

Chapter 7  
Organization and  
Reorganization of  
Human Societies:  
c. 600 B.C.E. to  
c. 600 C.E.

## I. CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This chapter picks up where the last one left off—kind of. Historical movements and trends often have ramifications for decades and even centuries beyond the initial impact, so history can't always be divided up into neat eras. To that end, you may read some material in this chapter that harkens back to topics covered in Chapter 6.

Remember: Read through this chapter once, then go back and focus on the things that you're not entirely clear about. Here's the chapter outline.

### I. Chapter Overview

You're reading it.

### II. Stay Focused on the Big Picture

Organize the many events that occurred during the 1200 years covered in this chapter into some big-picture concepts.

### III. History Review: c. 600 B.C.E. to 600 C.E.

This is the largest section of the chapter. In it, we'll delve into developments in each region or major civilization. If you're totally clueless on any part of this section, consider also reviewing the corresponding topic in your textbook. After all, we're talking about a large chunk of history, and this section is intended as a review, not as a primary source.

Here's how we've organized the information.

- A. The Classical Civilizations: India and China
- B. The Classical Civilizations: Mediterranean
- C. The Classical Civilizations: Mesoamerica
- D. The Late Classical Period: Empires Collapse, People Move

### IV. Technology and Innovations from 600 B.C.E. to 600 C.E.

From primitive farming tools to metallurgy to large-scale farming, man kept moving toward increasingly advanced technology in this era.

### V. Changes and Continuities in the Role of Women

Women lose power as humans start to settle down. A comparative look at trends in the status of women across different regions of the world.

VI. Major Belief Systems through 600 C.E.

Although we'll make reference to the major belief systems within the history review, we've provided this separate section so that they're all grouped together in one place and you can refer to them easily. Major belief systems had a huge impact on the development of civilizations, so they're important to review in detail. Also keep in mind that you'll need to know the background of the major belief systems as you review the material in later chapters. Note that this section reviews the major belief systems covered in Chapters 6 and 7 (Periods 1 and 2 from the AP World History guidelines).

VII. Pulling It All Together

A quick review that focuses on themes and trends

VIII. Timeline of Major Developments 600 B.C.E to 600 C.E.

Major developments organized by time and place

## II. STAY FOCUSED ON THE BIG PICTURE

As you review the details of the civilizations in this chapter, stay focused on the big-picture concepts and ask yourself some questions, including the following:

1. Do cultural areas, as opposed to states or empires, better represent history? Cultural areas are those that share a common culture, and don't necessarily respect geographical limitations. States, like city-states and nation-states (countries), and empires, have political boundaries, even if those boundaries aren't entirely agreed upon.
2. How does change occur within societies? As you review all the information in this chapter, you'll notice a lot of talk about trading, migrations, and invasions. Pay attention to why people move around so much in the first place and the impact of these moves. Furthermore, don't forget that sometimes change occurs within a society because of internal developments, not external influences. Pay attention to that too.
3. How similar were the economic and trading practices that developed across cultures? Pay attention to monetary systems, trade routes, and trade practices. How did they link up?

4. How does the environment impact human decision making? Pay attention to the way states respond to environmental changes. Do they move or send out raiding parties? Are they able to respond quickly and successfully to environmental changes?

### III. HISTORY REVIEW

#### A. The Classical Civilizations: India and China

Your AP World History Exam will likely focus on four empires in India and China that existed from around 300 B.C.E. to around 550 C.E. These four empires are the Maurya and Gupta in India and the Qin and Han in China. Keep in mind that to fully understand these four empires, you will also need to review some of the major belief systems discussed in Section VI of this chapter.

##### 1. The Mauryan Empire in India (321 to approximately 180 B.C.E.)

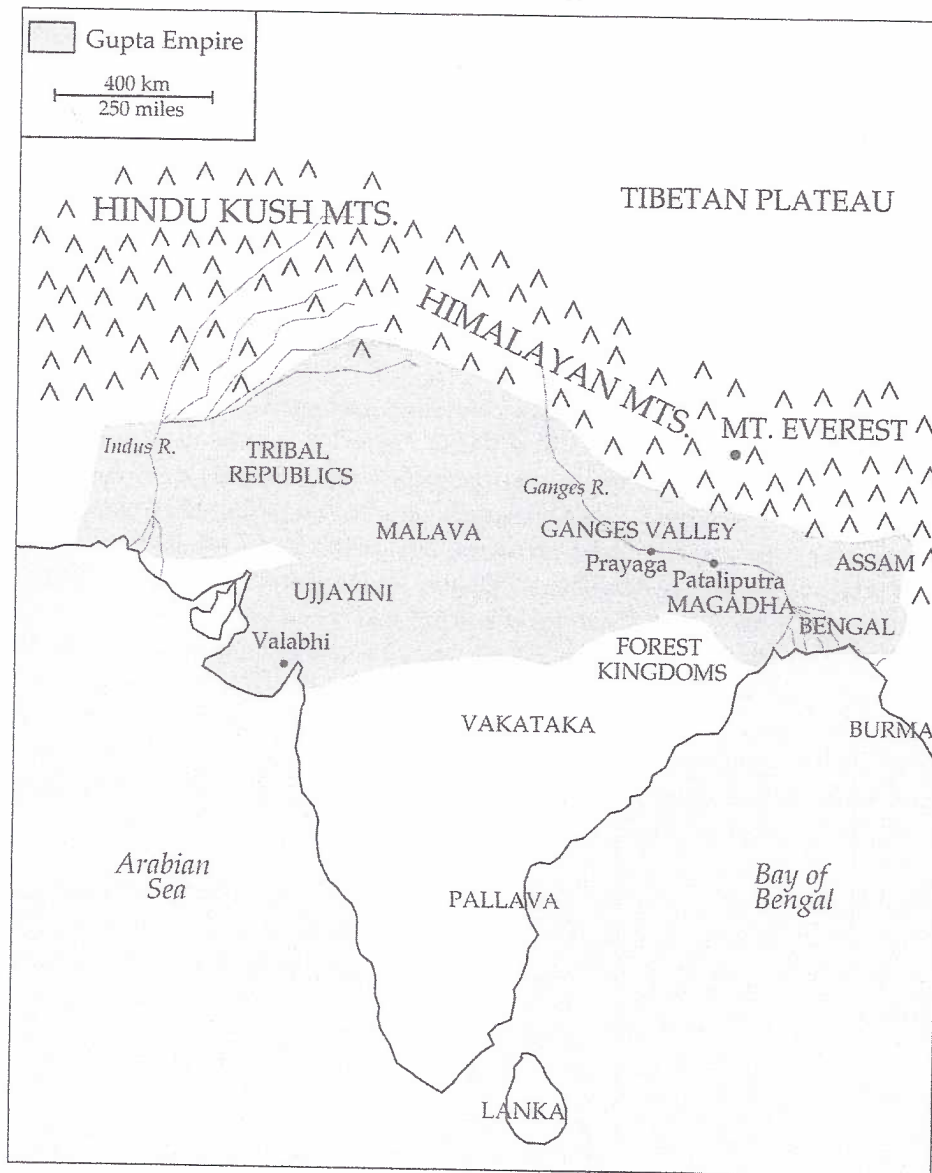
Around 330 B.C.E., Alexander the Great conquered the Persian Empire and continued into India (more on this in a few pages). During this time, the Aryan culture and belief systems continued to spread throughout India. Then, around 321 B.C.E., a new empire arose in India, one that would come to be the largest in that country to date. Spanning from the Indus River Valley eastward through the Ganges River Valley and southward through the Deccan Plateau, the **Mauryan Empire** was founded by **Chandragupta Maurya**, who unified the smaller Aryan kingdoms into a civilization. It was his grandson, **Ashoka Maurya**, who took the empire to its greatest heights.

A major reason that the Mauryan Empire became so powerful and wealthy was trade. Indian merchants traded silk, cotton, and elephants (among hundreds of other items) to Mesopotamia and the eastern Roman Empire. Another reason was its powerful military. Interestingly, it was Mauryan military strength that eventually caused a dramatic change in the empire. Stricken with disgust and filled with remorse for a very violent and bloody victory his forces claimed over the Kalinga in southeast India, Ashoka converted to **Buddhism**. For the rest of his reign, Ashoka preached nonviolence and moderation. (As you'll learn in Section IV of this chapter, during the previous century, Buddhism had recently taken root in this otherwise Hindu region.)

Ashoka is also known for his **Rock and Pillar Edicts**, which were carved on—you guessed it—rocks and pillars throughout the empire. These edicts reminded Mauryans to live generous and righteous lives. Following Ashoka's conversion and commitment to Buddhism, the religion spread beyond India into many parts of Southeast Asia.

## 2. The Gupta Dynasty in India (320–550 c.e.)

After Ashoka's death in 232 B.C.E., the Mauryan Empire began to decline rapidly, primarily due to economic problems and pressure from attacks in the northeast. However, between 375 and 415 c.e., it experienced a revival under Chandra Gupta II, known as Chandra Gupta the Great. The Gupta Empire was more decentralized and smaller than its predecessor, but it is often referred to as a golden age because it enjoyed relative peace and saw significant advances in the arts and sciences. For example, Gupta mathematicians developed the concepts of pi and of zero. They also devised a decimal system that used the numerals 1 through 9 (which were diffused to the Arabs and became known as Arabic numerals).



The Gupta Empire (Fourth–Fifth Century C.E.)

By the time of the Gupta Dynasty, Hinduism had again become the dominant religion in India. Hinduism reinforced the caste system, meaning that Indian social structures were very rigid. Though the empire as a whole was enjoying an era of peace, prosperity, and artistic endeavors, women were increasingly losing their rights. Totally under the control of men, Indian women lost the right to own or inherit property and could not participate in sacred rituals or study religion. Furthermore, stemming from an increasingly urban society that placed a growing importance on the inheritance of property, child marriage (involving girls as young as six or seven) also became the norm during this era. The Gupta Dynasty collapsed under pressure from the White Huns in 550 C.E.

### 3. The Qin Dynasty in China (221 to around 209 B.C.E.)

Unlike the Zhou Dynasty that preceded it, the Qin Dynasty was extremely short. Though it lasted little longer than a decade, it was significant enough to earn a spot in this AP review book 2,200 years later.

The story of the Qin Dynasty is similar to that of all the other civilizations we've reviewed in that it developed a strong economy based on agriculture, organized a powerful army equipped with iron weapons, conquered the surrounding territories, and unified the region under a single emperor. Same story, new time and place. So how did the Qin dynasty earn its spot here?

The Qin Dynasty is the empire that connected separate fortification walls that eventually became the **Great Wall of China**. That fact is more than just an interesting piece of trivia; it tells us that the empire was incredibly well organized, centralized, and territorial. Qin Shihuangdi, also known as **Qin Shi Huang**, was the dynasty's first emperor, and he recentralized various feudal kingdoms that had split apart at the end of the Zhou Dynasty; standardized all the laws, currencies, weights, measures, and systems of writing; and refused to tolerate any dissent whatsoever. If dissent occurred in a book, he had it burned; if dissent occurred in the mind of a scholar, he had the scholar killed.

