Pericles once boasted, "Athens is the school of Hellas."

Sparta faced internal problems (slave revolts) after the Persian Wars, but began to oppose Athens' power by forming a rival alliance (Peloponnesian League) and helping Megara (c. 457 BC) when attacked by Athens. In 431 BC, both city-states began military campaigns against the other's allies and colonies. The plague (typhus) killed one-third of Athens population in 429 BC. Each power tried to unsettle the other's government. Sparta built Persia a navy in exchange for a pledge not to attack Ionia. Sparta then laid a successful siege against Athens which surrendered in 404 BC. The thirty years of warfare divided, weakened, and impoverished the Greek cities. Sparta's harsh leadership led to continuous challenges in the next sixty years. The poleis clashed and skirmished constantly in the 4th century BC. The continual conflicts weakened them until Macedonia conquered Greece in 338 BC.

Greek Contributions

The Greek poleis contributed greatly to government structures in the world. Because they were small, the city-states created models of different types of government (monarchy, oligarchy, democracy). In each polis, a basic type of government emerged and was then modified as the centuries ensued. Some were strict, some benevolent, but all had characteristics that have been studied and emulated, even in the modern world. None is a better example than Athens. Its evolution into a participatory democracy created a model for later generations.

As Hellenic civilization prospered, it entered what historians call its classical period - the most artistically developed stage of a civilization. Like all people, the Greeks dealt with processes of difficult problems (inter-city competition, foreign invasions, civil wars, class wars, slave revolts, natural disasters, plagues, and famines). Yet in the 5th century BC, their civilization produced a level of expression in the arts, literature, philosophy, and science that became a lasting legacy.

As with other civilizations that prospered, artisans and craftsmen had time to perfect their skills and aspire to make them pleasing to their clients. First, potters experimented with different shapes and designs. Then, they embellished their urns\(^1\) and other vessels with scenes from life or myths. From the earth or from shipwrecks have come painted urns that show scenes from everyday life as well as lyrical scenes depicting the exploits of heroes from the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*.

\[\text{Statue/Columns on South Porch of the Erechtheum on Athens' Acropolis near the Parthenon} \]

\[\text{©PhotoDisc, Inc 1994} \]

The Greeks cherished beauty and order. They admired perfection of the human form. The sculptures of athletes, warriors, gods, and goddesses by *Myron*, *Phidias*, and *Praxiteles* realistically celebrate the power and strength of a great people.

The Greeks not only revered the human spirit and form, but the perfection of the human mind. Before the Age of Pericles, groups of Greek thinkers abandoned the idea that life was controlled by the gods. These *philosophers*\(^2\) observed and analyzed the world around them, questioning the causes of what they saw. In science, figures such as *Democritus*\(^3\), and *Hippocrates*\(^4\) began to work in fields such as

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1. urns (vase with footed base)
2. philosophers (scholars who analyze the processes of reason)
3. Democritus (studied composition of matter, the atom)
4. Hippocrates (studied medicine, plant compositions)
physics, biology, and chemistry. Pythagoras expanded knowledge of geometry, music theory, and astronomy.

In the 5th century BC, as Athens entered the Age of Pericles, the Sophists emerged. They were a group of teachers who turned their attention from science and philosophy skills to practical studies – politics, law, and rhetoric.

Many Greek scholars rejected the approach of the Sophists as too narrow and materialistic. These anti-sophists devoted themselves to pure thought, universal truths, and seeking answers to questions about justice, ethics, and beauty. Three leaders who opposed the Sophists gradually helped Greek philosophy become the enduring basis for the intellectual life of Western civilization – Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle.

Socrates’ (c. 469-399 BC) work marked a turning point in Western philosophy. Through the Socratic method, he moved philosophy toward consideration of virtue and principle. His beliefs, especially the use of reason, became known through the work of his student, Plato.

Plato’s (c. 428-347 BC) work presented the great concepts of philosophy, psychology, logic, and politics. In 387 BC, he founded the Academy and spent most of his life there teaching philosophy and the sciences. Plato’s writings are nearly all written as his version of dialogues between his hero, Socrates, and others. His greatest work was The Republic, in which he presents an ideal political community and the education needed by its rulers. Plato distrusted democracy and wanted an orderly society run by philosopher-kings. Plato’s philosophy strongly influenced Islamic, Byzantine, Roman, and Mediaeval European thinkers for centuries.

Aristotle’s (384-322 BC) work strongly influenced the fields of logic (On Interpretation), ethics (Metaphysics), physics (Meteorologica), biology (History of Animals, Parts of Animals), and literary criticism (Poetics). In government, Aristotle leaned toward a benevolent form of monarchy. In 335 BC, he founded his own school, the Lyceum. One of his students was Alexander the Great. Learning focused particularly on the detailed study of nature. Historically, Aristotelian philosophy dominated Western thought. It is the foundation for many modern intellectual disciplines.

Once Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle redirected philosophy toward the search for truth, a variety of sects emerged. Examples include:

- **Cynics** (Diogenes, Antisthenes) believed happiness is achieved by cultivating virtue and self-control.
- **Epicureans** ( Epicurus) believed knowledge is based on sense perception.
- **Stoics** (Zeno) believed virtue is achieved by seeking a reasonable outlook and not giving way to emotion.

The ideals of beauty and order show themselves in the Classical Greek style of literature. The poetry of Sappho, Pindar, and Aeschylus influenced the themes and metrical pattern of poets for centuries. Greek drama reflected not only myths and legends but also the great debates of philosophers. The comedies and tragedies of the Age of Pericles are still performed today. The Greeks also applied their literary skills to writing accurate history.

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1. rhetoric (effective public speaking)  
2. ethics (moral behavior)  
3. Socratic method (teaching by asking questions)  
4. virtue (moral excellence, right behavior, goodness)  
5. philosopher-kings (an educated elite group of citizens)
Mini Assessment

1. Most of the poleis of ancient Greece were controlled by
   1. oligarchs  3. philosophers
   2. oracles     4. foreign kings

2. Athens and Sparta headed rival alliances of Greek city-states which clashed in the
   1. Poleis Wars
   2. Persian Wars
   3. Pantheon Wars
   4. Peloponnesian Wars

3. The combined work of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle in Greece’s classical period created
   1. widespread support for the Sophist philosophy
   2. an intellectual basis for Western thought
   3. the basis for democracy in all the poleis
   4. new theories on the origin of the universe

Constructed Response:

“... Until philosophers are kings, ... cities will get no rest from troubles and neither will mankind. Then only will this State of ours see the light of day with a good chance of survival.”

— Socrates speaking in Plato’s The Republic

1. According to the quotation, on what does the survival of the State depend?

2. Why is having education an important quality for a ruler?

Herodotus (the father of history) and Thucydides focused on sifting fact from the stories and legends of the past.

Spread of Hellenistic Civilization

By the middle of the 4th century BC, the Greek poleis weakened due to their continual infighting. To their north on the Balkan Peninsula, a new kingdom arose to dominate them – Macedonia. In 356 BC, Philip II, a skillful leader became king of Macedonia. Methodically using force and diplomacy, Philip won control of Delphi and its allied cities in central Greece. Then, in 338 BC, he conquered Thebes and Athens. Philip had dreams of leading his new Hellenistic kingdom against its traditional enemy, Persia. However, he was murdered in 336 BC.

Philip’s son, the brilliant Alexander the Great was a student of Aristotle’s and only 20 years old when he succeeded to Macedonia’s throne. The young warrior carried out Philip’s dream of a magnificent new empire. Historians refer to this as the Hellenistic Age (c. 324 to 27 BC). To avoid confusion of two similar terms, Hellenic refers to the culture developed during the classical age of the Greek poleis. The Hellenistic culture is post-classical; it developed after the Greek poleis faded in power. Hellenistic culture emerged as a blend of the cultures of the vast region conquered by Alexander the Great and extended to the beginning of the Roman Empire under Augustus.
Alexander began his conquests by crushing revolts in the Greek cities (336 BC). In the next two years, he threw the powerful Macedonian cavalry and phalanx into an onslaught of campaigns that overpowered the Persians in Palestine and Egypt. In the next ten years (334-324 BC), he moved his forces steadily eastward, overpowering strong resistance from local Persian administrators. The result was a grand empire that stretched from Greece to the Indus River Valley.

Alexander ordered the building of libraries and centers of learning such as that of Alexandria, Egypt. There, the knowledge of classical Greece fused with that of the East. Alexander’s empire was short lived. In 323 BC, he died in Babylon as he was returning home from the Indus Valley. The Greek traders and artisans that supplied his armies diffused their culture, blending it with the cultures of Egypt, Palestine, and Persia. Intermarriage of his soldiers with inhabitants of conquered territories intermixed the cultures even more.

The result was a new Hellenistic civilization that carried learning and the arts to new heights. Hellenistic scholars looked at nature and studied patterns and laws. They organized bodies of knowledge in science and mathematics. Pythagoras and Euclid blended knowledge of three continents into the basis of geometry. In science, Aristarchus (Earth orbits the Sun) and Archimedes (water displacement, principles of simple machines) began to work in fields such as astronomy and physics.

After Alexander’s sudden death, his generals broke the empire into Asian, Egyptian, and Macedonian dynasties. The Greek city-states once more fell into struggles for power.

**Rome: City of Conquest**

According to tradition, members of the Latin tribe founded Rome in 753 BC. From the 7th to the 1st centuries BC, Rome’s citizen warriors (lifetime military service was required as it had been in Sparta) conquered all of the Italian Peninsula, Sicily, and Carthage. In the process, Rome’s government moved from monarchy, to republic, to dictatorship. The Etruscan kings of the 7th century BC drained marshes around the Tiber and built the Circus Maximus and the Forum, but they were hated by the Latins.

By 200 BC, Rome’s new strength was rising in the central Mediterranean. By the 2nd century BC, it was growing into a major power. Before it fell 600 years later, it conquered Greece, much of Alexander’s former holdings in the Eastern Mediterranean, and eventually, most of North Africa and Europe.

Rome conquered Macedonia and made it an imperial province in 146 BC. Rome’s rulers allowed Greek poleis autonomy and preserved and protected the more important ones, such as Athens, as centers of learning. The Romans’ admiration of Greek civilization led them to take for their own much of the Greek culture – art, architecture, technology, education, and religion (see chart above).

As imperial army legions moved through the Eastern Mediterranean, Roman leaders replaced monarchs and reorganized kingdoms. Some areas overthrew their traditional rulers in places such as Pergamum and Palestine.

**The Roman Republic**

The Roman Republic evolved over a long period. In 509 BC, the Roman Senate, an advisory body to the Etruscan kings, overthrew the monarchy. The Roman republic (res publica – “the peoples’ thing”) began as an oligarchy of
patricians\(^1\). The patricians of the Senate created the laws of Rome and elected two consuls\(^2\). To limit power, consuls were elected annually and served for only one term. As the city grew, other officials were selected to serve under the consuls, and a bureaucracy emerged.

Not all Romans participated in the patrician government. Women, slaves, and foreigners were excluded. The plebeians\(^3\) were second class citizens. They paid taxes, did military service, but had no voice in the government. By the 5th century BC, the plebeians began campaigning for more rights. They demanded the laws be written and made public. In 450 BC, plebeian agitation led the patricians to place the **Laws of the Twelve Tablets** in the Forum. They became the basis for the Roman legal system. The plebeians' **Assembly of Tribes** gained the right to have tribunes\(^4\) address their concerns in the Senate, and some plebeians were appointed to administrative positions. In 366 BC, plebeians could be chosen consuls. Finally, in 287 BC, the plebeian Assembly of Tribes earned the right to make the laws for the republic.

**MOVING TOWARD EMPIRE**

During the era of the Republic, Rome's military organization and tightly disciplined citizen-army conquered the Italian Peninsula. The Romans copied the battle tactics of the Greeks and Macedonians, but split their legions into smaller, highly mobile forces of 100 men (centuries). Part of the Romans' success was the management of conquered peoples. They created military colonies (permanent occupation forces) within the conquered territories. They conscripted conquered soldiers into their legions. They allowed some people to govern themselves, while giving others limited Roman citizenship.

In 264 BC, Rome came into conflict with another great Mediterranean power – the Phoenician city of Carthage in North Africa. In the three Punic Wars, Rome and Carthage struggled for control of the Western Mediterranean. In the **First Punic War** (264-241 BC), Rome took the grain producing island of Sicily, becoming a sea power in the process, but Rome also lost nearly one-fifth of its citizens in the war. In 238 BC, the Romans took Sardinia and Corsica and threatened Carthage's colonial settlements in Spain.

In the **Second Punic War** (218-201 BC), Carthage's great general, Hannibal, launched an invasion from Spain, crossing the Pyrenees and the Alps and swooping down on Rome from the north. The Romans suffered heavy losses and lost control of the Gauls in the north. For the next six years, Hannibal won battles on the Italian Peninsula, but was unable to conquer Rome itself. In 210 BC, the Roman general Scipio cut Hannibal's supply lines in Spain, and in 204 BC, Scipio crossed the Mediterranean and invaded Carthage itself. Hannibal had to transfer his efforts to defend Carthage. The Romans decisively defeated Carthage in 202 BC.

Over the next fifty years, Carthage rebuilt its economy, but did not break the peace of 202 BC. Still, Rome saw Carthage's recovery as a threat to its power and allies in the Mediterranean. In the **Third Punic War** (149-146 BC), Rome attacked to protect its North African ally, Numidia. Rome destroyed the city of Carthage, ruined its land, and sold the Carthaginians into slavery.

**THE END OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC**

Constant warfare in the 2nd century BC against Carthage and subduing the peoples of the Eastern Mediterranean, Spain, and Gaul took an economic toll on the republic. Some individuals became wealthy using slave labor to work *latifundia*\(^5\) to supply the city and the Roman legions. The average Roman citizen did not share in this wealth but had to pay increasingly burdensome taxes for imperial conquests.

The political unrest that festered at the end of the 2nd century BC broke into civil war in the 1st century BC. Between 130 and 100 BC, reformers such as tribunes Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus offered hope of land reform, but mob violence tragically ended their efforts. Consul Gaius Marius (r. 104-100 BC) began to pay army volunteers from the poorer classes, creating a professional army. Marius was overthrown by aristocratic General Lucius Sulla in a civil
The Colosseum is one of Rome’s most famous landmarks. Begun in 69 AD by the Roman Emperor Vespasian, this massive amphitheater has survived although greatly damaged in many wars. Today, the Colosseum faces its greatest challenge from corrosive air pollution.

**ROMAN COLOSSEUM**
*PhotoDisc, Inc 1994*

war in 88 BC. Sulla became dictator and purged the plebeians from the leadership, restoring patrician rule. In 70 BC, consuls Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus joined with Senator Julius Caesar to form a **triumvirate** and restored stability to Rome.

The internal disruptions of the early 1st century led outlying provinces to rebel against Roman rule. Once the triumvirate settled problems in Rome, the ambitious Caesar and Crassus took armies to quell the outlying areas. Crassus died in battle in Persia in 53 BC. Caesar was successful in subduing Gaul (Gallic Wars) and spreading Roman control into northern Europe.

Pompey and the Senate feared Caesar’s legions were too powerful and would overthrow the government. In 49 BC, Pompey and the Senate ordered Caesar to leave his army and return to Rome. Caesar marched his legions on Rome and began a civil war (49-45 BC). He pursued Pompey’s forces through Eastern Mediterranean, North Africa. In Egypt, Caesar made Cleopatra his mistress and then queen. Finally, he ended up in Spain. After eliminating this opposition, the Senate appointed Caesar dictator-for-life.

Caesar changed the tax structure, reordered the land holding system, expanded Roman citizenship to all Italy and many provinces, and reformed the calendar. He was popular and, as his power grew, so did the fear he would change Rome into a monarchy. In 44 BC, Brutus and Cassius, leaders of Caesar’s enemies in the Senate, assassinated him.

Another civil war ensued. Caesar’s followers, **Marc Antony, Marcus Lepidus**, and his nephew **Octavian**, defeated his enemies and formed a new triumvirate. In the next twelve years, the harsh, three-way dictatorship disintegrated. Lepidus was removed from power and Octavian and Anthony quarreled. Anthony fled to Egypt and allied himself with Cleopatra. Octavian defeated Anthony and Cleopatra in a great naval battle (Actium, 31 BC) and became sole ruler of Rome. This was how the Roman Republic met its end.

**THE ROMAN EMPERORS**

Octavian established himself as **princeps** (first citizen) and chief army commander but turned the Republic into a monarchy. In 27 BC, he took the title **Imperator Caesar Augustus** (exalted emperor). The Emperor Augustus (r. 27 BC-14 AD) continued Julius Caesar’s reforms, and oversaw a golden age, the **Pax Romana**. Augustus secured the borders of the empire, consolidated it with roads and a postal system, and expanded commerce, Roman art, and architecture.

Augustus’ successors, **Tiberius** (r. 14-37 AD), **Caligula** (r. 37-41 AD), and **Claudius** (r. 41-54 AD) were sometimes cruel, but continued the imperial development. The last of Augustus’ relatives, Nero (r. 54-68 AD), began the persecutions of the Christians. Nero’s successor,
Vespasian (69-79 AD), restored order and had the Colosseum built. Other significant Roman Emperors included:

- **Trajan** (98-117 AD) pushed the Empire northeastward and created a series of aqueducts.

- **Marcus Aurelius** (161-180 AD) expanded the Empire in Europe and reformed taxes.

- **Diocletian** (284-305 AD) transformed the Empire into a true monarchy, created a royal court and a civil service, employed forced labor, raised taxes, and divided the Empire into eastern and western regions.

- **Constantine the Great** (306-337 AD) reorganized the empire and provinces, created an occupational caste system to stabilize the economy, moved the capital to Byzantium (Constantinople), and legalized Christianity.

**The Decline of the Roman Empire**

The Pax Romana began to disintegrate in the 3rd century AD. The Roman Senate lost all of its power and the military deposed and installed a constant procession of mediocre emperors. During this period of internal chaos, support for the legions defending the borders and frontiers also declined. **Teutonic invaders** (Germanic tribes - Vandals, Goths, Saxons, Alemanni, Franks) assailed the Roman forces in northern Europe and Spain. These “barbarian attacks” disrupted commerce. Supply lines for food and raw materials were interrupted. Shortages plagued the cities of the empire and prices of scarce goods rose. Without raw materials, artisans cut production. Workers were laid off, incomes were reduced, and tax revenues declined. The entire economic system fell into chaos.

**Contributions of the Roman Empire**

The Romans became blenders and adapters of many cultures over the centuries that they ruled their vast Empire. Roman law, flowing from the Twelve Tables (c. 450 BC), was precise in logic and organization. However, Roman law was not a law of equality. It was applied differently to different classifications of citizens and non-citizens. Roman law did create a consistent basis for the laws of the Empire.

Latin became the common tongue of the Empire, and helped to unify a vast region. Latin
also became the language of the Christian Church and continued to be the intellectual language of Europe for more than 1000 years.

The cultural impact of Rome was great. Roman legions and administrators brought the diverse culture of the Empire to remote provinces, villages, and towns on far-flung frontiers. Roman engineers and architects adapted the columns and stonemasonry of the Greeks and other great civilizations to build an infrastructure\(^1\). Roman builders combined the columns, triumphal arches, and domes into magnificent palaces, temples, forums, fortifications, bridges, aqueduct systems, and road networks. In a large sense, the Romans were not original thinkers in philosophy and the pure sciences like the Greeks. Instead, Romans were appliers of other cultures' theories. They studied and modified others' ideas and applied them to practical needs.

In literature, Roman poets such as Virgil (Aeneid, c. 19 BC) and Ovid (Metamorphoses, c. 8 AD) provided lyrical tales connected to the past glories of Rome and Greece. Others, such as Horace and Juvenal wrote to amuse and entertain. Roman historians (Livy, Tacitus) were precise, but still sang their country's praises.

The power of the Roman legions and navy created a vast, protected region in which trade and exchange of ideas flourished. Food and raw materials for artisans came from the provinces to Rome. Traders took manufactured articles to the world beyond. Their commerce flowed over Roman roads to all points of the Empire and beyond, via the Silk Route and other caravan routes to Persia, China, and elsewhere in Asia.

The Romans revered Greek and Hellenistic art and philosophy and saw themselves as preservers of ancient culture. Yet, after the chaos of the 3rd century AD, the Greek connection faded in the west. After Constantine made Byzantium his capital in 324 AD (and renamed it Constantinople), Greek civilization gave strength and cultural grounding to the Byzantine Empire.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. A similarity between Alexander the Great's empire and the Roman Empire is that both
   1. started as small republics
   2. were undermined by new religions
   3. adapted and spread Greek civilization
   4. disintegrated after initial conquests

2. In the century after the Panic Wars against Carthage, the Roman Republic experienced
   1. a golden age of intellectual achievement
   2. a strengthening of the role of the Senate
   3. devastating invasions by barbarians
   4. political unrest and economic problems

3. Rome's cultural contributions to Western civilization rested on
   1. adaptation and preservation of Greek and other cultures
   2. conquest of Teutonic tribes and outlying peoples
   3. suppression of religious movements
   4. a long succession of brilliant emperors

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**Constructed Response:**

The events listed below occurred between the 4th and 5th centuries AD. Use these events to construct an outline on the lines below.

- Loss of a central government
- Weak emperors
- Fall of Rome
- High taxes and rising prices
- Decline of unified language and culture

**Title:**

A. Causes:

B. Effects:
THE MAURYA EMPIRE IN INDIA

In the centuries after the ancient Harrapan culture succumbed to the invasions of Aryans (c. 1500-500 BC), civilizations in the Indus Valley remained divided into small kingdoms. There was a great deal of commercial contact with the Persians to the west. Alexander the Great conquered the western area of the Indus around 327 BC.

At about the same time, farther eastward, in the Ganges Valley in the Himalayan foothills, the Kingdom of Magadha expanded. Its king, Chandragupta Maurya (r. 321-237 BC), conquered neighboring kingdoms. Chandragupta built an impressive armed force, and he created a bureaucracy to administer his conquests. The roads he built to carry troops and messengers encouraged caravan commerce. By 303 BC, The Maurya Kingdom stretched from the plains of the Ganges across northern India.

Chandragupta’s kingdom eroded after he turned power over to his son. His grandson, Asoka (r. 272-232 BC), reconquered lost territories and had extended Maurya control across the subcontinent to the Indus Valley by 250 BC. Guilt over the terrible toll of human life taken by his armies at Kalinga (c. 268 BC) led Asoka to renounce war and convert to Buddhism. His philosophy of non-violence led him to send Buddhist missionaries to all parts of his realm and beyond. He installed pillars on which laws were inscribed (the so-called “Rock Edicts”), and his administration of justice followed the moral guidance of dharma. He built public works, dredged harbors, and made travel and commerce easier.

The Mauryas ruled for another sixty years, but weaker successors changed to harsher policies and the kingdom declined. Various groups from Persia and central Asia invaded and set up kingdoms in the Indus and Ganges and the central portions of the subcontinent for the next 500 years before the new Gupta Dynasty could rise and consolidate rule.

CLASSICAL CIVILIZATIONS AND GLOBAL TRADE

MARITIME TRADERS: PHOENICIA

Classical civilizations were often linked by smaller groups of people that lived on their edges and carried trade and culture among the great empires of the ancient world. Phoenicia was a small, loosely united group of city-states (Sidon, Tyre, Ugarit) clustered along the eastern Mediterranean coast. Related to the Canaanites, the Phoenicians were traders and manufacturers (cedar wood, purple dyes, glass, wine, weapons, and metal and ivory) who appeared in Egyptian and Mesopotamian history as early as 3000 BC. Location and trade even made the Phoenicians influential in Israel’s development. The Phoenicians of Tyre supplied materials for King Solomon’s legendary temple at Jerusalem in the 10th century BC.

Because of their location and economic drive, the Phoenicians never became politically powerful. They were dominated by the great powers of the
region (Egyptians to 1200 BC, then successively by the Assyrians, the Babylonians, the Persians, Alexander, and finally the Romans after 64 BC).

As traders, the Phoenicians ranged far and wide in the Mediterranean World. After 1000 BC, they established trading stations (small colonies) on Cyprus and Sicily. By 800 BC, they were sailing their ships toward the Atlantic, and establishing colonies on the North African coast at Carthage, Sicily, and in Spain (Cadiz).

The interaction of trade created a Phoenician culture that mixed Egyptian, Greek, and Mesopotamian characteristics. The Phoenician alphabet, which emerged in the 1500s BC was adapted by the Greeks about 800 BC and became the basis for the languages of Western Europe.

**OVERLAND TRADERS: THE SILK ROUTE**

Besides the connections made by seafaring peoples, there were other groups that provided overland links among classical civilizations. In western Asia, various groups established trade between civilizations of the Eastern Mediterranean and Mesopotamian regions and China. As early as 2500 BC, merchants created a trade route that became known as the Silk Route (or Silk Road). It was a series of caravan paths that ran from the Caspian Sea, through treacherous Pamir Mountain passes, around the Takla Makan Desert in Central Asia, and into western China’s Xi’an Province. Samarkand and Tashkent became important commercial centers along the way.

The Silk Route was also a cultural link between East and West. For example, over its pathways, caravans spread ideas of a variety of cultures, such as Buddhist beliefs from India. Companies of travelers spread and intermixed (cultural diffusion) the arts, customs, and ideas of Hellenistic, Roman, Egyptian, and Persian civilizations with those of China and hundreds of others along the way. It was a dangerous trip and took up to three years to make. There were physical hardships, natural perils, and harassment by nomadic tribes and bandit clans. Rarely did a single group traverse the entire route. Specialized trade groups emerged, equipped with their own small armies. Goods changed hands many times over short spans. The Silk Route remained a main line of East-West contact until the 15th century AD.

**MARITIME AND OVERLAND TRADE ROUTES LINKED AFRICA AND EURASIA**

Ancient and classical civilizations stretched across North Africa from earliest times and had constant contact with Southwest Asia by land and sea. As Egyptian civilization spread along the Nile Valley, it acted as a bridge between Mediterranean peoples and southern empires such as Nubia (Kush). Nubian kings even
conquered and ruled Egypt (c. 750 BC). Nubia bridged trade between Egypt and African peoples to the south and west, trading ivory, gold, and slaves with Mediterranean people.

