



Ninth Edition

WESTERN CIVILIZATION

JACKSON J. SPIELVOGEL

NINTH
EDITION

WESTERN CIVILIZATION

JACKSON J. SPIELVOGEL

The Pennsylvania State University



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TO DIANE,
WHOSE LOVE AND SUPPORT MADE IT ALL POSSIBLE
J.J.S.

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PREFACE

DURING A VISIT to Great Britain, where he studied as a young man, Mohandas Gandhi, the leader of the effort to liberate India from British colonial rule, was asked what he thought of Western civilization. “I think it would be a good idea,” he replied. Gandhi’s response was as correct as it was clever. Western civilization has led to great problems as well as great accomplishments, but it remains a good idea. And any complete understanding of today’s world must take into account the meaning of Western civilization and the role Western civilization has played in history. Despite modern progress, we still greatly reflect our religious traditions, our political systems and theories, our economic and social structures, and our cultural heritage. I have written this history of Western civilization to assist a new generation of students in learning more about the past that has helped create them and the world in which they live.

At the same time, for the ninth edition, as in the eighth, I have added new material on world history to show the impact other parts of the world have made on the West. Certainly, the ongoing struggle with terrorists since 2001 has made clear the intricate relationship between the West and the rest of the world. It is important then to show not only how Western civilization has affected the rest of the world but also how it has been influenced and even defined since its beginnings by contacts with other peoples around the world.

Another of my goals was to write a well-balanced work in which the political, economic, social, religious, intellectual, cultural, and military aspects of Western civilization have been integrated into a chronologically ordered synthesis. I have been especially aware of the need to integrate the latest research on social history and women’s history into each chapter of the book rather than isolating it either in lengthy topical chapters, which confuse the student by interrupting the chronological narrative, or in separate sections that appear at periodic intervals between chapters.

Another purpose in writing this history of Western civilization has been to put the *story* back in history. That story is an exciting one; yet many textbooks fail to capture the imagination of their readers. Narrative history effectively transmits the knowledge of the past and is the form that best aids remembrance. At the same time, I have not overlooked the need for the kind of historical analysis that makes students aware that historians often disagree on their interpretations of the past.

Features of the Text

To enliven the past and let readers see for themselves the materials that historians use to create their pictures of the

past, I have included in each chapter **primary sources** (boxed documents) that are keyed to the discussion in the text. The documents include examples of the religious, artistic, intellectual, social, economic, and political aspects of Western life. Such varied sources as a Renaissance banquet menu, a student fight song in nineteenth-century Britain, letters exchanged between a woman and her fiancé on the battle front in World War I, the Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen in the French Revolution, and a debate in the Reformation era all reveal in a vivid fashion what Western civilization meant to the individual men and women who shaped it by their activities. I have added questions at the end of each source to help students in analyzing the documents.

Each chapter has an **introduction and an illustrated chapter summary** to help maintain the continuity of the narrative and to provide a synthesis of important themes. Anecdotes in the chapter introductions dramatically convey the major theme or themes of each chapter. **Detailed chronologies** reinforce the events discussed in the text, and a **Chapter Timeline** at the end of each chapter enables students to review at a glance the chief developments of an era. Some of the timelines also show parallel developments in different cultures or nations. Beginning with the eighth edition, a new format was added at the end of each chapter. The **Chapter Summary** is illustrated with thumbnail images of chapter illustrations and combined with the **Chapter Timeline**. A **Chapter Review** has been added to assist students in studying the chapter. This review includes **Upon Reflection** essay questions and a list of **Key Terms** from the chapter. The **Suggestions for Further Reading** at the end of each chapter have been thoroughly updated and are organized under sub-headings to make them more useful.

Updated maps and extensive illustrations serve to deepen the reader’s understanding of the text. **Detailed map captions** are designed to enrich students’ awareness of the importance of geography to history, and numerous **spot maps** enable readers to see at a glance the region or subject being discussed in the text. Map captions also include a **map question** to guide students’ reading of the map. To facilitate understanding of cultural movements, illustrations of artistic works discussed in the text are placed near the discussions. Throughout the text, illustration captions have been revised and expanded to further students’ understanding of the past. **Chapter outlines and focus questions, including critical thinking questions**, at the beginning of each chapter give students a useful overview and guide them to the main subjects of each chapter. The focus questions are then repeated at the beginning of each major section in the chapter. A **glossary of important terms** (boldfaced in the text when

they are introduced and defined) is provided at the back of the book to maximize reader comprehension. A **guide to pronunciation** is now provided in the text in parentheses following the first mention of a complex name or term. **Chapter Notes** are now at the end of the book rather than at the end of each chapter.

New to This Edition

As preparation for the revision of *Western Civilization*, I reexamined the entire book and analyzed the comments and reviews of many colleagues who have found the book to be a useful instrument for introducing their students to the history of Western civilization. In making revisions for the ninth edition, I sought to build on the strengths of the first eight editions and, above all, to maintain the balance, synthesis, and narrative qualities that characterized those editions. To keep up with the ever-growing body of historical scholarship, new or revised material has been added throughout the book on the following topics:

Chapter 1 new historiographical subsection, “The Spread of Humans: Out of Africa or Multiregional?”; religion in Neolithic societies; Amenhotep II and Amenhotep III; health care in ancient Egypt; the role of ritual in ancient Egypt; new Opposing Viewpoints feature on “The Great Flood: Two Versions.”

Chapter 2 new historiographical subsection, “Was There a United Kingdom of Israel?”; new document on “The Customs of the Persians”; Zoroastrianism.

Chapter 3 new focus questions; Minoan Crete; the role of the phalanx and colonies in the rise of democracy in Greece; helots and women in Sparta; political systems in Sparta and Athens; the background of Themistocles; Sophocles; new document on “Sophocles: ‘The Miracle of Man’”; sports and violence in ancient Greece.

Chapter 4 new historiographical subsection, “The Legacy: Was Alexander Great?”; new document on “Relations Between Greeks and Non-Greeks”; women in the Hellenistic world.

Chapter 5 origins of the Etruscans; Julius Caesar and Cleopatra VII; new document on “How to Win an Election.”

Chapter 6 new critical thinking questions on the Roman military; client kingdoms; new Images of Everyday Life feature on “Children in the Roman World”; early Christianity.

Chapter 7 Roman emperors and church councils; Pope Gregory the Great; the labor of women in Frankish society; new subsection on “The Growing Wealth of Monasteries”; Latin church fathers; Benedictine monastic vows; Synod of Whitby; new document on “A Byzantine Emperor Gives Military Advice.”

Chapter 8 the *missi dominici*; the role of aristocratic women; women in Byzantium; women in the Slavic world; women in the world of Islam; new historiographical subsection, “What Was the Significance of Charlemagne?”; new Opposing Viewpoints feature on “Lords, Vassals, and Samurai in Europe and Japan.”

Chapter 9 roles of peasant women; commercial capitalism; women in medieval cities; new document on “Goliardic Poetry: The Archpoet.”

Chapter 10 new historiographical subsection, “What Were the Effects of the Crusades?”; vassalage; new Film & History feature on *Vision*.

Chapter 11 new organization of material on art and the Black Death: new subsection, “Art and the Black Death”; new subsection, “A New Art: Giotto”; new document on “A Liberated Woman in the Fourteenth Century”; foreign *condottieri* in Italy.

Chapter 12 new Images of Everyday Life feature on “Family and Marriage in Renaissance Italy”; new historiographical subsection, “Was There a Renaissance for Women?”; English civil wars in the fifteenth century.

