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## **Study Guide #2: In the Land of Sumer**

**The Geography of Mesopotamia.** The first known civilization arose in the Fertile Crescent, a rich area of land between the Tigris and the Euphrates Rivers in present-day Iraq. This region is also known as Mesopotamia. Nomadic herders and agricultural communities lived in the deserts and hills surrounding the Fertile Crescent. Eventually these people migrated into the river valleys, where life was easier.

The rivers affected the land and its people both positively and negatively. They supplied the water that was necessary for farming, but they also brought yearly floods that caused great destruction. These floods left **silt**—deposits of mud and sand—in the soil of the Fertile Crescent, which made the soil very rich.

In the southern region of Mesopotamia, known as Sumer, the silt built up, often causing the rivers to overflow their banks. Farmers began to dig canals and dikes to channel the water into the fields. Such projects required people to work cooperatively. This cooperation gave rise to Sumerian civilization.

**The Sumerian City-States.** As people worked together to control the floodwaters, some of the small villages of Sumer grew into towns and, by about 3500 B.C., true cities. Due to competition with each other for water and other resources, the **city-states** of Sumer never unified into one country.

Sumerians believed the priests who led their cities knew about the spirits or gods who were thought to inhabit all natural forces, such as lightning, rain, wind, and thunder. This specialized knowledge allowed the priests to know how to control the rivers and when to plant crops. The priests organized the complex Sumerian society. Sumerians constructed large temples called **ziggurats** to honor their gods.

Gradually, war leaders who led the fight against nomadic raiders and other Sumerian cities took control from the priests. These leaders often acted as the gods' high priests, conducting important sacrifices, and came to be known as kings. Sumerian society developed a strict **hierarchy**, with kings, priests, nobles, and government officials at the top level. Farmers, merchants, and artisans occupied the middle level and slaves were at the bottom.

Sumerian city-states began to trade with other peoples of Southwest Asia, enabling them to obtain raw materials such as wood, stone, and metals that were not available in Mesopotamia. Kings and priests usually financed this trade.

**Sumerian Culture.** Sumerian cities had a rich culture, producing art and developing mathematics and music. They had a complex religious structure that was **polytheistic**, which means that they worshipped many gods and goddesses. These gods and goddesses controlled the natural elements and were generally seen as cruel.

Perhaps the most important development of the Sumerians was writing. Sumerian writing first developed so Sumerians could keep records for their trading. They drew **pictographs**, which conveyed messages using small pictures. Because pictographs were difficult to create, Sumerians gradually began to simplify the pictures. Soon, pictures began to stand for sounds instead of objects. This new script was known as **cuneiform**.

Sumerians began using writing to record the activities and ideas of daily life. By 2450 B.C. writing was well established in Sumer. Traders may have spread the use of writing to other areas. Because they wrote about events, myths, and stories, Sumerians moved from prehistory into the historical era.

**Answer the questions below in your own words. Highlight your evidence.**

1. What factors led people to settle in Mesopotamia?

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2. Why did Sumerians begin to work cooperatively?

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3. Why did Sumerian priests decide when to plant crops?

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4. Who ruled the Sumerian city-states?

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5. Why did Sumerians first develop writing?

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6. As their script developed, what did Sumerians write about?

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## Study Guide #6: Empires in Mesopotamia

**Migration and Empire.** Between 3000 B.C. and 2000 B.C. two major groups of people began to migrate within western Asia. One group spoke Semitic languages, the other Indo-European languages. The first of these were Semitic-speaking pastoral nomads who began migrating into Mesopotamia from Arabia and Syria. Although they settled and adapted the Sumerian style of civilization, life in a harsh desert climate led them to create a society that valued military skill and survival.

By the mid-2300s Semitic-speaking Sargon I had founded his own city-state, Akkad. Sargon The Great, as he became known, used military conquest to establish the first empire, ruling a territory stretching from the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf. Sargon and his successors helped hold their empire together by adopting several aspects of Sumerian culture and religion. They made use of the Sumerian language for literary and religious purposes and left the Sumerian priesthood intact. Although Sargon's empire was overthrown by internal revolt and external invasion, he had managed to spread the heritage of the Sumerians beyond their original river valleys and established the standard for future empires.