Given that introduction, it should come as no surprise to you that Qin China was patriarchal. What might surprise you, however, is that the dominant belief system of the Qin rulers was **Legalism**.

Although the emperor believed the Qin Dynasty would last forever, it fell only one year after his death at the hands of the peasants, who resented the Qin Dynasty's heavy-handedness. The new dynasty that took its place lasted for more than 400 years.

#### **4. The Han Dynasty in China (around 200 B.C.E. to 460s C.E.)**

During the Han Dynasty, the Xiongnu, a large nomadic group from northern Asia who may have been Huns, invaded territories extending from China to Eastern Europe.

However, the Huns were much more successful in Europe than they were in China, largely due to the skills of Wu Ti, often called the Warrior Emperor, who greatly enlarged the Han Empire to central Asia. Trade thrived along the Silk Road to the Mediterranean; more significantly, along this same route, Buddhism spread. As usual, the trade routes carried far more than luxury items—they carried culture.

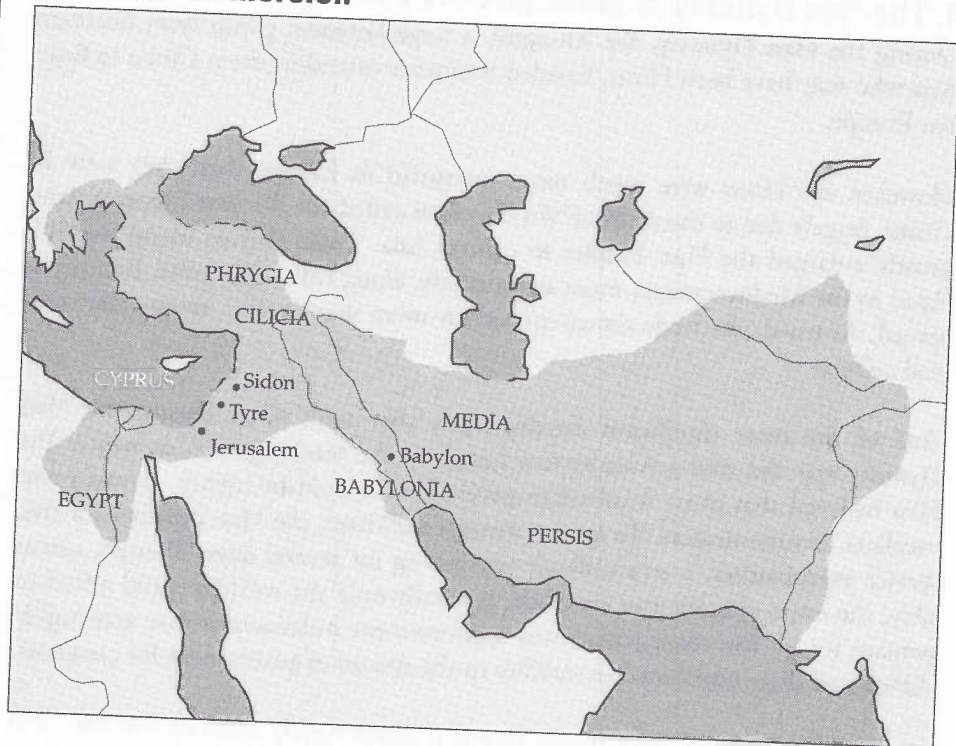
One of the most significant developments that took place during the Han Dynasty was the civil service system based on the teachings of Confucius. The Han believed that those involved in government should be highly educated and excellent communicators. To ensure strong candidates, the Han developed a civil service examination, a very difficult test lasting for several days. Though, ostensibly, the exam was open to everyone, generally only the wealthy could afford to prepare for it. The consequence was a government bureaucracy that was highly skilled and that contributed to stability in the system of government for centuries.

Also during this time, the Chinese invented paper, highly accurate sundials, and calendars, as well as making important strides in navigation such as the invention of the rudder and compass. Furthermore, like all the other major civilizations, they continued to broaden their use of metals.

### **B. The Classical Civilizations: Mediterranean**

From approximately 2000 B.C.E. to around 500 C.E., two Mediterranean civilizations, Greece and Rome, dominated the region. Countless books have been written on these two empires. There is no doubt that your AP textbook dedicated a considerable chunk to the details of these two powerhouse civilizations. Why all the fuss? Simply put, Western civilization as we know it today essentially began with these two empires. The Sumerians, the Babylonians, the Egyptians, the Hebrews, and the Phoenicians laid the groundwork, but the Greeks and the Romans left the most pervasive and obvious influence behind. Perhaps their most important contribution is the concept of representative government, but the Greeks, Romans, and Persians also made lasting contributions to art, architecture, literature, science, and philosophy.

## 1. Persian Immersion



**The Height of the Persian Empire (c. 500 B.C.E.)**

The Persians established a big empire—a really big empire—that, by 500 B.C.E., stretched from beyond the Nile River Valley in Egypt around the eastern Mediterranean through present-day Turkey and parts of Greece, and then eastward through present-day Afghanistan. Huge! They did this by conquering all those earlier ancient civilizations in Mesopotamia you just read about: the Babylonians, the Lydians, the Phoenicians, and the Egyptians. On account of the vast expanse of their empire, they delegated local administration of their provinces, or **Satrapies**, to important people in the provinces. As long as the governor, or **satrap**, paid his taxes and contributed soldiers to the Great King whenever they were requested, the satrapy was allowed a wide range of self government, which was vital to keeping such a far flung empire of so many different cultures together.

To improve transportation and communication across the vast empire, the Persians built a series of long roads. The longest was the **Great Royal Road**, which stretched some 1,600 miles from the Persian Gulf to the Aegean Sea.

### **Stay Tuned**

We'll talk more about the Persian Empire later because the Persians butted heads with the other major world empires.



## Lydians, Phoenicians, and Hebrews

Within and near the Persian Empire, many smaller societies existed and kept their own identities. Among these were the Lydians, Phoenicians, and Hebrews.

The **Lydians** are important because they came up with the concept of using coined money to conduct trade rather than using the barter system, in which goods are exchanged for other goods. This innovation led to a monetary system of consistent prices and allowed people to save money for future use. The idea of coined money, like everything else, spread over the trade routes and soon just about everybody was using it.

The **Phoenicians** are important, first, because they established powerful naval city-states all along the Mediterranean (you'll read more about this later), and, second, because they developed a simple alphabet that used only 22 letters as opposed to the much more complex cuneiform system. The Greeks later adopted the Phoenician alphabet, and from there it spread and changed, eventually leading to the system of letters you are reading on this page.

The **Hebrews** are significant because of their religious beliefs called Judaism. The Hebrews were the first Jews. In contrast to previous civilizations in the Fertile Crescent and beyond, the Hebrews were monotheistic, meaning that they believed in one god. By around 1000 B.C.E., the Hebrews had established Israel in Palestine on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean Sea. Although they were frequently invaded by neighboring empires (e.g., Nebuchadnezzar enslaved them), they managed to maintain their identity, in large part because they believed they were God's chosen people. Under the Persians, the Hebrews were freed from captivity and continued to develop a distinct culture that would later lead to the development of major world religions. Much more about Judaism can be found later in this chapter.

## 2. Greece

Ancient Greece was located on a peninsula between the waters of the Aegean and Mediterranean Seas. Because the land in Greece is mostly mountainous, there wasn't much possibility for agricultural development on the scale of the ancient river valley civilizations. But Greece did have natural harbors and mild weather, and its coastal position aided trade and cultural diffusion by boat, which is precisely how the Greeks conducted most of their commercial activity. The Greeks could easily sail to Palestine, Egypt, and Carthage, exchanging wine and olive products for grain. Eventually, they replaced the barter system with a money system (remember where this developed? Hint: Lydia, oh Lydia), and soon Athens became a wealthy city at the center of all this commercial activity.

### Greek Geography

Greece's limited geographical area also contributed to its dominance. Land was tight, so Greece was always looking to establish colonies abroad to ease overcrowding and gain raw materials. This meant that the Greeks had to have a powerful military. It also meant that they had to develop sophisticated methods of communication, transportation, and governance.

### Social Structure and Citizenship: It Takes a Polis...

Like the other early civilizations, Greece wasn't a country then in the way that it is now. Instead, it was a collection of city-states, very much like those of early Mesopotamian civilizations in Sumer or Babylon. Each city-state, known as a **polis**, shared a common culture and identity. Although each polis was part of a broader civilization and shared a common language and many similar traditions, each was independent from, and often in conflict with, the others.

The two main city-states were **Athens** and **Sparta**. Athens was the political, commercial, and cultural center of Greek civilization. Sparta was an agricultural and highly militaristic region. Most citizens in Sparta lived a very austere, highly disciplined existence (which explains where modern-day terms such as "Spartan existence" come from). All the boys, and even some of the girls, received military training, which stressed equality but not individuality.

Each polis was composed of three groups.

- Citizens, composed of adult males, often engaged in business or commerce
- Free people with no political rights
- Noncitizens (slaves, who accounted for nearly one-third of the people in Athens, and who had no rights)

Among the citizens, civic decisions were made openly, after engaging in debates. All citizens were expected to participate. This practice led to Athens being regarded as the first democracy. But it's important to point out that only free adult males could participate, so it was not a democracy in the modern sense of the word. (Interestingly, it was in Sparta, not Athens, where women held a higher status and were granted greater equality than women of other city-states.)

#### Slavery and Democracy in Ancient Greece

Ironically, it was slavery that enabled the Greeks to develop their democracy. It was by slave labor that Greek citizens found themselves with free time to meet and vote and create great works of art and philosophy. Slaves, obtained by various means, were the private property of their owners. They worked as laborers, domestic servants, and cultivators. Educated or skilled slaves became craftsmen and business managers. Some owners helped slaves set up small businesses and then kept part of the profits; in a few cases, slaves who earned and saved enough money could eventually buy their freedom.

It's also important to point out that democracy in Athens did not develop immediately. As Athens grew more and more powerful, the government changed from a monarchy to an aristocracy, and finally to a democracy. (Note: You may be asked about Draco and Solon. Just know that they were aristocrats who worked to create the democracy in Athens and to ensure fair, equal, and open participation.)

### **Greek Mythology: Many Gods**

The Greeks were polytheistic. The myths surrounding their gods, like those of Zeus and Aphrodite, are richly detailed and still hold our interest to this day. As you know by now, most early civilizations were polytheistic (the Hebrews being a notable exception), but Greek polytheism was unique in one major respect: The Greek gods were believed to possess human failings—they got angry, got drunk, took sides, and had petty arguments. Greek mythology remains part of Western heritage and language. Every time we refer to a task as “Herculean” or read our horoscopes, we’re tipping our hats to the ancient Greeks.