Chapter 13 new historiographical subsection, “Catholic Reformation or Counter-Reformation?”; new document on “Queen Elizabeth I: ‘I Have the Heart of a King.’”

Chapter 14 new document on “Marco Polo’s *Travels*”; new subsection, “Disease in the New World”; the West Indies.

Chapter 15 new historiographical subsection, “Was There a Military Revolution?”; new document on “The King’s Day Begins”; Judith Leyster; Rembrandt.

Chapter 16 Maria Merian; Galileo’s telescope; new document on “Margaret Cavendish: The Education of Women.”

Chapter 17 new Images of Everyday Life feature on “Women and the Enlightenment Salon.”

Chapter 18 new historiographical subsection, “Was There an Agricultural Revolution?”; new document on “The Impact of Agricultural Changes”; primogeniture; new subsection on consumer practices in the eighteenth century, “The New Consumers.”

Chapter 19 finances of the French court; the Treaties of Tilsit; new document on “The State of French Finances.”

Chapter 20 new document on “The Great Irish Potato Famine”; new historiographical subsection, “Did Industrialization Bring an Improved Standard of Living?”

Chapter 21 new focus questions; new Images of Everyday Life feature on “Political Cartoons: Attacks on the King.”

Chapter 22 Robert Koch and health care; new document on “Flaubert and an Image of Bourgeois Marriage.”

Chapter 23 diet in the second half of the nineteenth century; public health and sewers; new designs for cities; working-class women; mass leisure in the cities; new document on “Prostitution in Victorian London.”

Chapter 24 imperialism; Impressionism; new document on “Does Germany Need Colonies?”

Chapter 25 new document on “War and Love”; new historiographical subsection, “The Assassination of Francis Ferdinand: A ‘Blank Check’?”

Chapter 26 new document on “The Decline of European Civilization”; new historiographical subsection, “The Retreat from Democracy: Did Europe Have Totalitarian States?”

Chapter 27 new focus questions; new document on “Heinrich Himmler: ‘We Had the Moral Right.’”

Chapter 28 Algerian independence; the 1960s economy; new document on “The Burden of Guilt”; new historiographical subsection, “Confrontation of the Superpowers: Who Started the Cold War?”

Chapter 29 new document on “Betty Friedan: The Problem That Has No Name”; new Film & History feature on *The Iron Lady*.

Chapter 30 Russia; France; Italy; the United States; the war in Afghanistan; population trends; immigration; terrorism; the West and Islam; the environment; technology in “The Digital Age”; new and revised subsection on the global financial collapse, “The End of Excess”; new Images of Everyday Life feature on “The New Global Economy: Fast Fashion”; new historiographical subsection, “Why Did the Soviet Union Collapse?”

The enthusiastic response to the primary sources (boxed documents) led me to evaluate the content of each document carefully and add new documents throughout the text, including new comparative documents in the feature called **Opposing Viewpoints**. This feature, which was introduced in the seventh edition, presents a comparison of two or three primary sources in order to facilitate student analysis of historical documents. This feature has been expanded and now appears in every chapter, including such topics as “Lords, Vassals, and Samurai in Europe and Japan,” “The Black Death: Contemporary Views,” “Attitudes of the Industrial Middle Class in Britain and Japan,” and “Czechoslovakia, 1968: Two Faces of Communism.” Focus questions are included to help students evaluate the documents.

Two additional features that were added in the seventh and eighth editions have also been expanded. **Images of Everyday Life**, which combines two or more illustrations with a lengthy caption to provide insight into various aspects of social life, can now be found in twenty chapters, including such new topics as “Children in the Roman World,” “Family and Marriage in Renaissance Italy,” “Women and the Enlightenment Salon,” and “Political Cartoons: Attacks on the King.” **Film & History**, which presents a brief analysis of a film’s plot as well as its historical significance, value, and accuracy, can now be found in seventeen chapters; the features discuss nineteen films, including such new additions as *Vision* and *The Iron Lady*.

A new focus question has also been added at the beginning of each chapter. Entitled **Connections to Today**, this question is intended to help students appreciate the relevance of history by asking them to draw connections between the past and present.

Also new to the ninth edition are **historiographical sections**, which examine how and why historians differ in their interpretation of specific topics. Examples include “Was There a United Kingdom of Israel?”; “Was There a Renaissance for Women?”; “Was There an Agricultural Revolution?”; “The Retreat from Democracy: Did Europe Have Totalitarian States?”; and “Why Did the Soviet Union Collapse?”

Because courses in Western civilization at American and Canadian colleges and universities follow different

chronological divisions, a one-volume edition, two two-volume editions, a three-volume edition, and a volume covering events since 1300 are being made available to fit the needs of instructors. Teaching and learning ancillaries include the following.

Supplements

For the Instructor

*MindTap*TM: *The Personal Learning Experience* MindTap for Spielvogel’s *Western Civilization* (PAC: 9781285843124) is a personalized, online digital learning platform providing students with the *Western Civilization* content and related interactive assignments and app services while giving you a choice in the configuration of coursework and curriculum enhancement. Through a carefully designed chapter-based learning path, students can access the Making America ebook (Mind Tap Reader, see description below); ApliaTM assignments developed for the most important concepts in each chapter (see Aplia description below); brief quizzes; and a set of web applications known as MindApps to help you create the most engaging course for your students. The MindApps range from ReadSpeaker (which reads the text out loud to students) to Kaltura (allowing you to insert inline video and audio into your curriculum) to ConnectYard (allowing you to create digital “yards” through social media—all without “friending” your students). MindTap for Spielvogel’s *Western Civilization* goes well beyond an eBook, a homework solution/digital supplement, a resource center website, or a Learning Management System. It is truly a Personal Learning Experience that allows you to synchronize the text reading and engaging assignments and quizzes. To learn more, ask your Cengage Learning sales representative to demo it for you—or go to www.Cengage.com/MindTap.

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so that students can easily reference it as they work. Map-reading and writing tutorials are also available to get students off to a good start.

Aplia's simple-to-use course management interface allows instructors to post announcements, upload course materials, host student discussions, e-mail students, and manage the gradebook; a knowledgeable and friendly support team offers assistance and personalized support in customizing assignments to the instructor's course schedule. To learn more and view a demo for this book, visit www.aplia.com.

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Test Bank The Test Bank offered in Microsoft® Word® and Cognero® formats contains multiple-choice and essay questions for each chapter. Cognero® is a flexible, online system that allows you to author, edit, and manage test bank content for *Western Civilization, 9e*. Create multiple test versions instantly and deliver through your LMS from your classroom, or wherever you may be, with no special installs or downloads required.

eInstructor's Resource Manual Prepared by Jennifer McNabb of Western Illinois University. This manual has many features, including chapter outlines, suggested lecture topics, map exercises, discussion questions for the primary sources, relevant worldwide web sites/resources, and relevant video resources. Available on the instructor's companion website.

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Western Civilization Companion Website This website for students features a wide assortment of resources to help students master the subject matter. The website, prepared by Ryan Swanson of George Mason University, includes a glossary, flashcards, interactive quizzing, chapter outlines, and audio chapter summaries.

eBook This interactive multimedia eBook links out to rich media assets such as video and MP3 chapter summaries. Through this eBook, students can also access chapter outlines, focus questions, chronology and matching exercises, primary source documents with critical thinking questions, and interactive (zoomable) maps. Available at www.cengagebrain.com.