**Sumerian Revival and Decline.** About 2100 B.C., several city-states in southern Sumeria underwent a revival under the kings of the Third Dynasty of Ur, who used military conquest to gain control of much of the former Akkadian empire. The rulers of Ur oversaw an empire that provided its citizens with a variety of different economic opportunities. However, the kings of Ur spread their military forces too thin to keep the empire unified. Their empire ended about 2000 B.C., when individual city-states began to rebel and a new wave of nomadic invasions began.

**The Babylonians.** About 1800 B.C., the Semitic-speaking Amorites established the city of Babylon in Mesopotamia. Their king, Hammurabi, reunited Mesopotamia into what has become known as the Old Babylonian Empire. Hammurabi collected legal rulings to create the Code of Hammurabi, which became the basis for other Mesopotamian legal codes. This code was based on the principle of “an eye for an eye”—the type of punishment given for committing a crime should be similar to the crime itself. Like the Akkadians, Hammurabi built upon the civilization that had begun in Sumer by maintaining the power of the Sumerian priesthood and continuing to use the Sumerian language. After about 400 years, this empire too fell, this time to peoples speaking Indo-European languages.

**Indo-European Migrations.** Indo-European-speaking peoples, like Semitic-speaking peoples, were not a single ethnic group, but many groups who shared a number of cultural traits. They were the first group to domesticate the horse, which made them mobile and gave them an advantage in raiding more settled peoples in Southwest Asia. Their societies were male-dominated, or **patriarchal**, and warlike. They migrated from southwestern Russia in two waves of immigration—one around 2000 B.C. and the other around 1200 B.C.—eventually spreading their language from Ireland to India. To improve their abilities in battle, they invented both the horse-drawn **war chariot**, and **compound bows**—bows reinforced with pieces of bone for added power.

**The Hittites.** The Hittites were one of the most successful Indo-Europeans invaders. In response to further invasions from the north around the 1600s B.C., they united under a powerful king named Hattusilis I. The Hittites excelled at chariot warfare and were among the first peoples to use iron weapons on a large scale. They used these advantages to conquer much of southwest Asia Minor. Hittite society was led by the king, who functioned as both a war chief and as chief priest. He gave the nobles land in return for tribute in horses and soldiers. These ordinary soldiers formed the base of society. The Hittites expanded until they came into conflict with the Egyptian Empire. Unlike the Egyptians, they were conquered by another wave of Semitic and Indo-European invaders around 1200 B.C.

**Answer the questions below in your own words and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.**

**1.** What two groups invaded Mesopotamia between 3000 and 2000 B.C.?

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**2.** Describe the techniques the Akkadians used to hold their empire together.

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**3.** What was the lasting influence of Sargon I's empire?

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**4.** What principle was the basis of the Code of Hammurabi?

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**5.** How were Indo-Europeans able to conquer the settled peoples of Southwest Asia?

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**6.** What technological innovation helped the Hittites conquer much of Southwest Asia?

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**7.** Describe Hittite social structure.

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### Study Guide #3: **On the Banks of the Nile**

**Early Steps Toward Civilization.** There is evidence that people lived in the Nile Valley by at least 12,000 B.C. Eventually these groups built settlements and began farming the rich land. As with the rivers in Sumer, floods left behind a deposit of silt. The floods of the Nile, however, occurred at the same time each year and were less destructive.

People in the Nile Valley began writing as early as 3000 B.C. They developed a system of **hieroglyphics** that consisted of more than 600 signs representing words or sounds. Egyptians also developed **papyrus**, a paperlike material they used to write on.

Modern scholars did not learn how to read Egyptian hieroglyphics until the 1820s. The discovery of the Rosetta Stone, which had inscriptions in Greek, hieroglyphics, and another type of Egyptian writing, helped scholars learn how to decode hieroglyphics.

**Egyptian Civilization.** Over the centuries two kingdoms formed: Lower Egypt in the north, and Upper Egypt in the south. Sometime after 3200 B.C., Menes, the king of Upper Egypt, united the two kingdoms. He founded a **dynasty**, which is a family of rulers in which the right to rule is passed down to the king or queen's son or daughter.

Historians divide ancient Egypt into four periods—the Old Kingdom, the Middle Kingdom, the New Kingdom, and the Late Period. The Old Kingdom spanned about 2650 B.C. to 2180 B.C. The **pharaoh** was the head of Old Kingdom society. Gradually, government officials in the upper class became nobles. Toward the end of the Old Kingdom, the royal authority collapsed, and nobles fought with each other to win power. This period of civil war led to Egypt's decline.