### **War with Persia: Greece Holds On**

Prior to the development of the democracy in Athens, Greece was involved in a series of wars that threatened its existence. **The Persian Wars** (499–449 B.C.E.) united all the Greek city-states against their mutual enemy, Persia. (Recall that the Persian Empire was the largest empire in the eastern Mediterranean and Mesopotamia to date.) Much of Athens was destroyed in these wars, but Greece held on and the wars ended in a stalemate. Two huge victories by the Greeks, one at Marathon and the other at Salamis, allowed the Greeks to maintain control of the Aegean Sea. With Persia held back, Greece was free to enter into an era of peace and prosperity, which is often called the **Golden Age of Pericles**.

### **The Golden Age of Pericles: Athens Wows the World**

The Golden Age of Pericles (480–404 B.C.E.) saw Athens become a cultural powerhouse under the leadership of Pericles. Pericles established democracy for all adult males. It was also under Pericles that Athens was rebuilt after its destruction by the Persians (the Parthenon was built during this reconstruction). Furthermore, it was under Pericles that Athens established the **Delian League** with the other city-states, an alliance against aggression from its common enemies. Philosophy and the arts flourished, and continued to do so for the next two centuries.

In philosophy, we find the names many would regard as the most famous of all the ancient Greeks: Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle. They believed that truth could be discerned through rational thought and deliberate and careful observation, and that virtue and the quest for goodness would lead to internal peace and happiness. Some of their observations proved false in time, especially with regard to the functioning of the universe on a cosmic scale, or microcosmic scale, but it was the process they established, rather than the actual conclusions they drew, that were so revolutionary. Although our modern understanding of the world differs in many ways from theirs, these three men are still revered today as the fathers of rational thinking.

During the Golden Age, Greek drama was dominated by the comedies and tragedies of Aeschylus and Euripides, the sculptures of Phidias adorned the streets, and Greek architecture earned its place in history with its distinctive Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian columns. Math and science thrived under the capable instruction of Archimedes, Hippocrates, Euclid, and Pythagoras (you probably remember the Pythagorean theorem from geometry—guess which famous Greek that came from).

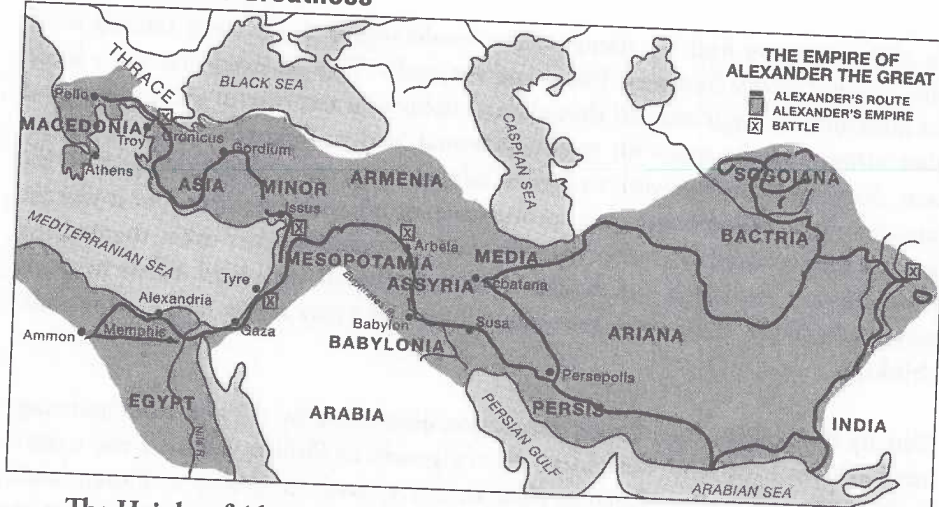
Of course, cultural achievement existed in Greece prior to the Golden Age. **Homer**, for example, wrote the epic poems the *Illiad* and the *Odyssey* a few centuries earlier; they are widely regarded as Western civilization's first two masterworks of literature. But make no mistake about it, during the Golden Age, the arts and sciences became firmly cemented into the Western consciousness. The accomplishments of this period served as the inspiration for the European Renaissance and the Enlightenment nearly two millennia later—which is why we're making such a big deal out of them here.

### Trouble Ahead for Athens

Although Athens dominated the Delian League with its powerful navy, other Greek city-states in the Aegean allied themselves with Sparta's great army to form the Peloponnesian League. Athens and Sparta, as leaders of their respective alliances, became increasingly fearful and envious of each other's power. After years of increasing tensions, a trade dispute involving the city of Corinth pushed Athens and Sparta into the **Peloponnesian War** (431–404 B.C.E.). Athens attempted a defensive strategy, hiding behind its great walls while allowing the Spartan army to ravage its farmlands. This worked well for the Athenians for a time until two tragedies occurred. First, a great plague afflicted the city, killing vast numbers of the population, including Pericles. Then, Athens' navy suffered a devastating defeat at Syracuse on the island of Sicily. Athens was never the same again.

Although it could have, Sparta didn't destroy Athens out of respect for the defeated city's former role in the Persian War. Sparta failed to dominate the region for long; despite its victory, it was so weakened by the war that it became vulnerable to outside aggression. The **Macedonians**, under the rule of Philip III of Macedon, who reigned from 359 to 336 B.C.E., invaded Athens from the north and conquered the entire region. Fortunately, Philip respected Greek culture and, rather than destroy it, encouraged it to flourish.

### Alexander Adds Greatness



The Height of Alexander the Great's Empire, Fourth Century B.C.E.

The Macedonians didn't stop with Greece. Philip's son, **Alexander the Great**, who was taught by Aristotle, widely expanded Macedonian dominance. Under Alexander, the Macedonians conquered the mighty Persian Empire and moved eastward to the shores of the Indus River in what today is India, eventually creating the largest empire of the time. However, the strain of such conquests took its toll on the usually vigorous Alexander, and he died at the age of 33 in Babylon as he and his army were returning to Macedonia. Before his corpse got cold, however, his generals quickly fought over the spoils of his empire, dividing it amongst themselves.

Along with its size, the Macedonian Empire is notable for the fact that it adopted Greek customs and then spread them to much of the known world. Consequently, much of the world became connected under a uniform law and common trade practices. Therefore, **Hellenism**—the culture, ideals, and pattern of life of Classical Greece—didn't perish as a result of the victories over Athens and Sparta; instead, it came to be influential far beyond its original borders.

In the immediate aftermath of the expansion of Hellenism, the economies of Athens and Corinth revived through trade. Of the three Hellenistic empires, the Ptolemaic Empire became the wealthiest. Alexandria, its capital, was built at the mouth of the Nile. Wisely, the rulers of the Ptolemaic Dynasty in Egypt did not interfere in Egyptian society, and eventually Ptolemaic Egypt also became a cultural center, home of the Alexandria Museum and Alexandria Library, the latter of which contained the most scrolls of any location in the empire, perhaps the whole world.

When Alexander the Great died at age 33, his empire started to crumble. Because the Macedonians were focused on the East and on Egypt, the door was open in the West for a new power to rise to the world stage. That power was the Romans.

### **3. Rome (509 B.C.E.—476 C.E.)**

Geographically, Rome was relatively well-situated. The Alps to the north provided protection from an invasion by land (although, ultimately, not enough). The sea surrounding the Italian peninsula limited the possibility of a naval attack unless a large armada floated across the sea. Yet, although it was somewhat isolated, Rome was also at a crossroads. It had easy access to northern Africa, Palestine, Greece, and the Iberian Peninsula (modern-day Spain and Portugal), which meant easy access to the rest of the world.

#### **Social Structure in Rome: Organized and Patriarchal**

The social and political structure in the Roman Republic consisted of **patricians** (landowning noblemen), **plebeians** (all other free men), and slaves. Does this sound familiar? It should. It's very similar to the social structure of ancient Greece. Roman government was organized as a representative republic. The main governing body was made up of two distinct groups: the Senate, which comprised patrician families, and the Assembly, which was initially made up of patricians, but later was opened to plebeians. Two consuls were elected annually by the Assembly. The consuls had veto power over decisions made by the Assembly.

#### **Roman Mythology: More Gods**

Like the Greeks, the Romans were polytheistic. (Every time you see a cupid on a Valentine's Day card, you see the impact of Roman mythology on our world today.) Many of the Roman gods were of Greek origin, though appropriately renamed to suit the Roman culture and language.

This structure was much more stable than the direct democracies of the Greek *polis*, in which every male citizen was expected to participate on a regular basis. In a republic, the people have representatives, so they don't have to vote on every issue. This is similar to the constitutional democracy we have in the United States. Everyone in this country votes for representatives, so it's correct to call our system a democracy; however, our representatives in Congress vote on all the major issues, so our system of government is also very much a republic. Indeed, the structure of our government was modeled on the system used in the Roman Republic. Instead of two consuls, though, we have one, known as the president.

Early on, Rome developed civil laws to protect individual rights (in some ways similar to our Bill of Rights). The laws of Rome were codified (remember that the idea of a code was Hammurabi's, in Babylon) and became known as the **Twelve Tables of Rome** (the concept of "innocent until proven guilty" originated here). Later, these laws were extended to an international code that Rome applied to its conquered territories.

The social structure of the Roman family centered on the *pater familias*—eldest male in the family—though women did have considerable influence within their families, with some supervising a family business or family estate. Roman women could own property as well, but they were nevertheless considered inferior to men, just as in Greek society. Furthermore, as in Greece, slavery was an important element of the social structure of Rome—at one point, slaves comprised one-third of the population, most of whom came from conquered territories. Although life was difficult for all slaves, generally those living and working in the cities had better conditions than their country counterparts, and some had the possibility of freedom.

### **Roman Military Domination: All Directions, All the Time**

As Rome expanded, Carthage, a city-state in North Africa with powerful ambitions of its own, became its first enemy. It didn't take long for this conflict to escalate into full-fledged wars, which came to be called the **Punic Wars**. These lasted on and off from 264 through 146 B.C.E.

The First Punic War (264–241 B.C.E.) was fought to gain control of the island of Sicily; Rome won this one. The Second Punic War (218–201 B.C.E.) began with an attack by **Hannibal**, a Carthaginian general considered one of the greatest military geniuses of all time. In an amazing feat, Hannibal led his army all the way to northern Italy, crossed the Alps (on elephants no less!), and surprised the Romans, who were expecting an attack from the south. Hannibal's army destroyed many towns and villages to the north of Rome and were on the verge of destroying Rome. However, a Roman army had landed in North Africa, forcing Hannibal to return to Carthage to defend his city. Carthage eventually agreed to sue for peace, and this made Rome the undisputed power in the western Mediterranean. Fifty years later, the Third Punic War (149–146 B.C.E.) was instigated by Rome. Rome invaded Carthage and burned it to the ground. With Carthage out of the picture, Rome continued its expansion throughout the Mediterranean.