Doing History: Research and Writing in the Digital Age, 2e ISBN: 9781133587880 Prepared by Michael J. Galgano, J. Chris Arndt, and Raymond M. Hyser of James Madison University. Whether you're starting down the path as a history major or simply looking for a straightforward, systematic guide to writing a successful paper, you'll find this text to be an indispensable handbook to historical research. This text's "soup to nuts" approach to researching and writing about history addresses every step of the process, from locating your sources and

gathering information, to writing clearly and making proper use of various citation styles to avoid plagiarism. You'll also learn how to make the most of every tool available to you—especially the technology that helps you conduct historical research efficiently and effectively. The second edition includes a special appendix linked to CourseReader (see above), where you can examine and interpret primary sources online.

The History Handbook, 2e ISBN: 9780495906766 Prepared by Carol Berkin of Baruch College, City University of New York, and Betty Anderson of Boston University. This book teaches students both basic and history-specific study skills such as how to take notes, get the most out of lectures and readings, read primary sources, research historical topics, and correctly cite sources. Substantially less expensive than comparable skill-building texts, *The History Handbook* also offers tips for Internet research and evaluating online sources. Additionally, students can purchase and download the *eAudio* version of *The History Handbook* or any of its eighteen individual units at www.cengagebrain.com to listen to on the go.

Writing for College History, 1e ISBN: 9780618306039 Prepared by Robert M. Frakes of Clarion University. This brief handbook for survey courses in American history, Western Civilization/European history, and world civilization guides students through the various types of writing assignments they may encounter in a history class. Providing examples of student writing and candid assessments of student work, this text focuses on the rules and conventions of writing for the college history course.

The Modern Researcher, 6e ISBN: 9780495318705 Prepared by Jacques Barzun and Henry F. Graff of Columbia University. This classic introduction to the techniques of research and the

art of expression is used widely in history courses, but is also appropriate for writing and research methods courses in other departments. Barzun and Graff thoroughly cover every aspect of research, from the selection of a topic through the gathering of materials, analysis, writing, revision, and publication of findings. They present the process not as a set of rules but through actual cases that put the subtleties of research in a useful context. Part One covers the principles and methods of research; Part Two covers writing, speaking, and getting one's work published.

Reader Program Cengage Learning publishes a number of readers. Some contain exclusively primary sources, others are devoted to essays and secondary sources, and still others provide a combination of primary and secondary sources. All of these readers are designed to guide students through the process of historical inquiry. Visit www.cengage.com/history for a complete list of readers.

Rand McNally Historical Atlas of Western Civilization, 2e, ISBN: 9780618841943 This valuable resource features more than forty-five maps, including maps that highlight Classical Greece and Rome; maps documenting European civilization during the Renaissance; maps that follow events in Germany, Russia, and Italy leading up to World Wars I and II; maps that show the dissolution of communism in 1989; maps documenting language and religion in the Western world; and maps describing the unification and industrialization of Europe.

Document Exercise Workbook ISBN: V1: 9780534560836; V2: 9780534560843 Prepared by Donna Van Raaphorst of Cuyahoga Community College. A collection of exercises based around primary sources. Available in two volumes.

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INTRODUCTION TO STUDENTS OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION

Civilization, as historians define it, first emerged between five and six thousand years ago when people in different parts of the world began to live in organized communities with distinct political, military, economic, and social structures. Religious, intellectual, and artistic activities assumed important roles in these early societies. The focus of this book is on Western civilization, a civilization that many people identify with the continent of Europe.

Defining Western Civilization

Western civilization itself has evolved considerably over the centuries. Although the concept of the West did not yet exist at the time of the Mesopotamians and Egyptians, their development of writing, law codes, and different roles based on gender all eventually influenced what became Western civilization. Although the Greeks did not conceive of Western civilization as a cultural entity, their artistic, intellectual, and political contributions were crucial to the foundations of Western civilization. The Romans produced a remarkable series of accomplishments that were fundamental to the development of Western civilization, a civilization that came to consist largely of lands in Europe conquered by the Romans, in which Roman cultural and political ideals were gradually spread. Nevertheless, people in these early civilizations viewed themselves as subjects of states or empires, not as members of Western civilization.

With the rise of Christianity during the Late Roman Empire, however, peoples in Europe began to identify themselves as part of a civilization different from others, such as that of Islam, leading to a concept of a Western civilization different from other civilizations. In the fifteenth century, Renaissance intellectuals began to identify this civilization not only with Christianity but also with the intellectual and political achievements of the ancient Greeks and Romans.

Important to the development of the idea of a distinct Western civilization were encounters with other peoples. Between 700 and 1500, encounters with the world of Islam helped define the West. But after 1500, as European ships began to move into other parts of the world, encounters with peoples in Asia, Africa, and the Americas not only had an impact on the civilizations found there but also affected how people in the West defined themselves. At the same time, as they set up colonies, Europeans began to transplant a sense of Western identity to other areas of the world, especially North America and parts of Latin America, that have come to be considered part of Western civilization.

As the concept of Western civilization has evolved over the centuries, so have the values and unique features associated with that civilization. Science played a crucial role in the

development of modern Western civilization. The societies of the Greeks, Romans, and medieval Europeans were based largely on a belief in the existence of a spiritual order; a dramatic departure to a natural or material view of the universe occurred in the seventeenth-century Scientific Revolution. Science and technology have been important in the growth of today's modern and largely secular Western civilization, although antecedents to scientific development also existed in Greek and medieval thought and practice, and religion remains a component of the Western world today.

Many historians have viewed the concept of political liberty, belief in the fundamental value of every individual, and a rational outlook based on a system of logical, analytical thought as unique aspects of Western civilization. Of course, the West has also witnessed horrendous negations of liberty, individualism, and reason. Racism, slavery, violence, world wars, totalitarian regimes—these, too, form part of the complex story of what constitutes Western civilization.

The Dating of Time

In our examination of Western civilization, we also need to be aware of the dating of time. In recording the past, historians try to determine the exact time when events occurred. World War II in Europe, for example, began on September 1, 1939, when Hitler sent German troops into Poland, and ended on May 7, 1945, when Germany surrendered. By using dates, historians can place events in order and try to determine the development of patterns over periods of time.

If someone asked you when you were born, you would reply with a number, such as 1996. In the United States, we would all accept that number without question because it is part of the dating system followed in the Western world (Europe and the Western Hemisphere). In this system, events are dated by counting backward or forward from the year 1. When the system was first devised, the year 1 was assumed to be the year of the birth of Jesus, and the abbreviations B.C. (before Christ) and A.D. (for the Latin words *anno Domini*, meaning “in the year of the Lord”) were used to refer to the periods before and after the birth of Jesus, respectively. Historians now generally prefer to refer to the year 1 in nonreligious terms as the beginning of the “common era.” The abbreviations B.C.E. (before the common era) and C.E. (common era) are used instead of B.C. and A.D., although the years are the same. Thus, an event that took place four hundred years before the year 1 would be dated 400 B.C.E. (before the common era)—or the date could be expressed as 400 B.C. Dates after the year 1 are labeled C.E. Thus, an event that took place two hundred years after the year 1 would be dated 200 C.E. (common era), or the date could be written A.D. 200.

It can also be written simply as 200, just as you would not give your birth year as 1996 C.E., but simply as 1996. In keeping with the current usage by most historians, this book will use the abbreviations B.C.E. and C.E.