In about 2040 B.C. a new line of pharaohs from the city of Thebes united Egypt again. This began the period known as the Middle Kingdom, during which time Egypt was at peace and produced great works of art, architecture, and literature. By the 1780s B.C., however, the power of the pharaohs began to weaken, as nobles and priests again fought for power. Within 20 years foreign invaders were attacking Egypt.

**Egyptian Society and Culture.** Despite many changes in dynasties, Egyptian culture remained stable during the Old and Middle Kingdoms. This stability allowed agriculture, trade, the arts, education, and religion to flourish.

Egyptian farmers grew more food than was needed for the Egyptian people, and Egypt was able to trade this surplus for other products. Egyptians built ships to trade along the coasts of the Mediterranean, Red, and Aegean Seas, and merchants traveled by land to Asia and south into Africa. Another accomplishment was the building of the pyramids, which served as tombs for the pharaohs. Egyptian engineers and architects were among the most skilled in the ancient world.

Egypt developed a complex governmental structure known as a **bureaucracy** in which civil servants carried out specialized tasks. Many scribes were needed to keep records, so boys were usually taught by their fathers to read and write. During the Middle Kingdom actual schools began to appear.

As in Mesopotamia, people in Egypt saw life in terms of religion. The gods of Egypt, in keeping with the regular flooding of the Nile, were generally seen as predictable and gentle. Over the centuries local gods and goddesses who shared associations became united into one greater god or goddess. During the dynastic era people even believed that the pharaoh was a great god in a human form. Because they believed that humans would need their bodies in the afterlife, the Egyptians developed the process of **mummification**, which preserved bodies for centuries.

**Answer the questions below in your own words. Highlight your evidence.**

**NOTE: Please use ink blue or black when writing your responses.**

**1.** How did the flooding of the Nile River help to draw people to the Nile Valley?

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**2.** What were the two important achievements of King Menes?

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**3.** How did the noble class affect the rise and fall of Egyptian rulers?

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**4.** What trade links did the Egyptians establish?

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**5.** How did the Egyptian bureaucracy lead to educational advancements?

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**6.** What were some of the ancient Egyptians' religious beliefs?

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#### Study Guide #4: **Civilization in India and China**

**Geography of the Indus Valley.** The first Indian civilization arose in the Indus River Valley. The dry land could be easily cleared for settlement. The Indus River also flooded periodically, providing water essential for agriculture and silt that enriched the soil. People were living in villages along the river by about 3000 B.C. As farmers produced surplus food, cities began to develop, and within about 500 years a civilization had arisen in India.

**Indus Valley Cities.** Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro were two of the most important cities in the Indus Valley. In fact, archaeologists have acquired so much information about early Indus Valley civilization from Harappa that they have named that civilization **Harappan civilization**.

Harappan civilization developed over a wide geographic area from about 2300 to 1750 B.C. Its people appear to have shared a remarkably uniform civilization. They used the same types of tools and had the same systems of measurement. This has led some scholars to believe they may also have shared political unity.

The cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro were large, with populations of about 35,000 people, and planned in a gridlike pattern. Each city had a strong central fortress called a **citadel**.

**Harappan Culture.** Although Harappan civilization was quite urbanized, farming was still essential to the economy. Farmers grew many kinds of crops and kept livestock. City-dwellers worked primarily in industry and trade. People living in the Indus Valley also produced fine art, jewelry, and cloth. As early as 2500 B.C. they may have traded these goods with merchants from Mesopotamia.

People of the Harappan civilization also had a written language, although scholars have not been able to decipher it. It is believed that people of the Indus Valley worshipped a great god, some images of animals, and a mother goddess. Harappan civilization was destroyed around 1500 B.C., possibly by foreign invaders, earthquakes, or flooding.

**Civilization in China.** During the Neolithic period, one of the first settlements in China was along the Huang He, or Yellow River. This was an area naturally rich with plants and animals. Over the centuries the winds had deposited a fine yellow dust on the ground, which formed a fertile layer of soil called **loess**.

Every few years the Huang He would overflow in destructive floods. The climate in the Huang He valley was equally severe. Winters were long and cold, and summers short and hot. Heavy rains alternated with periods of drought and famine.