Part of that expansion was to obtain Greece by defeating the Macedonians. The Romans also fought the Gauls to the north and the Spaniards to the west. Warfare aided the spread of Roman culture (which, you'll recall, was linked to Greek culture) throughout much of western Europe and the Mediterranean. To maintain their vast empire, the Romans built an extensive road network and aqueducts and greatly enlarged their navy.

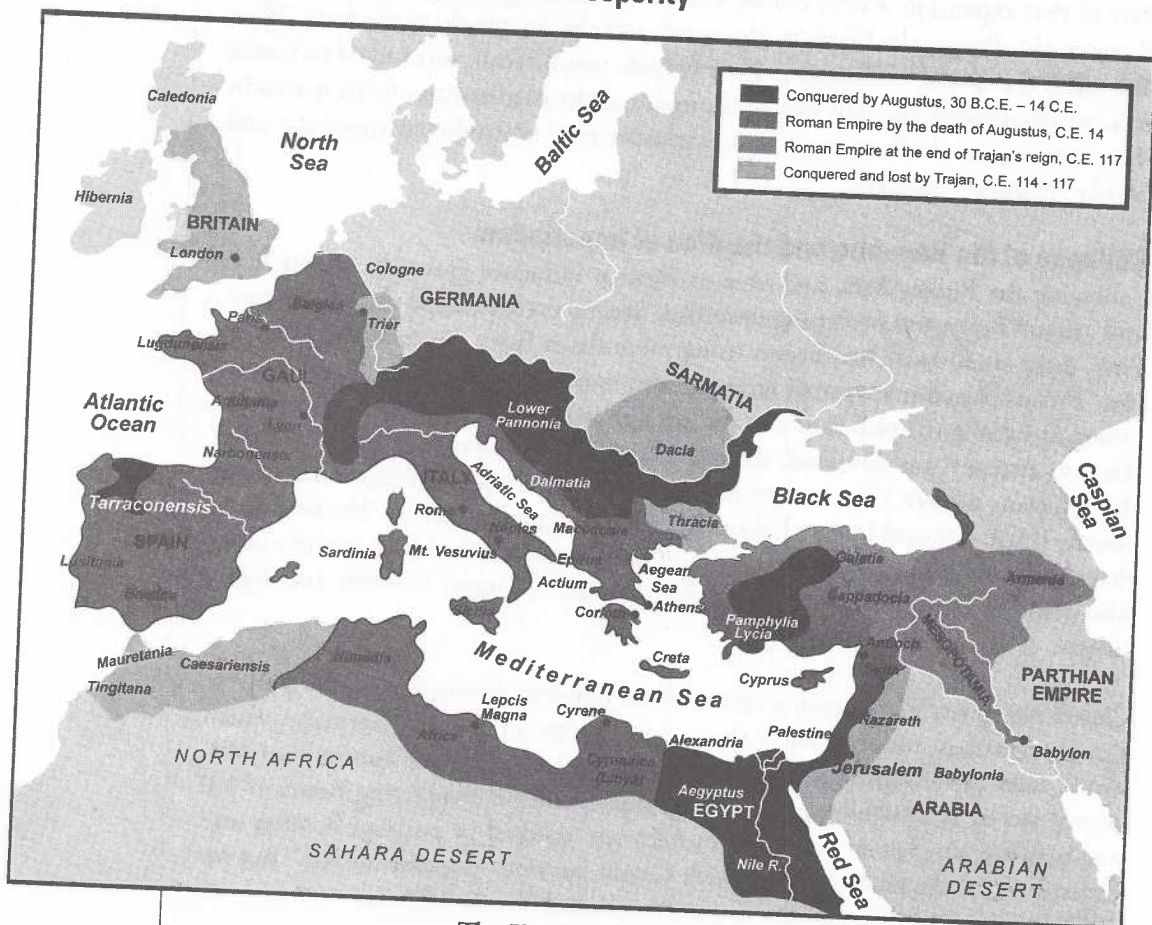
### **Collapse of the Republic and the Rise of Imperialism**

Following the Punic Wars, and even as Roman influence grew, the situation in and around Rome was becoming unsettled. Several events caused this restlessness. First, large landowners had begun using more slaves from the conquered territories. This displaced many small farmers, who moved into the cities, causing overcrowding among the plebeians and not enough jobs to support them. Second, the Roman currency was devalued, causing a high rate of inflation. This meant that the plebeians did not have enough money to buy the things they previously could afford. Third, political leaders began fighting amongst themselves. The result was that the power of the Senate weakened, ultimately to be transferred to three men, who came to be known as the **First Triumvirate**: Pompey, Crassus, and Julius Caesar.

Caesar was given power over southern Gaul (modern France) and other parts of Europe. He chose not to conquer the part of Europe we now call Germany, which would later prove significant. (Germany developed a different culture and ultimately served as a training ground for groups intent on conquering Rome.) Civil war between the Senate and Caesar's followers resulted in pushing Pompey and Crassus out of the picture, after which Caesar became "emperor for life." But his life didn't last long. His angry senators assassinated him in 44 B.C.E.

After the death of Julius Caesar, a **Second Triumvirate**, composed of Octavius, Marc Antony, and Lepidus, came to power. Things didn't improve the second time around. Power again shifted to one person, Octavius, who rose to power, assumed the name Augustus Caesar, and became emperor. The days of the Roman Republic were over once and for all. Rome was now an empire led by a single emperor.

## Pax Romana: Peace and Prosperity



### The Height of the Roman Empire

Under Augustus, Rome became the capital of the Western world. Augustus established the rule of law, a common coinage, civil service, and secure travel for merchants. With all these elements in place throughout the empire, stability returned to its people, and for 200 years they enjoyed a period of peace and prosperity known as the *Pax Romana* (Roman Peace). Interestingly, however, though many of the laws were uniform throughout the empire during this period, a number of traditional customs of the people in the conquered territories survived. This, of course, meant that the distinct groups within the empire, such as the Hebrews or the Egyptians, maintained their individual cultural identities.

Under imperial power, the Roman Empire expanded to its largest geographical proportions through additional military conquests. But more important in the history of the Roman empire was the growth of the arts and sciences during this time. For centuries, Greece had been the arts center of the Western world. With the Roman peace, however, the arts in Rome flourished, especially literature (notably, Ovid's *Metamorphoses* and Virgil's *Aeneid*) and architecture (marked by the building of the Pantheon, Colosseum, and Forum). Science also reached new heights. Ptolemy looked to the heavens and greatly influenced achievements in astronomy, while Roman engineers went to work on roads and aqueducts.



### Compare Them: *Pax Romana* with the Golden Ages of Greece, Gupta, and Others

In case you haven't noticed a pattern, we'll point it out for you. When a major empire greatly expands its territory, it becomes the center of artistic and scientific energy. This is because it has a tremendous amount of wealth flowing into its capital from its conquered regions, and because the people have the freedom and confidence to pursue goals other than military protection. This happened in Rome, Athens, Gupta India, Han China, and the other civilizations we've discussed so far.

### Religious Diversity: New Chiefs of Beliefs

Throughout the days of the Roman Republic and during the early days of the Roman Empire, Roman citizens were required to make sacrifices to traditional Roman gods. However, shortly after the reign of Augustus, a new religion developed in the Mediterranean and Aegean regions. That religion was **Christianity**.

Christianity grew out of Judaism, which had been practiced by Hebrews in Palestine for thousands of years. Judaism was the first major monotheistic religion. (These two religions are described in detail in Section VI of this chapter.) Initially, both Judaism and Christianity were tolerated by the Romans. The Romans allowed the conquered territories to practice their own faiths as long as doing so didn't interfere with the functioning of the empire. Eventually, however, Jewish resistance to Roman control led to the suppression of Judaism. Furthermore, as the apostles of Jesus and missionaries extended the influence of Christianity throughout the empire, the Romans began to see the new religion and its leaders as threats to both traditional Roman religion and their power. Several Roman emperors, including Diocletian and Nero, persecuted and even killed Christians, but these persecutions were periodic and localized. These acts of violence failed to stop the spread of Christianity, but it took several hundred years after the death of Jesus for Christianity to become the dominant religion of the Roman world. Only when Emperor Constantine himself issued the **Edict of Milan** in 313 C.E. did the persecution end. By 391 C.E., Christianity had become the official religion of the Roman Empire.

## C. The Classical Civilizations: Mesoamerica

Although the Maya are often grouped with later Mesoamerican empires, the Aztec and the Inca, they were actually contemporary with the Romans, the Han, and the Gupta and developed some of the same characteristics of these early empires.

### Mayan Civilization: In Search of More Slaves

From about 300 B.C.E. to about 800 C.E., Mayan civilization dominated present-day southern Mexico and parts of Central America. The Mayan civilization was similar to many other civilizations at that time in that it was a collection of city-states; however, all the city-states were ruled by the same king. Interestingly, like the Egyptians, the Maya were pyramid-builders and also wrote using hieroglyphics. The golden age of the Mayan Civilization was from about 500 to

about 850 C.E. During that time, the Maya produced many great works of scholarship and developed a complex calendar system, but we know the most about its architecture and city planning because many remains have been discovered. There is no question that the Maya built tremendous cities; Tikal, the most important Mayan political center, may have been populated by as many as 100,000 people.

The Maya divided their cosmos into three parts: the heavens above, the humans in the middle, and the underworld below. The Maya believed that the gods created humans out of maize (one of the main Mayan dietary staples) and water. They also believed that the gods maintained agricultural cycles in exchange for honors, sacrifices, and bloodletting rituals.

Mayan warfare was somewhat unique in that it was imbued with a tremendous amount of religious significance. Days of religious ritual would precede a battle, and the King and nobility would actively participate in combat. One unique characteristic of Mayan warfare was that it was generally conducted not to gain territory, but to acquire slaves, who were used in large-scale building projects and in agricultural production. The Maya had no large animals, as horses and oxen would not arrive until much later with the Europeans, so humans were their primary source of labor.

As was the case in most agricultural societies, the majority of the people were peasants or slaves. Kings, priests, and hereditary nobility were at the top of the social pyramid. Merchants also enjoyed a high status.

The Maya used advanced agricultural techniques, such as the ridged field system, to make the most of the rainfall and swamp conditions of the region. Cotton and maize were widely cultivated; the Maya are also known for their elaborate cotton textiles. Many well-preserved ruins of this civilization remain today, including the tiered temple at Chichen Itza, which is similar in design to the Egyptian pyramids and Mesopotamian ziggurats, and several ball courts, which were used for a ritual sport throughout ancient Mesoamerica. Significantly, the Mayan calendar, based on a number system that included zero, was among the most accurate for its time. Since you're reading this book now, it's safe to say that the Mayan calendar stopped at 2012 only because the Mayans got tired of counting days.

## **D. The Late Classical Period: Empires Collapse, People Move**

During the late Classical Period (200–600 C.E.), all the greatest civilizations that the world had known collapsed or significantly declined. This included the fall of Han China, the Gupta Empire in India, the western part of the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean, and the mysterious decline of the Maya.