Historians also make use of other terms to refer to time. A *decade* is ten years, a *century* is one hundred years, and a *millennium* is one thousand years. Thus, “the fourth century B.C.E.” refers to the fourth period of one hundred years counting backward from the year 1, the beginning of the common era. Since the first century B.C.E. would be the years 100 B.C.E. to 1 C.E., the fourth century B.C.E. would be the years 400 B.C.E. to 301 B.C.E. We could say, then, that an event in 350 B.C.E. took place in the fourth century B.C.E.

Similarly, “the fourth century C.E.” refers to the fourth period of one hundred years after the beginning of the common era. Since the first period of one hundred years would be the

years 1 to 100, the fourth period or fourth century would be the years 301 to 400. We could say, then, that an event in 350 took place in the fourth century. Likewise, the first millennium B.C.E. refers to the years 1000 B.C.E. to 1 C.E.; the second millennium C.E. refers to the years 1001 to 2000.

The dating of events can also vary from people to people. Most people in the Western world use the Western calendar, also known as the Gregorian calendar after Pope Gregory XIII, who refined it in 1582. The Hebrew calendar uses a different system in which the year 1 is the equivalent of the Western year 3760 B.C.E., considered to be the date of the creation of the world according to the Bible. Thus, the Western year 2014 is the year 5774 on the Hebrew calendar. The Islamic calendar begins year 1 on the day Muhammad fled Mecca, which is the year 622 on the Western calendar.

The Ancient Near East: The First Civilizations



Essam Al-Sudani/AFP/Getty Images

Excavation of Warka showing the ruins of Uruk

CHAPTER OUTLINE AND FOCUS QUESTIONS

The First Humans

Q How did the Paleolithic and Neolithic Ages differ, and how did the Neolithic Revolution affect the lives of men and women?

The Emergence of Civilization

Q What are the characteristics of civilization, and what are some explanations for why early civilizations emerged?

Civilization in Mesopotamia

Q How are the chief characteristics of civilization evident in ancient Mesopotamia?

Egyptian Civilization: “The Gift of the Nile”

Q What are the basic features of the three major periods of Egyptian history? What elements of continuity are there in the three periods? What are their major differences?

On the Fringes of Civilization

Q What is the significance of the Indo-European-speaking peoples?

CRITICAL THINKING

Q In what ways were the civilizations of Mesopotamia and Egypt alike? In what ways were they different?



CONNECTIONS TO TODAY

Q What lessons can you learn from the decline and fall of early civilizations, and how do those lessons apply to today’s civilizations?

IN 1849, A DARING YOUNG Englishman made a hazardous journey into the deserts and swamps of southern Iraq. Moving south down the banks of the Euphrates River while braving high winds and temperatures that reached 120 degrees Fahrenheit, William Loftus led a small expedition in search of the roots of civilization. As he said, “From our childhood we have been led to regard this place as the cradle of the human race.”

Guided by native Arabs into the southernmost reaches of Iraq, Loftus and his small group of explorers were soon overwhelmed by what they saw. He wrote, “I know of nothing more exciting or impressive than the first sight of one of these great piles, looming in solitary grandeur from the surrounding plains and marshes.” One of these piles, known to the natives as the mound of Warka, contained the ruins of Uruk, one of the first cities in the world and part of the world’s first civilization.

Southern Iraq in Southwest Asia was one area in the world where civilization began. Although Western

civilization did not yet exist, its origins can be traced back to the ancient Near East, where people in Southwest Asia and Egypt developed organized societies, invented writing, and created the ideas and institutions that we associate with civilization. The Greeks and Romans, who later played such a crucial role in the development of Western civilization, were themselves nourished and influenced by these older societies. It is appropriate, therefore, to begin our story of Western civilization with the early civilizations of Southwest Asia and Egypt. Before considering them, however, we must briefly examine humankind's prehistory and observe how human beings made the shift from hunting and gathering to agricultural communities and ultimately to cities and civilization. ◀◀

biological information, which anthropologists and archaeologists use to formulate theories about our early past. Although modern science has given us more precise methods for examining prehistory, much of our understanding of early humans still relies on conjecture.

The earliest humanlike creatures—known as **hominids**—existed in Africa as long as 3 to 4 million years ago. Known as Australopithecines (aw-stray-loh-PITH-uh-synz), they flourished in East and South Africa and were the first hominids to make simple stone tools.

Another stage in early human development occurred around 1.5 million years ago when *Homo erectus* (“upright human being”) emerged. *Homo erectus* made use of larger and more varied tools and was the first hominid to leave Africa and move into both Europe and Asia.

The Emergence of *Homo sapiens*

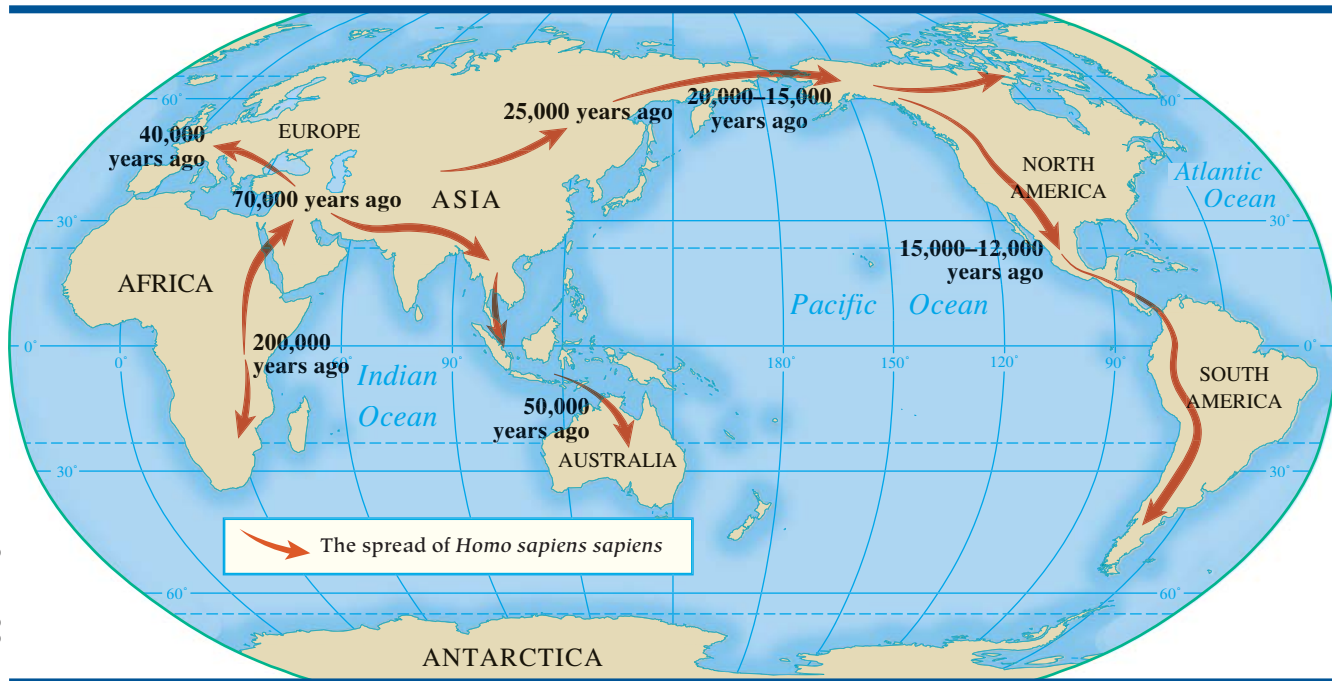
Around 250,000 years ago, a crucial stage in human development began with the emergence of *Homo sapiens* (HOH-moh SAY-pee-unz) (“wise human being”). The first anatomically modern humans, known as *Homo sapiens sapiens* (“wise, wise human being”), appeared in Africa between 200,000 and 150,000 years ago. Recent evidence indicates that they began to spread outside Africa around 70,000 years ago. Map 1.1 shows probable dates for different movements, although many of these are still controversial.