The Yangshao was one of the earliest prehistoric cultures in China and lasted from about 5000 to 3000 B.C. The Yangshao people were primarily farmers, growing grains and raising pigs and sheep. The Yangshao built their houses in clusters. For this, some archaeologists believe that they lived in

groups of related families. If this is true, the Yangshao culture would be the earliest example of the strong, clan-based type of society that was a feature of later Chinese civilization.

China's Neolithic peoples began a long history of cultural continuity in China. The traditions they started, which included intensive farming, strong familial ties, development of a writing system, and complex religious practices, would form the basis for Chinese culture for thousands of years.

**Answer the questions below in your own words and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.**

**1.** Why was the Indus Valley a good place for settlement?

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**2.** What agricultural development was necessary before cities could flourish in the Indus Valley?

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**3.** What evidence is there that Harappan cities may have been united politically?

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**4.** What economic activities took place in Harappan civilization?

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**5.** What were positive and negative attributes of the land along the Huang He River?

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**6.** What long-lasting cultural traditions began with China's Neolithic cultures?

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## Study Guide #12 **The City-States of Greece**

**The Rise of the Polis.** Starting in the 700s B.C., the main political and social unit for the Greeks was the **polis**, or city-state. The concept of the polis included geography, community, and political and economic independence. Each polis included a city surrounded by farmland. In each city stood an **acropolis**, or walled fortification.

Most poleis (plural of polis) were small, with around 1,000 adult male citizens. Athens was the largest Greek polis, with 40,000 citizens and about 200,000 inhabitants in 431 B.C. Each inhabitant was expected to show absolute loyalty to the polis.

**Life in the Polis.** The **agora**, or marketplace, was the center of life in the polis. All trading took place there. Society was composed of three groups: free adult males, who were citizens with political rights; women, children, and resident foreigners, free but without rights; and slaves. Men dominated society, and female infants were frequently left outside to die because they were more expensive than valuable. Slaves were prisoners of war or indebted Greeks.

**Colonization.** Many Greek cities attempted to solve overpopulation and the need for more food by establishing colonies in Spain, Italy, France, and around the Black Sea. Trade and commerce grew, benefiting both the colonies and the Greek mainland. Greek culture spread across the Mediterranean.

**Decline of the Aristocratic Order.** By the 700s B.C., aristocrats, wealthy landowners, controlled most aspects of society. However, in the 600s B.C., colonization reduced their power, as commoners acquired wealth and bought land, which they worked with tools made of the new iron. The introduction of iron weapons also changed military formations. Infantrymen, or **hoplites**, began to use the **phalanx** formation, a closely packed group of men using long spears. Because this arrangement required more soldiers, commoners became crucial to the defense of the polis and they could demand a greater voice in the government. To ensure their rights, in the late 600s B.C. the commoners forced the aristocrats to write down the laws.

**Lyric poetry** was literature that focused on feelings and emotions that all people, not just the aristocrats, experienced. Sappho was one of the greatest of the lyric poets.

**Athenian Political Development.** To reduce tensions between aristocrats and commoners, in 594 B.C., the Athenian aristocrats chose a man named Solon to lead Athens. He first forgave all debts, then established a society where citizenship came from wealth, not birth. He expanded trade and manufacturing, reducing the Athenian dependence on agriculture.

After Solon, an aristocrat named Peisistratus ruled as a **tyrant**, chosen by the people but holding all political power. He brought Athens peace and commercial stability. As social rivalries died down, the need for tyrants diminished. In 510 B.C. an uprising ended their rule.

Cleisthenes ruled from 508 B.C. He divided the population into ten tribes, mixing people from different regions to destroy regional power. He also created a

Council of Five Hundred, drawn from a different tribe every month. It presented matters to a popular assembly made up of all voting citizens, which maintained all legislative and electoral power. This system is called a **direct democracy**.

**Sparta.** Sparta developed very differently from Athens. One of Greece's largest poleis, Sparta was made up of three social groups: citizens, half-citizens, and helots. Half-citizens were traders, while the helots farmed for the citizens, so they could concentrate on military training. There were many more helots than citizens. Education focused on physical fitness and military training, and weak babies were left outside to die. Spartan boys trained until they were twenty, and then became soldiers. Women stayed home and bore children, but were known for their wealth and independence. The Spartans had very little interest in the arts, philosophy, and other cultural pursuits, but they excelled in sports.