Africans of the interior also traded with Carthage and came into contact with Greco-Roman civilization through commerce with Numidia. The introduction of camels from Asia in the 3rd century AD increased trade from the Mediterranean coast across the Sahara Desert and into the more southerly kingdoms of Equatorial Africa.

### SUMMARY: RISE AND FALL OF TWO GREAT EMPIRES

#### HAN EMPIRE (202 BC – 220 AD)

**Growth:**
- Early Han rulers Liu Bang and Han Wudi defeated rival power groups and brought a large region under control through treaties and intermarriage
- Defended against nomadic invaders (Great Wall) such as the Hsiung-nu
- Cultivated relations with new class of merchants and land holders
- Kept taxes reasonable

**Organization:**
- Distance and mountains isolated China's civilization on the west and south
- Unified learning and behavior under Confucian principles
- Created qualified civil service (bureaucracy) by examinations
- Created peasant army loyal to emperor
- Built infrastructure (road and messenger system) to improve communications
- Abolished older kingdoms and created military provinces
- Required military and provincial administrators to coordinate efforts with capital
- Set up an intelligence corps (spies) spread Chinese as imperial language
- Redistributed nobles' land among peasants
- Made nobles and families live in capital, Ch'ang-an
- Cultivated relations with new class of merchants; kept taxes reasonable

**Decline:**
- Court intrigues
- Rising power of local warlords
- Infrastructure fell into disrepair
- Revolts caused by heavy taxes burdened peasants, merchants, and landholders
- Inability to defend northern provinces from nomadic foreign invaders

#### Roman Empire (27 BC – 476 AD)

**Growth:**
- Octavian defeated rival power groups and brought region under control through conquest and domination of Senate
- Defended against nomadic (Germanic) invaders
- Economic growth redistributed land among land holding elite (eques)
- Cultivated relations with new class of merchants and land holders
- Kept taxes reasonable
- Granted Roman citizenship to some conquered peoples

**Organization:**
- Mediterranean became the great connecting tissue for Roman conquest
- Ousted uncooperative local rulers and set up military provinces
- Required military and provincial administrators to coordinate efforts with capital
- Military command of professional army by emperor key factor in demoting the Senate into an advisory body
- Appointed bureaucratic officials were loyal to emperor
- Spread Latin as imperial language

**Decline:**
- Court intrigues and frequent military coups
- Rising power of local warlords
- Infrastructure fell into disrepair
- Dissent caused by heavy taxes burdening peasants, merchants, and landholders
- Inability to defend against foreign invaders (e.g., Goths, Vandals)
- Division of Empire into Eastern (Byzantine) and Western (Latin) sections (c. 395 AD)
EMERGENCE AND SPREAD OF BELIEF SYSTEMS

Scientific studies show that primitive hominids had spiritual rituals, and early river civilizations had organized worship of common gods. After 2000 BC, major religions and philosophical systems took many centuries to develop. Their followers spread their beliefs over vast geographic areas. From primitive Animism\(^1\) to Islam, major belief systems became an important aspect of culture and cultural diffusion.

Early societies believed different gods controlled natural circumstances and certain human behaviors. Interpretation of natural events (floods, storms, earthquakes) or humans’ dreams, fantasies, and death led early people to sense unexplainable forces at work. They assigned names and characteristics to these forces. These forces evolved into general conceptions and myths of gods. As civilizations grew, shamans and priests developed ideas into organized beliefs, rituals, and ethical practices connected with certain gods.

\(^1\) Animism (holds there is a conscious life within every object. A spirit directs the object’s being and affects conditions in the world)

The search for order led some polytheistic societies to elevate certain gods into roles of control and supremacy such as that of Zeus for the ancient Greeks and Jupiter for the Romans. Other societies rejected polytheism in favor of monotheism — the conception of a single God. As travel became more common and civilizations grew and made both friendly and hostile contacts with others, isolated, localized religions blended and became more universal. Hinduism, Buddhism, Judaism, Christianity, and Islam grew into great cultural forces. As they spread, they became vehicles for cross-cultural progress for humankind.
### Judaism

**Origins** Canaan (Palestine / Israel, Judah) c. 1500-1000 BC; (Abraham) Moses, Solomon, David, prophets, and judges

**Sacred Texts** Torah (Mishna and Talmud), Hebrew Bible

**Organization** autonomous local synagogues led by rabbi

**Beliefs** Judaism was the first organized religion to teach monothelism; God had special covenant with the ancient Israelites to bring God’s message to humanity by their example; seeks a just and peaceful world order; prohibition of images

**Practices** strict discipline through daily prayer, family relationships, ethical behavior (Ten Commandments), ritual practices, dietary laws, individual prayer, and public observances (Passover, Rosh Hashana, Yom Kippur)

**Divisions** wide variations of individual adherence to dietary and Sabbath behavior

### Islam

**Origins** Arabia (570-632 AD), Prophet Muhammad

**Sacred Texts** Qur’an (English: Koran); Shari’a (“the way”) – the laws and regulations for Muslim life and conduct

**Organization** community structure (once an empire headed by a caliph, now some entire countries are Islamic states – Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan); in others local communities in separate mosques

**Beliefs** monotheist (commitment in faith, obedience, and trust to one and only God – Allah); “Five Pillars”: shahada (profession of faith in God); salat (ritual prayer, performed five times a day facing Mecca); zakat (alms giving); sawm (fasting); hajj (pilgrimage to Mecca); sometimes jihad (literally, “striving in the way of God” – varies from sacred war to striving to fulfill the ethical principles of the Qur’an)

**Practices** The Shari’a is the creed and worship of the community (umma), as well as a code of ethics, a culture, a system of laws, an understanding of the function of the state; main festivals: Id al-’Fitr (breaking of the fast at the end of Ramadan) and Id al-’Adha (sacrifice)

**Divisions** Sunnis (majority) follow Rightly Guided Caliphs (a kind of “mandate of heaven” authority) and Shi’ite (minority) contend leadership flows from descendants of Ali (Prophet Muhammad’s son-in-law)

### Christianity

**Origins** Palestine, 1st century BC, founder Jesus of Nazareth

**Sacred Texts** Christian Bible (Old and New Testaments)

**Organization** Roman and Orthodox churches have hierarchical rule by chief bishop (Pope or Patriarch), archbishops, bishops, pastors; in Protestant sects, congregations tend to be more autonomous

**Beliefs** monotheist; Jesus was and is the Messiah or Christ promised by God in the prophecies of the Old Testament; freed believers from sin and offered resurrection and salvation in an afterlife; Trinity (one God in essence is viewed as 3 personifications: Creator (Father), Redeemer (Son), and Sustainer (Holy Spirit))

**Practices** Two principal rites (sacraments): Baptism, initiated converts; and the Eucharist, a sacred meal with prayers, chants, and scripture readings (Mass)

**Divisions** Western European (Latin Church) branch and a Byzantine (or Orthodox Church) branch. The Western church was in turn divided by the 16th century Reformation into the Roman Catholic Church and a large number of smaller Protestant churches: Lutheran, Calvinist (Reformed), Anglican, and sectarian
# Hinduism

**Origins** Indus Valley c. 1500-500 BC - based on Aryan invaders practices

**Sacred Texts** Veda (including Upanishads) and epics (Bhagavad Gita, Mahabharata, Ramayana)

**Organization** Individual temple rituals assisted by members of Brahmin class (priests)

**Beliefs** Polytheistic; commitment to an ideal way of life (dharma) and notion of action, especially religious or ritual action (karma) to purify human acts during rebirths of the soul so as to leave the material world (moksha) and become part of the eternal universal spirit of life (Brahman Nerguna)

**Practices** Self-denial, fasting to purify the soul, Individual rituals (initiations, marriages, funerals) assisted by members of Brahmin class (priests)

**Divisions** Variety of sects devoted to Vishnu, Shiva, Shakti

# Buddhism

**Origins** India (c. 566-486 BC), founded by noble Siddarta Gautama ("Buddha" - the Enlightened One)

**Sacred Texts** Tripitaka - narrative scriptural text Buddha’s teaching (sutras)

**Organization** Independent sanghas - monastic orders

**Beliefs** Four Noble Truths: (dukhka) all beings suffer in a cycle of rebirth (samsara) in which their actions (karma) keep them wandering; suffering itself has a cause (pratity asamut pada); suffering and rebirth can cease (nirvana)

**Practices** Eightfold Path - combines ethical practices and disciplinary training in meditation to achieve enlightened wisdom (panna).

**Divisions** Numerous sects based on schools of meditation such as Theravada (South & S. E. Asia) and Mahayana (China, Korea, Japan)

# Chinese Philosophies: Confucianism

**Origins** Ancient China, teacher / political advisor Confucius or Kongzi (c. 551-479 BC)

**Sacred Texts** Analects - guide to ethical principles of correct behavior, moral judgment, and social order

**Organization** The Confucian school functioned as a recruiting ground for government positions, which were filled by those scoring highest on examinations in the Confucian classics

**Beliefs** Social order stems from benevolence (kindly acts, generosity), traditional rituals, filial piety (child’s respect for parents), loyalty, respect for superiors and for the aged, social interaction is shaped by convention; correct behavior follows a natural pattern (li)

**Practices** Maintain domestic order, preserve tradition, and maintain a constant standard of living for the taxpaying peasants

**Divisions** (None)

# Chinese Philosophies: Daoism (Taoism)

**Origins** China, Laozi (Lao-tzu c. 6th century BC) and Zhuangzi (Chuang-tzu, c. 369-286 BC)

**Sacred Texts** The Daode Jing, and the Zhuangzi

**Organization** Independent monastic orders

**Beliefs** Seek tranquility by excluding desire, impulse, and aggression; act in harmony with nature and accept life’s inevitable changes; create action (wei) by shaping desires (yu); yin and yang - balance and harmony in life

**Practices** Monasticism and the ritual of community renewal, and study revealed scriptures; Taoist writings reflect some Buddhist influences

**Divisions** Numerous sects (faith healing through the concession of sin; spiritualism; visionary communication with deities)
Expansion of Christianity, Islam, and Buddhism through Conquest and Trade

Christianity Expands

Christianity emerged in the Jewish culture during the 1st century AD. It spread from Palestine through the Mediterranean world dominated by Rome. In the 4th century, it became the official religion of the Roman Empire.

During its early history, the Christian Church remained independent of any government. From the 4th century to the 18th century, however, it accepted the protection of emperors, kings, and princes and became closely allied with secular governments.

By the middle of the 1st century AD, missionaries were spreading the new religion among the peoples of Egypt, Syria, Anatolia, Greece, and Italy. Christianity was transformed from a Jewish sect to a world religion and organized itself as a permanent institution under the leadership of its bishops. Early Christian theological development was the interpretation of the faith in terms of concepts drawn from Greek philosophical thought. Many theological disputes upset the early Christian Churches. Some disputes alienated the churches of Egypt, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Armenia. This created a schism¹ in the Eastern Roman (Byzantine) Empire. Later, the lack of unity hurt Christians' chances of holding back the Islamic invasion in the 7th century.

In the West, Roman rule was ended by the Germanic invasions of the 5th century. The Church was strengthened by the guidance of leaders as St. Augustine (354-430) and Pope Gregory I (590-604). The Roman Church survived to become the main civilizing influence in Europe during the Middle Ages.

Buddhism Expands

Buddha (Siddhartha Gautama, c. 566-486 BC) lived during great social and religious change in India. Aryans continued to settle the Ganges. Commerce and cities were developing rapidly. Differences later arose over the Buddha's teaching (charma) and the rules of the order (vinaya).

Around 250 BC, the Asoka tried to make Buddhism the state religion of the Maurya Empire and spread it throughout Asia. Asoka sent missionaries to Sri Lanka, Burma (Myanmar), Thailand, Southeast Asia, and

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¹ schism (serious break up)
Indonesia. Buddhism carried Indian culture into these areas and northward into Central Asia, a crossroads of creeds from all parts of Asia and the Near East.

Between the 7th and 13th centuries AD, Buddhism declined in India. Muslim invaders persecuted Buddhists. Gradually, it blended back toward Hindu tradition.

Buddhist monks moved into China in the 1st century AD and became very influential at the Chinese court. They blended their texts with Daoist (Taoist) terminology and adopted Chinese stress on the importance of the family. In the 9th century, Chinese emperors persecuted Buddhists, destroying many temples and confiscating monastery lands. Buddhism never regained its influential position in Chinese life.

Buddhism was introduced to Japan from Korea about the 6th century, and it became the state religion from 710-784. During the 9th century, there was a mixing of Buddhism with various Japanese Shinto (animist) practices.

**ISLAM EXPANDS**

In 610 AD, the Prophet Muhammad (b. 670) received revelations convincing him he was God’s messenger. From that time, Islamic civilization spread rapidly through the Arabian Peninsula, the Middle East and North Africa, the Fertile Crescent, and eastward toward India.

Through the Qur’an and the sunna¹, and his military leadership, Muhammad left ideas for the foundations of an Islamic community that eventually became a great empire.

After his death (632 AD), the Prophet’s followers chose his father-in-law, Abu Bakr (r. 632-34), as successor (caliph²). He and the next two caliphs continued to expand Islam’s boundaries. By 656, their conquests stretched from Persia to Libya and from Armenia to Egypt. When Muhammad’s son-in-law, Ali, became the fourth caliph, Islam’s followers split into two groups. Ali was murdered in 661, and his Shi’ite followers rejected the Sunni Caliph Muawiya, who founded the Umayyad Dynasty (661-750 AD). Umayyad rulers continued expansion and consolidation of Islam into India, China, North Africa, and Spain. They made Arabic the official language, built roads, used a common currency, and set up a provincial government system.

**TIME CAPSULE**

During the Neolithic Revolution 10,000 years ago, bands of hunter-gatherers began to form agricultural villages. In river valleys, certain villages grew, prospered, and produced broader cultures. The need for trade, protection, and irrigation moved groups to interact and pool resources into formative civilizations with cities and social institutions. As civilizations developed resources, they formed economic interdependencies, built great public works of architecture, organized spiritual beliefs into religions, and created bodies of literature and scientific and technical knowledge. By the Roman and Han Eras, civilizations interacted steadily and changed as they progressed. As new nomadic groups entered them — peaceably and forcibly — societies absorbed, remade, and diffused global cultures into great imperial systems.

¹ sunna also sunnah [the way of life prescribed as normative in Islam, based on the teachings and practices of Mohammed and on analysis of the Koran]
² caliph also calif or khilif (male leader of the nation of Islam, example — successor to Mohammed)
MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1 Which best characterizes the difference between hunter-gatherer societies and Neolithic agricultural societies?
   1 agricultural life was more organized but promised a steady supply of food in one place
   2 hunter-gatherer societies provided a more secure and leisurely way of life
   3 hunter-gatherer societies were small, simple, and more politically stable
   4 agricultural societies lacked time for making tools, utensils, and pottery

2 Production of larger quantities of food drew Neolithic farmers to the Tigris and Euphrates, Nile, Indus, and Huang He River Valleys because of the
   1 ease of defense
   2 availability of water and richer soils
   3 rich deposits of minerals for iron production
   4 freedom from oppressive governments

3 In Ancient Egypt, the early pharaohs' belief in their own divinity led them to
   1 be mummified for their afterlife
   2 conquer surrounding peoples
   3 rule with the aid of viziers
   4 maintain large standing armies

4 How did Mesopotamian civilization differ from that in ancient Egypt?
   1 Slavery was forbidden.
   2 No written language emerged.
   3 Organized religion was lacking.
   4 Power changed hands among city-states.

5 As societies became more complex, economic decision-making based on tradition gave way to other systems because of the need for
   1 change and flexibility
   2 consistency
   3 cultural diffusion
   4 religious observances

6 Which was a result of the other three?
   1 increased invasions by Teutonic tribes
   2 the decline of the Roman Empire
   3 loss of power by the Roman Senate
   4 high taxes and economic chaos

Base your answers to questions 7 and 8 on the diagram below and your knowledge of global history.

7 Which is a common theme among these texts of ancient civilizations?
   1 the interplay of good and evil
   2 the high status enjoyed by women in ancient societies
   3 the problems created by caste systems
   4 the process of assimilation

8 Anthropologists theorize that early farmers developed polytheistic worship systems reflective of their
   1 strong belief in universal human rights
   2 devotion to kings and emperors
   3 advances in learning and technology
   4 struggle to deal with the natural environment
Base your answers to questions 9 and 10 on the diagram below and your knowledge of global history.

**A HINDU PANTHEON**
Including the gods of early sacred literature, the deities reach into the millions. They included deified mortals as well as animals, birds, mountains, rivers, and trees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>God or Avitar (Incarnation)</th>
<th>Association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brahma</td>
<td>The Creator – set the universe in motion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiva</td>
<td>The Destroyer – powerful demon slayer; symbol of male fertility; composite of older gods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vishnu</td>
<td>The Preserver – helper of mankind; appears periodically as reincarnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parvati</td>
<td>Shiva’s wife; daughter of Himalayas; unity of man and woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rama</td>
<td>avatar of Vishnu; kindly ruler; valiant leader against oppression; gentle husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sita</td>
<td>wife of Rama; represents ideal wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krishna</td>
<td>avatar of Vishnu; lover of humanity; hero in battle; god of love and joy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Which term would help to define the ancient Hindu belief system?
   1. Neolithic
   2. Feudalistic
   3. Monotheistic
   4. Polytheistic

10. “Among Hinduism’s achievements is a blending of countless cults, gods, and totems into a vast mythology…” This quotation refers to Hinduism’s cultural:
   1. Diversity
   2. Unity
   3. Clarity
   4. Security

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**THEMATIC ESSAY**

*Theme*: Cultural Diffusion

Historically, contacts among people have spread and intermixed ideas and cultures.

*Task:*
- Define culture:
  - Select one ancient civilization which you have studied and explain the circumstances that brought it into contact with another civilization.
  - Explain how the contact between the two civilizations changed them.

*Suggestions:*
You may use any ancient civilization that was impacted by another. Some groups you might wish to include: Egypt / Hittites; Persia / Macedonia; Greece / Rome. **You are not limited to these suggestions.**
Document Based Question

Directions:
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-4). Some of the documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. The question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your thesis position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

Historical Context:
The relationship between children and parents can be a basis for a civil society. The documents below present views of law from ancient times.

Task:
Decide how important the social role of the family was in ancient societies and support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of global history.

Part A - Short Answer
The documents below relate to ancient systems of law and morality. Examine each document carefully, then answer the question that follows it.

Document 1:

“The superior man while his parents are alive, reverently nourishes them; and when they are dead, reverently sacrifices to them. His chief thought is how, to the end of life, not to disgrace them.

“There are three degrees of filial piety. The highest is being a credit to our parents; the next is not disgracing them; the lowest is merely being able to support them.”

— Confucius

Document 1 Question:
How can everyone acting so as not to disgrace their parents help a society run smoother?

Document 2:

“Honor your father and your mother: that your days may be long upon the land which the Lord your God gives you.”

— Book of Exodus (Hebrews)

Document 2 Question:
Explain what “honor” means in this quotation.
Document 3:
"If a man has struck his father, his hand shall be cut off."
- Code of Hammurabi

Document 3 Question:
Why would this punishment be so severe?

Document 4:

Document 4 Question:
How would this kind of portrayal of an ideal family help keep order in a society?

Part B - Essay Response

Discuss the role of filial piety in ancient societies.

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis as to the social role of the family in ancient civilizations. Develop and support the reasons for your thesis in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
Unit 3

500 AD - 1200 AD

Byzantine Emperor Justinian codifies Roman Law (528 AD)

Li Yuan founds Tang Dynasty (618)
Abu Bakr becomes first Muslim Caliph (632)

Muslims conquer Spain (718)
Umayyads overthrown by Abbasids (750)
Charlemagne crowned Holy Roman Emperor (800)

Zhao Guangyin founds Song Dynasty (960)
Grand Duke Vladimir I of Kiev converted to Orthodox Christianity (988)

Pope Urban II launches the First Crusade (1095)
Ibn Rushd (Averroes) preserves work of Aristotle (1180)

Expanding Zones of Exchange & Encounter

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INTRODUCTION

This was an age that built new civilizations on the foundations of ancient ones. Growing trade, commerce, military conquests, improved medicine, and better living conditions of the ancient world expanded contacts among people. In the first millennium AD, as civilizations grew and intermixed, cultures merged and awareness of the world expanded.

From 500 to 1200 AD, great changes occurred to cause more cultural diffusion. Awareness of civilizations in India and China broadened as merchants carried their observations—as well as goods—to civilizations in the west. As Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam expanded, they unified large groupings of people. Invading tribes from Asia pressed provincial peoples of ancient empires into protected kingdoms and intermixed groups even more. The facades of the new civilizations appeared unique, but inside they housed thousands of years of cultural assimilation and prepared humanity for even greater progress.

INDIA: GUPTA EMPIRE (320-550 AD)

GROWTH AND ORGANIZATION

By 184 BC, the glory of India’s mighty Mauryan Dynasty faded. The expansive empire of Chandragupta Maurya and Asoka splintered into tiny, hostile states. Five hundred years passed before a prince could unite the northern and central region of India into a realm. In 310 AD, a new dynasty radiated from the place the Mauryas had started—Magadha, in the Ganges Valley. The armies of Chandragupta I (r. c. 320-330) swept westward across the subcontinent to the Arabian Sea. From the conquests, he built a union of locally autonomous villages and provinces that controlled central India until 550 AD.

Under the Gupta Dynasty’s peace and security, trade with the surrounding regions created an economic underpinning for the empire. Merchants traveled to the Mons and Funan kingdoms of Southeast Asia, to the Persian Sassanid Empire of Middle East, and to Axum and coastal cities of East Africa.

ARTISTIC AND SCIENTIFIC ACHIEVEMENTS

For more than two centuries, the Gupta dynasty presided over a splendid golden age of India. Chandragupta II (r. 375-415) oversaw a magnificent renewal of traditional Indian music, dance, painting, and architecture. Hindu

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1 millennium (thousand year period of time)
and Buddhist masters unified and organized religious philosophy at centers such as Nalanda. In mathematics, Gupta scholars introduced the concept of zero, the decimal system, and numerical symbols that Arab traders carried home and made the basis of the “Arabic numbers” for Western civilization. They developed medical practices such as bone surgery and smallpox vaccination that, over centuries, traders brought to the Arab kingdoms and eventually, to Europe.

The Gupta Period’s architects created great palaces, Buddhist stupas¹ and monasteries, and Hindu temples with elaborately carved statues and murals of gods and ancient life. Eminent writers and poets composed Sanskrit works such as Shakuntala and Meghaduta (Kalidasa, c. 400 AD). Like architects, they built on Hindu traditions flowing from the classics (Upanishads, Mahabharata, Ramayana).

As happened with Rome in the 5th century, the Gupta Dynasty declined in the 6th century as a result of Hun invasions from Central Asia and civil wars. These forces split India into many weak kingdoms once again.

### CHINA: T’ANG DYNASTY (618-902 AD)

#### ORGANIZATION / GEOGRAPHY

The greatest of the first millennium empires in size, wealth, and population was China’s T’ang Dynasty. From the collapse of the Hans in 220 AD, China experienced infighting among warlords and constant invasions by Central Asian groups.

In 618, Yang Jian united the north once more and tried to return to the Han culture. His cruel treatment of peasants led to rebellions against his successor until rebel leader Li Yuan (r. 618-626) consolidated power and founded the T’ang Dynasty. Claiming the “mandate of heaven,” he resumed the civil service examination structure of the Han Era.

Li used the system to obtain obedient, Confucian-trained, loyal administrators for the vast empire that his efficient, disciplined cavalries conquered in Eastern and Central Asia. Li Yuan relinquished power to his son T’ai zong (r. 627-649), who expanded the Empire into Tibet and westward into Central Asia.

T’ang emperors built canals for internal trade, organized the legal system, and redistributed land among the peasants (undercutting the power of landlords). Early in the 10th century, the T’angs fell from power amid the growing independence of military commanders that led to rebellions and civil wars. China split into ten independent warlords’ provinces. It was not reunited until 960 AD when General Zhao Guangyin (also K’uang-yin) founded the Song (also Sung) Dynasty (960-1279).

The Song Dynasty revived China. Song rulers expanded and regulated trade, issued paper currency, revitalized the central bureaucracy, controlled the military, and oversaw a rebirth of Chinese culture. Landscape painting (Mi Fei, Xia Gui), moveable type, and a Confucian and a poetic revival all flourished under the Songs until 1279. In that year the Mongols, under Genghis Kahn’s grandson, Kublai Kahn, established the Yuan Dynasty.

#### ACHIEVEMENTS

The T’ang rulers – one was China’s first woman ruler, Empress Wu Zhao (690-705) – presided over a golden age. The T’ang Era saw technical advances in printing, weaving, porcelain making, time keeping, and inventing gunpowder. T’ang poets such as Li Bo and Du Fu (c. 750) wrote of nature and moral dilemmas.

¹ stupas (domed shrines)
Artist Wu Daozi (c.689-760) painted both figures and landscapes with Buddhist and Daoist themes. Builders created great wooden palaces and temples characterized by tower-like pagodas.

Taizong’s western conquests allowed a reopening of trade with India and along the Silk Route to the Middle East. In return for protection, he made tributary states out of Japan, Korea, and Vietnam. Students from these areas journeyed to the capital of Chang-an and brought Chinese culture back to their homes. By allowing foreign travelers and scholars to live among their subjects and study in their learning centers, T'ang rulers opened China to new ideas, technologies, and religions, such as Christianity.

**CHINESE INFLUENCE ON JAPAN**

In Japan, in the southern part of Honshu, a ruling ūji (clan) arose from a blend of early peoples — the Yamato. Their chiefs claimed descent from Amaterasu — the sun goddess. The Yamato formed alliances among the clans and unified the country by the 4th century AD. In the next century, the Yamato launched military expeditions into Korea and established a colony in Mimana, on the southern tip of the peninsula. An era of scholarly pilgrimages brought contact with China. Japan adapted Chinese script, and in 588, Buddhism was introduced and began intermixing with the native Shinto practices.

**MEDITERRANEAN: THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE**

**ORGANIZATION / GEOGRAPHY**

In 286 AD, pressed by Teutonic invaders (Germanic tribes) and unable to support a defensive army on all fronts, the Emperor Diocletian split the Roman Empire into two great provinces. The provincial trading town of Byzantium on the Bosporus Strait became the center of the Eastern Zone. After the fall of the Western Section in 476 AD, Byzantium became the center of the Roman world for the next thousand years. Modern historians refer to it as the Byzantine Empire, but those that lived within it always viewed it as the Roman Empire and thought of themselves as Romans.