## 1. Collapse of the Maya

Nobody's sure exactly what happened to the Maya. Some say it was disease, drought, or the declining health of the large peasant population. Others say it was internal unrest and warfare. Chances are, like other collapses, an expanding population gradually exhausted the Mayan environment, and it could not respond to the needs of the Mayan population. But whatever the reasons, the Maya started to desert their cities in the ninth century C.E. and the great civilization fizzled out.

## 2. Collapse of Han China

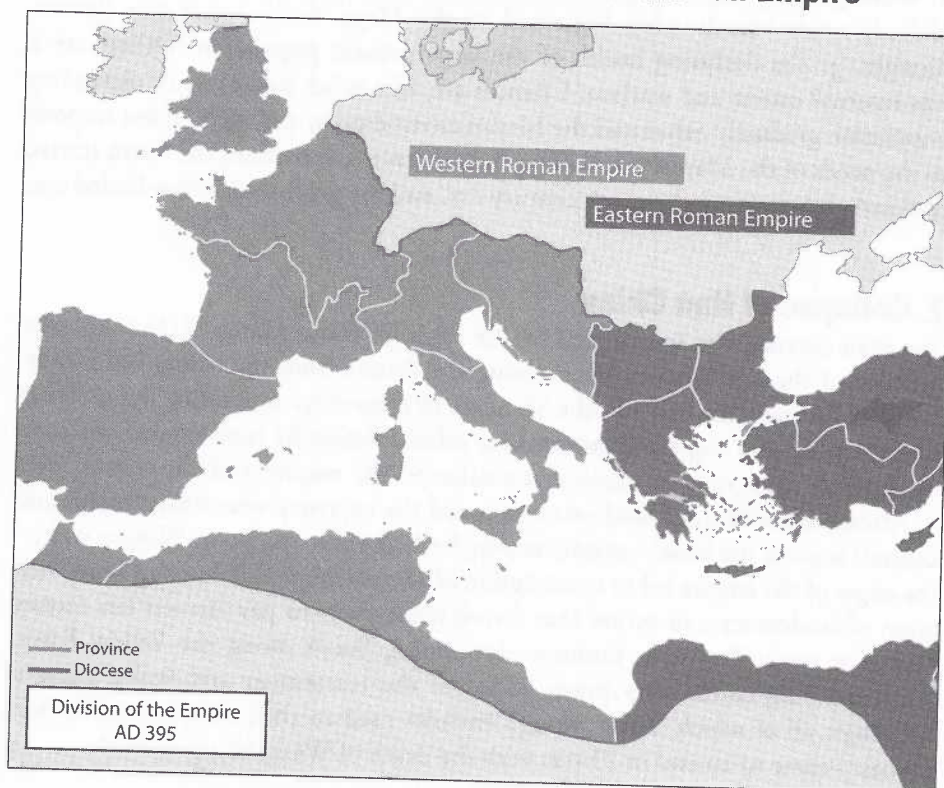
The Han dynasty was interrupted by the reign of **Wang Mang** (9–23 C.E.), who established the Xin dynasty after seizing the throne from the ruling Liu family, successfully using the belief in the Mandate of Heaven to undermine them. Wang Mang had been a respected government official before he took power, but soon made some disastrous missteps that weakened the empire and his control over it. Attempted reforms of land ownership and the currency were unsuccessful and caused chaos in the local economy among both the rich and poor. Waging war on the edges of the empire led to conscription of a resentful population and heavy taxation of landowners, an action that forced landowners to pay farmers less money for more work. Persistent famines, devastating floods along the Yellow River, and increasing commodity prices added to the resentment and fueled peasant uprisings, all of which Wang Mang's enemies used to their advantage. The Xin Dynasty came to an end in 23 C.E. with the death of Wang Mang in battle.

The Han Dynasty was restored a couple of years later, but full recovery proved impossible and, in 220 C.E., the government collapsed. For the next 400 years, China was divided into several regional kingdoms.

## 3. Collapse of the Gupta Empire

The Gupta Empire fell for one simple reason: It was invaded by the Huns—not Attila's forces, which invaded Europe, but another group, the White Huns. The Gupta were able to hold off the Huns for the first half of the fifth century, but they did so at a tremendous cost, which weakened the state. By the end of the fifth century, there were Hun kingdoms in western and northern India. Though the underlying culture of India (including Hinduism and the caste system) survived the invasion, the empire did not.

#### 4. Collapse of the Western Portion of the Roman Empire



##### The Division of the Roman Empire

One historical event that has been endlessly debated over time is the fall of the Roman Empire. Some of these theories are reasonable, while others are much less so. Many try to assign a single cause to this momentous occurrence, but the situation was much more complicated.

In short, however, it can be said that it was internal decay, in combination with external pressure (Attila's Huns, among others groups), that brought about the fall of the Roman Empire. The sheer size of the empire and the huge expense of maintaining it, coupled by a succession of weak—or just plain bad—leaders and a series of epidemics, are all factors that caused the empire to collapse.

In 284 C.E., **Diocletian** had become emperor. He attempted to deal with the increasing problems by dividing the empire into two regions run by co-emperors. He also brought the armies back under imperial control, and attempted to deal with the economic problems by strengthening the imperial currency, forcing a budget on the government, and capping prices to deal with inflation. Despite Diocletian's innovations and administrative talents, civil war erupted upon his retirement in 305 C.E.

After rising to power in 306 c.e. as a co-emperor, **Constantine** defeated his rivals and assumed sole control over the empire in 322 c.e. He ordered the building of **Constantinople** at the site of the Greek city of Byzantium, and in 340 c.e. this city became the capital of a united empire. Constantine, too, was an able emperor, but the problems of shrinking income and increased external pressures proved insurmountable. After Constantine's death, the empire was again divided into two pieces, east and west. The eastern half thrived from its center at Constantinople; the western half, centered in Rome, continued its spiral downward.

Rome faced external pressure from invaders on all of its frontiers, especially from the middle of the third century on. One such invader was the powerful and well-organized Sassanid Persian empire, which took over in Iran in 224 c.e. The Sassanids practiced the Iranian faith of **Zoroastrianism** and used that to consolidate their power. The Sassanids enjoyed a powerful military that was able to defeat the Romans in many engagements, though the two empires managed to fight each other to a standstill by the year 627.

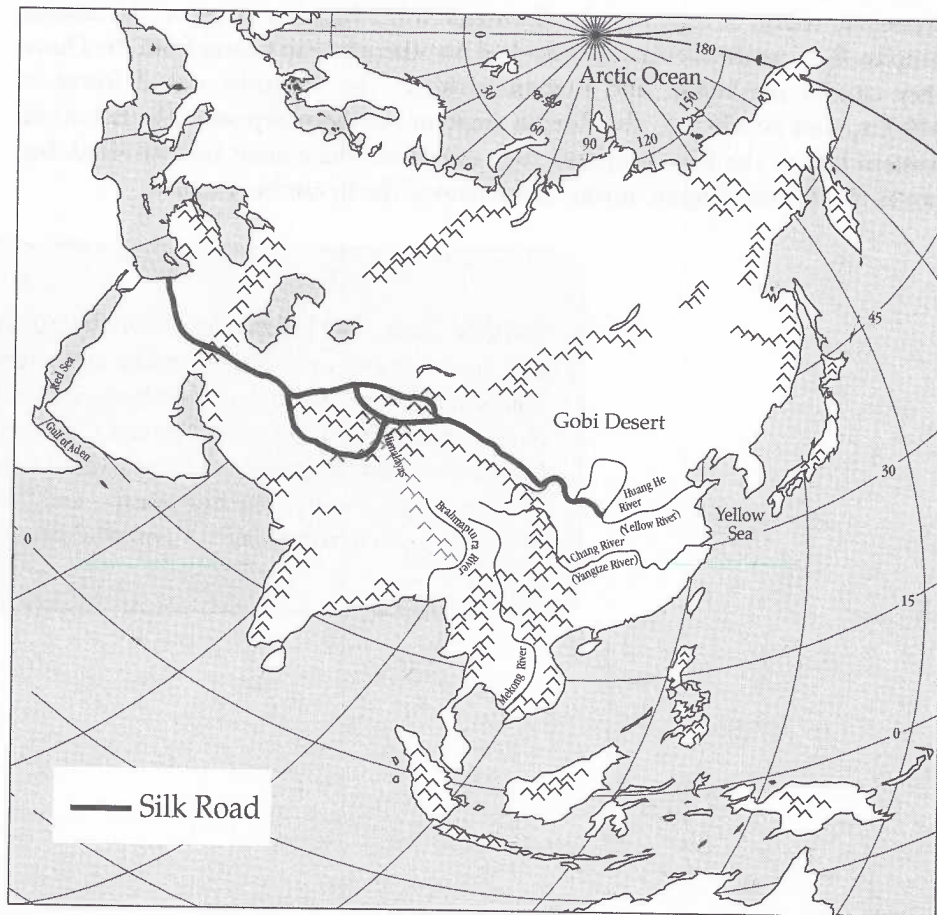
In addition to the Persians, Germanic tribes happened to attack the Roman empire at the same time that the Romans were embroiled in costly civil wars or wars against the Persians. In defense, Roman authorities put Germanic peoples such as the Visigoths (who had adopted Roman law and Christianity) on the borders. However, in the early fifth century, Attila and his Huns began to press on the Germanic tribes; in response, the Germanic tribes began to press on the Roman Empire. Because the Germanic tribes had no other place to retreat from the Huns, they crossed the border into Roman territory. The Visigoths sacked Rome in 410 c.e., and by 476 c.e., the Roman emperor had been deposed. The fall of the western half of the Roman Empire was complete. The eastern half survived, but not as the Roman Empire. It was later renamed the Byzantine Empire.

#### Contrast Them: The Fall of Han China, the Gupta Empire, and Rome

Two major causes of decline threaten any empire: internal (such as economic depression, natural catastrophes, and social unrest) and external (for example, invading armies). Unlike China, for example, which would later see a return to greatness, Rome would never again be at the center of such a great empire. The momentum had clearly changed to favor the invading German tribes and the powerful Byzantium Empire in the East.

Western Rome 476 C.E.	Gupta 550 C.E.	Han China 220 C.E.
Tax revolts by upper class and church exempt from taxes	Not enough taxes for military defense	Officials exempt from taxes; difficult to collect from peasant population
Decrease in trade upon which economy depended		Population increases lead to less land per family
25 of 26 emperors died violently in one 50-year span		Corruption of court officials
Division of empire weakened the western half	Land divisions increased power of provincial officials	Unable to control large estate owners
Unable to defend against migratory invasions of Goths and Huns	Unable to defend against invasions by the White Huns	Constant conflict with the nomadic Xiongnu who invaded after collapse

### 5. Cultural Diffusion 200–600 C.E.



The Silk Road

Around the same time that major empires were collapsing, the known world was becoming an increasingly smaller place. Trade routes were flourishing, bringing cultures, religions, and invading tribes into constant contact with each other. Major trade routes over land, such as the **Silk Road** from China to the Roman Empire, took months to traverse. Pastoral communities along the way provided protection, shelter, and supplies for the merchants in exchange for payment. This meant that merchants not only interacted with people at their destination but also on the journey.