Answer the questions below **in your own words** and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.

1. What did the concept of the Greek polis include?

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2. What group had the rights of citizenship in the Greek polis?

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3. What pressures led to colonization?

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4. How did the introduction of iron help break down the power of the aristocrats?

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5. How did Solon reform the Athenian political and social system?

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6. How did the Spartans focus their energies?

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## Study Guide #14 **The Golden Age of Greek Culture**

**Religion.** The Greeks believed in the same group of gods that other Indo-European peoples worshipped, and each Greek city-state believed it was under the special protection of a particular god or goddess. The Greeks offered praise and religious sacrifices to their gods in exchange for protection and advice. The Greeks also honored their gods with festivals and athletic competitions, including the Olympic games. Winning these competitions was everything to the Greeks. Winners were heroes, while losers were disgraced.

As they were exposed to other civilizations of the eastern Mediterranean, some Greek thinkers began to move away from believing the world was controlled by the gods. They began to take a more rational view of the world.

**The Origins of Greek Philosophy.** Thales of Miletus is understood to be the first Greek philosopher. Pursuing a clearer understanding of the universe, he concluded that water was the basic substance and that everything came from it. He also thought that all things in nature must be explainable by natural processes. Another philosopher, Pythagorus, searched for meaning in numerical relationships and developed the Pythagorean theorem. Parmenides applied mathematical thinking to philosophy, establishing **formal logic**. According to formal logic, all assertions must be based on reasoned proof. Democritus, another philosopher, built on formal logic and mathematics. He believed that all things were formed by the constant collision and combination of atoms, or basic units of matter.

**Literature.** Greek writers were mainly interested in praising human accomplishments and questioning human flaws. Homer's epic poems, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, are the earliest examples of Greek literature. The brave heroes and human emotion in these poems were used as examples for young Greek men. Pindar, the greatest poet of the 400s B.C., wrote "victory odes" to celebrate individual athletes. Most Greek theater was performed in an attempt to explore the nature of the world. Usually, performances honored Dionysus, the god of wine. By the 400s B.C., Greek theater focused on the meaning of human existence and was an educational experience for the audience. All plays were financed by the rich, and the poor received free tickets.

The three greatest Athenian playwrights of the 400s B.C. were Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides. Both Aeschylus and Sophocles were interested in the idea of **hubris**, or pride. For Aeschylus, this meant defying the gods; for Sophocles, it meant going against the natural order of the universe. Euripides allowed his human characters

to control their own destinies, while the gods remained neutral. Aristophanes was a comic playwright who made fun of everything, attempting to convey the absurdity even of serious matters, such as war.

**History.** The Greek interest in human nature led to an interest in history. In the 400s B.C. a Greek named Herodotus, referred to as the Father of History, wrote about the Persian Wars. He wanted to record great human accomplishments. Another Greek historian of the same period was Thucydides. He had been a general in the war against Sparta, and he used his military experience to write the *History of the Peloponnesian War*. He focused on human choice, not the will of the gods, in explaining how the Greeks brought about this terrible catastrophe.

**Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture.** Greek artists were fascinated by the human form. The Greeks created a unique artistic culture, which appeared often in paintings on vases and drinking vessels. These paintings were heavily influenced by Egyptian art forms. By the 500s B.C., the Greeks were concerned with depicting the perfect human form on vases and in sculpture. Vase painters learned to depict detailed images by using orange clay on a contrasting black background. *The Discus Thrower*, a statue sculpted by Myron, captured motion in a still figure and showed the athlete's excellence in competition. The Greeks believed art was meant for public enjoyment. Sculpture stood in public buildings, and architecture was designed to be visually appealing.

**Answer the questions below in your own words and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.**

**1.** The Greeks offered praise and sacrifices to their gods in exchange for what?

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**2.** What outside influence had an effect on Greek religious views?

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**3.** What were four ways Greek philosophers attempted to understand the universe?

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**4.** What did the idea of hubris mean to Aeschylus and Sophocles?

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**5.** Who were the two leading Greek historians of the 400s B.C., and what events did each write about?

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**6.** Who was meant to enjoy Greek art? How was it made available?