By 330 AD, the Roman Emperor Constantine had reorganized the government, adopted Greek as the official language, recognized Christianity as an official religion (Edict of Milan, 313), and renamed Byzantium “New Rome” — his successors renamed it Constantinople. The Emperor modeled his new city in the likeness of Rome with a forum, imperial palaces, theaters, baths, and a refurbished Hippodrome — a 60,000-seat amphitheater. He also began the construction of 14 churches including the Hagia Sophia (Church

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1 pagoda (religious building of the Far East, especially a many-storied Buddhist tower, erected as a memorial or shrine)
of the Holy Wisdom) which became the great central church of Orthodox Christianity. Riots and a great fire destroyed most of Constantinople in 532, but it was meticulously rebuilt by the Emperor Justinian.

Constantinople became a great Mediterranean center of trade, especially in luxury goods—furs, corn, and salt from Russia; grains from Egypt; gold and slaves from Africa; sugar, honey, and wax from the Middle East; and, silk, damask, porcelain, and amber from India and China. Yet, far more important was the Byzantine Roman preservation and nurturing of Hellenistic culture. Blending it with Christian liturgy created a new identity among citizens of the Empire.

**Political Structure**

Byzantine emperors were autocrats\(^2\) with a senate (and to a lesser extent, the Church) to "rubber-stamp" their decisions. The emperors' survival depended on knowing their court and unearthing conspiracies against them. Hereditary succession was not guaranteed, and many emperors met violent deaths. As with the old Roman Empire, many emperors were overthrown by the military, and many generals ascended to the throne. Byzantine Romans developed an elaborate and expensive bureaucracy to administer and control the provinces whose borders were constantly challenged by invaders.

A rigid social structure bound peasants to the land and artisans to their jobs. However, merchant classes had freedom and accumulated the wealth and power to influence imperial decisions. Military service was rewarded with grants of land. Because of this, army commanders became rich landlords and taxpayers. This landed aristocracy gained enormous political influence by the 10th century.

As time progressed, the emperors could not control the aristocrats and were forced to give them tax exemptions and expand their estates. To make up for lost land tax revenues\(^3\), import taxes fell heavily on the small merchant class. The free peasants (ex-soldiers) saw taxes rise on their small plots, too. This weakened the imperial economy and made it difficult to defend against outside forces such as the Normans, the Serbs, the Seljuk Turks, and even the European Crusaders. The Empire disintegrated in the 13th century.

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1. Liturgy (prescribed form or set of forms for public Christian ceremonies)
2. Autocrat (dictators with unlimited power)
3. Revenues (incomes)
Eastern Orthodox Catholic churches are easily identified by their "onion" shaped (often gold) domes.

EASTERN ORTHODOX CATHOLIC CHURCH
©PhotoDisc, Inc 1994

THE ORTHODOX CHRISTIAN CHURCH

The Orthodox Christian Church (sometimes called the Eastern, the Greek Orthodox, or the Orthodox Catholic Church) played a major role in the affairs of the Byzantine Empire. Church affairs and doctrines affected everyday life. The emperors and empresses appointed patriarchs and other clergy\(^1\) and used the wealth and power of the Church to influence the public.

When Constantine moved the Roman capital to Byzantium and recognized the early Christian movement (313 AD), the Church's leadership generally emanated from Rome. As Rome declined and the Byzantines preserved the Empire in the East, most Church councils and intellectual and cultural developments took place in the Eastern region. Byzantine Church leaders, with their differing Greek translations of the Gospels, often disagreed with Roman authorities.

The Orthodox Christian Church evolved as the Byzantine Empire strengthened. At first, there was no formal distinction, and Eastern Christians still recognized the leaders in Rome as foremost in the Church. However, the Eastern Christians were more conservative about interpreting dogma\(^2\) and preserving the traditions of Jesus' twelve apostles who spread the Gospels in their lands. Over several centuries, differing theological interpretations led to an increasing number of disputes between Byzantine and Roman authorities. Eventually, the division moved beyond basic doctrine to questions of Church government, especially concerning the Pope's doctrinal supremacy among the bishops and patriarchs. Still, a schism\(^3\) did not come until 1054. There were attempts at reconciliation, but they ended when Western Crusaders attacked Constantinople in 1204.

Culturally, the Orthodox Church's special place in Byzantine life influenced a vast region far beyond the imperial borders. From

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1. clergy (church officials)
2. dogma (doctrine relating to matters such as morality and faith, set forth in an authoritative manner by a church)
3. schism (formal break)
Constantinople, Orthodox Christian missionaries spread the faith into Russia, Persia, and Africa, bringing the Hellenistic culture with them to these far-flung regions.

**BYZANTINE IMPACT ON RUSSIA AND EASTERN EUROPE**

In 832 AD, Byzantine Emperor Michael III sent an Orthodox monk named Cyril to teach in Moravia (Central Europe). Cyril laid the basis for the Slavic alphabet (Cyrillic) and Byzantine culture that evolved into Slavic and Russian culture in the centuries that followed.

Byzantine culture strongly influenced the Indo-European peoples that had settled the steppes\(^1\) of Eastern and Central Europe after 2000 BC (Cimmerians, Scythians, Sarmatians) as well as those who invaded in the early centuries AD (Goths, Huns, Avars, Khazars, Bulgars, and Slavs). They were nomads who became farmers and traders along a north-south route from the Baltic Sea to the Black Sea and Constantinople.

In the 9th century AD, most of these people fell under the influence of the Scandinavian-Norse-Vikings who were called Varangians by the Byzantines. From fortified strongholds, they dominated the inland trade routes from Central and Eastern Europe to Constantinople. In the late 900s, the Varangian leader Rurik captured the Slavic trading centers of Novgorod and Kiev.

In the early 10th century, Rurik's successor, Oleg, made Kiev (on the Dnieper River in modern Ukraine) the center of a loose alliance of settlements controlled by Varangian warriors. They adopted Slavic language and culture.

In 988, Grand Duke Vladimir I of Kiev converted to Orthodox (Byzantine) Christianity. Kiev became a cultural center that spread Byzantine civilization throughout Eastern Europe. Between 980 and 1054, the **Kievan Rus**\(^2\) (city-state) was under

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\(^1\) steppes (semi-arid grass-covered plains)

\(^2\) Kievan Rus
the rule of Grand Duke Yaroslav the Wise and was at its height of power and achievement. Yaroslav defeated his brother for the throne in a bloody civil war and later staved off invasions by the Poles, but failed in his attempt to conquer Constantinople in 1043.

Under Yaroslav’s rule, Byzantine civilization and Orthodox Christianity strengthened. Afterwards, constant feuding among nobles led to the Kievan Rus’ collapse. East-west trade began to bypass the northern Black Sea river routes in the 11th century. The area was in disarray in the 13th century when the Mongol Golden Horde of Genghis Kahn’s grandson, Batu, conquered it (1240).

BYZANTINE ACHIEVEMENTS

In 528 AD, the Byzantine Roman emperor Justinian (r. 527-565) appointed a commission that classified and organized a great mass of Roman edicts, legal decisions, and imperial proclamations into a code of 4,652 civil and criminal laws. The Justinian Code (Corpus Juris Civilis) included discussions of religious crimes such as heresy. It transferred the wisdom of Roman law in such clear fashion that it became the basis for most modern legal systems in Europe.

The Byzantine Romans preserved and innovated in the arts and engineering. Building on the Hellenistic tradition, they constructed churches, palaces, and public buildings that incorporated the domes and arches of classic Greco-Roman design. To these same structures, they added murals and mosaics with Christian themes.

In the Byzantine Roman Empire, the applied arts held great importance. Byzantine artists and monks produced illuminated manuscripts, icons, frescoes, carved ivory, and cloisonne for churches and the emperor’s palaces. The style was Romanesque because of the Empire’s connection to the artistic heritage of Greek and Roman art and architecture, and it spread throughout the Balkans, Eastern Europe, and Russia.

1. Icons (sacred paintings)
2. Frescoes (murals done in wet plaster)
3. Cloisonne (colored enamels encased in burnished gold)
4. Romanesque (European architecture containing both Roman and Byzantine elements, prevalent especially in the 11th and 12th centuries and characterized by thick walls, barrel vaults, and rounded arches)

Mini Assessment

1. Both Byzantine Emperor Justinian and China’s T’ang Emperors
   1. created state-sponsored religions
   2. tried to isolate their realms from foreign influences
   3. reorganized their legal systems
   4. were overthrown by revolution

2. Gupta, T’ang, and Byzantine emperors all oversaw
   1. a fundamental change from agriculture to hunter-gathering
   2. golden ages of intellectual and cultural achievement
   3. violent religious conflict
   4. power losses to strong bureaucracies

3. Which exerted the most influence on Byzantine culture?
   1. engineers and artists
   2. Roman Emperors of the West

4. Varangian invaders

Constructed Response:

“The civil service examination system provided a trained bureaucracy based on merit other than family or political connections. It is a major factor in the continuity of Chinese civilization.”

- Tok Li’wen, Eastern Journeys, 1879

1. How were government workers selected in ancient China?

2. Why is an educated and trained bureaucracy important to the functioning of a government?
camel and horse cavalries were victorious, because of their unified faith and common goal of spreading Islam.

UMAYYAD AND ABBASID DYNASTIES

During the reign of the fourth Caliph, Ali (the Prophet's son-in-law), a feud arose between his followers (Shi'ites) and the Sunnis. Ali's murder in 661 led to a schism. The Sunni majority recognized Muawiya I of the Umayyad clan as caliph. The Shi'ites supported Ali's sons as successors, but they were killed shortly afterward.

The Umayyad rulers decreed Arabic as the official language, and set up new provinces along military lines with governors reporting to the caliphs. However, the rulers' inexperience in dealing with civilians led them to lean on a corps of local officials, some of whom worked under the Persian and Byzantine structures.

Under the Umayyad Dynasty, Shi'ite strength built among lower classes and higher taxed non-Arabs of Persia and Iraq. Opponents rallied behind Abu al-Abbas who began a revolt that overthrew the Umayyads in 750. (The Umayyads were killed and only one escaped to Persia.)

After the death of Muhammad, his followers chose his father-in-law, Abu Bakr (r. 632-34) as caliph. In a series of jihads, Abu Bakr and the next three caliphs expanded Muslim rule beyond the Arabian Peninsula, conquering lands held by the Byzantines and Sassanids (Persia) in Southwest Asia and North Africa. The old empires were weak and the Arab

Middle East: From Arab Conquest to Islamic Empire

Geographic Scope

Arabia is a one million square mile area of arid plains and deserts on the Indian Ocean between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. It is sparsely settled because of its dry Desert (Koppen-type Bw) and Steppe (Koppen-type Bs) climates. In the 7th century AD, Arabia was geographically remote from the great empires of the Middle East. The conquest launched by Muhammad and his followers resulted in a vast new empire that eventually stretched from Spain in the West to the Indus River Valley in the East.
The Development of Islamic Law and Its Impact

In addition to being the pathway of religious belief and ritual, the Shari‘a is the basis for a universal Islamic law. As such, it outlines rules of conduct and rights, and it distinguishes between what is permitted and what is prohibited. It prescribes the rules governing marriage, divorce, inheritance, contractual relations, and commerce. Thus, it shows the pathway of Islamic law.

The fiqh is the human effort to translate the will of God into specific rules. Basically, fiqh is Islamic jurisprudence - the practice of law. Islamic law classifies duty as twofold: ibadat - duty to God and Muamalat - duty to people. In the two centuries after Muhammad’s death, scholars struggled to reconcile these two concepts and to codify the fiqh. In the late 8th and early 9th centuries, al-Shafi‘i prioritized the sources of the law (usul al-fiqh) as: 1) Qur’an; 2) sunnah - Muhammad’s pronouncements on the Qur’an; 3) ijma - the consensus of the community (judicial precedents); 4) qiyas - cautious use of analytical reasoning. Qiyas was to be used only in the rare case when proper guidance was not available from the three primary sources.

This basic set of priorities guided the fair and equal jurisprudence in all parts of the Islamic World - from Spain to Africa to the Middle East, India, and Indonesia down to the present day. Only in the realm of international laws of commerce, when Islamic practice meets other legal systems, has there been some modification. In the realm of personal law, the basic universality of fiqh has been a unifying factor in the Islamic World for centuries.

set up a rival province in Spain.) The Abbasid Dynasty established a new, centralized capital at Baghdad. Abbasid rulers were more tolerant and shared power among the Arabs (religion), Persians (government), and Turks (military).

After 850, the strains of governing such a large empire eventually weakened Abbasid power. An Umayyad caliph retained control of the southern tip of Spain, and Shi‘ite challengers ruled in Tunis and Egypt. Other rivals arose. The Seljuk Turks of Central Asia moved into Asia Minor and the Fertile Crescent around 1000. The European Christians began a series of Crusades in 1095. In 1258, an invasion by the Mongols of Central Asia took Baghdad and ended Abbasid rule.

**ISLAMIC SOCIETY**

Despite the great urban centers of power and culture, the larger part of the Islamic society was rural. As a whole, the ummah was more fluid than societies of the past. It was based on the fundamental principles of justice and unity. There were rich and poor, but nothing like the rigid castes elsewhere. Individuals could rise in social status through their own actions. Military service was a common way to gain status.

Education, especially reading and writing for religious learning, was open to boys of all classes. The sons of the rich often went beyond basic skills and entered places of higher learning such as theological schools.

Men were allowed more than one wife (polygamy), and women’s roles were traditional (wife, mother, caregiver, household manager). A woman could own and inherit property, attend services in the mosque, and many were allowed to learn to read and write.

Slavery was common in the Islamic Empire. It was common in the Middle East long before Muhammad, but Islam did not change this. The Qur’an did not disapprove of slavery, but it did speak of humane treatment. Muslims could not be taken as slaves, but the 7th and 8th century wars produced many slaves from conquest of non-Muslim realms.

Slaves were used for personal and domestic service. Some became skilled artisans and some were even used as soldiers. In the Islamic Empire, however, they were not often used in large commercial farms, as they were later in history. Children of slaves who converted to Islam were given freedom. If an owner married a female slave, she was freed.

---

1 ummah (religious community living in accordance with the Shari‘a)
2 Slavery, a social system in which one individual is owned and exploited by another
Islamic rulers were tolerant of conquered peoples. However, those who retained other religions had to pay a special tax, but they were treated well and allowed to live in peace.

The general unity of language and security under the Abbasid Dynasty meant that commerce\(^1\) could extend over a vast and varied area. Trade within the Empire was brisk and profitable. Fruits and vegetables from Spain were sold at bazaars in Baghdad and Kufa while intermixing with the silks and spices of the Orient.

\(^1\) Commerce (buying and selling of goods, especially on a large scale, as between cities or nations)

**Islam’s Golden Age**

Islam’s “golden age” emerged under the Abbasids between 850 and 950. The Empire’s great urban centers – Baghdad, Damascus, Alexandria, Kufa – became centers of commerce and learning. In the countryside, food was pro-

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**EXPANSION OF ISLAMIC EMPIRE (622 - c.740)**

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**BREAK-UP OF ISLAMIC EMPIRE (760 - c.865)**

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Page 72  GLOBAL HISTORY - Geopolitical Patterns & Cultural Diffusion  N&N©
ALHAMBRA PALACE
Grenada, Spain
10th Century

produced for the cities using irrigation methods on large landed estates.

The conquest of Byzantine lands in the Middle East and Africa presented the opportunity to study, translate, and adapt the classical learning of Greece, Rome, and Egypt. Muslim scholars preserved and intermixed such learning with Islamic culture.

In art and architecture, Islamic tradition blended Greco-Roman and Christian Byzantine art with that of Persia and influences from Central Asia and India. Islamic art flowed from daily life. Fortresses and palaces with magnificent courtyards such as the Alhambra (Grenada, Spain) reflected people’s love of beauty. Domed mosques and minarets (slender towers) reflected the Islamic faith. Decorative arts produced abstract patterns through rich color glazes in ceramics, carved wood wall panels, and woven textiles and rugs. Islamic artists illuminated books to explain ideas and deepen knowledge. Literature included legendary stories of Aladdin and Sinbad as well as poetry such as the Rubaiyat (Omar Khayyam, c. 1000 AD).

The urban centers produced great learning. They drew together ideas from many civilizations. They produced Arabic translations from which Islamic scholars built a scientific awaken-

ing and a golden age of intellectual achievement. In philosophy, Ibn Rushd (known to the West as “Averroes,” 1126-1198) preserved and developed Aristotle’s works, using them as a basis for analysis of Islamic and Christian approaches to reason, ethics, and logic. Mathematicians translated the ancient Gupta concepts to communicate what became known as “Arabic numerals,” the concept of zero, and the digital place-value system. Scholars such as Al-Khwarizmi organized and developed the discipline of algebra. Astronomy and navigation reached new heights. This included research on eclipses and celestial and tidal charts along with improvements on instruments such as the astrolabe. Chemists created a classification system that is still in use. Ibn Sina (known to the West as “Avicenna”) wrote the Canon of Medicine around 900 AD. The work became the basis for medical education for Western civilization.

ISLAMIC SPAIN

As the Roman Empire declined, Spain fell to the Germanic Visigoth people. They drove out the Roman authorities, but slowly accepted Christianity and absorbed Greco-Roman culture. Their monarchy was weak and the kings had little control over the aristocracy. In 711, amid a civil war, the Muslims crossed over to Gibraltar and conquered much of Spain by 718.

Many Christians converted to Islam, and Arab settlers moved into Spain from the deserts of North Africa. The Muslims (or Moors as the Christians called them) clustered along the southern coast, calling the area al-Andalus. After the Umayyads were overthrown (c. 750), the survivors moved from their North African kingdom and became rulers of Muslim areas in Spain, becoming the emirs (rulers) of Cordoba.
The al-Andalus region carried on a prosperous trade in glass, paper, leather, metalwork, and silk. Science, medicine, and philosophy flourished. In 1002, the area broke up into small quarreling states. The Almohads (North African Muslim invaders) reunited the provinces, but the Spanish European kingdoms were growing strong by the 13th century, and the Moors were gradually driven out (Reconquista).

**THE RISE OF MEDIEVAL EUROPE (500-1300)**

Western historians refer to the period in Europe between the 6th and 14th centuries as the Medieval Era (also the Middle Ages). It is the period between the end of the Roman Empire and the Renaissance.

**GEOGRAPHIC ORGANIZATION**

The continent of Europe comprises the western portion of the Eurasian land mass, extending roughly from the Ural Mountains (Russia) in the east, to the Atlantic Ocean on the west, from the Arctic Ocean in the north, to the Mediterranean Sea on the south. Except in the northern extremes, climates are generally cool to mild, rainy mid-latitude (Koppen-types C and D) with abundant rainfall (27" annual average).

The good climates and fertile plains of the northern section and the more rugged, but mild climates of the southern sections attracted groups from earliest times. Europe experienced centuries of successive invasions by Central Asian people drawn to the productive, open lands. Partially, the invasions were successful because of the sheer numbers of newcomers, but the openness of the northern plains was also a factor. The plains offer inhabitants few natural defenses. The relatively low mountain ranges across the central region – the Alps of Switzerland and Austria, the Carpathians of Hungary, Poland, and Romania, and the rugged ranges of the Balkan Peninsula – offered Mediterranean civilizations some protection, but did not stop the westward flow of invaders from Central Asia.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. Besides a common religion, the vast Islamic empire was joined by (the)
   1. schism between Sunni and Shi’ites
   2. conquering the Visigoths in Spain
   3. overthrow of the Umayyad clan
   4. common language of Arabic

2. The Abbasid Dynasty of the Islamic Empire
   1. ruled over a golden age of achievement
   2. was overthrown by the Umayyads
   3. eliminated all legal interpretations of the Shari’a
   4. banned all study of foreign civilizations

3. Which Islamic scholar preserved and developed Aristotle’s classical philosophy?
   1. Ali
   2. Al-Shaffi
   3. Ibn Sina
   4. Ibn Rushd

**Constructed Response:**

Use the map of the Islamic Empire on page 72 to answer the following questions:

1. What other empire was surrounded on three sides by the Islamic empire?
   
2. Why did the Abbasid lose control of large areas in the late 800s?
FRANKISH EMPIRE

The Romans subdued most of the western half of Europe and dominated the clans and tribes living there into the 4th century AD. Rome weakened as a result of civil wars, declining population, economic problems, and a bloated bureaucracy. Nomadic invasions from Eastern Europe and Central Asia increased. Imperial authority faded, and roads, bridges, and aqueducts decayed. Education and trade declined. Early historians referred to the era as "The Dark Ages."

As Huns, Vandals, and other invaders pushed westward and southward in the 400s, older, more settled Germanic peoples pressed against the Roman and Byzantine perimeters. For their own defenses, the Germanic peoples began to form small, often poor, kingdoms along the imperial borders (400-700 AD).

- Goths occupied Italy and Spain (5th century)
- Franks established themselves in Gaul (France) (5th century)
- Anglo-Saxons conquered Britain (5th century)
- Lombards replaced the Goths in Italy (6th century)
- Avars and Slavs occupied the Balkan Region (6th century)

As Rome was collapsing between the 4th and 5th centuries, there was a great intermixing of the Mediterranean (Phoenician-Greco-Roman), Celtic, and Germanic cultures into a new European culture. Amid this diversity, the Christian faith and its clergy emerged as the single strongest cultural element. The Church grew very slowly in status and power from a number of centers. Irish monks helped convert the Britons and Franks; missionaries from Rome and Constantinople converted northern Germans and Slavs.

In the 7th century, the Christianized kingdoms of Western Europe were also pressured from the south. Arab-Muslim invaders crossed the Mediterranean into Spain and pushed northward through the Visigoth lands and into the territories controlled by the Franks.
In 732, Charles Martel, founder of the Carolingian Dynasty, led the Franks in successfully defending against the Muslims at Tours. In 752, the pope anointed Martel’s son, Pepin, as king of the Franks. Pepin then warred against the Lombards in Italy, regaining papal lands. Pepin’s son, Charlemagne ("Charles the Great," r. 771-814), battled against the Saxons in the west, the Muslims in Spain, the Lombards in Italy, and the Avars and Slavs in the east. The result was a Western European kingdom that stretched from the North Sea to the Mediterranean.

In 800, Pope Leo crowned Charlemagne as “Roman Emperor of the West.” The idea was to restore a two-part Roman Empire with a Byzantine emperor in the east and a Germanic king as emperor in the west. The Byzantines were angered and never agreed, viewing Charlemagne’s Holy Roman Empire as illegitimate scheming by the pope. The crowning of Charlemagne contributed to the eventual schism between the Eastern Orthodox and Roman Catholic Christian Churches.

1 missi dominici (traveling inspectors)
2 tribute (protection payments)

While Charlemagne’s efforts united Western Europe for a few decades, the Empire disintegrated shortly after his death in 814. Yet, the idea of a Holy Roman Empire continued. Popes continued to bestow the title of Holy Roman Emperor on German rulers until the 19th century, but it was never a strong state again. Charlemagne’s son Louis let the Empire crumble. It was divided among Charlemagne’s grandsons in 843.

Europe fell prey to more destructive invasions after the decline of Charlemagne’s heirs. The Magyars moved in from the east, the Muslims continued attacks in the south, and from the north came the Vikings. From the 8th to the 12th centuries, these Scandinavians moved beyond their homelands to trade with Byzantium, the Muslim Middle East, and Western European Christian kingdoms, and even to explore areas of North America.

Mostly in small bands, but sometimes in combined forces, Viking warriors fiercely attacked and pillaged the British Isles, France, and the Mediterranean. Other groups went east and then southward down the Volga and set up the Russian state of Kiev. Viking chiefs set up enclaves (small armed settlements) and extorted tribute.
from English and Frankish towns such as London and Paris. For almost a century, Danish Vikings controlled large parts of eastern and northern England, called the Danelaw, where Danish laws and customs persisted for several centuries. The Byzantines called the Vikings “Varangians,” and the Byzantine emperor employed a mercenary Varangian Guard.

In Western Europe, the Vikings absorbed Anglo-Saxon culture. They became Christians and the kingdoms they forged out of their many clans became Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

**MANORIALISM**

After the disintegration of Charlemagne’s Carolingian-Frankish Empire, Western Europe had no strong central authority. Trade declined, and the region disintegrated into isolated communities organized around the manorial landholding system. **Manorialism** was the relationship between those who held the land (lords) and the peasants or serfs who worked on it. The system actually surfaced as Rome declined in the 4th century when small farmers found themselves in need of protection from more powerful neighbors. It evolved into a system where the strong dominated the weak.

Parts of the lord’s (manor) were assigned to individual peasants. They paid the lord in crops and services for protection and the privilege of farming. Under attack, the people of the manor — peasants/serfs, artisans, and their families — gathered in the lord’s home and stronghold. At first, these were basic, wooden walls with various earth works, ramparts, parapets, and bulwarks. As time passed and the lords’ wealth increased and quarried stone became more available, the fortified homes evolved into great castle citadels with protective berms, moats, drawbridges, and portcullis (armored gate).

In a few places, some tenants were free peasants. In most others, tenants gave up rights and became serfs, binding themselves, their families, and their descendents to the land. Basically, it was the duty of the peasant / serf to support the ruling classes.

Manors were self-sufficient farm communities. Trade and outside contacts were minimal because travel was dangerous. The manor land was divided into the lords’ fields (demesne), the arable land for the peasants / serfs, common meadows for grazing, and land for support of the Church. On each manor, good land was limited and a three-field system developed to preserve its fertility. Each year,
### MANORIAL RELATIONSHIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peasant Serf Provided</th>
<th>Landlord Provided</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| - payments in kind for use of arable land  
- labor to the lord for tasks such as building roads, bridges, and dams.  
- help defending the castle in attacks  
- labor on the lord’s demesne | - land for the tenants  
- military protection  
- economic security against crop failures  
- justice in a local court |

One field was Spring-planted, a second was Fall-planted, and a third left fallow to regenerate naturally. The most common crops were peas and beans along with hay, rye, barley, oats, wheat, and flax (for linen cloth).

Justice in the lord’s court was swift and arbitrary. Punishments were cruel. Peasant trials were often by ordeal. Executions were by drowning and hanging; other punishments included branding, mutilations, amputations, and eye gouging for lesser offenses.