Unfortunately, disease traveled the same trade routes (and with invading armies). To give just a couple of examples, the Mongols carried the Black Death to China; Rome and China suffered from measles and smallpox epidemics, which quickly spread through the empires.

Furthermore, as we mentioned earlier, religion also followed the roads of the merchants. Buddhism spread through East and Southeast Asia by way of trade routes. Christianity spread rapidly in the Mediterranean region via both land and sea. Even the invading Germanic tribes were converted. By 600 c.e., Christianity had taken root as far away as Britain.

By now, you're also well aware that it was not just merchants and missionaries that were on the move. As entire groups expanded their territories, they also put down roots in the new lands. The Angles and the Saxons moved into Britain. The Huns moved into India. Only China and parts of East Asia seemed spared massive influxes of outsiders.

The world was clearly changing. The stage was set for entirely new developments, which is what the next chapter is all about.

## **IV: TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATIONS FROM 600 B.C.E TO 600 C.E.**

The earliest human societies grew by developing primitive farming tools and metallurgy, which led to more complex technologies. These, in turn, enabled early civilizations to begin large-scale farming, which led to a stable food supply. Although a lot of the trade in early societies tended to be smaller luxury items—silk, cotton, wool, semi-precious gems, jewelry—heavier goods, including olive oil and spices, were also traded.

Of course, once a society had such goods, it needed a way to defend itself, and the knowledge that had helped improve farming technology was used to create weapons and defense systems. It is not surprising that the first empires developed at the same time as iron technology and wheeled chariots, around 1500 B.C.E.! A major development in warfare, the stirrup, developed among the nomadic societies of the Eurasian steppe and spread to China as early as the third century B.C.E. The stirrup arrived late in Europe because the mountainous geography of the Mediterranean world limited the use of chariots and horses there.

Additionally, the horses were initially too small to carry heavily armored soldiers. Because of this, the armies of Rome and Greece were mostly made up of foot soldiers armed with spears and bows and arrows.

To keep track of both increased trade and increased military, early societies developed means of communication and record keeping. Relatively accurate calendars were developed in all civilizations, but only the Maya had a 365-day solar calendar. Both the Maya and the Gupta separately invented the concept of zero. This was an especially inventive time for the Chinese; in addition to the building of the Great Wall and the massive terra cotta army of the Qin, the Daoist scholars of the Han Dynasty developed windmills and wheelbarrows, worked on some early forms of gunpowder, figured out how to distill alcohol, and produced paper from a variety of accessible materials, including tree bark.

## V. CHANGES AND CONTINUITIES IN THE ROLE OF WOMEN

An unfortunate fact of sedentary societies is that women lost power as people settled, and women's roles in high-status food production became more limited. Nevertheless, women maintained power within the private sphere—by managing their households and taking responsibility for children's education, wives and mothers were often the unrecognized power behind the throne.

Although all of the early civilizations were decidedly patriarchal, women's freedoms differed depending on social status and class. Upper-class or elite women were more restricted in their public appearances, while lower-class women, peasants, and female slaves continued to work outside the home. Public veiling of upper-class women appeared as early as the Babylonian Empire and was widespread by Greek and Roman times.

Cultural and religious values also impacted the status of women. In both Buddhism and Christianity, women were considered equals in their ability to achieve salvation or nirvana. In both religions, women could choose to remove themselves from traditional roles to become nuns and live separate from society in convents. Hinduism and Confucianism were much more structured and restricted. A Hindu woman could not read the sacred Vedas or participate in the prayers and could not reach *moksha* in her lifetime. Daoism in China promoted male and female equality, but as Confucianism came to dominate, men were clearly considered superior to women. Under Confucian rule, some education was open to a large percentage of the female population, as it was believed they needed to be taught "proper" behavior and virtue.



Women's Status in Ancient Societies		
Rome/Greece	India	China
strict and patriarchal social divisions	strict patriarchal caste system	strict Confucian social order and guidelines for virtuous behavior
little land ownership	women not allowed to inherit property	only sons inherit property
high literacy among upper class	forbidden to read sacred texts	upper classes educated in arts and literature, and all educated in virtues
Spartan women given citizenship	no citizenship for women	no citizenship for women
women (especially widows) could own businesses	women needed large dowry; no remarriage for widows	arranged marriages, though widows were permitted to remarry
women could be priestesses or, later, nuns	women could not achieve <i>moksha</i>	Buddhist convents; Daoism promoted male and female equality

## VI. MAJOR BELIEF SYSTEMS THROUGH 600 C.E.

As you review the major belief systems that were active during the era of the past two chapters (from the dawn of time up to 600 C.E.), keep a few things in mind.

1. Most of these belief systems have impacted world history from their inception through the present era. That said, the discussion here focuses on the impact of these systems during the ancient era. We'll talk more about the impact of these religions on later world events in subsequent chapters.
2. Most of the major religions have had schisms (divisions), resulting in a variety of subgroups and sects. The test writers will focus more on the overall religion than on particular sects (though there are a few exceptions that we'll get to in future chapters, such as the Protestant Reformation within Christianity and the rise of fundamentalism in Islam).
3. Don't focus only on the theological or philosophical basis of each belief system, but also on the impact those belief systems had on social, political, cultural, and even military developments.
4. Pay attention to where each belief system started and where it spread. As merchants and warriors moved, so did their religious beliefs. By looking at where religions branched out or came into conflict with one another, you'll get a good understanding of which cultures frequently interacted with each other.

For your convenience, here's a quick listing of the belief systems covered in this section.

- A. Polytheism
- B. Confucianism
- C. Daoism
- D. Legalism
- E. Hinduism
- F. Buddhism
- G. Zoroastrianism
- H. Judaism
- I. Christianity

### What About Islam?

Note that Islam is not included here. Why? Because Islam didn't come onto the scene until after 600 C.E. We'll talk a lot about Islam in the next chapter.

## A. Polytheism

### Cultures that Practiced It

The vast majority of ancient civilizations were polytheistic. Through 600 c.e., the religions of all of the Mesopotamian and Mediterranean empires were polytheistic except for the Hebrews and the Christians. In the east, Aryan religions, Hinduism, and traditional Chinese systems were polytheistic. Some Buddhist sects were polytheistic, as were some Daoist sects.

### Nuts and Bolts

Polytheists believe in multiple gods who impact daily life on earth to varying degrees, sometimes for good and sometimes not. For example, prior to the rise of Christianity, the ancient Greeks and Romans worshipped numerous gods who had very human qualities and who sometimes battled each other. In ancient Egypt, the gods were often considered benevolent and kind, while in ancient Sumer, the gods were to be feared and thus had to be appeased on a regular basis.

### Broader Impact

Polytheism had a major impact on the development of civilization: It was absolutely at the center of art and architecture in most of the civilizations we have discussed so far. Many of the grand works of these civilizations were dedicated to the gods or made to appease them. More significantly, because the practice of polytheism in most early civilizations was very complicated and filled with rituals, it led to the rise of a priestly class whose members controlled most of the communication between the people and their gods. Thus, these civilizations became dependent on an elevated group of people who controlled their collective destinies and rigid social structures with priests near the top quickly developed. Finally, because some polytheistic civilizations had separate gods for each city-state, as well as collective gods for the civilization as a whole, such as the systems practiced in Sumer and ancient Greece, the rise and fall of various city-states was seen as a drama played out not only on earth but also in the heavens. This belief added validity to a city-state's claim for predominance when it celebrated military success.

## B. Confucianism

### Cultures that Practiced It

Confucianism was developed specifically for the Chinese culture and was widely practiced throughout China from around 400 b.c.e. onward.

## Nuts and Bolts

The son of an aristocratic family from northern China, Confucius spent most of his life trying to gain a high position in government. He was very strong-willed, and often his thinking was at odds with state policy. As a result, he never achieved his goal. Instead, he served as an educator and political advisor, and in this role he had a tremendous influence on China. He attracted many followers, some of whom helped share his teachings and others who collected his thoughts and sayings in the *Analects*, which would come to have a profound influence on Chinese thinking both politically and culturally.

The most important distinction to make about Confucianism is that it is a political and social philosophy—not a religion. Though fundamentally moral and ethical in character, it is also thoroughly practical, dealing almost solely with the question of how to restore political and social order. Confucianism does not deal with large philosophical issues or with religious issues such as salvation or an afterlife.

Confucianism focuses on five fundamental relationships: ruler and subject, parent and child, husband and wife, older brother and younger brother, and friend and friend. When each person in these relationships lives up to his or her obligations in those relationships, society is orderly and predictable.

Confucianism concentrates on the formation of *junzi*, individuals considered superior because they are educated, conscientious, and able to put aside personal ambition for the good of the state.

There are also several values that Confucianism stresses:

*Ren*—a sense of humanity, kindness, and benevolence

*Li*—a sense of propriety, courtesy, respect, and deference to elders

*Xiao*—filial piety, which means a respect for family obligation, including to the extended family

Confucius believed that individuals who possessed these traits would be not only good administrators but also influential in the larger society because they would lead by example. He also was convinced that to restore political and social order, morally strong individuals were required to exercise enlightened leadership. This belief is why Confucius did not support a particular political system but rather favored good people running whatever system was in place. Under Confucianism, women in China were considered of secondary status, although children were taught to honor their mothers as well as their fathers.

## Broader Impact

Because Confucianism was an ethical, social, and political belief system, as opposed to a religion, it was compatible with other religions. In other words, a person could, for example, practice both Buddhism and Confucianism simultaneously.

This flexibility enabled Confucianism to flourish. Government leaders, too, embraced it, because it was intended to create an orderly society. Its widespread acceptance eventually led to a distinctive Chinese culture in which communities became extremely tight-knit; members had duties and responsibilities to many others in the community from birth to death.

Confucianism did not, however, have a similar impact on the rest of the world, because it evolved only within the context of the Chinese culture.

## C. Daoism

### Cultures that Practiced It

Some Chinese practiced Daoism, from around 500 B.C.E. onward.

### Nuts and Bolts

The *Dao* (also spelled *Tao*) is defined as the way of nature, or the way of the cosmos. Founded by Lao-tzu, a legendary Chinese philosopher, this belief system is based on an elusive concept regarding an eternal principle governing all the workings of the world. The *Dao* is passive and yielding; it accomplishes everything yet does nothing. One image used to demonstrate this is of a pot on the potter's wheel: The opening in the pot is nothing, yet the pot would not be a pot without it. Daoists sometimes also use the image of water, soft and yielding, yet capable of wearing away stone. From this comes the idea that humans should tailor their behavior to the passive and yielding nature of the *Dao*. Thus, ambition and activism only bring chaos to the world. Within Daoism is the doctrine of *wuwei*, disengagement from worldly affairs, or a simple life in harmony with nature. Daoism isn't completely passive, however. Daoist priests often used magic that was intended to influence the spirits.