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## **Study Guide #16 The Rise of Macedonia and Alexander the Great**

**The Rise of Macedonia.** Macedonia was strategically located on a trade route between Greece and Asia. The Macedonians suffered near constant raids from their neighbors and became skilled in horseback riding and cavalry fighting. Although the Greeks considered the Macedonians to be semibarbaric because they lived in villages instead of cities, Greek culture had a strong influence in Macedonia, particularly after a new Macedonian king, Philip II, took the throne in 359 B.C.

As a child, Philip II had been a hostage in the Greek city of Thebes. While there, he studied Greek military strategies and learned the uses of the Greek infantry formation, the phalanx. After he left Thebes and became king of Macedonia, Philip used his knowledge to set up a professional army consisting of cavalry, the phalanx, and archers, making the Macedonian army one of the strongest in the world at that time. Philip's ambitions led him to conquer Thrace, to the east of Macedonia. Then he moved to the trade routes between the Aegean Sea and the Black Sea. Soon Philip turned his attention to the Greek city-states.

Although some Greek leaders tried to get the city-states to unite, they were unable to forge a common defense, which made them vulnerable to the Macedonian threat. Eventually, Philip conquered all the city-states, including Athens and Thebes, which he defeated at the battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C. This battle finally ended the independence of the Greek city-states.

Philip forced all the city-states except Sparta into the new League of Corinth, with himself in charge, and began to plan a war against Persia. Before he could proceed with his plans, however, a disgruntled Macedonian noble murdered him.

**Alexander the Great.** Philip's 20-year-old son, Alexander, succeeded him as king. Once Philip died, the Greeks began to rebel against the new king. Though young, Alexander was well-versed in the arts of war. He campaigned through Thrace, Illyria, and the Greek city-states, restoring his control. After forcing the Greeks to submit, he turned his attentions back to Persia.

In 334 B.C., Alexander crossed the Hellespont and invaded the Persian empire with an army of 35,000 infantry and 5,000 cavalry. His force was small compared with that of the Persians, but his men were well disciplined and highly loyal to Alexander. The Persian army, on the other hand, was enormous but disorganized. Alexander was victorious, winning battles in Asia Minor, Syria, Phoenicia, and Egypt. He then moved into the heart of the Persian Empire. In 331 B.C., he defeated the Persian army at Gaugamela in Assyria, taking the title “king of kings.” Still not satisfied, he pushed his men farther, into Central Asia, and finally to the Indus River. There, his men rebelled, and Alexander was forced to end his campaign. In the 10 years of fighting, he had conquered the largest empire the world had seen.

**Alexander’s Legacy.** In 323 B.C. in Babylon, Alexander the Great died of a fever. Although scholars know little about Alexander’s policies as a ruler, they do know that he respected Greek culture and spread it wherever he went. He also established many new cities, naming several “Alexandria” after himself. In addition, he integrated the conquered Persians into his armies and encouraged his Greek and Macedonian subjects to intermarry with the Persians in order to stabilize the empire. In 324 B.C. Alexander supervised a mass marriage, wedding over 10,000 of his troops to Persian women. He himself married the daughter of the Persian king.

Following Alexander’s conquests, ideas, culture, and peoples flowed freely from the Mediterranean to Central Asia and all the way to India. This melding of Greek culture with that of the Persian Empire resulted in a new culture among the ruling elite that later came to be known as **Hellenistic**, or “Greeklike.”

**1.** What factors allowed Philip II of Macedonia to conquer the Greek city-states?

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**2.** Where did Philip learn the use of the phalanx?

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**3.** At what battle did Philip defeat Athens and Thebes, the remaining Greek city-states?

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**4.** What kind of problems did Alexander face after his father, Philip, died?

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**5.** How did Alexander the Great unite the different peoples in his empire?

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**6.** What did the blending of cultures under Alexander's rule come to be called?

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## **Study Guide #19 Imperial China**

**The Qin Dynasty.** By 221 B.C. the Qin dynasty had defeated other Chinese kingdoms and unified China under their rule. Shi Huangdi, the first Qin emperor, ruled a larger area than any preceding dynasty. Applying Legalist ideas, he created a strong central government, bringing the nobles under control by forcing them to move to the capital. He separated the country into military districts controlled by governors, created a uniform system of law, and installed a tax collection system.