Although it varied from place to place, the manorial structure was common in Europe by the 10th century. As it developed, certain lords’ power grew, and the size of their manors increased.

### FEUDALISM

Feudalism was Medieval Europe’s economic land system that involved inherited relations between peasants and their lords. Feudalism was the often contractual structure that governed political and legal relations among the nobility.

The overlord, as the largest landholder in a region, gave a fief to a vassal. Vassals pledged an oath of fealty and homage to the overlord. The oath bound the vassal to provide the overlord with financial, civil, and military service along with perpetual loyalty. Vassals could subdivide their estates and have vassals of their own. In this way, overlords created intricate networks of vassals with estates who would gather to defend the overlord’s domain in time of peril. Overlords exercised political, economic, and social control over vassals.

Vassals were the overlord’s loyal knights – mounted warriors specifically trained from boyhood in military skills at the overlord’s direction. At age 15, a trainee became a squire to an existing knight. After a period of trial, the overlord promoted him to a full-fledged knight, usually making him a vassal and granting him a fief. In the later Middle Ages, knights adopted a code of behavior called chivalry. Knights were supposed to be guided by accepted ethics and honor in battle, by loyalty to God and their lords (and the overlord’s lady), and by vows to defend the sick and disadvantaged.

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1 fallow (plowed but left unseeded during a growing season)  
2 ordeal (accused had to endure physically painful or dangerous tests, the result being regarded as a divine judgment of guilt or innocence)  
3 feudalism (political and economic system of Europe from the 9th to about the 15th century, based on the holding of all land in fief or fee and the resulting relation of lord to vassal and characterized by homage, legal and military service of tenants, and forfeiture)  
4 fief also called fief (an estate in land granted by a lord to his vassal on condition of homage and service)  
5 vassal (lesser noble holding land from a feudal lord and received protection in return for homage and allegiance)  
6 fealty (allegiance, loyalty, submission to obligations, duties)  
7 homage (publicly showing obedience, honor, and respect)  
8 knights (medieval gentleman-soldier-tenant giving service as a mounted man-at-arms to a feudal landholder)  
9 chivalry (principles and customs idealized by knighthood, such as bravery, courtesy, honor, and gallantry toward women)
FEUDAL RELATIONSHIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vassal Provided</th>
<th>Overlord Provided</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>allegiance, homage, fealty</td>
<td>landed estates (fief)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tributary money or goods</td>
<td>armed forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>military service when summoned</td>
<td>roads, bridges, and dams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceremonial duty</td>
<td>justice in disputes among vassals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 feudal dues: ransom, dowry, knighthood</td>
<td>(trials by combat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hospitality and entertainment for lord’s visits</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE ROLE OF THE CHURCH

The Romans persecuted the Christian Church for nearly 300 years until 313 when the Emperor Constantine ordered toleration of all religions. In 392, the Emperor Theodosius proclaimed Christianity the official religion of the Empire. Theodosius was the last emperor to rule over the Eastern and Western sections of the Empire. In the next 200 years, the Church in the west grew strong enough to fill the power vacuum in Europe as Rome weakened and decayed.

As the state religion, the Christian Church was exempt from taxes. This allowed its wealth to grow.

Medieval Economic Structure

The manorial and feudal relationship became the basis for a barter economy (direct exchange of goods and services of equal value without use of money). It became the system of distributing and allocating resources in the Middle Ages.

As the threat of invasions slowed in the 10th century, long-distance trade was renewed by groups such as the Italians. They imported spices and silks from the East. In return, they took amber, furs, and timber products from Europe to the Orient. Eventually, a money system emerged that was easier and less clumsy than the barter system.

The building of churches by the emperors enhanced the power of the clergy in major communities throughout Europe. One example of the power of Christian Church officials is that it was not the emperor who rode out to meet Attila and dissuade him and his Huns from sacking Rome in 452, but Pope Leo I.

The new barbarian leaders who set up kingdoms after the fall of Rome preferred conquest to desk work. They depended on Church leaders and clerics to help them organize and govern their conquests. Because of their learning, clerics became the bureaucracy for Europe. They codified laws, kept track of judicial precedents, oversaw taxation, and managed public works. Often, clerics took advantage of this status by using Church teachings to restrain worldly excesses of barbarians. Church leaders wanted an ideal Christian community or "commonweal" as described in St. Augustine’s 5th century work, The City of God. In this process, the clerics’ service to rulers blurred the separation of power between Church and state.

These complex entanglements led to struggles between rulers and Church officials throughout the Middle Ages. To compound the problem, lords had land grant power over many abbots (heads of monasteries) and bishops. They received lands from lords to set up monasteries and Church facilities, and they pledged fealty in return. Abbots and bishops sometimes subdivided their land grants among lesser lords, thus setting up their own fighting forces. Because these churchmen had both spiritual and political
Monastic Centers of Learning

In organized religion, monasteries are religious communities bound by vows and often living in partial or complete seclusion. After the 6th century, Medieval Christian monasteries followed the Rule of Saint Benedict of Nursia (Benedictine Rule). It governed the monks and transformed their communities to serve areas as combination hospitals, schools, research libraries, and travel shelters.

The monks' selfless focus on efficient work made monasteries centers from which came ideas on improving agriculture, animal husbandry, cloth making, building techniques, medical treatment, and other useful arts. They also wrote chronicles on everyday life. The monks' command of Latin obligated them to labor intensively at preserving sacred texts and secular works such as the writings of Caesar, Cicero, Virgil, and Ovid to make translations into Latin of the Greek classics such as Aristotle's writings.

Some monasteries remained focused on serving their local region, while some became repositories of learning for kingdoms or, in some cases, the Continent at large. Later in the Middle Ages, new orders of monks became missionaries, spreading Christianity and its unifying culture to Britain, Germany, and Poland.

power, emperors and rulers wanted control over them. On the other hand, archbishops and popes often crowned kings and emperors, and therefore claimed that the Church was the primary universal authority.

In the later Medieval Period, popes increased their power during the investiture controversy. The dispute was over who should appoint (invest) Church officials. In 1122, a Church council forbade all lay (non-Church) investiture of clergy. In the Concordat of Worms, the Holy Roman Emperor compromised and agreed to the selection of bishops and abbots by the clergy.

In the economic arena, the Church collected large amounts through the tithe obligation. Much of this wealth was used for others' benefit, especially financing the work of monasteries. Church regulations forbade usury. Because loans were sinful, many lords were impoverished. Often, they sought funds from outside the Christian community turning to the Jews for loans. These arrangements later led to the establishing of banking houses. Accumulation of wealth among Jews led to prejudice, jealousy, and periodic persecution. Sometimes, defaulting lords expelled Jewish lenders rather than repay them.

ART, ARCHITECTURE AND LITERATURE

Under Charlemagne, scholars and artists focused on classic works of ancient Greece and Rome. At his capital at Aachen, Charlemagne had his palace chapel reflect a Greek-Byzantine design. In the early Middle Ages, the Romanesque styles dominated churches. It evolved into the lighter, refined, and soaring spires of the Gothic style found in the cathedrals and castles of the later Medieval Period.

The monks' illumination of manuscripts reflected classical art. Gospel books and psalters (books of the psalms) for the 8th and 9th centuries have illustrations copied from earlier Greek and Roman texts combined with stylized portraits of the saints.

Carvings, jewelry, painting, and sculpture depicted religious themes, but there were some efforts to preserve the history of the era. For example, the 11th-century Bayeux Tapestry, portrays the Norman conquest of England by William the Conqueror (1066). It is a 230 foot...
long, linen and wool embroidery with words describing scenes celebrating the events of the conquest.

The Church was the source of most Medieval literature. The Crusades' contacts with the Muslim world spawned cross cultural awareness (see next section). Latin translations of classical philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle from Greek and Arabic became the focus of Scholasticism — reconciling the classical works with the teaching of the Church. Scholastic philosophers followed the 5th century Church Father Augustine's famous phrase, "Understand so that you may believe, believe so that you may understand."

The works of Peter Abelard (French, 1079-1142) and Thomas Aquinas (Italian, 1224-1274) are the most significant of the scholastics. Abelard's teachings launched great debates on theology in the 12th century. Thomas Aquinas' magnificent Summa Theologiae reconciled Christian teachings with Aristotelian philosophy. Aquinas' work also examined the Muslim analysts of Plato and Aristotle (Avicenna, Averroes). From the 13th century to the present, it became the basis for much Church doctrine and dogma.

**CRUSADES AND THEIR IMPACT**

During the centuries after the Fall of Rome (476), Western Europe was splintered into many kingdoms and feudal holdings. Charlemagne's Holy Roman Empire was strong for only a few decades, and the Church was the only unifying institution. Yet Western Europe was not isolated. There was constant contact between the West and the Byzantine Empire. Waves of barbarian invaders pounded Europe before and after Charlemagne, changing and blending the cultures. The Muslim conquests expanded into

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**Mini Assessment**

1. In the Medieval Era, the relationship between the lord and those who lived and worked his lands was called

   1. feudalism
   2. illumination
   3. manorialism
   4. investiture

2. The Scholasticism of the Medieval Era
   1. reconciled ancient classics with church teaching
   2. limited the Church's power over kings
   3. governed the rules for feudal relationships
   4. allied military forces to defeat the Vikings

3. Which statement best describes the role of the Christian Church in Medieval Europe?
   1. The Church set the rules for the manorial system.
   2. The Church provided moral and social leadership for the era.
   3. Popes exercised political power through their role as Holy Roman Emperors.
   4. All kings had to follow the Rule of St. Benedict.

---

**Constructed Response:**

"The baron and all vassals of the king are bound to appear before him when he shall summon them, and to serve him at their own expense for forty days and forty nights, with as many knights as each one owes. ... And if the king wishes to keep them more than forty days at their own expense, they are not bound to remain if they do not wish it. And if the king wishes to keep them at his expense for the defense of the realm, they are bound to remain."

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**Legal Rules for Military Service, 1072**

1. How long must vassals give military service to the king at their own expense?

2. Under what circumstances would they be bound to serve longer?

3. What did vassals receive in exchange for military service to their overlord?
Spain, challenging Christian kings and exchanging and renewing knowledge and ideas.

By 1000 AD, the kingdoms of Western and Central Europe, while lacking unity, were growing in wealth and strength. The Byzantine Empire, on the other hand, was declining in size and strength and was threatened by Muslim invaders from Central Asia — the Seljuk Turks. By the end of the 11th century, the Seljuk Turks had conquered Asia Minor (Turkey) and most of the eastern Mediterranean coastal states and cities.

In 1095, Byzantine Emperor Alexius I begged Pope Urban II to send him military aid to stop the Seljuk Turks and rescue the Holy Land. The Pope rallied support for the First Crusade - a military expedition to stop Muslim expansion and restore access to the holy places in Palestine.

Between the 11th and the 14th centuries, European Crusaders launched eight expeditions. Crusaders assumed they were soldiers of Christ and wore a red cloth cross sewn on their tunics. Leaders such as Godfrey of Bouillon, Baldwin of Flanders, England’s Richard the Lion Hearted, France’s Philip II, and Germany’s Frederick II established a number of short-lived Latin Kingdoms in the Middle East. In 1204, Crusaders sacked Constantinople itself and

THE DAMASCUS GATE GATE OF JERUSALEM
A major objective of the Crusaders — c.1200
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Religious  | • To restore the right of Christians to make pilgrimages to the holy shrines in Jerusalem  
|            | • To reunify the Orthodox and Latin branches of the Church under the Pope  
| Political  | • To aid the Byzantine Empire against the Seljuk Turks                | • Led directly to the Turkish wars and expansion of the Ottoman Empire into the Balkans  
| Economic   | • To gain some of the fabulous riches of the East                      | • Drained European resources                                            
|            | • To acquire new feudal lands at a time of crop failures               | • Expanded use of a money economy                                        
|            | • To gain access to trade routes by rising Italian cities (Genoa, Pisa, and Venice) | • Stimulated trade, architecture, and the growing urban culture            |
| Cultural   | • (see religions)                                                      | • Broadened contacts with the Muslim world                                
|            |                                                                      | • Prepared Europe for the discoveries of the modern age                  
|            |                                                                      | • Transmitted Islamic science, philosophy, and medicine to the West       |

later temporarily overthrew the Byzantine Empire (restored in 1261). Also, there were minor crusades against against Slavic pagans in Germany (1147), Prussian and Lithuanian pagans near the Baltic Sea (1198-1411), heretics in southern France (1209-29), and against the Moors in Spain until 1492 (Reconquista).

Teutonic, Viking, and Central Asian invasions of Western Europe created a time of turmoil. The Christian Church slowly became the preserver and unifier of European culture. Manorialism created an isolated economic order, while feudalism created a stratified social and political order and stability.

As the Byzantine Empire struggled to preserve classical culture, Islam arose. In its struggle to spread its beliefs, it reorganized, revitalized, and spread Arab culture from India to Spain.

Amid all the danger and divisive forces, cultures intermingled. Intellectual and scientific discoveries crossed cultures with the journeys of religious missionaries, diplomats, and scholars. Trade junkets and military expeditions, such as the Christian Crusades and the Islamic Jihads, also caused civilization to widen in scope. The stage was set for changes that ushered in a new global age.
MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. In the Gupta Empire of India (320-550 AD), classics such as *Shakuntala* and *Meghaduta* were based on
   1. the teachings of Buddha
   2. Hindu tradition
   3. Confucian morality
   4. Islamic law

2. After subduing local warlords and ending invasions from Central Asia in the 7th century, the Tang rulers claimed authority through
   1. Benedictine rule
   2. Missi Domenici
   3. The Edict of Milan
   4. The Mandate of Heaven

3. Geography influenced the economic life of the Byzantine Empire because of its nearness to
   1. monsoon wind systems
   2. protective mountain systems
   3. fertile river valleys
   4. major bodies of water

4. Although it controlled much of the Mediterranean Basin after the fall of the Roman Empire, the Byzantine Empire was
   1. purely Greek in culture
   2. ruled democratically
   3. frequently under foreign attack
   4. conquered by the Roman legions

5. Byzantine culture preserved and blended
   1. Christian liturgy and Hellenistic culture
   2. Sunni and Shi'ite schisms
   3. Sanskrit and Chinese technology
   4. Carolingian bureaucracy and Viking culture

Base your answers to questions 3 and 4 on the map below and your knowledge of global history.
6 Unlike contemporary Indian and Byzantine civilizations, which element was not prevalent in early Islamic society?
   1 slavery       3 social castes
   2 taxation      4 golden ages

7 Seventh century Islamic art and architecture
   1 remained isolated from foreign styles
   2 blended styles of many cultures
   3 banned all Christian influences
   4 was available only to merchant classes

8 Under manorialism, tenants agreed to work the lord's demesne in exchange for
   1 military protection
   2 religious salvation
   3 collection of the tithe
   4 cultural diffusion

9 In the late Middle Ages, popes increased their political power as a result of the
   1 work of merchants
   2 investiture controversy
   3 mandate of heaven
   4 monastic rules

10 Pope Leo's crowning of Charlemagne in the 9th century united
    1 Empires of the Gupta and T'ang
    2 Western and Central Europe for a few decades
    3 Orthodox and Roman Christian Churches
    4 peoples of the Byzantine and Roman cultures

11 Under feudalism, vassals and lords observed chivalry, a code which guided
    1 agricultural production cycles
    2 theological learning
    3 marriage rites
    4 ethical behavior and loyalties

12 "And so, between the 11th and 15th centuries, a long series of campaigns channeled surplus manpower and energy into a Western counteroffensive. ..."
The "series of campaigns" refers to the
   1 Golden Ages
   2 Varangian Wars
   3 Christian Crusades
   4 Islamic Jihad

**THEMATIC ESSAY**

**Theme:** Political and economic systems

Political, economic, and social conditions often alter human existence.

**Task:**
- Define self-sufficiency.
- Explain how the medieval manor was self-sufficient.
- Why was it necessary for the Medieval manor to be self-sufficient?

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION**

**Directions:**
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-5). Some of the documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. The question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your thesis position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.
**Historical Context:**
Some scholars hold that the Christian Church of Rome exerted significant influence in Medieval European society. The documents below present some aspects of Church activity.

**Task:**
Decide whether the role played by the Christian Church of Rome was a positive or a negative force in Medieval European society and support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of global history.

**Part A - Short Answer**
The documents below relate aspects of the Christian Church of Rome influence in Medieval European society. Examine each document carefully, then answer the question that follows it.

---

**Document 1:**
"[In the Dark Ages] throughout Europe, whenever the turmoil subsided and barbarian rule took root, the new masters came to rely more and more on the civilizing counsel of men of the Church. As experienced administrators and as custodians of the knowledge and learning of the past, these men started Europe on its slow, upward climb out of chaos."

*The Age of Faith*

**Document 1 Question:**
Why did barbarian kings use clergy as advisors and to organize their realms?

---

**Document 2:**
"Thus concerning the Church and her power, is the prophecy of Jerimiah fulfilled, ‘See, I have this day set thee over the nations and the kingdoms,’ ...Furthermore we declare, state, define and pronounce that it is altogether necessary to salvation for every human creature to be subject to the Roman pontiff."

*Pope Boniface VIII, Unam Sanctam (1302)*

**Document 2 Question:**
How might kings and lords view this statement?

---

**Document 3:**

**Document 3 Question:**
How did the cultural activity depicted in this scene influence Medieval society?
**Document 4 Question:**

How did the Church's music influence Medieval society?

**Document 5 Question:**

On what basis is Urban trying to rally support for a crusade in the Holy Land?

---

**Part B - Essay Response**

**Discuss the Church as a force in Medieval society.**

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis as to the role of the Medieval Church. Develop and support the reasons for your thesis in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
Unit 4
1100 AD – 1650 AD

BC
3000-
Yayoi people move into Japan from Asia (3000 BC)

AD
600-
Japan’s Classical Heian Period (604 AD)

1100-
Minamoto Yoritomo becomes Shogun (1180 AD)

1200-
Genghis Khan launches the Mongol Invasions (1206 AD)

1300-
Black Death sweeps through Europe (1348 AD)

1400-
Renaissance takes hold in Europe (1400 AD)
Zheng He’s expeditions to South Asia and Africa (1405 AD)

1453-
Turks capture Constantinople (1453 AD)

1498-
Vasco DaGama arrives in India (1498 AD)

1517-
Protestant Reformation begins – Luther posts 95 Theses (1517 AD)

1600-
British East India Company founded (1600 AD)
INTRODUCTION

Around 1000 AD, civilizations in East Asia and Europe went through political and social changes that led to interactions that paved the way for the modern age. Japan emerged as a unique civilization. China regrouped into a formidable power. Mongol conquerors from Central Asia swept through India, the Middle East, and into Eastern Europe. They then brought a peace that allowed trade to revive between Europe and Asia. Europe revived after the Crusades. Its commercial interactions caused upheavals of feudal life that began challenging all its institutions.

EARLY JAPANESE HISTORY AND FEUDALISM

SPATIAL ORGANIZATION / GEOGRAPHY

Japanese society emerged as a unique island culture nearly 10,000 years ago. The formidable natural environment of the archipelago (island group) made settlement difficult. The southern three of its major islands (Honshu, Shikoku, Kyushu) have a mild climate (Koppen-type Am) tempered by warm ocean currents and monsoons. The northern islands, such as Hokkaido, have a rainy, cold winter climate (Koppen-type Df) intensified by cold ocean currents from the Arctic. Earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, landslides, and tsunami afflicting the islands. The land (142,000 sq. mi.) is mostly rugged mountains and arable land limited to small river valleys. Early on, the Japanese turned to the seas for food.

1 tsunami (very large ocean wave caused by an underwater earthquake, underwater landslides, or volcanic eruption)
2 arable land (agriculturally suitable to be cultivated and plowed)
3 Shinto (religion native to Japan, characterized by veneration of nature spirits and ancestors and by a lack of formal dogma)

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Mt. Fuji, a massive dormant volcano is a symbol of Japanese culture's respect for the forces of nature that shaped ancient Shinto beliefs. ©PhotoDisc, Inc 1994

rituals to the Japanese imperial court. Buddhist influence became particularly strong in this era.

In 604, Shotoku Taishi created central authority based on laws related to China's Confucian social order. In 646, the rulers redistributed land to break the power of a rising aristocracy. Japan's first permanent capital was built at Nara in 710. The aristocrats' power was transferred to a nobility-controlled, Chinese-style bureaucracy (without a merit examination system). Nara became the center of Buddhist activity, and priests influenced the government until a new capital was founded at Heian in 794.

Although contact with China lessened, the Japanese court at Heian oversaw a great cultural period from the 9th through the 11th centuries. Poet Sei Shonagon (c. 966-1013) produced The Pillow-Book, a diary describing court life. Murasaki Shikibu (c. 978-1026), wrote the classic Tale of Genji, an early novel of life among the court nobles. However, Heian was a world to itself. The emperor ruled the city, but in the country beyond, the great uji retained power.

By the 11th century, the imperial land reforms of the 7th century had crumbled. Families such as the Fujiwara controlled the country and founded feudal estates. At Heian,

TIES WITH CHINA AND KOREA:
CULTURAL DIFFUSION -
BUDDHISM AND CONFUCIANISM

From this blend of early people, a ruling uji (clan) arose in the southern part of Honshu – the Yamato. The Yamato chiefs claimed descent from the goddess Amaterasu. They formed alliances among the clans and unified the country by the 4th century AD. In the next century, military expeditions into Korea and scholarly pilgrimages brought contact with China. The Yamato even had a colony in Mimana, on the southern tip of the Korean Peninsula. Japan gradually adopted Chinese script. In 538, Buddhism¹ was introduced and began intermixing with Shinto.

Beginning in the 6th century, and for the next 200 years, many Japanese travelers and diplomats visited the T'ang capital in Chang-an. Returning visitors and scholars introduced Chinese language, writing, cuisine, dress, and

¹ Buddhism (doctrine, attributed to Buddha, that suffering is inseparable from existence but that inward extinction of the self and of worldly desire culminates in a state of spiritual enlightenment beyond both suffering and existence)

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the Fujiwara intermarried with the emperor's family. In the 11th century, they became the ruling group. Power shifted to the independent land-holding warriors and their *samurai*¹ (vassal knights). The samurai gave their loyalty to the *shogun*² – the chief military commander. The shoguns eventually moved Japan into a feudal culture that lasted until modern times.

**JAPANESE FEUDAL SOCIETY**

As in Medieval Europe, the political and social structure of Japan was land-based. Although the feudal systems were different, historians note significant similarities between the two regions.

As land fell into private hands in the provinces, new feudal lords arose – the *daimyo*³. Gradually, the daimyo replaced the imperial court nobles in power. They formed alliances and sometimes warred among themselves. They created private armies staffed by samurai. The daimyo guaranteed the samurai land holdings in return for military service.

The daimyo and their samurai became the bureaucracy at the head of Japan's class system. Next came the peasants, artisans, and merchants.

As in Europe, samurai vassals lived in strongholds. Unlike Europe, peasants were not bound to the land as were serfs, but they did pay high taxes. Around 1000 AD, towns gradually became market centers, and a new style of urban life began to develop.

In the 12th century, the Minamoto family emerged as the strongest daimyo group. As a result of a civil war in 1180, *Minamoto Yoritomo* (r. 1192-1199) became shogun. He set up a military alliance of daimyo that ruled Japan until 1868. In these years, the emperors became figurehead rulers, with no power. The shogun oversaw a system of samurai military governors. In the later stages of the shogunate, the daimyo followed the code of *bushido*⁴ – a combination of chivalry, Confucian-military discipline, and Zen Buddhism. From time to time, emperors tried to overthrow shoguns and gain control through civil wars, but they were largely unsuccessful.

The power of the shogun was demonstrated in the 13th century, when China's Mongol ruler, Kublai Khan, attempted to invade Japan. Twice the daimyo defeated the Mongol fleets. They were aided by violent storms that legend refers to as *kamikaze* (divine winds).

**TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE**

From 1603 to 1687, a long line of shoguns descended from *Tokugawa Ieyasu* ruled Japan. After moving the capital to Edo (now Tokyo), the Tokugawa Shoguns became obsessed with discipline and order. They blocked social and political change.

To avoid the conspiracies which plagued other shogunates, they made all daimyo live in the capital. If a lord left Edo, family members had to be left at Edo as hostages.

After 1639, the Tokugawa Shoguns began a **seclusion policy**. It isolated the country from the outside world. They restricted trade to one tightly guarded port – Nagasaki. Only ships from China and the Netherlands were allowed to enter. They expelled Christian missionaries and persecuted Japanese Christians.
SOCIETY AND CULTURE
UNDER THE SHOGUNS

Peace brought prosperity. Internal trade in textiles and food blossomed, but Japanese society became static. By law, a strict, hereditary social order was imposed. Classes descended from warriors to farmers to artisans to merchants. Farmers became bound to the land just as the serfs had in Europe. There were peasant rebellions in the countryside in the 1400s. They reduced the shoguns’ power and enhanced the prestige of local warlords and clans. However, the rebellions never improved the peasants’ lot. The only class to expand were the merchants who provided goods for the daimyo while lending money to them.

Still, the arts flowered in the general prosperity of the shogunate. Dramatic classics emerged from the Noh theater (Zen Buddhist themes), and later, the kabuki theater offered more free-wheeling comedy and drama. A national literature burgeoned with works such as Heike Monogatari (The Tale of Heike, 1240) and Tsurezure Gusa (Idle Jottings, 1320). Short stories, essays, and poetry such as the simple, three-line haiku1 flourished. Architects created masterpieces such as the Golden Pavilion (1395) and the Moss Garden of Kyoto (15th century).

RISE AND FALL OF THE MONGOLS
AND THEIR IMPACT ON EURASIA

ORIGINS

The Mongols were descendants of a variety of nomadic people of the Central Asian Plateau including the Huns, Turks, and Uighurs. In 1206, a fierce warrior, Temujin (1167-1227), united the Mongols. They proclaimed him the “universal ruler,” Genghis Khan. He launched a highly organized, disciplined cavalry against China. In 1215, the Mongols conquered Beijing laying the groundwork for the Yuan Dynasty.

In 1219, Genghis Khan sent the Mongols westward and took the Central Asian trading cities of Tashkent, Samarkand, and Bukhara. The Mongols moved into the steppes of Russia and through Himalaya passes into India.