## Broader Impact

Daoists advocated the formation of small, self-sufficient communities and served as a counter-balance to Confucian activism. As advocates of harmony with nature,

Daoists promoted scientific discoveries, becoming great astronomers, chemists, and botanists.

### Contrast Them: Daoism and Confucianism

Though Daoism and Confucianism shared a core belief in the Dao, or “the Way,” they diverged in how each understood the ways in which the Dao manifested itself in the world. While Confucianism is concerned with creating an orderly society, Daoism is concerned with helping people live in harmony with nature and find internal peace. Confucianism encourages active relationships and a very active government as a fundamentally good force in the world; Daoism encourages a simple, passive existence and little government interference with this pursuit. Despite these differences, many Chinese found them compatible and thus practiced both simultaneously. They used Confucianism to guide them in their relationships and Daoism to guide them in their private meditations.

Daoism’s impact, though, is greater than its philosophy. It’s notable because it coexisted with Confucianism, Buddhism, and Legalism in China. One of the things to remember about Daoism, therefore, is that it added to the complexity of Chinese society, which in turn added to the uniqueness of China and other Eastern civilizations as separate and distinct from the Western world.

## D. Legalism

### Cultures that Practiced It

The Chinese, specifically during the Qin Dynasty, are the most notable practitioners of Legalism.

### Nuts and Bolts

Legalism developed at around the same time as Confucianism and Daoism. It maintained that peace and order were achievable only through a centralized, tightly governed state. Simply put, Legalists didn’t trust human nature and therefore advocated the need for tough laws. They believed that people would be made to obey through harsh punishment, strong central government, and unquestioned authority. They focused only on things that were practical or that sustained the society. Not surprisingly, then, Legalists believed that two of the most worthy professions were farming and the military.

### Broader Impact

By adopting Legalism, the Qin Dynasty was able to accomplish the unification of China swiftly, as well as the completion of massive projects like the building of the Great Wall. But because Legalism also caused widespread resentment among the common people who suffered under it, Legalism inadvertently led to wider acceptance of Confucianism and Daoism.

### Contrast Them: Legalism and Confucianism

Although both Legalism and Confucianism are social belief systems, not religions, and both are intended to lead to an orderly society, their approaches are directly opposed. Confucianism relies on the fundamental goodness of human beings, whereas Legalism presupposes that people are fundamentally evil. Therefore, Confucianism casts everything in terms of corresponding responsibilities, whereas Legalism casts everything in terms of strict laws and harsh punishment. The Han successfully blended the best of both philosophies to organize their dynasty.

## E. Hinduism

### Cultures that Practiced It

The various cultures of the Indian subcontinent practiced Hinduism.

### Nuts and Bolts

Hinduism began in India with the Aryan invaders. Review the history of India in Section III of this chapter if you need to.

Hindus believe in one supreme force called Brahma, the creator, who is in all things. Hindu gods are manifestations of Brahma—notably Vishnu, the preserver, and Shiva, the destroyer. The life goal of Hindus is to merge with Brahma. Because that task is considered impossible to accomplish in one lifetime, Hindus also believe that who you are in this life was determined by who you were in a past life, and that how you conduct yourself in your assigned role in this life will determine the role (caste) you are born into in a future life. If you behave well and follow the *dharma* (the rules and obligations of the caste you're born into), you'll keep moving up the ladder toward unification with Brahma. If not, you'll drop down the ladder. This cycle of life, death, and rebirth continues until you achieve *moksha*, the highest state of being, one of perfect internal peace and release of the soul.

There is no one central sacred text in Hinduism, though the Vedas and the Upanishads, sources of prayers, verses, and descriptions of the origins of the universe, guide Hindus.

### Broader Impact

Hinduism is a religion as well as a social system—the caste system. In the caste system, you are born into your caste, and if you are dissatisfied with it, it's an indication you are not following the *dharma*; therefore, you will have an even worse lot in the next life. This explains why most faithful Hindus quietly accepted their stations in life. Though they knew that social mobility within one lifetime was out of the question, they were confident that they would accomplish it at death if they lived according to the tenets of Hinduism.

Hinduism's close identification with the caste system and the Indian social structure and customs have prevented its acceptance in other parts of the world. In recent years, modern Hindus are beginning to rebel against the strictures of the caste system. Nevertheless, Hinduism as a whole remains a powerful force—even regarding its adherents' relationship to the animal kingdom, because Hindus believe they can be reincarnated as animals.

Hinduism later spawned another religion—Buddhism.

## F. Buddhism

### Cultures that Practiced It

Eastern civilizations, most notably in India, China, Southeast Asia, and Japan practiced Buddhism.

### Nuts and Bolts

Buddhism was founded by a young Hindu prince named Siddhartha Gautama, who was born and lived in Nepal from 563 through 483 B.C.E. He rejected his wealth to search for the meaning of human suffering. After meditating under a sacred bodhi tree, he became the Buddha, or Enlightened One.

There is no supreme being in Buddhism. Rather, Buddhists follow the **Four Noble Truths**:

- All life is suffering.
- Suffering is caused by desire.
- One can be freed of this desire.
- One is freed of desire by following what's called the Eightfold Path.

The Eightfold Path is made up of right views, right aspirations, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right endeavor, right mindfulness, and right meditation. Following this path enables you to move toward nirvana, the state of perfect peace and harmony. The goal in one's life is to reach nirvana, which may or may not take several lifetimes, meaning that Buddhists also believe in reincarnation. Buddhism holds that anyone can achieve nirvana; it is not dependent on an underlying social structure, such as the caste system.

After the death of Buddha in 483 B.C.E., Buddhism split into two large movements, **Theravada**, also known as **Hinayana**, Buddhism and **Mahayana** Buddhism.



Theravada (Hinayana) Buddhism emphasizes meditation, simplicity, and an interpretation of nirvana as the renunciation of human consciousness and of the self. In Theravada Buddhism, Buddha himself is not considered a god, and other gods and goddesses have very little significance. (Theravada means “the Way of the Elders”; Hinayana means “the Lesser Vehicle.”)

Mahayana Buddhism (“The Greater Vehicle”) is a more complicated form of Buddhism, involving greater ritual than Buddha specified. Mahayana Buddhism appealed to people who believed that the original teachings of Buddha did not offer enough spiritual comfort; therefore, they began to hypothesize that other forms of salvation were possible. In Mahayana Buddhism, the Buddha himself became a godlike deity. Moreover, other deities appear, including *bodhisattvas*, those who have achieved nirvana but choose to remain on Earth. Mahayana Buddhists also relied more on priests and scriptures. Detractors of this form of Buddhism view these additions as being too similar to the Hinduism that Buddha disapproved of.

### Broader Impact

Because it rejected social hierarchies of castes, Buddhism appealed strongly to members of lower rank. And because Buddhism isn’t attached to an underlying social structure, it can apply to almost anyone, anywhere. As a consequence, it spread rapidly to other cultures throughout Asia.

When Ashoka, the Mauryan Emperor who became appalled by one too many bloody battles, was moved to convert to Buddhism, the religion really took off as a major force in Asia. In India, however, Buddhism was eventually reabsorbed into Hinduism, which remained the dominant belief system there. In China, Japan, and Southeast Asia, Buddhism continued to thrive. Furthermore, as Buddhism spread via the trade routes, the cultures of Asia intertwined.

## G. Zoroastrianism

### Cultures that Practiced It

Iranians, especially under the Sassanid Empire, Central Asians, and some Indians practiced Zoroastrianism.

### Nuts and Bolts

Zoroastrianism was created sometime in the second millennium B.C.E. in Central Asia and is typically attributed to the prophet Zoroaster. Zoroastrianism is a dualistic faith, which means that Zoroastrians believe in two gods representing good and evil. Ahura Mazda, the main god of good and truth, tries to lead his followers into overcoming the forces of evil and chaos, and humanity must play a role in ensuring that order survives. Thus, the individual actions of a person through his or her life determine the spiritual salvation of that soul, for Ahura Mazda will triumph over chaos at some point in the future. When chaos has been removed

### Test Tip

You probably won’t have to know the details of the two Buddhist movements for the AP exam, but you should know that they exist.

from the Universe, humans will transcend depending on their behaviors in their lifetimes. Its most important text is the Avesta, of which mostly fragmentary bits survive. We rely on quotations from later sources to make up for those that are lost to us.

### **Broader Impact**

Zoroastrianism was an important religion to Iranian peoples, though its importance grew immensely when the Sassanid Persian dynasty was founded, as it became the state religion of the Sassanid Empire. Its dualistic tendencies clearly influenced Christian thinking before Christianity became the state religion of the Roman Empire, and led to another point of contact between cultures, this time in the realm of religion.

## **H. Judaism**

### **Cultures that Practiced It**

The Hebrews practiced Judaism.

### **Nuts and Bolts**

Judaism holds that God selected a group of people, the Hebrews, and made himself known to them. If they followed his laws, worshipped him, and were faithful, he would preserve them for all time. This group became the Jews, and Judaism became the first of the great monotheistic faiths.

Judaism is not centered on many of the concepts typically associated with a religion, although a belief in an afterlife, a set of traditions and doctrines, and philosophy are part of its makeup. At the center of Judaism is the awareness of a unique relationship with God.

Jews believe that they were created by God and live in a world created by a personal, sovereign God who created the world for humans to live in and enjoy and exercise free will. The destiny of the world is paradise, reached by human beings with divine help. Created in the image of God, human beings have an obligation to honor and serve God by following the texts of the Hebrew Bible, which include the Torah and other sacred texts that formed the basis of the Old Testament in Christianity. The Hebrew Bible contained accounts of miracles, laws, historical chronicles, sacred poetry, and prophecies and formed a central part of Jewish religious practice and social custom. Thus, Judaism is both a set of religious guidelines and a cultural system.

## Broader Impact

Judaism was the first of the major monotheistic faiths; as such, it spawned the other two major monotheistic religions, Christianity and Islam.

### Compare Them: Confucianism, Hinduism, and Judaism

At first glance, these three belief systems seem very different from one another. After all, Confucianism isn't a religion; Hinduism is polytheistic; and Judaism is monotheistic. However, they are similar in that they are all closely tied to the culture in which they are practiced, and therefore are not part of the sweeping, evangelical movements that seek to convert the rest of the world. Each not only arose out of a specific culture, but was also used to sustain that culture by providing guidelines and moral authority.

## I. Christianity

### Cultures that Practiced It

Originally a splinter group of Jews practiced the religion, but it quickly expanded into the non-Jewish community and throughout the Roman Empire.