Shi Huangdi also expanded the Qin Empire and built a long defensive wall to keep out invaders, which later became known as the Great Wall of China. He also maintained an **autocracy**, in which the emperor held total power. To keep a tight hold on society, he burned books and executed scholars for disagreeing with him. He also held families accountable for family members' individual crimes. Shi Huangdi's policies led to great resentment of Qin authority. When he died in 210 B.C., many communities rebelled, and the dynasty ended less than ten years later.

**The Han Dynasty.** After the Qin dynasty collapsed, a peasant general named Liu Bang founded the Han dynasty, which lasted 400 years. Liu Bang hoped to maintain the authority of the Qin state, but also invited Confucian scholars to advise him, bringing Confucian ethics into his government.

Wudi, who ruled from 140 to 87 B.C., was the strongest Han emperor. During his reign the Confucian scholarly advisors became an organized **civil service**. Entrance to this service depended on competitive exams that covered the **Confucian Five Classics**, which were believed to offer useful information on governing. Many of the best scholars, known as **mandarins**, controlled the government bureaucracy. It was possible for anyone to take the exams, but few peasants could afford the expensive education needed to pass them.

Wudi greatly expanded the empire. Trying to control trade, he challenged the Xiongnu, a group of nomads to the northwest. Although he attempted to defeat the Xiongnu using force, diplomacy, and bribery, the conflict continued.

In order to maintain the huge empire they created, the Han government taxed the Chinese peasants heavily. The peasants revolted, and in the A.D. 100s they were joined by other groups, weakening the empire. In A.D. 220 Ts'ao P'ei overthrew the last Han ruler and new kingdoms emerged in the west and south.

**The Growth of Chinese Civilization.** Chinese culture flourished during the Qin and Han dynasties. Society was based on the same values that governed the family—respect and obedience. The family, not the individual, was central to Chinese society. Since Confucian doctrine claimed that equality between men and women would result in social disharmony, men ruled the family and women had little independence. However, some women did achieve positions of authority. One such woman was Ban Zhao, who became a Han imperial historian.

Most families lived as peasant farmers in villages, where they faced the challenge of raising food and fulfilling the government's heavy demands in the areas of taxes and labor. To ease these pressures, Han government created

a policy of **leveling**, which allowed the government to regulate crop prices. Qin and Han policies promoted commerce by controlling the Central Asian trade routes known as the **Silk Road**.

Science also flourished during the Qin and Han periods. For example, Chinese astronomers calculated the length of the year and discovered sunspots. Two important inventions were paper and woodblock printing. Chinese doctors practiced **acupuncture**, a method that treated illness using needles. The Qin and Han dynasties also developed many elements of later Chinese civilization, including a belief in Confucian ethics and in the importance of groups over individuals.

**Political Disunion and the Rise of Buddhism.** After the fall of the Han dynasty, China entered a period of enormous political and economic instability. Nomadic tribes attacked northern China and wars between kingdoms within China were fierce. Eventually, the northern nomads adopted Chinese ways and customs. They encouraged the spread of Buddhism, which gave many Chinese a promise of spiritual salvation during a time of chaos.

Answer the questions below in your own words and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.

1. What methods did the Qin dynasty use to control its empire?

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2. How did the rule of Liu Bang and Wudi differ from that of Shi Huangdi?

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3. Why did the Han Empire crumble?

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4. What role did the family play in Chinese life?

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5. What advances did Qin and Han scientists make?

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6. What was China like after the fall of the Han empire?

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## Study Guide #20 **The Rise of Rome**

**Italy's Geography.** The Italian Peninsula provided an ideal place for an empire to emerge. The boot-shaped peninsula jutted down into the Mediterranean Sea and nearly halfway to Africa. The northern end of the peninsula was protected by the Alps, while the other three sides were shielded by the sea. Though Italy had short, fast rivers that were unsuited for internal travel, the land contained rich soil and many trees. Overall, it supported a better balance between agriculture and fishing than its neighbor, Greece.

Rome developed from a series of small villages centered around a **Forum**, or central marketplace. The city was located on the Tiber River, along trade routes between north and south, and close to the sea. **The Conquest of Italy.** An Indo-European-speaking people known as the Latins migrated from the northeast and established Rome sometime before the mid-700s B.C. Latin kings initially ruled the villages and kingdoms near Rome, but around 600 B.C. Rome came under the rule of Etruscan kings from the northern part of the Italian Peninsula.