---

1 haiku (Japanese lyric verse form having three unrhymed lines of five, seven, and five syllables, traditionally invoking an aspect of nature or the seasons)
THE MONGOL EMPIRE

Genghis Khan created the largest empire in human history. The Mongol domain eventually stretched from the Pacific Ocean to the Black Sea. When the “universal ruler” died in 1227, his descendants divided his empire into four khanates:

- China – empire of Kublai Khan (Yuan Dynasty 1279-1368)
- Persia – Hulegu Khanate
- Turkestan – Jagatai Khanate
- Russia – Khanate of the Golden Horde

By the 14th century, Mongol drives brought them into Central Europe, India, and Southeast Asia. They were destructive as conquerors, but more benevolent as rulers. Rarely did they impose a social or political order on conquered peoples, nor did they enslave large groups. Except in Russia, the Mongols absorbed and assimilated local cultures. However, they did extort heavy tribute. Their tight discipline and military control over a vast area ensured peace and security.

Because of this regional stability, some historians even refer to the brief era of Mongol rule as the “Pax Mongolia,” and compare it to the Pax Romana (31 BC - 167 AD). As a result of the stability, trade among societies in Asia, the Middle East, and Europe strengthened. Travel and wealth increased in the region. In the 14th century, the Mongol khanates disintegrated. Timur Lenk (“Tamerlane”), a Turk-Mongol, briefly revitalized the Persian and Turkestian khanates. He challenged the Ottomans for Asia Minor, but his empire collapsed after his death in 1405.
THE YUAN DYNASTY: RULBy NON-CHINESE

The Mongol conquest marked the first time foreigners had ruled over all of China. Genghis Khan’s grandson, Kublai Khan, set up the Yuan Dynasty (1279-1368). At his capital at Beijing, high officials were Mongols. Yet, he retained the Confucian Chinese bureaucracy. He did not make great changes in Chinese governmental structure. However, he opened China to contacts with the world at large. Frequent Middle Eastern and European visitors included Christian missionaries and traders.

Economic problems and resentment of the foreign dominance of Kublai Khan’s successors led to a rebellion in 1368. The Chinese overthrew the Yuan Dynasty and set up the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644).

MONGOL INTERACTION WITH THE WEST

The Mongols’ discipline and control over a vast area strengthened trade between Asia and the Middle East and Europe. It reestablished the Silk Route, and brought more travel and wealth. Two famous traveler-explorers in the region were the Italian Marco Polo (1254-1324) and the Arab Ibn Battuta (1304-1368).

Marco Polo of Venice wrote of his adventures as a merchant in Asia with his father and uncle. In 1271, they crossed the Mongol khanates of Central Asia along the old Silk Route. For 17 years, they served at Kublai Khan’s court. Marco Polo’s tales aroused Western interest in trade with the Orient.

The security of Mongol rule also allowed Ibn Battuta to travel through Central and South Asia. Between 1325 and 1354, he is said to have traveled a remarkable 75,000 miles. He also journeyed to North and East Africa, India, and the Middle East. His tales expanded knowledge of the world beyond Europe and the Middle East.

GLOBAL TRADE INTERACTIONS

When the era of the Crusades dawned, Constantinople was the main connection between the West and Asia. Later, new global trading centers arose with the demand for goods. Commercial interests and adventurers in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Connections</th>
<th>Background</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canton, China</td>
<td>Asian goods traded for Indian, Persian, Arab, and</td>
<td>Settled in 9th century BC, it became earliest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(now Guangzhou)</td>
<td>European goods</td>
<td>Chinese international port. European traders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>came during the T’ang dynasty (618-907). Foreign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairo, Egypt</td>
<td>Middle Eastern goods</td>
<td>merchants were confined to a small area outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>traded for East and Sub-Saharan African, Central</td>
<td>the city wall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asian, Indian, European goods</td>
<td>This old Roman town was made military camp by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice, Italy</td>
<td>European goods exchanged for Middle</td>
<td>Arabs in 640. Its real growth began under Fatim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eastern, African, Central Asian, Chinese,</td>
<td>id dynasty after 969 and expanded under Saladin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and Indian goods</td>
<td>in late 12th century. It declined after plagues,</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Mongol attack (c.1400), and the Turkish</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>conquest (1517).</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Venice controlled Adriatic Sea (9th century AD)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and became a chief staging area for the</td>
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<td>Crusades. After the 4th Crusade devastated</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constantinople (1204) and Venice defeated rival</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Genoa in 1380. It was unchallenged in Mediter-</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>ranean. Venice led a coalition against Turks at</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the Battle of Lepanto (1571).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Mini Assessment**

1. Which is an example of cultural diffusion?
   - Shinto was partially derived from animism.

2. 12th century wars elevated the shoguns to power.

3. Tokugawa shoguns enforced a seclusion policy.

4. Nara became a center for Chinese Buddhist missionaries.

2. Which resulted from Mongol rule over a vast area of Eurasia?
   - Mongols enslaved large numbers of conquered people.
   - Japanese rulers copied the Chinese-style bureaucracy.
   - It allowed the travels of Ibn Battuta and Marco Polo.
   - Bushido became the Samurai code of behavior.

3. In which area did Mongol rule last longest?
   - China
   - Russia
   - India
   - Southwest Asia

**Constructed Response:**

1. Which two factors in the diagram are the basis for Mongol rule?

2. Why do historians compare the Pax Mongol to the Pax Romana?

---

**Expansion of Chinese Trade**

In the mid-14th century, the Ming Dynasty emerged from years of rebellion against the Mongol Yuan Dynasty. The Ming rulers restored traditional customs and order to China. With new farming techniques came increased food and agricultural surpluses that broadened trade. The Ming rulers devoted efforts to public works (canals, irrigation). Prosperity led to a flowering of the arts and compiling of great historical volumes.

The early Ming emperors launched a series of large-scale maritime expeditions. In 1405, the adventurous admiral Zheng He (or Cheng Ho) left Ming shores with an expeditionary fleet of hundreds of ships. In seven great expeditions over the next thirty years, Zheng He's fleets ventured to the East Indies, India, Persia, and along the East African coast. Chinese merchants followed in his wake, spreading Chinese culture throughout the Eastern Hemisphere. However, later Ming emperors felt the expeditions were too expensive and curtailed them. They also felt that China was superior to all other civilizations. With the attitude of “let others come to us,” they allowed a six thousand ship navy to fall into ruin. The Ming emperors' Confucian officials held merchants in low esteem. Disregarding the sea, they turned their attention to strengthening China's northern borders.

**Portuguese Trade Expansion**

At the western end of the Silk Routes, the hostile Turks blocked European traders from crossing to the Middle East and Central Asia. Traders received little help from China. Because it was rich and self-sufficient, China did not have the same economic energy as the West. With land routes blocked, Westerners sought water routes to lower trading costs.

In the early 1400s, Portugal was driving the Muslims from the Iberian Peninsula. Also, it launched military expeditions against Muslim
Portuguese exploits drew mariners from Spain and the Netherlands into longer oceanic ventures. The Age of Exploration aroused European interest in the 16th and 17th centuries.

**Resurgence of Europe**

**Europe Revives**

Many changes affected Europe in the late Middle Ages. The Crusades accelerated consciousness of other cultures. They also brought awareness of new products. At the same time, forces were breaking down the static life of manorialism. As drier, cooler climatic conditions developed, cereal production increased. Slow, but steady advances in agricultural technology led to surpluses. From 1000-1300, economic change was spurred by new technology:

- marsh drainage
- iron plows and harrows
- collar harnesses (allowed use of horses in plowing rather than slower oxen)
- water-mills and wind-mills (process grain)

Knowledge accumulated at Cape St. Vincent helped mariners overcome fears of open-water sailing. From these beginnings, the Portuguese became the European leaders in African coastal exploration. Bartolomeu Dias reached Africa’s Cape of Good Hope in the late 1480s. Vasco da Gama reached India by rounding the Cape in 1497. The Portuguese adventurers built a trading empire along the seacoasts of East Africa, Arabia, India, the East Indies, Indochina, and China. The

---

1 chart (map showing coastlines, water depths, or other information of use to navigators)
2 magnetic compass (instrument that uses a magnetized steel bar to indicate direction relative to the Earth's magnetic pole)
3 astrolabe (Medieval instrument, now replaced by the sextant, that was once used to determine the altitude of the Sun or other celestial bodies)
All of these simple innovations made farms larger and more productive. The surpluses led to trade, more plentiful food, and greater material comfort. These factors brought population increases. Between the 10th and 13th centuries, Europe's population doubled to 60 million.

FAIRS, TOWNS, AND GUILDS

As population increased, demand for goods rose. General peace made travel safer. Merchants ventured out among settlements to meet demand. This increased interaction among people at seasonal trade fairs, such as the famous one in Champagne in eastern France. Later, permanent trading centers appeared along well-traveled routes near larger castles and universities. Centers for the linen and wool trade (Flanders) and Eastern spices (northern Italy) grew into significant Medieval towns. Artisans in these centers began distributing their goods through traveling merchants.

As the early towns formed, kings and local feudal lords charged fees to merchants and artisans in exchange for protection and operating space. The kings and lords formalized the arrangements by granting official contracts to merchant councils. Gradually, these charters became the bases for town government.

Town dwellers who made their money through trade or industry (as opposed to peasants who worked the land) came to be called burghers in Germany. In France they were bourgeoisie; in England, they were burgesses. As the land-bound feudal system broke down, these burghers became the “middle class” between the lords and the peasants. As burghers grew wealthier, they formed councils to regulate trade, levy taxes, and administer justice. The councils were oligarchies that governed towns and rendered protection. They built walls, fortifications, and port facilities.

Very slowly, towns became independent of the local lords. In Italy, some towns grew into city-states (Venice, Milan, Florence) and emerged as small, independent republics. Self-government, sanctuary, and freedoms increased.

The towns grew rapidly with little planning. There were no building codes. Houses were constructed of thatch and wood and heated by open fires. Houses and whole towns burned frequently. There was no sanitary processing of wastes; diseases such as cholera and typhus spread rapidly.

Between the 12th and 15th centuries, merchants and artisans tried to control trade by forming monopolies called guilds. These were alliances among the members of an occupation. Only members of the guild could practice that trade in the town.

Master craftsmen made arrangements with parents to take their sons and teach them as apprentices. Guilds regulated apprentices for 2 to 15 years, then certified them as journeymen. Journeymen worked for pay until the guild certified them as masters. The guilds had many important activities:

- contributed to the defense of the town and provided leaders to keep order
- regulated trade and industry (quality, just prices)
- provided technical training
- organized social welfare for members
- promoted building of cathedrals and universities
- developed artistic crafts

1. charter (written grant from the sovereign power conferring certain rights and privileges on a person or group)
2. burgher (member of the mercantile class of a Medieval European city)
3. guilds (associations of persons of the same trade or pursuit, formed to protect mutual interests and maintain standards, as of merchants or artisans)
4. master craftsmen (highly skilled workers such as blacksmiths, weavers, armories)
5. apprentices (beginner learning a trade or occupation, especially as a member of a guild)
6. journeyman (qualified worker in another's employ who has fully served an apprenticeship in a trade or craft and is experienced and competent)

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BLACK DEATH – Bubonic Plague

In the late Middle Ages, poor sanitation in rapidly growing, tightly packed towns led to frequent plagues and epidemics. Between 1348-1353, bubonic plague wiped out nearly one-third of Europe’s population. Known among the Mongols, it appears to have been carried by rats on ships traveling from Black Sea ports into the Mediterranean. In six years, it swept across Europe like a tidal wave, killing millions from Sicily to Scotland.

Death toll estimates in 14th century Europe, Asia, and Africa exceed 100 million. It took two centuries to bring the population back to 1347 levels. Bubonic plague is caused by a bacterium transmitted by fleas that have fed on the blood of infected rats, it is commonly transmitted by breathing air exhaled by infected persons. It spreads through the bloodstream and the lymphatic system. In untreated cases, death occurs within a few days - and unlike today, there was no cure in the 1300s.

The Black Death disrupted Asian trade routes and brought Europe’s revival to a standstill. It triggered crop shortages and famines since few were left to tend the farms. Guilds and crafts suffered as master craftsmen were lost. Knowledge of the law declined as jurists perished, and universities closed for lack of staff. Serfs and peasants rebelled or ran off when lords demanded pre-plague payments they could not make. In some areas, loss of serfs meant lords had to begin paying wages to laborers.

THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

The Black Death took a terrible toll on the revival of Europe, but so did ongoing warfare. In the Hundred Years’ War (1337-1453), France and England battled sporadically over dynastic claims in France. The conflicts symbolized the change in loyalties in Europe as power shifted from local feudal lords to national monarchs.

England’s feudal claims in France were contested by French monarchs. The English registered several convincing victories in the long string of clashes ( Crécy, Agincourt, Poitiers). However, the French, led by Joan of Arc, won a decisive battle at Orleans in 1429. The English were expelled and the French nation’s modern borders were established.

COMMERCIAL REVIVAL

By 1000 AD, the broadening of contact among people in Europe caused a need for better ways of transacting business than bartering. As town life grew complex, the need to simplify and speed up trade became important. The use of money as a common medium of exchange revived. (Most ancient civilizations had coinage, but its use fell off under manorialism.) Traveling merchants began to carry many different kinds of money.

This led to the need for agents (bankers) to change one kind of money into another. These early bankers began to store money for customers and issue credit certificates. The certificates began to function as a form of paper money. These early bankers also began lending money. At certain times, merchants and artisans needed

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1 bartering (to trade goods or services without the exchange of money)
2 money (commodity, such as gold, or an officially issued coin or paper note that is legally established as an exchangeable equivalent of all other commodities, such as goods and services)
THE RESURRECTION OF MONEY

Coinage was invented in ancient China. Coins were common in the Roman Empire, but went out of use as the isolated manorial life patterns emerged on the manors of Medieval Europe. Peasants cultivated large estates in return for services and dues paid to their lords. Transactions were simple, localized barter arrangements.

As trading towns redeveloped after 1000 AD, commercial transactions became too complex for barter to work. Money reemerged as the basic medium (tool) of exchange.

Some individuals were long acquainted with trading gold and became experts at valuing the large variety of currencies that began to appear as the scope of trade broadened. Being outside the Church’s authority and rules on usury, Jews were traditionally in positions to act as money changers and lenders. The independence of the Italian city states also allowed families such as the Medici of Florence to become bankers.

larger quantities of money to make exchanges when traveling traders came to town. At other times, they needed to buy materials in advance so that goods would be ready when a busy season began (e.g., harvest, feasts, or holidays).

Sometimes merchants and bankers pooled their wealth in local partnerships to buy very large quantities of raw material. Some formed leagues among neighboring towns for convoys, caravans, and trading expeditions.

The accelerated use of money to finance commercial activities signaled the onset of capitalism. Capitalism is an economic system that flows from private ownership of productive resources. Although the modern economic system of capitalism evolved slowly, its basic components were present in the late medieval period.

Expansion depends on individuals acquiring and reinvesting profits. As businesses borrow large sums of money (capital) to expand production, more goods become available (supply) to meet consumer wants (demand). The development of capitalist structures such as money and banking allowed the growth of global trade.

Gradually, new forms of business organization emerged. To finance broad trading ventures, businessmen formed joint stock companies such as the British and Dutch East India Companies (c. 1600). These companies sold stocks to raise large amounts of money from many small investors. Later, in the Age of Exploration, joint stock companies became the main way to finance colonial ventures.

EUROPEAN TRADING STRUCTURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hanseatic League</td>
<td>The League grew out of Medieval merchants traveling together for safety. It was an association of Medieval north European cities formed in the 13th century. It grew to 200 towns in the 14th century and lasted until the 17th century. The League had a central diet (assembly) that met to make rules on common commercial interests, provide defense against piracy on the Baltic and North Seas, and prepare charts and navigational aids, and negotiate trade treaties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian City-states</td>
<td>In the 11th century, wealthy merchants, bankers, and tradespeople in Northern Italy broke away from feudal nobles to form independent city-states. Genoa, Florence, Pisa, Milan, and Venice fought to remain free and manage their own affairs and defenses. In the later Medieval Era, their wealth and cosmopolitanism (worldly sophistication, awareness of many spheres of interest) launched the European cultural Renaissance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. capitalism (economic system in which the means of production and distribution are privately or corporately owned and development is proportionate to the accumulation and reinvestment of profit made in a free market)

2. stocks (ownership shares in a company giving the stockholders dividends)
Another early form of business organization was the **domestic system**. Businessmen acted as agents, coordinating people doing piecework in their homes. The businessmen organized the labor and provided the materials. They then collected and marketed the goods. Centuries later, the factory system would put all workers and managers under one roof.

**WESTERN EUROPE’S TRADE CORRIDOR**

The revival of Western Europe’s economy arose out of the merging of two areas – the Italian ports and the northern “cloth towns.” The woolens and linens of Ypres, Lille, and Ghent moved southward to Milan, Venice, and Genoa. Cotton, spices, luxury fabrics, and gold of Africa and Asia found their way from the eastern Mediterranean’s Levant to the Italian ports. It then moved northward along the Rhone, Rhine, and Seine Rivers into the interior of Europe and outward to the Atlantic Coast. The broad corridor that connected these two zones became the avenue of revitalized trade. As the key cities grew, other trade structures and alliances formed to accelerate the interaction of commerce.

**RENAISSANCE AND HUMANISM**

Economic and political shifts can lead to cultural change. In the late Medieval Era, production of surpluses spurred trade and the rise of town life. This triggered new cultural interactions. Struggles for power between the Church and temporal rulers led to re-examination of views on power. From the early 14th to the late 16th century, a revival of interest in the values

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**Mini Assessment**

1. Which combination led to Portugal’s leadership in exploration of sea routes to Asia?
   - technological change and navigational studies
   - Medieval trade fairs and the bubonic plague
   - Baltic trade alliances and guilds
   - the Hundred Years War and the domestic system

2. Under the early Ming rulers, Admiral Zeng He’s expeditions spread awareness of
   - capitalism into Mongolia
   - manorialism into Western Europe
   - China’s culture in the Eastern Hemisphere
   - Buddhism throughout Africa

3. Which accelerated the growth of towns and trade in Europe in the late Middle Ages?
   - agricultural technology yielded marketable surpluses
   - Ming Confucian officials’ low esteem for merchants
   - lack of construction codes in early towns
   - guild regulation of apprentices for 2-15 years

**Constructed Response:**

1. What did Northern and Western Europe supply to Venice for global trade?

2. Why did Venice become a world trading capital in the 11th century?
# Renaissance Achievements

## Literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Key Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Petrarch (Francesco Petrarca)</td>
<td><em>Africenus; sonnets</em></td>
<td>sonnets and love songs in Italian and classical Latin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giovanni Boccaccio</td>
<td><em>Decameron</em></td>
<td>100 traditional tales of Medieval life in vernacular Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dante Alighieri</td>
<td><em>The Divine Comedy</em></td>
<td>epic allegory in Italian vernacular describes a journey through hell, purgatory and paradise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geoffery Chaucer</td>
<td><em>Canterbury Tales</em></td>
<td>pilgrims tell tales of Medieval life in vernacular English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desiderius Erasmus</td>
<td><em>Praise of Folly</em></td>
<td>used teachings of the Bible, early Christianity, and ancient pagan thinkers to ridicule the corruption of officials and the clergy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas More</td>
<td><em>Utopia</em></td>
<td>lashed into the unjust social and economic corruption in England; describes an ideal state based on humanist reason</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francois Rabelais</td>
<td><em>Gargantua and Pantagruel</em></td>
<td>humanist attack on older Medieval values; call for Church reform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miguel de Cervantes</td>
<td><em>Don Quixote</em></td>
<td>Intended to poke fun at the Spanish romances of chivalry and to analyze the value of idealism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Italian Art and Architecture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Key Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leonardo da Vinci</td>
<td><em>Mona Lisa; Last Supper</em></td>
<td>model &quot;Renaissance Man&quot; - experimented in the arts, mechanics, science; constructed fountains, fortifications, churches; experimented in manned flight, war machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michelangelo Buonarroti</td>
<td><em>Moses, David, Sistine Chapel ceiling, Disputa, Sistine Madonna</em></td>
<td>Biblical and classical figures of athletic prowess and dynamic action; painting, sculpture, and architecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raphael</td>
<td></td>
<td>classical forms, allegories, madonnas, and subjects from antiquity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Political Science

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Key Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niccolo Machiavelli</td>
<td><em>The Prince, Discourses</em></td>
<td>advice on increasing and holding power; recommended that absolute monarchs preserve power pragmatically (use violence carefully, respecting subjects and their property and preserve prosperity); claimed political actions have consequences that cannot be fully controlled, and the ruler must sometimes accept that &quot;the end justifies the means;&quot; called for Italian unity and an end to foreign intervention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Technical Innovation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Key Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Johann Gutenberg</td>
<td>movable type, printing ink, letter press process</td>
<td>invented printing from movable type in Europe (already being done in China from the 8th century); supplied the needs for more and cheaper reading matter and expanded learning and communication</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and arts of Greece and Rome led to a golden age of cultural blending and innovation. Later scholars called the era a period of "rebirth." This Renaissance\(^1\) transformed Western European life.

During the Renaissance, the Western Europeans' world image shifted from a strictly religious view to a more secular (worldly) outlook. Unlike the religious scholastics of the late Medieval Period (Aquinas, Abelard), Renaissance intellectuals had a growing confidence in individual human spirit and abilities (e.g., "...humans as masters of their own fate"). This new outlook came to be called Humanism\(^2\). It focused on the personal worth of the individual and human values, as opposed to religious belief. Renaissance humanists were influenced by the study of ancient Greek and Latin literature and philosophy. They tried to show that ancient values were consistent with Christian teachings and could help people toward better lives. Humanists were present-centered. They focused on life now, rather than the spiritual hereafter.

It was natural that Northern Italy became a cradle of humanism in the 14th century. The independence and wealth of the Northern Italian city-states allowed artists and scholars to explore ideas and learning of the ancient world and civilizations of the Eastern Mediterranean. They had little interference or official censorship.

\(1\) Renaissance (humanistic classical art, architecture, literature, and learning that originated in Italy in the 14th through the 16th century spreading throughout Europe, marking the transition from medieval to modern times)

\(2\) Humanism (cultural and intellectual movement of the Renaissance that emphasized secular concerns as a result of the rediscovery and study of the literature, art, and civilization of ancient Greece and Rome)

\(3\) status quo (existing condition or state of affairs)

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Florence, Italy

Center of Renaissance Art

**RELIGIOUS REFORMATION**

For nearly 200 years problems divided the Roman Catholic Church. From 1309 to 1377, French popes ruled from Avignon under the influence of the French monarchs. After the papal court returned to Rome, mobs forced the College of Cardinals to elect an Italian pope. Simultaneously, another French cardinal claimed the papacy and set up court again in Avignon. During this Great Schism (1377-1414), two popes (and at one point, three) tried to rule Christendom. The Church Council of Constance (1414-1418) finally resolved the issue. The papal schism seriously undermined Church authority. During this same period, the Black Death decimated Church leadership. Scattered reformers protested the clergy's corruption. They began questioning its authority. Another result of the chaos was that political influence shifted toward monarchs.

In addition to these forces, the economic and social changes of the Renaissance altered the Medieval status quo\(^3\) in Western Europe. These sweeping changes of the 14th and 15th centuries made life closer to what we know today. In the spirit of Renaissance humanism, people questioned tradition. Economic individualism and early capitalism made people more self-reliant and innovative. The printing press enabled writers to circulate new ideas and pose new questions. In the mid-1400s, there were 100,000 manuscripts circulating in Europe, although only about ten percent of the population could read. By 1500, there were an estimated 9 million books in print. (Most of them were religious in nature.)

Eventually, this new, questioning attitude changed social behavior and institutions. It affected the most powerful institution – the Roman Catholic Church. The result was a turbulent religious reform movement – the Protestant Reformation.
In the 16th century, reformers protested the corrupt practices of the Church — thus, they became known as Protestants. Corruption included simony, bribery of Church officials, and selling of indulgences. Protestant reformers wanted to restore the Church to its early Christian roots. Although there were vast differences among the reformers, they promoted several key ideas:

- acceptance of the Bible as the key source of revelation
- salvation by faith alone
- the universal priesthood of all believers.
- self-interpretation of the Bible
- questioning rituals and some of the sacraments

More than religious problems plagued the Church. The Pope and Holy Roman Emperor were distant authorities, too removed from local and regional problems. The monarchies in France, England, and Spain developed strength and unity, and they clashed with the Church over land, taxes, and judicial authority.

**LUTHER AND THE NINETY-FIVE THESSES**

During the Renaissance, humanists such as Erasmus and theological critics such as John Wycliffe (1328-1384) denounced the Church's corruption. They wanted reform to come from Church leaders and they avoided the disruption of a general “grass roots rebellion.” After the changes of the Renaissance Era, the rebellion began.

In 1519, Martin Luther, a German cleric and Wittenberg University professor, posted his Ninety-five Theses. Luther condemned Church abuses. He translated the New Testament into the vernacular. This enabled ordinary individuals to seek salvation through self-interpretation. Church authorities branded Luther as a dissenter (rebel). Yet, his actions opened the floodgates of protest against the Church all over Europe. Pope Leo X eventually condemned Luther as a heretic.

The Pope excommunicated Luther in 1521. However, some strong German princes backed Luther, exerting their power against the Church. They were opposed to outside influences, had nationalistic feelings, were anti-tax, and wanted to keep their money at home. This defiance of Church authority helped the Protestant movement spread to Scandinavia, Poland, and Eastern Europe.

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1. Protestant (member of a Western Christian church whose faith and practice are founded on the principles of the Protestant Reformation, especially in the acceptance of the Bible as the sole source of revelation)
2. simony (buying or selling of ecclesiastical pardons, offices, or monies)
3. indulgences (remission of certain physical punishment still due for a sin that has been forgiven - sacramentally absolved)
4. vernacular (everyday language spoken by a people)
5. heretic (person who holds controversial opinions, especially one who publicly dissents from the officially accepted dogma of the Roman Catholic Church)
6. excommunicated (revoked or church membership by ecclesiastical authority)
CALVIN AND OTHER REFORMERS

Self-interpretation of the Bible took other reformers in different directions. John Calvin (French, 1509-1564) published the Institutes of the Christian Religion and Ulrich Zwingli (Swiss, 1481-1531) wrote Sixty-Seven Articles. These writings spread the Reformation spirit into Switzerland, France, and the Netherlands. In Geneva, Calvin set up a theocracy. It became a model for groups such as the Calvinist English Puritans who later settled in America. In Scotland, John Knox (1514-1572) used Calvin's ideas to found the Presbyterian Church.