### Nuts and Bolts

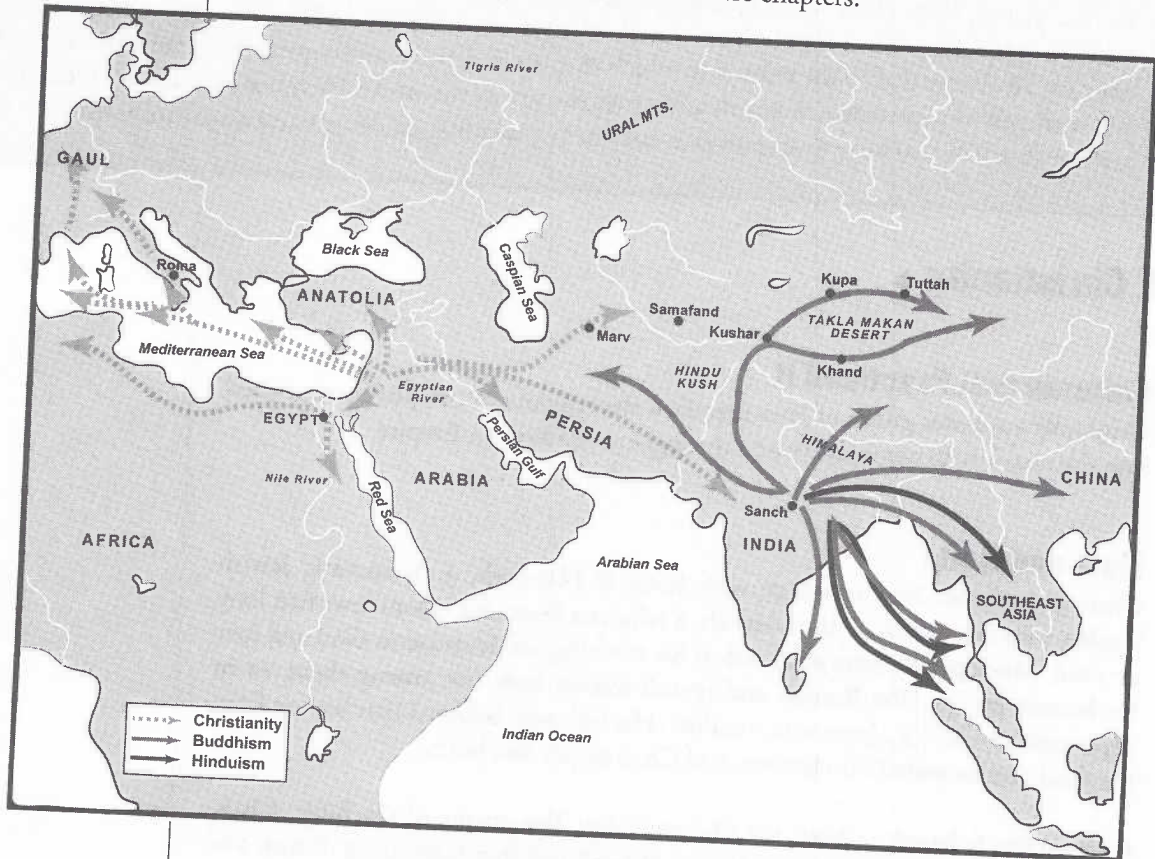
Christianity came into existence with Jesus of Nazareth, a charismatic Jewish teacher who claimed to be the Messiah, a religious figure for whom Jews had long awaited. Many people were attracted to his teachings of devotion to God and love for human beings. The Roman and Jewish leaders were not among them, so in approximately 30 C.E., Jesus was crucified. His followers believed that he rose from the dead and ascended into heaven, and Christianity was born.

Christianity is based on both the Old and New Testaments of the Bible. Christians believe that Jesus Christ is the Son of God and that forgiveness of sins, and ultimately everlasting life, is achievable only through belief in the divinity, death, and resurrection of Christ. The Christian view is that the world was made by a personal and sovereign God, but that the world has fallen from harmony with God's will. As the Son of God, Christ was the link between God and human beings. Human beings are expected to seek to know God, to worship him, and to practice love and service to him and to other human beings. Many early Christians also believed that it was their duty to share this message with the unconverted (as do most Christian sects today).

### Broader Impact

In the early days, Christianity was spread by the disciples of Jesus and by Paul of Tarsus. Paul was originally an extreme anti-Christian who was converted by a vision of Christ and became a principal figure in propagating the new religion. With its emphasis on compassion, grace through faith, and the promise of eternal

life regardless of personal circumstances, Christianity appealed widely to the lower classes and women. By the third century c.e., Christianity had become the most influential religion in the Mediterranean basin. Following a period of sporadic and localized persecution, it became legal within, and then the official religion of, the Roman Empire; it continued to branch northward and westward into regions beyond the boundaries of the Roman Empire. In the ensuing centuries, this marriage of Christianity and empire would profoundly affect developments in a large segment of the world. More on that in future chapters.



Map of World Religions, c. 600 C.E.

By 600 c.e., interaction through trade, warfare, and migration had spread Christianity, Hinduism, and Buddhism far beyond their areas of origin. Christianity became the dominant force in what was left of the Roman Empire, while the Silk Road and Indian Ocean trade routes brought Buddhism and Hinduism into east and Southeast Asia.

## VII: PULLING IT ALL TOGETHER

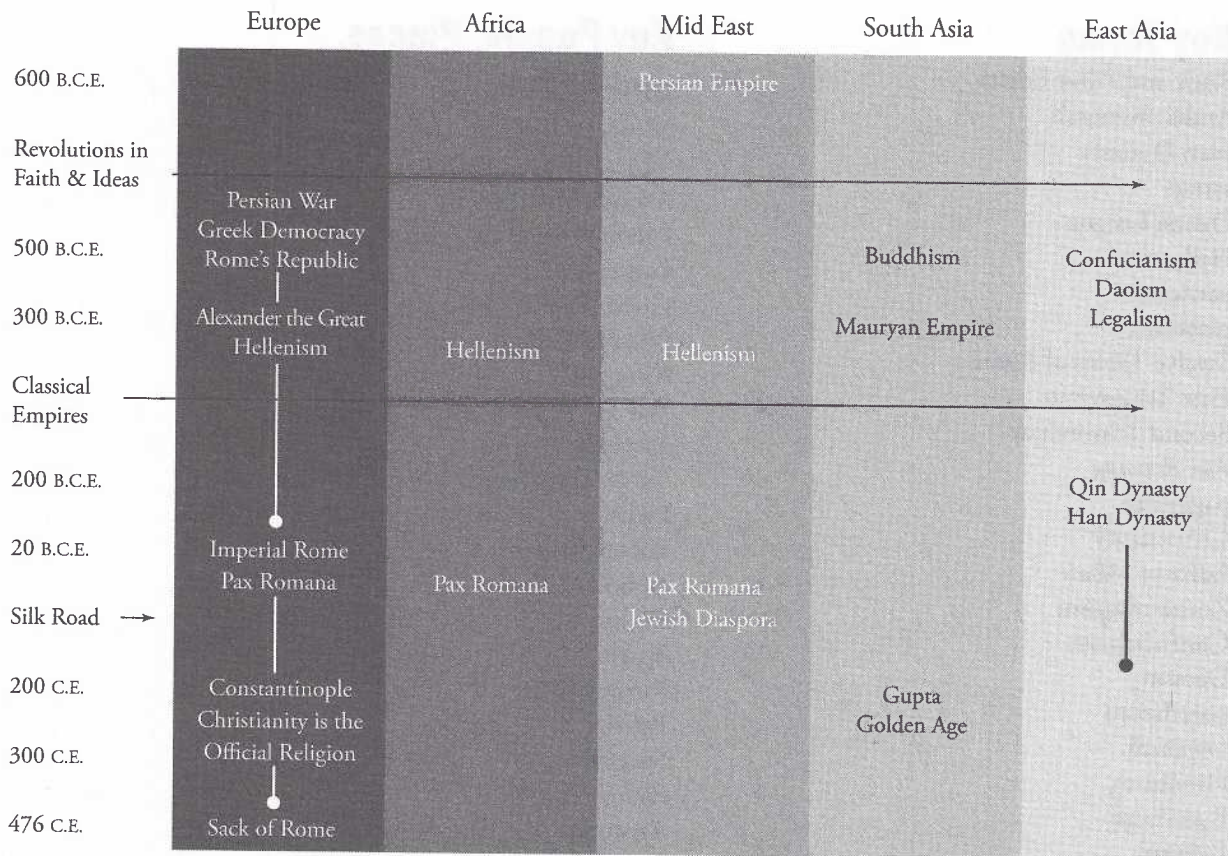
### Key Terms

Rock and Pillar Edicts  
Arabic numerals  
Han Dynasty  
satrap  
Delian League  
Hellenism  
patricians  
plebeians  
Twelve Tables of Rome  
First Triumvirate  
Second Triumvirate  
*Pax Romana*  
paganism  
Christianity  
Edict of Milan  
Zoroastrianism  
Confucianism  
Daoism  
polytheism  
Legalism  
Hinduism  
Buddhism  
Judaism  
Theravada and Mahayana

### Key People, Places, and Events

Mauryan Empire  
Chandragupta Maurya  
Ashoka Maurya  
Chandra Gupta the Great  
Gupta Empire  
Great Wall of China  
Qin Shi Huang  
Xiongnu  
Wu Ti  
Satrapies  
Great Royal Road  
Lydians  
Phoenicians  
Hebrews  
Athens  
Sparta  
Persian Wars  
Pericles  
Socrates  
Plato  
Aristotle  
Homer  
Peloponnesian War  
Macedonians  
Alexander the Great  
Punic Wars  
Hannibal  
Octavius  
Constantine  
Constantinople  
Diocletian  
Wang Mang

# VIII. TIMELINE OF MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS 600 B.C.E TO 600 C.E.



## REFLECT

Respond to the following questions:

- For which content topics discussed in this chapter do you feel you have achieved sufficient mastery to answer multiple-choice questions correctly?
- For which content topics discussed in this chapter do you feel you have achieved sufficient mastery to discuss effectively in a short-answer response or essay?
- For which content topics discussed in this chapter do you feel you need more work before you can answer multiple-choice questions correctly?
- For which content topics discussed in this chapter do you feel you need more work before you can discuss effectively in a short-answer response or essay?
- What parts of this chapter are you going to re-review?
- Will you seek further help outside of this book (such as a teacher, tutor, or AP Students) on any of the content in this chapter—and, if so, on what content?

The first part of the report is a general introduction to the project. It describes the objectives and the scope of the work. It also mentions the main results of the project.

The second part of the report is a detailed description of the methodology used in the project. It explains the different steps of the process and the tools used.

The third part of the report is a detailed description of the results of the project. It presents the data collected and the conclusions drawn from it.

The fourth part of the report is a conclusion and a list of references. It summarizes the main findings of the project and provides a list of the sources used.

References:

[Illegible references list]