These modern humans, who were our direct ancestors, soon encountered other hominids, such as the Neanderthals,

The First Humans

Q FOCUS QUESTION: How did the Paleolithic and Neolithic Ages differ, and how did the Neolithic Revolution affect the lives of men and women?

Historians rely primarily on documents to create their pictures of the past, but no written records exist for the prehistory of humankind. In their absence, the story of early humanity depends on archaeological and, more recently,



MAP 1.1 The Spread of *Homo sapiens sapiens*. *Homo sapiens sapiens* spread from Africa beginning about 70,000 years ago. Living and traveling in small groups, these anatomically modern humans were hunter-gatherers.

Q Given that some diffusion of humans occurred during ice ages, how would such climate change affect humans and their movements, especially from Asia to Australia and Asia to North America?



CHRONOLOGY The First Humans

Australopithecines	Flourished c. 2–4 million years ago
<i>Homo erectus</i>	Flourished c. 100,000–1.5 million years ago
Neanderthals	Flourished c. 200,000–30,000 B.C.E.
<i>Homo sapiens sapiens</i>	Emerged c. 200,000 B.C.E.

whose remains were first found in the Neander valley in Germany. Neanderthal remains have since been found in both Europe and the western part of Asia and have been dated to between 200,000 and 30,000 B.C.E. Neanderthals relied on a variety of stone tools and were the first early people to bury their dead. By 30,000 B.C.E., *Homo sapiens sapiens* had replaced the Neanderthals, who had largely become extinct.

THE SPREAD OF HUMANS: OUT OF AFRICA OR MULTI-REGIONAL? The movements of the first modern humans were rarely sudden or rapid. Groups of people advanced beyond their old hunting grounds at a rate of only 2 or 3 miles per generation, but this was enough to populate the world in some tens of thousands of years. Some scholars, who advocate a multiregional theory, have suggested that advanced human creatures may have emerged independently in different parts of the world, rather than in Africa alone. But the latest genetic, archaeological, and climatic evidence strongly supports the out-of-Africa theory as the most likely explanation of human origin. In any case, by 10,000 B.C.E., members of the *Homo sapiens sapiens* species could be found throughout the world. By that time, it was the only human species left. All humans today, whether they are Europeans, Australian Aborigines, or Africans, belong to the same subspecies of human being.

The Hunter-Gatherers of the Old Stone Age

One of the basic distinguishing features of the human species is the ability to make tools. The earliest tools were made of stone, and so scholars refer to this early period of human history (c. 2,500,000–10,000 B.C.E.) as the **Paleolithic Age** (*paleolithic* is Greek for “old stone”).

For hundreds of thousands of years, humans relied on gathering and hunting for their daily food. Paleolithic peoples had a close relationship with the world around them, and over time, they came to know which plants to eat and which animals to hunt. They did not know how to grow crops or raise animals, however. They gathered wild nuts, berries, fruits, and a variety of wild grains and green plants. Around the world, they hunted and consumed various animals, including buffalo, horses, bison, wild goats, and reindeer. In coastal areas, fish were a rich source of nourishment.

The gathering of wild plants and the hunting of animals no doubt led to certain patterns of living. Archaeologists and anthropologists have speculated that Paleolithic people lived in small bands of twenty or thirty people. They were

nomadic, moving from place to place to follow animal migrations and vegetation cycles. Hunting depended on careful observation of animal behavior patterns and required a group effort for success. Over the years, tools became more refined and more useful. The invention of the spear, and later the bow and arrow, made hunting considerably easier. Harpoons and fishhooks made of bone increased the catch of fish.

Both men and women were responsible for finding food—the chief work of Paleolithic people. Since women bore and raised the children, they generally stayed close to the camps, but they played an important role in acquiring food by gathering berries, nuts, and grains. Men hunted wild animals, an activity that often took them far from camp. Because both men and women played important roles in providing for the band’s survival, many scientists believe that a rough equality existed between men and women. Indeed, some speculate that both men and women made the decisions that affected the activities of the Paleolithic band.

Some groups of Paleolithic people found shelter in caves, but over time, they also created new types of shelter. Perhaps the most common was a simple structure of wood poles or sticks covered with animal hides. Where wood was scarce, Paleolithic hunter-gatherers might use the bones of mammoths to build frames that were then covered with animal hides. The systematic use of fire, which archaeologists believe began around 500,000 years ago, made it possible for the caves and human-made structures to have a source of light and heat. Fire also enabled early humans to cook their food, making it taste better, last longer, and, in the case of some plants, such as wild grain, easier to chew and digest.

The making of tools and the use of fire—two important technological innovations of Paleolithic peoples—remind us how crucial the ability to adapt was to human survival. But Paleolithic peoples did more than just survive. The cave paintings of large animals found in southwestern France and northern Spain bear witness to the cultural activity of Paleolithic peoples. A cave discovered in southern France in 1994—known as the Chauvet (shoh-VAY) cave after the leader of the expedition that found it—contains more than three hundred paintings of lions, oxen, owls, bears, and other animals. Most of these are animals that Paleolithic people did not hunt, which suggests to some scholars that the paintings were made for religious or even decorative purposes. The discoverers were overwhelmed by what they saw: “There was a moment of ecstasy. . . . They overflowed with joy and emotion in their turn. . . . These were moments of indescribable madness.”¹

The Neolithic Revolution (c. 10,000–4000 B.C.E.)

The end of the last ice age around 10,000 B.C.E. was followed by what scholars call the **Neolithic Revolution**, a significant change in living patterns that occurred in the New Stone Age (*neolithic* is Greek for “new stone”). The name “New Stone Age” is misleading, however. Although Neolithic peoples



Paleolithic Cave Painting: The Chauvet Cave. Cave paintings of large animals reveal the cultural creativity of Paleolithic peoples. This scene is part of a mural in a large underground chamber at Vallon-Pont-d'Arc, France, discovered in December 1994. It dates from around 30,000 to 28,000 B.C.E. and depicts aurochs (long-horned wild oxen), horses, and rhinoceroses. To make their paintings, Paleolithic artists used stone lamps that burned animal fat to illuminate the cave walls and mixed powdered mineral ores with animal fat to create red, yellow, and black pigments. Some artists even made brushes out of animal hairs with which to apply the paints.

made a new type of polished stone ax, this was not the major change that occurred after 10,000 B.C.E.

AN AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION The biggest change was the shift from gathering plants and hunting animals for sustenance (food gathering) to producing food by systematic agriculture (food production). The planting of grains and vegetables provided a regular supply of food, while the domestication of animals, such as goats, cattle, pigs, and sheep, provided a steady source of meat, milk, and fibers such as wool for clothing. Larger animals could also be used as beasts of burden. The growing of crops and the taming of food-producing animals created a new relationship between humans and nature. Historians speak of this as an agricultural revolution. Revolutionary change is dramatic and requires great effort, but the ability to acquire food on a regular basis gave humans greater control over their environment. It also allowed them to give up their nomadic way of life and begin to live in settled communities.