As the religious reform movement swept Europe, other Protestant sects (groups) formed that were more radical in their approach than the Lutherans or Calvinists. They wished to purge the Church by rejecting elaborate rituals and sacraments. For example, the Anabaptists rejected infant baptism and focused only on adults. They also rejected local governmental authority. Sects that derive from the Anabaptists include the Amish, Baptists, Mennonites, and Quakers.

The Reformation took a different turn in England. While religious reformers were active in the early 1500s, it was King Henry VIII's desire for a male heir that led him to break with Rome. The Pope refused to annul (declare invalid) his marriage and allowed him to take a new wife (actually, Henry took 5 more). In 1534, Henry pressured Parliament into passing the Act of Supremacy. The Act broke relations with Rome setting up a new Church of England (Anglican Church), with the king as head. As a result, religious struggles lasted in England for several generations.

COUNTER REFORMATION

Once the Reformation was under way, the Church retained its strength in France, Southern Germany, Ireland, Eastern Europe, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Northern Europe, Scandinavia, and Scotland slipped away.

For nearly 17 years, there was no active program within the Church to answer the Protestant criticisms. Slowly, the Counter-Reformation became an active reform movement inside the Church. It agitated for a general council to eliminate abuses. In 1546, a commission reported to Pope Paul III, but it took another six years before decisive action occurred. He tried to "clean up" the corruption that had led to the Church's credibility problem. He approved new religious orders such as the Jesuits. They dedicated themselves to missionary work to reclaim souls for the Church. Paul III also convened the bishops at the Council of Trent (1545-1563). The reforms set by the Council have lasted into modern times. The Council's decrees redefined the Church's mission through the following actions:

- forbidding the sale of indulgences
- ordering each diocese to have a seminary to properly train clergy
- defining vague doctrines challenged by Protestants
- requiring the Mass and other rituals be said in Latin
- declaring the only acceptable version of the Bible was the Latin Vulgate (St. Jerome's 4th century translation of the Bible)
- reaffirming the importance of the seven sacraments

The Counter-Reformation energized and even hardened the resolve of the Roman Catholic Church. Missionaries such as Jesuit founder Ignatius Loyola (1491-1556) rekindled the faith in Europe and spread it into Asia and the Americas. Papal resources funded military activity against Protestant areas in Europe. The popes reinforced the Inquisition. The Counter Reformation strengthened the Catholic faith in Southern Europe and spread it into new global regions. Although these actions slowed the Counter-Reformation, Protestantism was not eliminated as its founders had hoped.

IMPACT OF RELIGIOUS WARS IN EUROPE

In northern Europe, national Protestant churches developed that aligned themselves to national monarchs. The kings used the new churches to become independent of the Pope and the Holy Roman Emperor. Although Protestant...
religious reformers argued doctrine and Church practice, secular princes used the Reformation to strengthen their political power.

The result was a century of wars fought in the name of religion. In the German states, nearly 100,000 were killed in the Peasants' War (1524-1526). Peasants, small-town artisans, and laborers sacked castles and monasteries before the authorities quelled the rebels. Later, The Peace of Augsburg (1555) ended twenty years of fighting between the Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Charles V and German Lutheran princes. The compromise allowed each ruler to decide the local religion. The result was a Germany so deeply fragmented that it was not united until the 19th century.

In France, Protestant groups such as the Calvinist Huguenots fought for survival in the Wars of Religion (1562-1598). Massacres, royal conspiracies, and assassinations continued for a generation. In 1598, King Henry IV issued the Edict of Nantes. It declared Protestants could:

- have limited freedom of worship and religious educational rights
- hold government office
- expect special courts would settle disputes between the faiths
- control certain crown fortress towns, such as La Rochelle
- conduct public worship in certain towns
- hold councils with royal permission

In the Low Countries (Netherlands and Belgium), Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Charles V struggled against Protestant princes as he had in Germany. His son, Philip II of Spain, escalated this conflict into a sporadic war that lasted eighty years (1568-1648). It resulted in the independence of the United Provinces of the Netherlands (northern section) being recognized as an independent state.

The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) was the last major religious struggle in Europe. It was a series of wars fought mainly on German soil. It became part of a larger conflict over the European balance of power. A general revolt of Protestant nobles in Prague widened into a drawn-out European war with Catholic and Protestant countries shifting alliances for political power. The Peace of Westphalia (1648) ended the war and

- gave stronger authority and economic power to Catholic France and Lutheran Sweden
- took power and territory from Catholic Spain and Austria and Lutheran Denmark
- fragmented Germany into over 300 states
- began the long decline of the Holy Roman Empire

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**ANTI-SEMITISM IN EUROPE**

Controversies swirling around the central role of the Christian Church led to tension and frustrations. Sometimes, this resulted in lashing out against others. Jews were often the subject of such venting (anti-semitism\(^1\)). In the 13th century, Spain passed Las Siete Partidas, a code of laws that barred Jews from holding public office. In the same century, Pope Nicholas III called for efforts to convert Jews to Catholicism. During the Counter-Reformation, Spain expelled all Jews who refused to convert.

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\(^1\) anti-semitism (discrimination, prejudice, and hostility against Jews or Judaism)
The Inquisition in Spain relentlessly investigated and tried Jews and Muslims who had converted to Christianity in order to retain their homes and wealth. England, France, and Germany launched similar waves of anti-Semitic oppression. Fear of alternative religious views and economic competition for merchants and guilds led to policies that forced Jews to live in segregated, walled-off neighborhoods (ghettoes). In some cases, Jews who traveled outside the ghettos were forced to wear identifying badges. Some of these restrictions remained for centuries.

RISE OF EUROPEAN NATION-STATES

In the 16th and 17th centuries, European monarchs overcame the power of the Church, the independence of cities, and feudal nobles. Under their leadership, their kingdoms grew into the nations of Europe. Nations are more than just political boundaries and wide-ranging governments. They signify people joined by common backgrounds, cultures, and languages. By force of will and absolutist attitudes, monarchs of this age consolidated conflicting interests.

Absolutism is a concentration of power in the hands of one person or a group of persons. In religious countries, the monarchs based their absolute power on divine right. They claimed their right to rule came from God. Therefore, total, unquestioned authority could be applied; such as, if a subject “sinned against the king,” it was the same as “sin against God.” This meant that kings were not responsible to their subjects or any representative bodies. They broadened their power through bypassing the older nobles and constructing their own bureaucracies and centrally commanded military forces.

1. ghettoes (section or quarter in a European city to which Jews were formerly restricted because of social, economic, or legal pressure)
2. nation (relatively large group of people who share common customs, origins, history, and frequently language, organized under a single, usually independent government)
3. absolutism (political theory holding that all power should be vested in one ruler or other authority)
4. divine right (doctrine that monarchs derive their right to rule directly from God and are accountable only to God)

Mini Assessment

The Italian city-states led Europe into the Renaissance because they
1. were the first to expel Jews and Muslims
2. used absolutism and divine right
3. created a power base for the Pope
4. traded with Byzantine and Muslim Empires

The Renaissance paved the way for the Protestant Reformation through
1. promoting a questioning of the status quo
2. limiting economic resources
3. denouncing classic Greek philosophy
4. accepting the Medieval religious traditions

Which was a Church reform recommended by Martin Luther?
1. require Mass and other rituals be said in Latin
2. establish walled-off ghettos for Jews
3. allow self-interpretation of the Bible
4. limit freedom of worship

Constructed Response:

1. What is one of the Renaissance values reflected in this work?

2. How did Renaissance art differ from Medieval art?
CASE STUDY: FRANCE

At the end of the Hundred Years' War (1337-1453), the French expelled the English. French monarchs such as Louis XI (r. 1461-1483) worked at unifying the kingdom. The kings also broadened their power beyond the boundaries of France. They launched a long rivalry with the Hapsburgs of Austria and Spain.

In the 16th century, two strong rulers, Francis I (r. 1515 to 1547) and Henry II (r. 1547-1559) solidified the nation. However, the Wars of Religion (1562-1598) involving the Calvinist Huguenots threatened the new national unity. Finally, Henry IV (r. 1589-1610), a Huguenot leader became the first king of the Bourbon Dynasty. Amid the carnage and massacres of the Wars, he converted to Catholicism. This kept the nation in tact, and allowed him to assume the throne. Henry then granted religious toleration to communities where Protestants were in a majority (Edict of Nantes).

Henry IV set absolutist precedents (examples for the future). He ignored the Estates-General (the national assembly). He surrounded himself with shrewd, talented ministers who rebuilt the national treasury, stimulated commerce, and strengthened the royal power of the monarchy. The chief minister of Henry's weak son, Louis XIII (r. 1610-1643), was Cardinal Armand Richelieu (1585-1642). The king gave this cardinal-minister full authority, and the Cardinal laid the foundation for the absolute power of the Bourbon monarchy.

Richelieu was a Machiavellian pragmatist. At home, he centralized control, deprived France's nobles of their power and began to regulate trade (see mercantilism). Abroad, his policies followed the idea of "raison d'état" (reason of state or national security, in the modern sense). During the Thirty Years War, he even used France's Catholic armies to defeat the Catholic forces of Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs to make France the most powerful state in Europe.

CASE STUDY: ENGLAND

In England, power struggles between the monarchs and nobles led to a long process of change. William the Conqueror (William I, 1028-1087) led the Norman (French) conquest of England in 1066. He established a strongly personal monarchy. He reformed, and then he dominated the court system. William altered the relationship of the English monarchy to the nobility. He replaced English lords with French nobles loyal to him and set up a European feudal system. King William ordered the general census recorded in the Domesday Book (1086). It listed the land holdings of the feudal nobility to accurately tax the land holders.

Many historians claim Henry II (r. 1154-1189) was England's greatest ruler. Henry set up an impressive administrative framework. Henry's justice system became the basis of the legal systems of most English-speaking peoples. His legal system included the common law, the jury, legal advocates, and basic due process rights (individual protection from abusive government). (See Unit V for charts on growth of individual rights.)

From the late 15th to the early 17th centuries, the Tudor Dynasty strengthened the monarchy in England. The Tudors did not achieve the absolute rule that monarchs did in Spain and France, but they became popular and greatly enhanced England's status as a world power.

Henry VII – first Tudor monarch – won the throne when he defeated (1485) King Richard III – of the Lancaster family – in the Wars of the Roses. Tudor monarchs included Henry VIII who established the Anglican Church, Edward VI, Mary I, and Elizabeth I. There was much religious strife under the Tudors, but they strengthened the monarchy.

The Tudor rulers were not absolutists. They had to share power with a strong parliament. The English Parliament was originally a council of landholders, nobles, and Church leaders. Monarchs expanded it in the 1200s to include

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1. precedent (act, legal decision, or instance that used as an example or standard in dealing with similar instances)
2. census (count of the citizens and an evaluation of their property for taxation purposes)
3. parliament (national representative body having supreme legislative powers within the state)
knights and wealthy burgesses. In the Model Parliament under Edward I in 1295, Parliament gained control over grants of revenue\(^1\) allotted to the monarch. Later, the knights and burgesses evolved into the bicameral (two-chamber) House of Lords and the House of Commons. For centuries, Parliament competed for power with the monarchy.

Tudors rulers Henry VII and Henry VIII were skillful manipulators of Parliament, but Elizabeth I (r. 1558-1603) was probably the most adept. For fear of compromising her power, she did not call the Parliament into session or ask for money often. However, members of Parliament became deeply devoted to her.

As in Spain under Philip II, England’s nationalism also grew. Elizabeth strengthened the Royal Navy and encouraged commercial development of trade. She supported “Sea Dogs” such as Sir Francis Drake (1541-1596) and other privateers. The Sea Dogs’ raids on Spain’s treasure-filled ships from the New World brought great damage. Elizabeth commissioned courtiers such as Sir Walter Raleigh to begin joint stock companies. Later, the companies set up permanent American colonies as business enterprises.

During Elizabeth’s long reign, a national literature emerged in the works of William Shakespeare, Edmund Spenser, and Christopher Marlowe. The Queen was also skillful in war and diplomacy. She became popular by sending English forces to fight on the Protestant side in France’s Wars of Religion and in the revolt of the Dutch against Spanish rule (c. 1568).

Perhaps Elizabeth’s greatest achievement came in defeating Catholic King Philip II of Spain – the same King Philip II who had been married to her late half-sister, Queen Mary I, called “Bloody Mary” for her executions of Protestants. In 1588, Philip sent his great 130-ship armada to invade England with the intent of restoring Catholicism in England. The small, but fast English Navy, under skillful mariners like Drake, devastated the Spanish flotilla in the stormy waters of the English Channel.

**TIME CAPSULE**

The global interactions of the 13th to 17th centuries resulted in bringing different civilizations into closer contact. The interactions also intensified changes in the way people lived, worked, and thought. Population began to increase rapidly as a result of better food production and health practices. In Europe, capitalism emerged and accelerated commercial

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\(^1\) revenue (treasury funds - “the power of the purse” - income of a government from all sources appropriated for the payment of the public expenses)
relationships. It changed the way production and labor were organized.

The great stimulus for change was trade. It led to a commercial revolution. The rulers of China and Japan strengthened traditional culture and struggled with the impact of increasing commercial contacts with other global regions.

In Europe, trade caused an opening of societies. The merchants of Italian city-states and Portuguese navigators unleashed a drive for sea routes to obtain the spices and luxuries of the Orient. That drive eventually led to the discovery of new continents.

Revitalized trade was a powerful force in Europe. It undermined manorialism and gave rise to towns. The towns grew into cities. Expanded commerce demanded broader education. The innovation of printing and books published in everyday languages caused learning to blossom. Urban cultural interactions produced the Renaissance — the rebirth of interest in the classics. Renaissance humanism created a new culture.

These cultural forces homogenized life and changed social relationships. As manorialism and feudalism decayed, strong rulers increased their power and began to forge new nations. Monarchs centralized power with strong militaries to expand and protect national borders. Their bureaucracies circumvented both Church and nobility.

Religion played a significant role in global affairs. In Asia and the Middle East, the Mongols' rule created stability. Their successors, the Turks, strengthened the Muslim world. In Europe, amidst a great purging and revival of spirit, the Reformation focused new interest in spreading Christianity. The Reformation also fragmented European society. The key forces that forged the "modern world" emerged from all this change and interaction and led to the global interdependence of today.

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**UNIT ASSESSMENT**

**MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS**

1. Scholars attribute the power of the Tokugawa shoguns to their
   1. accumulation of immense wealth
   2. obsession with discipline and order
   3. claims of divine right
   4. focus on technological advancement

2. Increased economic activity among towns and merchants in Europe resurrected the use of
   1. money
   2. bartering
   3. tribute
   4. censorship

3. China's Ming rulers advanced
   1. technology and artistic pursuits
   2. military conquest of India
   3. Shinto missionary work
   4. seasonal trade fairs

4. In England, the Tudors strengthened the monarchy, but did not achieve
   1. popularity
   2. bicameral legislation
   3. religious unity
   4. absolute power

5. Catholics fought Protestants in the
   1. Thirty Years' War
   2. Hundred Years' War
   3. Pax Espania
   4. Domestic System

6. The British Parliament's bicameral structure is reflected in
   1. theocracy and seclusion policies
   2. absolutism and reliance on precedent
   3. diets and pragmatic administration
   4. the houses of Lords and Commons
Base your answer to questions 7 and 8 on the map above and your knowledge of global history.

7  The "Pax Mongolia" in the 13th century khanates (kingdoms) increased
   1  commerce between Europe and Asia
   2  acceptance of divine right rule
   3  application of seclusion policies
   4  schisms among global religions

8  Like those of Alexander the Great, the conquests of Genghis Khan were
   1  centers of cultural enlightenmenet
   2  divided among his military chiefs
   3  appropriated by the Byzantine Church
   4  known for agricultural productivity

9  In the 16th century, the Turks' blocking of overland trade through the Eastern Mediterranean region led to
   1  military campaigns by the Japanese shoguns
   2  isolation policies by the Italian city-states
   3  water route explorations by the Portuguese
   4  the cosmopolitanism of the Mongols

Base your answer to question 10 on the following passage and your knowledge of global history.

"Man is the mediator of all creatures, the servant of superior beings, the lord of inferior ones, that he is the interpreter of nature by the keenness of his senses, the intermediary between time and eternity ... the nexus of the world."

– Pico della Mirandola
Oration on the Dignity of Man, 1486

10  This passage portrays (the)
    1  Way of the Kami
    2  Protestant Theology
    3  Renaissance Humanism
    4  Tokugawa Seclusion

11  Which individual promoted the growth of absolute power of the monarchy?
    1  John Knox
    2  Francis Drake
    3  Armand Richelieu
    4  Johann Gutenberg
THEMATICAL ESSAY

Theme: Change

The global interactions of the 13th through the 17th centuries changed many civilizations.

Task:

- Select one major civilization which you have studied and describe its contact with another civilization.
- Explain how this cross-cultural contact changed the two civilizations.

Suggestions:
You may use any 13th-17th century cross-cultural contact. Some contacts you might consider: China and Japan; Mongols and Russia; Mughals and India; Europeans and China, Muslims and East Asia. You are not limited to these suggestions.

DOCUMENT BASED QUESTIONS

Directions:
The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-5). Some of the documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. The question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your thesis position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

Historical Context:
Revitalized trade unleashed a significant change in European society. The documents below present some aspects of the change.

Task:
Analyze the impact of revitalized trade on Europe between the 12th and 15th centuries and support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of global history.

Part A – Short Answer
The documents below show elements of change in Medieval European society. Examine each document carefully, then answer the question that follows it.

Document 1:

“The mobility and awareness triggered by the Crusades, ...Europe's long, indented coast with its two inland seas ... made foreign commerce possible for all its regions and ignited economic energy in independent centers first in Italy, then in Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and England.”

- The Epic of Modern Man

Document 1 Question:
How did geography influence the changes in Europe?
Document 2:

"The contrast [in technology] is essentially between standards of living and of labor productivity of the peasantry ... the ox is slow but eats less expensive hay; the horse is faster but consumes more expensive grain ... better harnesses allowed Northern Europeans to increase their surpluses and freed humans for other activities in the towns."

— Technology in the Middle Ages

Document 2 Question:

Why did surplus production lead to the growth of towns and revitalization of commerce?

Document 3:

"As feudalism gave way before the rise of city-states or centralized territorial states under princes who were learning to use the power of money, kings allied themselves with burghers against unruly and obstreperous nobles."

— Reinterpretation of the Renaissance

Document 3 Question:

In the later Middle Ages, why did kings often align themselves with burghers (citizens) against nobles?

Document 4 Question:

How did broader trade and travel affect the Roman Catholic Church in Europe?
Document 5:

"We wish to inform you of the action taken in support of all merchants who are governed by the law of Lubeck.

1) "Each city shall ... keep the sea clear of pirates ...

2) "Whoever is expelled from one city because of crime shall not be received in another ...

5) "If there are pirates on the sea, all the cities must contribute their share to the work of destroying them ...

6) "If a lord besieges a city, no one shall aid him in any way to the detriment of the besieged city, unless the besieger is his lord ...

7) "If there is a war in the country, no city shall on that account injure a citizen from the other cities either in his person or goods, but shall give him protection ..."

—Decrees of the Hanseatic League, 1260-1285

Document 5 Question:

How could rules such as these help the development of trade?

Part B – Essay Response

Discuss the impact of trade and travel on Western Europe in the 12th-15th centuries.

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis on the impact of revitalized trade in Europe between the 12th and 15th centuries. Develop and support the reasons for your thesis in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
Unit 5
1450 AD – 1770 AD

The First Global Age

AD
1400–
Zeng He explores Indian Ocean for the Ming (1425)
Mehemed II conquers Constantinople (1453)

1500–
Islamic Songhai Kingdom in West Africa (1500)
Cortés conquers the Aztecs (1521)
Ottoman westward expansion blocked at Battle of Lepanto (1571)

1600–
English fleet defeats Spain's Armada (1588)
Akbar unites Northern India (1590)

1632
Romanov Dynasty begins in Russia (1613)
Spain conquers Peru
Puritans dethrone Charles I (1646)

1688
England's Glorious Revolution

1700–
Peter the Great begins constructing St. Petersburg (1703)
INTRODUCTION

In this first Global Age, the people of Asia and Europe actively engaged civilizations in Africa, the Americas, and the Pacific Rim. European encounters and exploration of the Western Hemisphere grew out of the quest for trade, wealth, and knowledge begun in the Commercial Revolution and Renaissance of the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries.

AMERICAN CIVILIZATIONS
(1400 BC - 1570 AD)

Spatial Organization and Geography

The two great land masses of the Western Hemisphere stretch 12,500 miles from the Arctic in the north almost to Antarctica in the south. Combined, North and South America and associated islands encompass nearly 16.2 million square miles. With such vast range, the two continents’ climatic structures reflect nearly every major Koppen climate type.

The natural regions of the Western Hemisphere are broad based. The entire western margin (Pacific) of the two continents is paralleled by the Rocky–Sierra Madre–Andes cordillera\(^1\) with intervening basins and plateaus. The eastern (Atlantic) sides of the continents have low mountains and coastal plains. The central eastern coasts have almost flat topography.

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\(^1\) Cordillera (extensional chain of mountains or mountain ranges)

Both continents have great central basins drained by two of the three longest river systems in the world – North America’s Missouri-Ohio-Mississippi River system and South America’s Amazon. The vast interior of the con-
Continents is dominated by rolling plains in the north and rain forests in the south. In North America, the open plains and gently flowing rivers allowed early inhabitants ease of migration eastward. In South America, the rapid rivers and thick vegetation of the Amazon rain forest and the imposing heights of the Andes were barriers to settlement of the interior.

According to archaeologists' current assessments, the first humans entered North America between 30,000 and 10,000 years ago. They crossed the Bering Land Bridge from northeast Asia. Around 10,000 BC, global warming submerged that narrow bridge of land beneath the Bering Sea.

The early people were ancestors of the American Indians. The early people drew sufficient food supplies from the dry grasslands (steppes), tundra, marshes, and forests. The natural environment allowed for grazing ani-

1 American, also Native American, is a term used for any of the aboriginal peoples of the Western Hemisphere; the term Indian has always been a misnomer for the earliest inhabitants of the Americas. Many people now prefer Native American as a corrective to Columbus's mistaken claim.
mals (horses, reindeer). Wild game and fish provided additional food sources for early hunters. Early Amerindians lived in small groups and made spears, knives, scrapers, and other instruments from stone.

As in other global regions, Neolithic Era Americans eventually developed agricultural techniques, religious beliefs, trading networks, and even military tactics. Yet, current evidence indicates that highly developed civilizations with cities and imperial political structures developed much later in the Americas than in other global regions.
### Mesoamerican Empires: Organization & Contributions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Empire</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Region(s)</th>
<th>Contributions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Olmec Empire</td>
<td>1200 BC – 400 BC</td>
<td>Southern Mexico, El Salvador</td>
<td>- formed the first truly complex Mesoamerican culture</td>
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<td>- established civic-ceremonial centers at San Lorenzo and La Venta, with</td>
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<td>temples, palaces</td>
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<td>- built towns with clay building platforms and stone pavements and drainage</td>
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<td></td>
<td>systems</td>
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<td>- traded in raw materials such as jade</td>
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<td>- created large stone/jade sculptures of human heads</td>
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<td>- developed rudimentary hieroglyphic writing</td>
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<td>Mayan Empire</td>
<td>50 BC – 1400 AD</td>
<td>Southern Mexico, Yucatan, Guatemala</td>
<td>- invented writing system which mixed script with ideographs and phonetics</td>
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<td>wrote historic records on pots, stone stele (upright inscribed slabs),</td>
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<td>and palace walls</td>
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<td>- cultivated corn as staple crop</td>
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<td>- produced a complex astronomical calendar</td>
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<td>- established religious rituals which included human sacrifice, mythology,</td>
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<td>and ancestral worship</td>
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<td>- created a monarchy that united small settlements into larger states</td>
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<td>- built flat-topped pyramids as temples and rulers’ tombs</td>
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<td>- built palaces, shrines, large ball courts for ceremonial sport and</td>
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<td>astronomical observatories</td>
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<td>- invented math system, including zero base</td>
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<td>Aztec Empire</td>
<td>1300 AD – 1535 AD</td>
<td>Central Mexico</td>
<td>- founded Island capital Tenochtitlan (modern Mexico City)</td>
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<td>- created a highly specialized, strictly hierarchal society</td>
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<td>- conquered and dominated neighbors for tribute (protection payments), not</td>
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<td>for territory</td>
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<td>- elected by nobility, ruler-emperor (titloani) had near god status and</td>
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<td>supreme authority</td>
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<td>- formed a powerful priestly hierarchy to administer government</td>
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<td>- produced a severe legal code of laws with judgments based on generally</td>
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<td>accepted ideas of reasonable behavior</td>
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<td>- developed a sophisticated agricultural economy, carefully adjusted to the</td>
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<td>land with crop rotation and extensive aqueduct and irrigation systems</td>
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<td>- adopted Nahuaatl as a language of learning that accompanied a hieroglyphic</td>
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<td>writing system</td>
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<td>- created a 365-day solar calendar system divided into 19 months of 20 days</td>
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<td>each</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inca Empire</td>
<td>1200 AD – 1535 AD</td>
<td>Andes Mountains, parts of</td>
<td>- established largest empire of the Americas – at its height in the 16th</td>
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<td>Chile, Bolivia, and Argentina</td>
<td>century, the Inca Empire controlled 12 million people, over 100 cultures</td>
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<td>with 20 different languages</td>
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<td>- formed a strong monarchy ruled from Cuzco by using strategic resettlement</td>
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<td>of loyal “colonists” among rebellious groups</td>
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<td>- believed emperors descended from the Sun god and worshiped them as</td>
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<td>divine beings</td>
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<td>- adapted an intricate 12,000 mile road system for traveling messengers and</td>
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<td>services for traveling bureaucratic officials</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- created agricultural terracing and irrigation systems</td>
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<td>- adapted various “vertical climates” of the Andes’ elevations for a variety</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>of crops</td>
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<td>- built elaborate fortress cities such as Machu Picchu</td>
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<td>- developed refined spoken language (Quechua)</td>
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<td>- instituted quipu (knot-card) record keeping system</td>
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<td>- developed a religion centered on the worship of the Sun, mined gold for</td>
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<td>use by the elite for decorative and ritual purposes</td>
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</table>
CHICHEN ITZA

The Maya of the Yucatan created a great capital at Chichen Itza. Its architecture was advanced. The palaces had great colonnades that opened onto private patios. There are large paintings preserved that show hundreds of warriors celebrating feasts and battle victories.