Systematic agriculture probably developed independently between 8000 and 7000 B.C.E. in four different areas of the world. Different plants were cultivated in each area: wheat, barley, and lentils in the Near East; rice and millet in southern Asia; millet and yams in western Africa; and beans, potatoes, and corn (maize) in the Americas. The Neolithic agricultural revolution needed a favorable environment. In the Near East, the upland areas above the Fertile Crescent (present-day

northern Iraq and southern Turkey) were initially more conducive to systematic farming than the river valleys. This region received the necessary rainfall and was the home of two wild plant (barley, wheat) and four wild animal (pigs, cows, goats, sheep) species that humans eventually domesticated.

NEOLITHIC FARMING VILLAGES The growing of crops on a regular basis gave rise to more permanent settlements, which historians refer to as Neolithic farming villages or towns. One of the oldest and most extensive agricultural villages was Çatal Hüyük (chaht-ul hoo-YOOK), located in modern-day Turkey. Its walls enclosed 32 acres, and its population probably reached six thousand during its high point from 6700 to 5700 B.C.E. People lived in simple mudbrick houses that were built so close to one another that there were few streets. To get to their homes, people had to walk along the rooftops and then enter the house through a hole in the roof.

Archaeologists have discovered twelve cultivated products in Çatal Hüyük, including fruits, nuts, and three kinds of wheat. Artisans made weapons and jewelry that were traded with neighboring peoples. Religious shrines housing figures of gods and goddesses have been found at Çatal Hüyük, as have a number of female statuettes. Molded with noticeably large breasts and buttocks, these “earth mothers” perhaps symbolically represented the fertility of both “mother earth” and human mothers. The shrines and the statues point to the important role of religious practices in the lives of these Neolithic people.

CONSEQUENCES OF THE NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION The Neolithic agricultural revolution had far-reaching consequences. Once people settled in villages or towns, they built houses for protection and other structures for the storage of goods. As organized communities stored food and accumulated material goods, they began to engage in trade. People also began to specialize in certain crafts, and a division of labor developed. Pottery was made from clay and baked in a fire to make it hard. The pots were used for cooking and to store grains. Woven baskets were also used for storage. Stone tools became refined as flint blades were developed to make sickles and hoes for use in the fields. Obsidian—a volcanic glass that was easily flaked—was also used to create very sharp tools. In the course of the Neolithic Age, many of the food plants still in use today began to be cultivated. Moreover, vegetable fibers from such plants as flax were used to make thread that was woven into cloth.

The change to systematic agriculture in the Neolithic Age also had consequences for the relationship between men and women. Men assumed the primary responsibility for working in the fields and herding animals, jobs that kept them away from the home. Although women also worked in the fields, many remained close to home, caring for the children, weaving cloth, and performing other household tasks. In time, as work outside the home was increasingly perceived as more important than work done at home, men came to play the more dominant role in human society, which gave rise to the



Statue from Ain Ghazal. This life-size statue made of plaster, sand, and crushed chalk was discovered in 1984 in Ain Ghazal, an archaeological site near Amman, Jordan. Dating from 6500 B.C.E., it is among the oldest known statues of the human figure. Although it appears lifelike, its features are considered generic rather than a portrait of an individual face. The purpose and meaning of this sculpture may never be known.

practice of **patriarchy** (PAY-tree-ark-ee), or a society dominated by men, a basic pattern that would persist until our own times.

Other patterns set in the Neolithic Age also proved to be enduring elements of human history. Fixed dwellings, domesticated animals, regular farming, a division of labor, men holding power—all of these are part of the human story. Despite all our modern scientific and technological progress, human survival still depends on the growing and storing of food, an accomplishment of people in the Neolithic Age. The Neolithic Revolution was truly a turning point in human history.

Between 4000 and 3000 B.C.E., significant technical developments began to transform the Neolithic towns. The

invention of writing enabled records to be kept, and the use of metals marked a new level of human control over the environment and its resources. Already before 4000 B.C.E., craftspeople had discovered that certain rocks could be heated to liquefy metals embedded in them. The metals could then be cast in molds to produce tools and weapons that were more refined than stone instruments. Although copper was the first metal to be used in producing tools, after 4000 B.C.E. craftspeople in western Asia discovered that combining copper and tin produced bronze, a much harder and more durable metal than copper. Its widespread use has led historians to call the period from around 3000 to 1200 B.C.E. the Bronze Age; thereafter, bronze was increasingly replaced by iron.

At first, Neolithic settlements were mere villages. But as their inhabitants mastered the art of farming, more complex human societies emerged. As wealth increased, these societies began to develop armies and to build walled cities. By the beginning of the Bronze Age, the concentration of larger numbers of people in the river valleys of Southwest Asia and Egypt was leading to a whole new pattern for human life.

The Emergence of Civilization

Q FOCUS QUESTION: What are the characteristics of civilization, and what are some explanations for why early civilizations emerged?

As we have seen, early human beings formed small groups that developed a simple culture that enabled them to survive. As human societies grew and developed greater complexity, a new form of human existence—called civilization—came into being. A **civilization** is a complex culture in which large numbers of human beings share a variety of common elements. Historians have identified a number of basic characteristics of civilization. These include (1) an urban focus: cities became the centers of political, economic, social, cultural, and religious development; (2) a distinct religious structure: the gods were deemed crucial to the community's success, and professional priestly classes, as stewards of the gods' property, regulated relations with the gods; (3) new political and military structures: an organized government bureaucracy arose to meet the administrative demands of the growing population, and armies were organized to gain land and power and for defense; (4) a new social structure based on economic power: while kings and an upper class of priests, political leaders, and warriors dominated, there also existed a large group of free people (farmers, artisans, craftspeople) and at the very bottom, socially, a class of slaves; (5) the development of writing: kings, priests, merchants, and artisans used writing to keep records; and (6) new forms of significant artistic and intellectual activity: for example, monumental architectural structures, usually religious, occupied a prominent place in urban environments.

The civilizations that developed in Southwest Asia and Egypt, the forerunners of Western civilization, will be examined in detail in this chapter. But civilization also developed



CHRONOLOGY The Birth of Early Civilizations

Egypt	c. 3100 B.C.E.
Mesopotamia	c. 3000 B.C.E.
India	c. 3000 B.C.E.
Peru	c. 2600 B.C.E.
China	c. 2000 B.C.E.
Central Asia	c. 2000 B.C.E.

Another early civilization emerged in the Supe River valley of Peru. At the center of this civilization was the city of Caral, which flourished around 2600 B.C.E. It contained buildings for officials, apartment houses, and grand residences, all built of stone. The inhabitants of Caral also developed a system of irrigation by diverting a river more than a mile upstream into their fields.



Caral, Peru

Why early civilizations developed remains difficult to explain. One theory maintains that challenges forced human beings to make efforts that resulted in the rise of civilization. Some scholars have argued that material forces, such as the growth of food surpluses, made possible the specialization of labor and development of large communities with bureaucratic organization. But the area of the Fertile Crescent, in which civilization emerged in Southwest Asia (see Map 1.2), was not naturally conducive to agriculture. Abundant food could be produced only with a massive human effort to manage the water, an undertaking that required organization and led to civilized cities. Other historians have argued that non-material forces, primarily religious, provided the sense of unity and purpose that made such organized activities possible. Finally, some scholars doubt that we will ever discover the actual causes of early civilization.

Civilization in Mesopotamia



FOCUS QUESTION: How are the chief characteristics of civilization evident in ancient Mesopotamia?

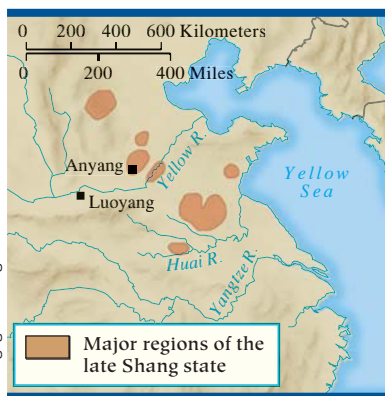
The Greeks spoke of the valley between the Tigris and Euphrates (yoo-FRAY-teez) Rivers in Southwest Asia as **Mesopotamia** (mess-uh-puh-TAY-mee-uh), the land “between the rivers.” The region receives little rain, but the soil of the plain of southern Mesopotamia was enlarged and enriched over the years by layers of silt deposited by the two



Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro

Two major cities—Harappa (huh-RAP-uh) and Mohenjo-Daro (moh-HEN-joh-DAH-roh)—were at the heart of this South Asian civilization. Many written records of the Indus valley civilization exist, but their language has not yet been deciphered. This Indus valley civilization carried on extensive trade with city-states in Southwest Asia.

Another river valley civilization emerged along the Yellow River in northern China about 4,000 years ago. Under the Shang (SHAHNG) dynasty of kings, which ruled from 1570



The Yellow River, China

Scholars long believed that civilization emerged only in four areas, in the fertile river valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates, the Nile, the Indus, and the Yellow River—that is, in Southwest Asia, Egypt, India, and China. Recently, however, archaeologists have discovered two other early civilizations. One of these flourished in Central Asia (in what are now the republics of Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) around 4,000 years ago. People in this civilization built mudbrick buildings, raised sheep and goats, had bronze tools, used a system of irrigation to grow wheat and barley, and had a writing system.

Central Asia Civilization

People in this civilization built mudbrick buildings, raised sheep and goats, had bronze tools, used a system of irrigation to grow wheat and barley, and had a writing system.



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MAP 1.2 The Ancient Near East. The Fertile Crescent encompassed land with access to water. Employing flood management and irrigation systems, the peoples of the region established civilizations based on agriculture. These civilizations developed writing, law codes, and economic specialization.

Q What geographic aspects of the Mesopotamian city-states made conflict between them likely?

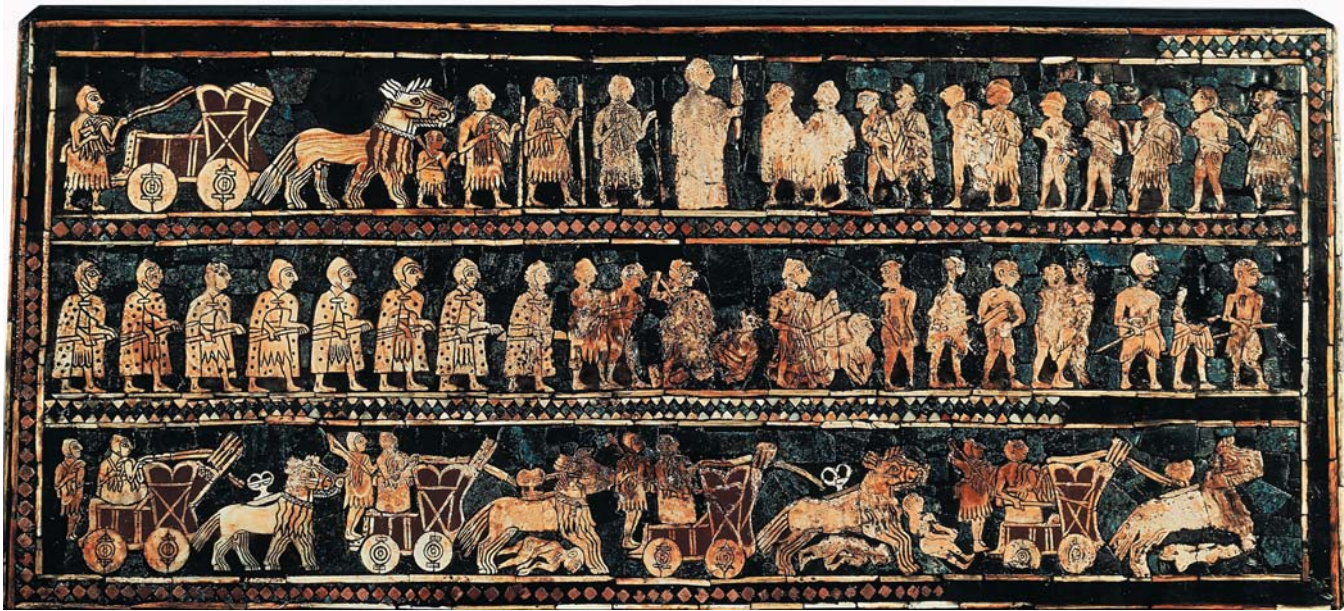
rivers. In late spring, the Tigris and Euphrates overflow their banks and deposit their fertile silt, but since this flooding depends on the melting of snows in the upland mountains where the rivers begin, it is unpredictable and sometimes catastrophic. In such circumstances, people could raise crops only by building a complex system of irrigation and drainage ditches to control the flow of the rivers. Large-scale irrigation made possible the expansion of agriculture in this region, and the abundant food provided the material base for the emergence of civilization in Mesopotamia.

The City-States of Ancient Mesopotamia

The creators of Mesopotamian civilization were the Sumerians (soo-MER-ee-unz or soo-MEER-ee-unz), a people whose origins remain unclear. By 3000 B.C.E., they had established a number of independent cities in southern

Mesopotamia, including Eridu, Ur, Uruk, Umma, and Lagash. There is evidence that the Sumerians were not the first people in the region. A number of Sumerian agricultural and craft terms are not Sumerian in origin, indicating that the Sumerians adopted some aspects of preexisting settlements. As the Sumerian cities grew larger, they came to exercise political and economic control over the surrounding countryside, forming city-states. These city-states were the basic units of Sumerian civilization.

SUMERIAN CITIES Sumerian cities were surrounded by walls. Uruk, for example, occupied an area of approximately 1,000 acres encircled by a wall 6 miles long with defense towers located every 30 to 35 feet along the wall. City dwellings, built of sun-dried bricks, included both the small flats of peasants and the larger dwellings of the civic and priestly officials. Although Mesopotamia had little stone or wood for building purposes, it did have plenty of mud. Mudbricks, easily shaped



The “Royal Standard” of Ur. This detail is from the “Royal Standard” of Ur, a box dating from around 2700 B.C.E. that was discovered in a stone tomb from the royal cemetery of the Sumerian city-state of Ur. The scenes on one side of the box depict the activities of the king and his military forces. Shown in the bottom panel are four Sumerian battle chariots. Each chariot held two men, one who held the reins and the other armed with a spear for combat. A special compartment in the chariot held a number of spears. The charging chariots are seen defeating the enemy. In the middle band, the Sumerian soldiers round up the captured enemies. In the top band, the captives are presented to the king, who has alighted from his chariot and is shown standing above all the others in the center of the panel.

by hand, were left to bake in the hot sun until they were hard enough to use for building. People in Mesopotamia were remarkably inventive with mudbricks, inventing the arch and constructing some of the largest brick buildings in the world.

The most prominent building in a Sumerian city was the temple, which was dedicated to the chief god or goddess of the city and often built atop a massive stepped tower called a **ziggurat** (ZIG-uh-rat). The Sumerians believed that gods and goddesses owned the cities, and much wealth was used to build temples as well as elaborate houses for the priests and priestesses who served the gods and supervised the temples and their property. The priests and priestesses had great power. In fact, historians believe that in the early stages of a few city-states, priests and priestesses may have played an important role in ruling. The Sumerians believed that the gods ruled the cities, making the state a **theocracy** (government by a divine authority). Actual ruling power, however, was primarily in the hands of worldly figures known as kings.