In the 13th century, the Maya built a new capital to the west of Chichen Itza, Mayapan, with a population estimated at 15,000, had great walls to protect against the increasing power of other warring states.

Fighting and competition among the Mayan city-states broke down their strength, and they succumbed to the Europeans – and the diseases they brought – in the 16th century. The Spanish took advantage of division and took control in 1542.

The term Mesoamerica refers to a cultural region occupied by the native people extending south and east from central Mexico to include parts of Guatemala, Belize, Honduras, and Nicaragua. Pre-Columbian ancient cultural groups included the Aztec, Maya, Mixtec, Olmec, Toltec, and Zapotec.

FALL OF MESOAMERICAN EMPIRES

The Aztec and Inca Empires came to an abrupt end with the Spanish conquests in the 1520s and 1530s. Gradual colonization and Christianizing undermined the cultural bases of the civilizations. Conquistador Hernán Cortés' (1485-1547) alliances with rival groups, the killing of the Tlatoani Montezuma II and Cuauhtemoc, and the Spanish soldiers' introduction of diseases destroyed the Aztec realm.

Conquistador Francisco Pizarro (1475-1541) and a small force of 180 Spanish troops arrived in Peru amidst a civil war among the Incas. In 1532, he captured Emperor Atahualpa and his army near Cuzco. Pizarro had the Emperor executed, and set up a puppet ruler. Inca leaders went into exile and continued to resist the Europeans for another 50 years, but they could not hold their diverse people together.

1 Tlatoani (supreme rulers/commanders of the Aztec Empire, see chart p.118)
Mini Assessment

1. Knowledge of early Mesoamerican civilizations is limited because their
   1. religious rituals were closely guarded secrets
   2. remains were destroyed by rain forest growth
   3. ideographs cannot be translated
   4. European colonizers destroyed cultural remains

2. The Inca diet was enhanced by extensive crop varieties supplied through
   1. vertical climate agriculture
   2. the quipu processing system
   3. rebellious conquered peoples
   4. an accurate solar calendar

3. What does Aztec rule in Mesoamerica have in common with Mongol rule in Central Asia?
   1. building ceremonial pyramids
   2. collection of tribute from conquered peoples
   3. extensive astronomical research programs
   4. knot-and-cord record keeping systems

 Constructed Response:

1. How can you tell the European from the Mesoamerican figures in the engraving above?

2. What military advantages did the Europeans have over Mesoamerican cultures?

RISE AND FALL OF AFRICAN CIVILIZATIONS:
Mali and Songhai Empires

Spatial Organization / Geography

Africa is the second largest continent after Asia. With more than 11.7 million square miles, Africa is more than three times the size of the United States.

When viewed as bisected by the Equator, Africa's natural and climatic regions almost mirror each other to north and south. The largest natural area is the savanna. These regions stretch in great bands to the north and south of the Equatorial rain forests. The northern savanna is shrinking because of relentless desertification. The fragile Sahel region ("coast of the desert") along the southern edge of the Sahara Desert barely supports sparse vegetation because of uneven annual rainfall and over grazing. Beyond the savannas are two large desert regions - the 3.5 million square mile Sahara and the 100,000 square mile Kalahari. Fertile strips of farmlands with mild Mediterranean climate (Koppen type Cf) hug the southern Cape of Good Hope and the northern Mediterranean coast. The low mountains along the north (Atlas) and south (Drakensburgs) coasts have had little climatic and settlement influences.

Ninety percent of Africa's land is plateaus higher than 500 feet above sea level, and a substantial portion is not arable. The five major

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1. savanna (flat grassland of tropical or subtropical regions)
2. desertification (transformation of arable or habitable land to desert, caused by a change in climate or destructive land use)
rivers (Congo or Zaire, Niger, Nile, Chad, Zambezi) have cataracts (falls) down to the coasts, making inland navigation difficult. Africa has remarkably smooth seacoasts which offer few good natural harbors. The density of the rain forest makes travel very difficult, and diseases such as malaria are added deterrents. These factors made penetration of the interior of the continent difficult. As a result, Africa long remained a mystery to outsiders.

Areas of Africa are rich in natural resources such as petroleum and strategic minerals such as copper and cobalt. Mineral wealth also includes salt, iron, gold, and diamonds.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES

The difficulties of penetrating the deserts and the uplands of the interior of sub-Saharan Africa limited interaction with people of other regions. Historically, Egypt, Nubia, and North Africa interacted with Middle Eastern and Mediterranean civilizations and institutions. Christianity, and then Islam, spread across this area, but did not influence sub-Saharan Africa for centuries.

Awareness of civilizations south of the Sahara was sparse until after 1000 AD. Anthropologists estimate that the use of iron tools emerged for the sub-Saharan groups between 500 BC-500 AD. As with other regions, the food surpluses that the tools helped to produce led to trade and land hunger. As these human contacts expanded, cultural diffusion occurred. For example, the Bantu root language spread, but written records did not emerge until the Muslim Era (10th-12th centuries).

Knowledge of early civilization is based on archaeology, radio-carbon dating, and oral traditions. Oral traditions include tales and genealogies, myths, legends, and proverbs. Mali's famed
oral tradition produced the epic *Sundjata*,
the story of a young prince’s quest to restore
his father’s kingdom.

Traditional religion intertwined with
social and political order. As in many areas of
the globe, early rulers and chiefs were credited
with religious powers or divine status. Ancestor worship was common, and charms
were valued as supernatural objects and
passed through generations.

**TRADING EMPIRES AND ISLAMIC INFLUENCE**

The Sahara and the seas were formidable
natural barriers. Not until the 9th and 10th
centuries did Arab traders cross the Sahara.
They founded prosperous cities with organ-
ized governments and artisans. One such
city was the West African city of *Timbuktu*
on the Niger River. In these prosperous com-
munities, there was a lively exchange of
coastal gold for inland salt.
The gold attracted increasing numbers of Arab traders. As they crossed the Sahara, cultural diffusion occurred. The diversity of Islam allowed it to merge with traditional religious practices. Although there was some conflict with divine powers claimed by traditional leaders, Islam spread rapidly through the southern Saharan region. It created a common cultural bond and the disciplined life that helped leaders form empires.

After 1000 AD, Islamic trading states emerged in West Africa. Ghana grew from exchange centers for leather, kola nuts, cotton cloth, and slaves that moved north to the Mediterranean. Successor states included Songhai and Mali. Mali’s great Mansa (Emperor) Kankan Musa (r. 1312-1332) raised Timbuktu to the level of a great university city and created one of the most renowned Islamic states of history.

From the 12th to the 15th centuries, East African city-states such as Kilwa, off the coast of Tanzania, traded with Arabs, Indians, and Chinese. Kilwa traded inland goods from kingdoms such as Zimbabwe. Great cultural diffusion took place in the cosmopolitan environment, but the cities also supplied slaves from inland communities to traders from Persia and India.

ACHIEVEMENTS

Although East and West African civilizations were developed and diverse before 1000 AD, Islamic traders and scholars brought knowledge and technology. Traditional African art varied widely. Common themes in sculptures, masks, and figures depict religious symbols, ancestor veneration, and chieftains’ divine powers. Carved wood, ivory, and metal ceremonial objects were used in singing and dancing rituals. Artisans from the West African kingdom of Benin created unique sculptures in brass and bronze, many dating from the 13th century.

Traditional African art reflects beliefs. A blending of wild, chaotic forces of nature with the controlled social life of the village is common. Artisans created figurines, charms, and amulets to help people guide natural and supernatural forces to make life better.

SLAVERY

A large combination of factors led to the decline of trading states and empires in Africa. The kingdoms of West Africa and the Sudan region were loose unions of trading centers forged through alliances of military strongmen. Competition for trade led to shifting of alliances and civil wars. When Arab and European traders introduced new products, especially weapons, it caused disruption. Later, the dynamic introduction of Christianity by Europeans caused more strains and shifts in loyalties. Most disruptive was the increase in the slave trade in 16th
century which led to communities warring against each other.

From earliest times, Africa was the source of a slave trade. Slavery had been common for centuries among African tribes. Persian traders had a lively slave trade with East African cities for centuries. In West Africa, the colonization of the Americas increased Europe's demand for slaves. The trade from West Africa grew gradually until the last decades of the 16th century. Portuguese and Spanish colonists demanded great numbers. The slaves were taken from all along the coast of Africa, but especially from Senegal, Ghana, Nigeria, and Angola. Later, the Dutch entered African slave commerce and were joined by Swedish, Danish, German, French, and English companies.

CHINA: THE MING DYNASTY RESTORES ETHNIC CHINESE RULE

In 1368, a peasant rebel (Zhu Yuanzhang, 1328-1398) overthrew Mongol authority and launched the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644). Zhu took the name Hong Wu and established a new government at Nanjing. He purged Mongols from the civil service and returned Confucian teaching to prominence. Later, absolutist Ming rulers built a strong central government in Beijing, created strict law codes, and oversaw a long period of stability and economic growth. The era of Ming rule was also a period of cultural expansion.

CHINA'S RELATIONSHIP WITH THE WEST

Ming rulers launched public works, restored roads and canals, and resettled Chinese farmers into the northern provinces. These moves improved food production. Soon, agricultural surpluses freed labor for undertaking of new industries such as silk, tea, and porcelain production. Seeking imperial glory in the early 1400s, Emperor Yong Le (r. 1403 to 1424) launched trade expeditions to central Asia, reestablishing the Silk Route. It was Yong Le who sent Admiral Zheng He to explore the seas as far as Africa. These contacts aroused the interest of Western traders.

Later Ming emperors restrained Chinese traders, fearing an undermining of Confucian order by lowly merchants. Western traders continued to call at Chinese ports, but the emperors deemed their goods inferior and restricted access to only a few ports such as Canton. In the 16th century, Portuguese traders established a permanent outpost in Macao. Under strict, limited guidelines, the emperors allowed Jesuit missionaries to study and make Christian conversions at the court in Beijing. Unable to make much progress, the Jesuits eventually gave up and were recalled by the Pope.

Ming power declined in the 17th century. A rebellion by local chieftains united the Manchurian tribes of the north and brought the Qing (Manchu, or Ch'ing) Dynasty to power.

CHINA'S IMPACT ON SOUTHEAST ASIA

The ousting of the foreign ("barbarian") Mongol Yuan dynasty and reestablishment of ethnic Chinese rulers rekindled an ancient sense of cultural superiority. The experience of securing borders and consolidating rule had an emotional effect akin to what was later to be called nationalism. Scholars refer to this exaggerated sense of cultural superiority as ethnocentrism. Sea expeditions and military excursions under the early Ming emperors con-

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1 Ethnocentrism [belief in the superiority of one's own ethnic group and an overriding concern with race]
firmed the feeling of moral and cultural superiority among China’s elite.

Threats of conquest by Emperor Yong Le led to *tributary arrangements* with Japan, Korea, Vietnam, and other Southeast Asian kingdoms. The culture of the northern rim of Southeast Asia had long been influenced by its proximity to China. The civilizations of Vietnam were especially under constant threat of conquest from the north. Vietnamese kings were the vassals of the Chinese emperor for over 1000 years. This led to a gradual blending of cultures with the Vietnamese assimilating Chinese writing forms and Confucian philosophy.

ACHIEVEMENTS

Intellectual and cultural flowering accompanied the peace and economic expansion under the Ming. Philosophy, painting, and drama (*The Peony Pavilion*) blossomed. Even Jesuit missionary Matteo Ricci (1552-1610) became involved in the expansion of astronomy under Ming scholars in Beijing. The painted porcelain of the Ming period is regarded as a high point in Chinese ceramics.

IMPACT OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Organisation

Turkic peoples are descendants of large bands of nomads from northern Mongolia and the steppes of Central Asia. In the 6th and 7th centuries, these accomplished cavalrymen conquered an empire (Gok Turk) that stretched from Central Asia to the Pacific. By the 11th century, the western Turks, or Turkmen, were assimilated into the Islamic culture and served as mercenaries under the Seljuk Turks. From the 12th through 14th centuries, the Mongols pushed them into Anatolia (Asia Minor or modern Turkey).

In the 15th century, the Turkmen of northeastern Anatolia, called the Ottomans, built a new empire under Sultans Mehmed I and Murad II. In 1453, Mehmed II conquered Constantinople. The Ottomans built a strong navy and dominated the Eastern Mediterranean. By the middle of the 16th century, they ruled most of the Middle East from Iran to Algeria, and pressed into southeastern Europe as far as the Danube. The Ottomans settled in Serbia, Albania, and Bosnia, where they intermarried with Slavic groups.

The Ottoman sultans were absolute rulers who also usurped the role of caliph (Islamic religious leader). They emerged from a ruling elite and accepted advice from a *divan*. The sultans focused much attention on maintaining a well-trained military. The Ottomans allowed Muslims and Christians to retain their religious and national traditions in exchange for a special tax. Under the *devshîrme system*, Christians

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1 *tributary arrangements* (protection payments in place of conquest)
2 *divan* (council of religious advisors)
who converted to Islam were offered positions in the military and bureaucracy.

**DISRUPTION OF ESTABLISHED TRADE ROUTES**

The large and powerful empire the Ottomans created in the eastern Mediterranean replaced the decaying Byzantine and the splintered Mongol and Islamic realms. For Western Europe, just entering its first era of global commerce, the disruption of trade routes to the Orient was disastrous. The Ottoman presence in the Eastern Mediterranean interrupted the growing trade connections between the Orient and emerging Western European cities. Venice, along with the other Italian states and Spain, challenged the sultan’s fleets. They blocked Ottoman westward expansion at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. Still, the Ottoman presence triggered the Europeans’ search for alternative trade routes. The Christians had a tremendous fear of the Ottomans. This fear persuaded the Portuguese (Prince Henry) and Spanish (Columbus) to launch sea expeditions which ushered in the European Age of Exploration.

**ACHIEVEMENTS**

The Ottoman Empire peaked under Sultan Suleiman I (“the Magnificent,” r. 1520-1566). Suleiman was a great codifier of laws for the diverse empire and oversaw a golden age. His conquest of Persia inspired an arts movement, especially in building and decorating mosques.

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**Mini Assessment**

1. Early Ming rulers such as Yong Le encouraged
   1. integration of Buddhism and Islam
   2. special taxes on Christians
   3. trade with other global regions
   4. conquests of European countries

2. Africa’s largest natural area is
   1. savanna
   2. desert
   3. mountain plateau

3. As a result of cross-Saharan contacts, the great trading kingdoms of West Africa converted to (the)
   1. military powers
   2. Islamic religion
   3. tributary states

4. Ottoman sultans such as Suleiman I oversaw
   1. a revival of Persian culture
   2. extensive conquests of West African Empires
   3. conversion to Christian legal codes
   4. abandonment of ethnocentrism

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**Constructed Response:**

“In fact, the news of the wealth and splendor of Mali had spread far and wide, mainly as a result of the pilgrimage to Mecca in 1324 of Mansa Musa, the greatest of all the Mali emperors. Musa was accompanied, it was said by a retinue of 60,000 men, including 500 slaves, each of whom bore a bag of gold weighing 500 mithqals, the equivalent of four pounds.”

“Musa’s domains stretched from the waters of the Atlantic along the northern coast of modern Senegal to the boundaries of modern Nigeria, and from the fringe of the rain forests to the oasis markets of the central Sahara. After the Mongol Empire in Asia, it was the biggest imperial system of its day.”

– Basil Davidson, *African Kingdoms*

1. Why did Musa journey all the way to Mecca?
2. What helped keep the large Mali Empire united?
and libraries. Poets of the era, such as Baki and Fuzuli, converted Persian-inspired styles into the Turkish language.

As a military leader, Suleiman expanded the Ottoman Empire, conquering Tunisia and Algeria. He then challenged the Hapsburgs in Hungary and besieged Vienna. Finally, he campaigned against the Safavids in Iran and Mesopotamia. As a lawgiver, he reorganized the laws, aligned them with the Islamic Sharia, and reinforced them with strict decrees.

EUROPEANS ENCOUNTER ASIANS, AFRICANS, AND AMERICANS

In the 15th century, Portugal and Spain launched exploratory expeditions that began an interaction of the people of Europe, Asia, Africa, and the Americas. The interactive process resulted in a diffusion of ideas and cultural forces that reshaped the global environment.

SPAIN FOSTERS EXPLORATION

When two married royals ascended their respective thrones (Isabella of Castile [1472] and Ferdinand of Aragon [1479]), they ruled the two major kingdoms of Spain. They completed the seven-century Reconquista by driving the Moors (Muslims) from Grenada. Isabella and Ferdinand then brought the Catholic Inquisition to Spain. This led to the expulsion of Jews and strengthened Spain’s Catholicism. However, these religious crusades drained the royal treasuries. Seeking new sources of wealth, Queen Isabella invested in an expedition of Italian mariner Christopher Columbus (1451-1506) to find an ocean route to the East.

EXPLORATION AND OVERSEAS EXPANSION

Columbus proposed finding a western water route to Asia. The Portuguese were already seeking water routes to India by sailing south around Africa. Columbus never reached the Orient. Instead, he discovered the Western Hemisphere. His four expeditions for Spain (1492-1502) began an era of competitive voyages of discovery.

For better and worse, the “Columbian Exchange” altered the course of global history in many ways:

- Native American civilizations (Inca, Aztec) destroyed
- European diseases killed millions of Native Americans
- European powers built extensive overseas empires
- Large numbers of Europeans migrated to the Americas
- Native American flora and fauna (maize, potato, tomato) were brought to Europe
- European plant diseases and rats infested the New World
- New World plantations required millions of African slave
- Capitalism (private enterprise) expanded with the growth of trade
- Cultural exchanges occurred (language, arts, technology)

Columbus and other European explorers profited from vast changes in technology that emerged in the post-Renaissance era. New skills that developed from using the magnetic compass, the astrolabe, and primitive sextants were widely published in texts thanks to the new Gutenberg printing presses. Publication of new world maps, navigation charts, and engineering designs for better ships changed the guesswork of open ocean navigation into a science. Conquest in the newly encountered lands was made easier and more effective by the development of lighter weight muskets and artillery emerging from the European wars of 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries.
GLOBAL COMPETITION FOR COLONIES AMONG EUROPEAN POWERS

The knowledge gained from Columbus' voyages quickly led to a conflict between Spain and Portugal. The two rivals negotiated the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494) which set a Western Hemisphere dividing line (approximately 45°W Longitude). Portugal could make claims to the east of the line (Brazil, Africa, Indian Ocean) and Spain to the west (Western Hemisphere and the Pacific). Later, the two agreed on a similar line for the Eastern Hemisphere at approximately 135°E. Longitude (Treaty of Saragossa, 1529).

Of course, these treaties ignored the fact that other European powers' explorers laid claims in these regions. In the 16th century, the United Provinces of the Netherlands, England, and France joined the quest for "Gold, God, and Glory" and a northwest passage to the riches of Asia.

In the 16th century, Portugal developed a foothold in the New World by colonizing Brazil (1521). The Portuguese moved vigorously to build a trading empire along the coasts of Africa (Angola, 1574), Arabia, India (Goa, Madras), Ceylon, Southeast Asia, the East Indies (Malacca, 1505). They established a permanent
trading and missionary outpost along the south China coast at Macao in 1557.

Spain's conquistadores subdued the Caribbean (Velazquez, 1511), Aztec, Mexico (Cortés, 1521), and Peru (Pizarro, 1534). In the late 16th century, the Spanish moved into the Pacific, overpowering the Philippines in 1571.

In the second half of the 16th century the rising nation-states of northern Europe challenged the imperial monopoly of Spain and Portugal. Their competition shaped the future of colonialism. The Dutch (United Provinces of the Netherlands) gained a small toehold in North America's Hudson Valley and fought the Portuguese in nearly every other place from Brazil, to West Africa, to the East Indies.

The French moved into the St. Lawrence and Mississippi Valleys and Great Lakes of North America and probed opportunities in the Caribbean and India. Last into the contest was England. At first, England seemed satisfied with privateer raids on Spain's treasure ships and New World colonies. However, the British later claimed areas of North America's Atlantic Coast. In the next century, England ousted the Dutch and began a long contest with the French for North American supremacy.

**HUMAN TOLLS OF IMPERIALISM: SLAVERY AND MERCANTILISM**

In the 1600s, European imperialism had broad effects on the global population. Spanish conquests brought disease and forced labor exploitation that nearly exterminated the Native American population. The exploits of Pizarro and Cortés killed nearly 100,000 Incas and Aztecs. Yet, the European diseases they brought (smallpox, influenza) killed millions.

With the Native American population decimated, the Spanish began importing African slaves to work plantations and mines of their New World empire. The slave trade burgeoned and continued for nearly 400 years.

A "triangle trade" pattern emerged for Africa, the New World, and Europe. Europeans traded goods for African slaves, then transported them under wretched conditions to the encomiendases and plantations of the New World. Once in America, the empty slave ships loaded ores, hides, tobacco, sugar, and spices for return to European ports.

In the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries, European governments tried to centralize power through a command economic system called mercantilism. Mercantilists felt that to succeed, governments had to accumulate gold. Gold and silver were needed to purchase military supplies and conduct wars of conquest. Mercantilists desired a "favorable balance of trade" by assuring that the nation exported more than it imported. They wanted goods to flow outward, and gold to flow inward.

Mercantilist governments:

- regulated production
- controlled trading companies
- restricted imports from other countries
- using tariffs and quotas
- controlled raw materials and markets through colonialism

Imperialism offered a means of keeping trade balances favorable. Colonies provided cheap sources of raw materials with little need to drain wealth by purchasing from other nations. Mercantilist governments could control colonies' production and colonies providing exclusive markets for the "mother country." A strong merchant marine linked colonies with the mother country, and a strong navy protected the trade from competing powers, privateers, and pirates. As a command system, mercantilism had a dampening effect on burgeoning capitalism. Some colonial merchants, smugglers, and privateers became rich by ignoring mercantilist rules.

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1. Imperialism (policy of extending a nation's authority by territorial acquisition or by the establishment of economic and political supremacy over other peoples)
2. Encomienda (feudal grant of power over a territory and the people in it to a noble colonist)
3. Mercantilism (theory and system of political economy prevailing in Europe after the decline of feudalism, based on national policies of accumulating gold and silver, establishing colonies and a merchant marine, and developing industry and mining to attain a favorable balance of trade)
The migration of people to New Spain and New Grenada resulted in an intermixing of three races and a new social structure emerged (see diagram below). Spanish nobles, or peninsulares, remained the ruling elite. Their American-born children, or criollos, intermarried with Native Americans, producing mestizos, who gradually created the middle class of the colonies.

**POLITICAL IDEOLOGIES: ABSOLUTISM**

The nation-states and empires that arose at the close of the Medieval Era evolved into absolute monarchies. Absolutism is a concentration of power in the hands of one person or a group of persons. For example, in 16th and 17th century Europe, monarchs overcame the power of the Church, the nobility, and city burghers. The monarchs claimed divine right and held themselves responsible only to God, ignoring their subjects and representative bodies. They set up their own bureaucracies and commanded their own military forces.

**SPANISH IMPERIALISM: THE ENCOMIENDA SYSTEM**

After the Spanish captured and killed the Aztec and Inca leaders, the decline of the empires was swift. There was some resistance to the invaders, but native rule ceased, and the societies quickly disintegrated. Spain imposed its rule on an area that extended from California to Tierra del Fuego.

The Spanish king named viceroys with near-absolute power to administer vast regions of the Americas. The king’s mercantilist advisors lured unwitting volunteers to set up encomiendas. The huge encomiendas became cash-crop plantations and mining operations using native labor as serfs. Later, the encomienda holders imported slave labor from Africa. Life on the encomiendas was brutal. Church clergy were largely silent about the abuses. In 1542, a lone Spanish missionary, Father Bartolomé de las Casas, broke the silence and reported on the inhumane treatment of natives and slaves. The crown ordered some weak reforms. The loss of life in the brutal encomienda existence continued and led to calls for more African slaves.

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1 viceroys (governor of a region or people, ruling as the representative of a king)
2 absolutism (form of government in which all power is vested in a single ruler or other authority)
3 divine right (doctrine that monarchs derive their right to rule directly from God and are accountable only to God)
Some of these absolutist ideas were examined by Machiavelli (*The Prince*, see Unit IV). English philosopher and political theorist **Thomas Hobbes** (1588-1679) defended absolutism as part of “natural law.” In *Leviathan* (1651), he claimed people willfully gave up freedom (the “nasty, brutish” chaos of nature) for the order and security provided by strong monarchs.

Although absolutism was widely practiced in this era, its applications varied greatly. The following selection of profiles are examples.

**INDIA – AKBAR THE GREAT**

**Akbar the Great** (1542-1605) united all northern India and Afghanistan under Mogul (Mughal) rule. He consolidated power by annexing Malwa, Bengal, Kabul, and Kashmir. Akbar ensured absolute control by setting up a paid bureaucracy. He stopped rewarding service with land grants to break up the aristocracy. He brought Hindu chiefs into his administration but limited their power. Although he ruled strictly and crushed opposition, he kept subjects in line by setting up a fair tax system and a uniform system of weights and measures, promoted trade, and allowed religious tolerance. He adopted and promoted European technology (printing, gunpowder). Akbar set up a new state religion (a blend of Islam, Hinduism) and encouraged scholarship and the arts.
SPANISH - CHARLES V AND PHILIP II

The grandson of Ferdinand II of Aragon, Charles (r. 1516-1556) became king of a united Spain and shortly thereafter was elected Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor. Charles' reign focused on Germany's problems during the Reformation and blocking the spread of the Ottoman Empire into Europe. Yet, his staunch defense of Catholicism, his building of an empire in the New World, and his use of Spaniards in imperial power positions allowed him to keep Spain united as a nation.

Charles' son, Philip II, became the absolutist king of Spain in 1556. He strengthened his control by centralizing the bureaucracy, annexing Portugal, warring against the Turks (Battle of Lepanto, 1571), and campaigning against Protestantism in the Netherlands. Philip's early reign was the high point of Spain's monarchy and a golden age for the nation. Philip patronized the arts and academic pursuits including the paintings of El Greco (1541-1614) and the writings of Cervantes. However, Philip engaged in expensive wars and intrigues against France. His armada suffered defeat by England in 1588. His loss of the northern provinces of the Netherlands combined with other problems to weaken Spain. The country began a long decline in power.

FRANCE - LOUIS XIV

Louis XIV became the most famous of the absolute monarchs. Historians claim Louis declared that he himself was the state (“L'état, c'est moi.”). France's "Sun King," had the longest reign in European history (1643-1715). By the middle of his reign, he established a glittering court at Versailles. Nobles drawn by the dazzling life at Louis' "gilded cage" neglected their estates. This reduced their income and diminished their power to oppose the king.

Louis' early reign (1643-1661) was as a regency. As he was a minor, Louis' mother Anne was chosen to govern in place of the monarch. Actually, the chief minister, Cardinal Mazarin, dominated the government. Mazarin continued the harsh policies and taxes of Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu. A series of major revolts by merchants, peasants, and nobles (The Fronde, 1648-1653), temporarily ousted Mazarin. Later, he returned and assisted Louis as he began his personal rule.

After Mazarin's death in 1661, Louis proved to be a true Machiavellian. He took personal control and did not share power with a chief minister. Louis never convened the Estates General for advice. He used middle class officials to replace any nobles who challenged him.

Louis fought the Netherlands for commercial supremacy and invaded Germany to gain the Rhine as a boundary. His four major wars were expensive and revenue was partially raised through the mercantilist financial policies of Jean Baptiste Colbert (1619-1683). Colbert

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King Louis XIV

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1 regency (person or group selected to govern in place of a monarch or other ruler who is absent, disabled, or still in minority)
codified France's laws, effectively restructured taxes, built an impressive navy, started a colonial empire, and oversaw state cultural and scientific undertakings.

After Colbert's death, Louis' last years (1685-1715) were beset by problems. He revoked the Edict of Nantes in 1685, and he expelled the Protestant Huguenots. Because the Huguenots were a key group in generating the mercantilist revenues, the country's economy suffered.

Louis' policies brought little to France. He lost colonial territories to England and gained little against rivals Spain and the Netherlands. However, French national pride was enhanced, and French culture came to dominate Western European society.

**RUSSIA - PETER THE GREAT**

From the late 15th century on, the grand dukes of Muscovy created a class of military vassals and placed towns under their direct rule. Building on this power, Ivan IV ("Ivan the Terrible," r. 1533-1584) assumed the title of tsar (ruler). He appointed an advisory council, drew up a new law code, and enacted reforms, but also began binding peasants to the land. Ivan's conquests of the Central Asia and Siberia put a vast empire under tsarist rule. Toward the end of his reign, Ivan took absolute control of the state. He turned against his council and created a secret police to purge and exile nobles and
officials. Ivan’s wars against Poland-Lithuania, Livonia, and Sweden nearly bankrupted Russia. Internal revolts, outside invasions, and weak tsars plagued Russia until the founding of the Romanov Dynasty in 1613.

When Peter I, known as Peter the Great (r. 1682-1725), became tsar of Russia, he decreed sweeping changes based on the models of European absolute monarchs. All classes of Russian society felt the brutally strong influence of his Westernization reforms and military campaigns against the Ottomans, Persia, and Sweden. Peter developed a civil service system that allowed officials to achieve noble rank, while diluting older nobles’ power. He placed the Orthodox Church under his control and appointed his own Church leaders. His construction of a new capital at St. Petersburg removed his government from the influence of older aristocrats.

In the economic realm, Peter structured a mercantilist approach, opening trade with Western Europe. He built a modernized naval force, and founded new industries. Still, he kept the peasantry bound in near-medieval serfdom. While Peter’s absolutist reforms and military conquests changed Russian society, the weakness of his successors left historians to debate whether he laid the foundation for the modern Russian state.

Mini Assessment

1. Peter the Great’s westernization of Russia included
   1. abolition of serfdom
   2. independence for the Orthodox Church
   3. colonial possessions in the New World
   4. creation of a civil service

2. Akbar the Great, Philip II, and James I were
   1. ethnocentrists
   2. viceroys
   3. absolutists
   4. bureaucrats

3. James I’s clashes with the English Parliament revolved around
   1. culture and creativity
   2. reform and regency
   3. revenue and religion
   4. serfdom and security

Constructed Response:

“...the King is the overlord of the whole land, so he is master over every person that inhabiteth the same, having power over life and death of every one of them. For although a just prince will not take the life of any of his subjects, without a clear law, yet the same laws whereby he taketh them are made by himself or his predecessors.”

—James I, True Law of Free Monarchs, 1598

1. In King James’ opinion, what is the source of law?

2. How does this quotation reflect absolutism?
reforms the Anglican “Puritan” group wanted. Yet, as head of the Church of England, he angered the Puritans in Parliament by rejecting their requests for change. James’ conclusion of a peace with Spain in 1604 made Parliament suspect he was pro-Catholic. His advisors constantly clashed with Parliament on financial matters.

RESPONSE TO ABSOLUTISM: THE PURITAN REVOLUTION AND THE ENGLISH BILL OF RIGHTS

Parliament’s struggles with the Stuart monarchs came to a head under James’ son, Charles I (r. 1625-1649). The friction between the English monarchs and nobles, middle class townspeople, and commoners had a long history.

Charles I tried to rule without Parliament and viciously persecuted his enemies, especially Puritans and the Scots. By 1640, Charles faced a war with Scotland and Ireland. He called the Puritan-controlled Parliament into session to get money.

Beginning in 1642, the Puritan Revolution pitted Parliament’s Puritans (“roundheads”) against royalist supporters (“cavaliers”). Charles rejected Parliament’s “Nineteen Propositions” limiting royal power and tried to arrest Puritan leaders. Both sides raised armies, and in 1642, the English Civil War began. Puritan commander Oliver Cromwell defeated Charles’ forces in 1646. The Puritans purged Parliament of cavaliers, and executed Charles in 1649. After they abolished the monarchy, Cromwell dismissed Parliament. A group of army officers drew up a constitution (the Instrument of Government) setting up a commonwealth, and naming Cromwell “Lord Protector.” While Parliament was reinstated, Cromwell ruled as a dictator for 7 years, enforcing strict Puritan rules on social behavior. This was the only time in England’s modern history when the country had a written constitution but did not have a monarch.

Cromwell died in 1658. In 1660, the army overthrew his son Richard and reconvened Parliament. During the Restoration, the government invited Charles I’s son to assume the throne with permanent restrictions on the monarch’s power. During Charles II’s reign, Parliament settled religious toleration controversies and passed the Habeas Corpus Act. During this “Restoration Period,” English society reacted against the strict Puritan values and embraced a flamboyant lifestyle.

Charles II died in 1685 and was succeeded by his Catholic brother, James. As king, James II tried to regain absolute power and reopened the Protestant v. Catholic controversy. In the Glorious Revolution (1688), Parliament deposed James. It then established its supremacy by inviting new Protestant monarchs (William and Mary of Orange) to take the

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1. constitution (system of fundamental laws and principles that prescribes the nature, functions, and limits of a government or another institution)
2. Habeas Corpus Act (arrested individuals were guaranteed a statement of charges against them, opportunity for bail, and a speedy trial)
Documents of English Rights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Document</th>
<th>Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Magna Carta (1215)</td>
<td>English barons rebelling against King John’s high taxes and military failures and forced him to sign the Magna Carta. It strengthened due process by requiring both a proper trial and lawful judgment in royal courts before levying a sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petition of Right (1628)</td>
<td>Charles I’s extravagances and foreign wars required a Parliamentary session and a clash forced an important compromise. The Petition of Right restricted the monarch’s power to collect taxes, quarter troops in private homes, declare martial law, and imprison individuals without just cause (habeas corpus concept) and insured jury trials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habeas Corpus Act (1670)</td>
<td>During Charles II’s reign, Parliament settled religious toleration controversies and passed the Habeas Corpus Act - arrested individuals were guaranteed a statement of charges against them, opportunity for bail, and a speedy trial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill of Rights (1689)</td>
<td>Under William and Mary, Parliament forbade taxation without its consent, and broadened due process rights to include protection from cruel and unusual punishments and excessive bail and fines.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The throne. Parliament required them to sign the Bill of Rights (1689). The Bill secured Parliament’s sovereignty over the crown, forbade taxation without its consent, and broadened due process rights.

From this series of confrontations, sometimes violent, but mostly bloodless, England evolved into a constitutional monarchy. The accumulation of restrictions on the absolute power of monarchs laid a foundation for the concept of representative democracy in the modern world. The principles of individual freedom and rights of citizens in the face of governmental power slowly evolved from these confrontations between would-be absolute monarchs and nobles and churchmen in the 17th century.

Time Capsule

This was an age of transition. Major forces that are the focus of human interest in our own times emerged in this age. Beginning in the 15th century and into the 18th century, this First Global Age saw a new and influential interaction of the civilizations of Asia and Europe with civilizations in Africa, the Americas, and the Pacific Rim.

By force of arms, the Ming, Ottoman, and Mughal Empires dominated Asia and North Africa. They unified diverse populations politically, culturally, and economically. In Europe, the rise of absolute monarchs employing the divine right theory attempted to eliminate opposition and unify their kingdoms. European encounters and exploration of the Western Hemisphere grew out of the quest for trade, wealth, and knowledge that intensified in the Renaissance and gained momentum as national monarchies developed.

The expansion of enterprises motivated the Chinese in the early Ming Era as well as the Portuguese and Spanish in the 15th century. Desire for tropical products — cotton, sugar, coffee, indigo, spices — led to the launching of extensive voyages of exploration that intensified intercontinental maritime trade. Bitter rivalries among the Portuguese and Dutch, Dutch and English, English and Spanish, and later, French and English promoted the growth of imperialism. Each nation sought naval supremacy and fought for overseas commercial stations and colonies.

1 constitutional monarchy (monarchy in which the powers of the ruler are restricted to those granted under the constitution and laws of the nation)
MULTI-CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. In South America, the rapid rivers and thick vegetation of the Amazon rain forest and the imposing heights of the Andes
   1. improved communications among native peoples
   2. accelerated Spanish conquest and control of a large colonial empire
   3. hindered settlement of the continent’s interior
   4. encouraged cultural diffusion

2. Which of these situations was the result of the other three?
   1. Aztec and Inca rule was based on forced tribute relationships.
   2. Mesoamerican empires fell to European conquerors.
   3. Frequent rebellions and civil wars occurred in and among Maya, Aztec, and Inca city-states.
   4. Europeans formed alliances with rival city-states and Mesoamerican people.

3. Which presented the greatest challenge to Spain’s imperial supremacy in the New World?
   1. treaties with Portugal denoting zones of exploration and colonization
   2. introduction of slaves from Africa
   3. founding of missions by Catholic priests
   4. the activities of Cartier, Hudson, Champlain, and Cabot

4. Philip II of Spain, Louis XIV of France, and Peter I of Russia were all absolute monarchs. Which characteristic was common to their reigns?
   1. They conducted extensive foreign wars.
   2. They exerted power through national legislatures.
   3. They allowed toleration of various religions.
   4. They created strong alliances with Asian emperors.

5. This view of a section of the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan resembles a
   1. tributary of Ming China
   2. savanna of Mali
   3. forum in an ancient Roman city
   4. manor of Medieval Europe

6. In the eyes of mercantilist policy makers, colonies helped to achieve wealth for the nation by
   1. providing cheap sources of raw materials and markets for the nation’s goods
   2. increasing the imports the mother country needed from other nations
   3. trading directly with the colonies of other empires
   4. increasing the number of religious conversions

7. In the southern Saharan region, Islam’s diversity allowed it to merge with traditional religious practices and spread rapidly. This made it easier for leaders in Songhai and Mali to form trading empires because it
   1. enhanced the power of local chiefs
   2. created a common cultural bond
   3. opposed ancestor worship
   4. promoted ethnocentrism
Which geographic factor had the greatest effect on interaction between sub-Saharan African and Mediterranean societies?

1. Presence of desert areas
2. Monsoon winds bearing moisture
3. Lack of north-south rivers in sub-Saharan Africa
4. Impassable mountain barriers

Which resulted from the presence of the Ottoman Empire as a military power in the Eastern Mediterranean in the 12th - 16th centuries?

1. Decrease in the slave trade
2. Breakdown of manorialism in Europe
3. Rise of absolute monarchy in Europe
4. Blockage of Asian-European trade

In England, the *Magna Carta*, the *Petition of Right*, and the *Bill of Rights* show an evolution of

1. Mercantile policies
2. Religious toleration
3. Limiting the power of the monarch
4. Scientific and technological achievement

**Thematic Essay**

**Theme:** Culture and Intellectual Life

Leaders can promote cultural development.

**Task:**

- Select a leader from the First Global Age (1450-1770) and explain how the leader's actions promoted cultural and intellectual development.
- Describe how the leader's actions altered his/her society.

**Suggestions:**

You may use any leader from the era. Some individuals you might consider: Mansa Kankan Musa, Yong Le, Suleiman, Peter the Great. **You are not limited to these suggestions.**

**Document Based Question**

**Directions:**

The following question is based on the accompanying documents (1-4). Some of the documents have been edited for the purposes of this exercise. The question is designed to test your ability to work with historical documents. As you analyze the documents, take into account both the source of the document and the author's point of view.

- Write a well-organized essay that includes an introduction with a thesis statement, several paragraphs explaining the thesis, and a conclusion.
- Analyze the documents.
- Use all the documents.
- Use evidence from the documents to support your thesis position.
- Do not simply repeat the contents of the documents.
- Include specific related outside information.

**Historical Context:**

Contacts among people are never simple. A mix of motives propelled expansion of European contacts with Asia, Africa, and the Americas in the First Global Age. The documents below present some aspects of the contact.

**Task:**

Evaluate the reasons for the expansion of European influence in Asia, Africa, and the Americas in the First Global Age. Support your opinion with the documents below and your knowledge of global history.
Part A - Short Answer

The documents below relate aspects of the expansion of European influence Asia, Africa, and the Americas in the First Global Age. Examine each document carefully, then answer the question that follows it.

Document 1:

"Presently many of the inhabitants of the island assembled ... thus your highnesses should resolve to make them Christians, for I believe if the work was begun, in a little time the multitude would be converted to our faith, with the acquisition of great lordships, people, and riches for Spain."

– Christopher Columbus to King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella (1493)

Document 1 Question:

Why did the Church support voyages of discovery?

Document 2:

"The Dutch East India Company, organized in 1602, was a highly successful enterprise until the close of the 17th c. ... the average dividend from 1602 to 1796 was over 18 percent. The earnings of the English East India Company were stupendous. On some of the early voyages profits of 195, 221, 311, 318, and 334 percent were realized. During the 17th c. dividends averaged about 100-21 percent."

– E.J. Hamilton “American Treasure & the Rise of Capitalism (1500-1700)” Economics, November 1929

Document 2 Question:

Who benefitted from the wealth of the New World?

Document 3: Slave Trade Across the Atlantic

From the 1520s through 1867, an estimated 10 to 15 million Africans were transported to the New World.

WHERE SLAVES WERE DELIVERED

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dutch West Indies (including Surinam)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French West Indies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Empire (including Cuba)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British West Indies, British North</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America, &amp; United States</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 figures = 1 million slaves

Document 3 Question:

In what ways did the importation of African slaves affect the New World?

Document 4:

"In the 17th century northern Europeans rushed to colonize the remaining unsettled islands and turned aggressively on the Spaniards. ... As the nations battled, law and order broke down entirely; the pirates grew bolder than ever; ... After 1700 the Caribbean became a battleground for European navies and a magnet for the most dangerous outlaws of the sea. ... the Caribbean islands had grown rich satisfying Europe’s appetite for sugar and tobacco"

– J.A. Hayes, Medieval and Early Modern Times (1968)

Document 4 Question:

Why did national governments in England, Holland, and France become so interested in the New World?

Part B - Essay Response

Your essay should be well organized with an introductory paragraph that states your thesis as to the reasons for European expansion during the first Global Age. Develop and support the reasons for your thesis in the next paragraphs and then write a conclusion. In your essay, include specific historical details and refer to the specific documents you analyzed in Part A. You may include additional information from your knowledge of global history.
Unit 6

1750 AD – 1914 AD

An Age of Revolutions

AD
1750–

Wealth of Nations published (1776)
French Revolution begins (1789)
L’Overture begins Haitian revolt (1791)

1800–

Congress of Vienna meets (1814)

Great Reform Bill in Britain (1832)

1850–

Communist Manifesto published (1848)
Opening of Japan (1853)
Sepoy Mutiny (1857)
Emancipation Edict in Russia (1861)

1900–

Berlin Conference (1885)
Boxer Rebellion (1899)

Nelson

Napoleon
INTRODUCTION

Revolutions are movements which bring about complete or drastic altering of economic, political, and/or social life change. The better known revolutions, in places such as the Britain’s Atlantic Coast colonies in North America, France, Russia, Iran, and China, were political. However, many revolutions do not involve violence or political change. Revolutions have occurred in fields such as science, philosophy, and methods of production. Political revolutions are more likely to involve violence, but some political change has been brought about by coup d’etats. Napoleon Bonaparte of France achieved power through a coup d’état in 1799.

1 revolution (overthrow of one government and its replacement with another)
2 coup d’etats (sudden, often bloodless overthrow of a government by a usually small group of persons in or previously in positions of authority)
3 Nicolaus Copernicus (1473-1543, Polish astronomer who advanced the theory that the Earth and other planets revolve around the Sun, disrupting the Ptolemaic system of astronomy)

THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION

DEVELOPMENT OF SCIENTIFIC METHODS

Beginning as early as the age of Copernicus, some Western scientists began to question the ideas of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They began to observe and experiment and to base their conclusions on their findings. These procedures became known as the scientific method. Many scientists also adopted the inductive approach – working from many specific examples to develop more generalized conclusions. For example, they would examine many different varieties of leaves to come to a conclusion about what a leaf was. Not surprisingly, many scientific developments occurred during the Renaissance when the prevailing outlook favored questioning and progress.

Changes in thinking that occurred during the Scientific Revolution led to changes in other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scientist</th>
<th>Work</th>
<th>Main Contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nicolaus Copernicus</td>
<td>On the Revolutions of Heavenly Orbs (1643)</td>
<td>Heliocentric Theory – believed that the Earth and other planets revolved around the Sun – used mathematical calculations, not observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galileo Galilei</td>
<td>Dialogues on the Two New Sciences (1632)</td>
<td>Used telescope to prove planets revolved around Sun; laws of motion on Earth; observed sunspots; mountains on Moon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isaac Newton</td>
<td>Principia (The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy (1687)</td>
<td>Universal Law of Gravitation – explained movement on Earth and in solar system; co-developed calculus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rene Descartes</td>
<td>Discourse on Method (1637)</td>
<td>Used reason (“I think, therefore I am”) to arrive at truth; invented coordinate geometry; believed science should be applied to practical arts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
fields. French philosopher-mathematician Rene Descartes (1596-1650) held the belief that science could have practical application. This is seen in the inventions of the Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions. In addition, changes developed in philosophy. Thinkers sought natural laws that governed the actions of people, just as England’s Sir Isaac Newton (1643-1727) and others sought the laws that governed nature. Scientific groups such as England’s Royal Society and France’s Academy of Science circulated new ideas and made change and progress easier.

THE IMPACT OF ENLIGHTENMENT ON NATIONALISM AND DEMOCRACY

Enlightenment writers used nature or natural laws to justify their ideas of how people should live together and what their form of government should be. Most liberal Enlightenment thinkers believed that nature grouped people together in nations which had different characteristics. People became more conscious of themselves as a national group, and this led to national pride and often to reactionary feelings against those regarded as foreign.

The philosophes were not a unified group, and often disagreed. Voltaire believed that rulers should have the power which would be used to benefit the people; Rousseau and Locke believed that power should rest with the people.

### WRITERS OF THE ENLIGHTENMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author &amp; Work</th>
<th>Main Ideas</th>
<th>Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John Locke (1632-1704)</td>
<td>Locke believed all men have natural rights of life, liberty, property; men have a right of revolution if government fails to protect rights</td>
<td>Influenced Ideas of Jefferson and Declaration of Independence; used many times to justify revolution against unjust governments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Treatises of Government (1690)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increased English pride in freedoms resulted in rise of enlightened despots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voltair (Francois Marie Arouet, 1694-1778)</td>
<td>Voltaire admired relative freedom of religion and press in England; believed enlightened despots should use power to benefit people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Letters on the English (1728)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778)</td>
<td>Rousseau believed “man is born free, yet everywhere he is in chains”; wanted men to give power to government (General Will) which would act for common good with consent of people</td>
<td>Influenced development of democracy – government “of the people, by the people, for the people”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Contract (1761)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montesquieu (Charles Louis de Secondat, 1689-1755) The Spirit of the Laws (1748)</td>
<td>Baron de Montesquieu believed in separation of powers (legislative / executive / judicial); wanted balance of power among various elements in government</td>
<td>Influenced structure of the U.S. Constitution and other constitutions based on it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a consequence, very different forms of government could be justified using the ideas of the philosophers.

**ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS**

Enlightened despotism is a term associated with 18th century monarchs who, while denying democratic rights, used their absolute power to reform legal, social, and educational institutions and improve conditions for their subjects. Enlightened despotism owes much to the writings of Voltaire. He spent time at the court of Frederick the Great of Prussia and corresponded with Catherine the Great of Russia. Voltaire believed that a ruler could justify his/her power by improving society. Common actions taken by enlightened despots included: codification of laws, limitation of church power, construction of hospitals and elementary schools, development of a centralized bureaucracy, and modification of serfdom. They took similar actions, yet tailored their actions to conditions within their particular realms.

**Mini Assessment**

1. Voltaire believed that complete power should be given to an enlightened despot and Locke believed that power should rest with the people. Which is a correct conclusion based on these statements and your knowledge of the Intellectual Revolution?
   - All philosophes believed in democracy.
   - Philosophes had widely differing views on government.
   - French philosophes believed only in absolutism while English philosophes supported democracy.
   - The nature of government was the only concern of philosophes.

2. A major contribution of the Scientific Revolution was the
   - emphasis it placed on practical application of scientific theory
   - increased reluctance to employ the inductive method
   - refusal to question ideas of the ancient Greeks
   - continued reliance on the geocentric theory

3. Which were likely actions of enlightened despots?
   - sharing power with an elected legislature and increasing rights for women
   - abolishing censorship and rights of assembly
   - codifying laws and establishing a government bureaucracy
   - establishing a state religion and church control of education

**Constructed Response:**

"When any number of men have so consented to make one community or government, they are thereby presently incorporated and ... the majority have a right to act and conclude [include] the rest."

—John Locke, Second Treatise of Civil Government (1690)

1. Which form of government does Locke support in this quotation?

2. How might Locke’s ideas (this one and others), be applied in the French Revolution?
rated. In Russia, the revolution of a serf (Pugachev) threatened the reign of Catherine the Great and resulted in a slowing of the reform process. Nevertheless, conditions for the common people in countries ruled by enlightened despots were better than those in nearby countries.

**POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS**

**THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION**

The Enlightenment had considerable impact on the decade of turmoil that swept Britain's Atlantic Coast colonies from 1764-1775 and resulted in the American Revolution (1776-1783). Such revolutionary leaders as Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790), Thomas Paine (1737-1809), and Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) were influenced by the philosophes.

Benjamin Franklin was the main author of the Albany Plan of Union (1754) which urged the colonies to unite against the threat of French power in Canada. Later, he favored a system of Parliamentary representation for the colonists. After the Revolution, he lobbied for giving the U.S. Congress the power to tax. From 1775 to 1783, while serving as the Americans' representative in France, Franklin wore the common man's homespun clothing and tied his hair back in a simple queue (pigtails). To many Frenchmen, he seemed to be reflecting Rousseau's idea that man should return to as near the state of nature as possible.

Thomas Paine's Common Sense (1776) held the injustice of the British monarchy to blame for American dissatisfaction. Paine also found it unnatural for a small nation such as Britain to rule a large area such as America.

Thomas Jefferson's ideas in the Declaration of Independence (1776) blamed the British monarchy for violation of Americans' natural rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Jefferson also indicated that these violations gave Americans the right of revolution. Thus, his ideas clearly include those of John Locke and some of the other Enlightenment writers. The United States Constitution (1789) includes the ideas of Montesquieu on the separation of powers and a check and balance system.

The first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, the Bill of Rights (1791), enumerate the rights of American citizens to such privileges as freedom of speech, press, religion, private property, and trial by jury. Again they reflect the ideals of the Enlightenment thinkers.

The American Revolution of 1776 clearly inspired the French Revolution of 1789 and most of the other world revolutions which followed. The reforms of the French Revolution included the idea that a constitution was necessary to limit the power of the government. The French Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen (1789) included many of the ideas of the philosophes and the American revolutionaries. Later phases of the French Revolution led to the adoption of a republic. The American example had shown such a government system could work in a modern nation.

The revolutions in Latin America in the early 19th century were clearly inspired by those in the United States and France. Latin American revolutionary leader, Simon Bolivar, modeled his union of Gran Colombia on the United States experience. Worldwide, other revolutionaries took up the cries of natural rights and government by the consent of the governed. Such cries continue to be heard in modern times.

**THE FRENCH REVOLUTION**

The French Revolution was caused by a variety of economic, social, and political factors. Economically, the French government was virtually bankrupt. The early 18th century wars of Louis XIV and Louis XV were costly. The monarchs found it difficult to increase taxation. Within the Estates in France – the clergy and the nobility – were largely tax exempt. They refused to accept taxation without an increase in power. The Third Estate paid most of the taxes. With the exception of some of the bourgeoisie, the Third Estate was least able to pay. In addition, poor harvests plagued the nation in the latter half of the 18th century. The government was unable to provide much relief:

1 Enlightenment (philosophical movement of the 17th-18th centuries that emphasized the use of reason to scrutinize previously accepted doctrines and traditions and that brought about many humanitarian reforms)
2 Estates (social position or rank, especially of high order: 1st estate – major social class, such as the nobility; the common; 2nd estate – clergy, formerly possessing distinct political rights; 3rd estate – common people)
3 Third Estate (the common people – bourgeoisie, proletariat, and peasantry)