KINGSHIP Sumerians viewed kingship as divine in origin—kings, they believed, derived their power from the gods and were the agents of the gods. As one person said in a petition to his king: “You in your judgment, you are the son of Anu [god of the sky]; your commands, like the word of a god, cannot be reversed; your words, like rain pouring down from heaven, are without number.”² Regardless of their origins, kings had power—they led armies, initiated legislation, supervised the building of public works, provided courts, and organized workers for the irrigation projects on which Mesopotamian agriculture depended. The army, the government

bureaucracy, and the priests and priestesses all aided the kings in their rule. Befitting their power, Sumerian kings lived in large palaces with their wives and children.

ECONOMY AND SOCIETY The economy of the Sumerian city-states was primarily agricultural, but commerce and industry became important as well. The people of Mesopotamia produced woolen textiles, pottery, and metalwork. Foreign trade, which was primarily a royal monopoly, could be extensive. Royal officials imported luxury items, such as copper and tin, aromatic woods, and fruit trees, in exchange for dried fish, wool, barley, wheat, and the goods produced by Mesopotamian metalworkers. Traders traveled by land to the eastern Mediterranean in the west and by sea to India in the east. The invention of the wheel around 3000 B.C.E. led to the development of carts with wheels that made the transport of goods easier.

Sumerian city-states probably contained four major social groups: elites, dependent commoners, free commoners, and slaves. Elites included royal and priestly officials and their families. Dependent commoners included the elites’ clients who worked for the palace and temple estates. Free commoners worked as farmers, merchants, fishers, scribes, and craftspeople. Probably 90 percent or more of the population were farmers. They could exchange their crops for the goods of the artisans in free town markets. Slaves belonged to palace officials, who used them mostly in building projects; temple officials, who used mostly female slaves to weave cloth and grind grain; and rich landowners, who used them for farming and domestic work.



TABLE 1.1 Some Semitic Languages

Akkadian	<i>Canaanitic</i>
Arabic	Hebrew
Aramaic	<i>Phoenician</i>
Assyrian	<i>Syriac</i>
Babylonian	

NOTE: Languages in italic type are no longer spoken.

Empires in Ancient Mesopotamia

As the number of Sumerian city-states grew and the states expanded, new conflicts arose as city-state fought city-state for control of land and water. During the Early Dynastic Age (3000–2340 B.C.E.), the fortunes of various cities rose and fell over the centuries. The constant wars, with their burning and sacking of cities, left many Sumerians in deep despair, as is evident in this Sumerian poem from the city of Ur: “Ur is destroyed, bitter is its lament. The country’s blood now fills its holes like hot bronze in a mold. Bodies dissolve like fat in the sun. Our temple is destroyed, the gods have abandoned us, like migrating birds. Smoke lies on our city like a shroud.”³

THE AKKADIAN EMPIRE Located on the flat, open land of Mesopotamia, the Sumerian city-states were also vulnerable to invasion. To the north of the Sumerian city-states were the Akkadians (uh-KAY-dee-unz). We call them a Semitic people because of the language they spoke (see Table 1.1). Around 2340 B.C.E., Sargon, leader of the Akkadians, overran the Sumerian city-states and established a dynastic empire. Sargon used the former rulers of the conquered city-states as his governors. His power was based on the military, namely, his army of 5,400 men. Sargon’s empire, including all of Mesopotamia as well as lands westward to the Mediterranean, inspired generations of Near Eastern leaders to emulate his accomplishment. Even in the first millennium B.C.E., Sargon was still remembered in chronicles as a king of Akkad who “had no rival or equal, spread his splendor over all the lands, and crossed the sea in the east. In his eleventh year, he conquered the western land to its furthest point, and brought it under his sole authority.”⁴

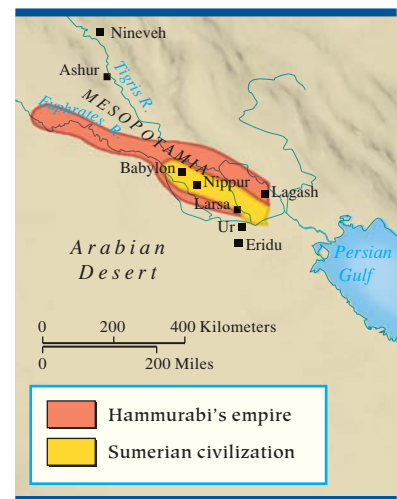
One of Sargon’s successors, his grandson Naram-Sin (c. 2260–2223 B.C.E.), continued the greatness of the Akkadian empire. Like his grandfather, Naram-Sin waged numerous military campaigns, which led him to an extreme level of self-glorification. He called himself “King of the Four Corners (of the Universe)” and took the extraordinary step of declaring himself a god. An inscription found in northern Iraq reads: “Naram-Sin, the strong one, king of Akkad, when the four corners (of the universe) together were hostile to him, he remained victorious in nine battles in a single year. . . . Because he had been able to preserve his city in the time of crisis, (the inhabitants of) his city asked . . . that he be the god of their city Akkad, and built a temple for him in the midst of Akkad.”⁵ By the end of his reign, however, Naram-Sin was

battling hill peoples who finally caused the fall of the Akkadian empire by 2150 B.C.E.

THE THIRD DYNASTY OF UR The end of the Akkadian empire brought a return to independent city-states in Mesopotamia. Much confusion ensued, as is evident in the recorded Sumerian king list, which stated bluntly, “Who was king? Who was not king?” The confusion ended when Ur-Nammu established a new dynasty that reunified much of Mesopotamia with its capital at Ur. This Third Dynasty of Ur (c. 2112–2000 B.C.E.) witnessed a final flowering of Sumerian culture. The economy flourished, and new temples and canals were built. Each province was required to contribute goods to the central government.

Around 2000 B.C.E., however, invaders from Iran destroyed Ur and brought an end to the Third Dynasty. Even earlier, the Amorites, a large group of Semitic-speaking seminomads, described by Sumerian scribes as dressed in sheepskins, living in tents, and eating raw meat, had entered the region and done battle with kings of the Third Dynasty. The Amorites or Old Babylonians gradually settled down and over the next two hundred years established their influence throughout much of Mesopotamia. One of their kings, Hammurabi (ham-uh-RAH-bee), managed to establish power and create a new empire.

HAMMURABI’S EMPIRE Hammurabi (1792–1750 B.C.E.) had a well-disciplined army of foot soldiers who carried axes, spears, and copper or bronze daggers. He learned to divide his opponents and subdue them one by one. Using such methods, he gained control of Sumer and Akkad and reunified Mesopotamia almost to the old borders established by Sargon. After his conquests, Hammurabi called himself “the sun of Babylon, the king who made the four quarters of the world obedient,” and established his capital at Babylon.



Hammurabi’s Empire



CHRONOLOGY

Chief Events in Mesopotamian History

Sumerian city-states: Early Dynastic Age	c. 3000–2340 B.C.E.
Sargon	c. 2340–2279 B.C.E.
Naram-Sin	c. 2260–2223 B.C.E.
Third Dynasty of Ur	c. 2112–2000 B.C.E.
Hammurabi’s reign	1792–1750 B.C.E.
Invasion by Kassites	c. 1550 B.C.E.

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