Around 509 B.C. the Roman aristocracy revolted against the Etruscans. The aristocrats proceeded to establish a **republic**, a government in which elected officials ran the state. Early on, the heads of aristocratic families, known as **patricians**, selected these officials. Later, common people known as **plebeians** also participated in the government.

As the Roman population grew, so did the demand for land. Rome solved this problem by conquering its neighbors with a highly disciplined and organized army. The army was organized into **maniples**—small, flexible infantry formations well suited to fighting on rough terrain. Maniples were organized into groups called cohorts. Ten cohorts of 600 men each constituted a **legion**.

Roman expansion suffered a setback in 390 B.C., when Gaulic warriors swept in from the north and burned the city. Rome recovered quickly, however, and by around 265 B.C. Rome had conquered the Etruscans and the Greek cities in southern Italy.

**Rome and Carthage.** As Rome continued to expand, it came into conflict with Carthage, a trading city in northern Africa that controlled an empire including Sardinia, western Sicily, Corsica, and outposts along the coasts of North Africa and southern Spain. Carthage feared

that its commerce would be threatened by Roman expansion. Soon Rome and Carthage went to war.

The First Punic War began in 264 B.C. Rome had the advantage of a strong army, while Carthage had a very powerful navy. The Romans tried to develop their own navy, and despite missteps and heavy casualties, they eventually defeated Carthage. In the peace treaty, the Romans forced the Carthaginians to pay a large settlement and give up Sicily, where Rome established an imperial province. A few years later, Rome seized Sardinia and Corsica as well.

The Second Punic War started in 218 B.C. Hannibal, a great Carthaginian general, hoped to use Spain's manpower to create a land force to challenge the Romans. Hannibal led his army through the Pyrenees and the Alps and invaded Italy, defeating one Roman army after another. The Romans suffered great losses but refused to give up. Eventually, they triumphed over Hannibal, forcing him to withdraw. The Romans routed Hannibal's forces outside Carthage and took the city in 202 B.C., ending the war.

**The Conquest of the Mediterranean World.** In the wake of the Roman victory, Carthage lost most of its navy, its territories in Spain, and its independence in foreign policy. This made Rome the leading power in the western Mediterranean. Many Romans still desired revenge for the losses of the Second Punic War, however, and in 149 B.C. Rome decided to declare war on Carthage a third time. This time the Roman army destroyed Carthage entirely and enslaved its people. Meanwhile, Rome went to war with Macedonia, a former ally of Carthage. Next to fall were the Hellenistic kingdoms of Greece and Syria to the east. By 133 B.C. the Roman empire reached from one end of the Mediterranean to the other, and beyond.

Answer the questions below **in your own words** and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.

1. What geographical factors supported Rome's development?

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2. What kind of government did the Romans establish after overthrowing the Etruscan kings?

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**3.** What areas were controlled by Carthage at the start of the Punic Wars?

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**4.** What were the strengths and weaknesses of each side in the First Punic War?

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**5.** What were Hannibal's successes and failures in the Second Punic War?

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**6.** Which side won the First Punic War? the Second Punic War? the Third Punic War?

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## **SG#22: The Pax Romana**

**Augustus and the Principate.** By 29 B.C. Octavian had established a new political system, calling himself *princeps*, or “first citizen,” and the government the Principate. In 27 B.C. the Senate renamed Octavian Augustus, or “the revered one.” He brought internal peace by dividing power between himself and the Senate and making strong appointments. He undertook military campaigns, revitalized Rome, and encouraged a renewal of religious devotion. In the west he conquered tribes all the way to the Rhine. To the east Rome’s greatest opponent was the Parthian Empire. Augustus supported the arts, and great writers such as Horace, Ovid, Livy, and above all, Virgil, author of *The Aeneid*, flourished.

**The Julian-Claudians and Flavians.** Augustus died in A.D. 14, and for the next 54 years the Julian-Claudian emperors, all related to Julius Caesar, ruled. Tiberius was a good soldier and a strong administrator. Following him, Caligula was brutal and mentally unstable. Claudius followed Caligula, extending citizenship to the provinces. Nero, Claudius’s successor, may have been responsible for a disastrous fire that swept through Rome, and in A.D. 68, he committed suicide. After a period of civil war, a general named Vespasian claimed the throne and reestablished order, peace, and prosperity. The Flavians, as he and his sons were known, were not aristocrats and were from Italian provinces rather than Rome.

**The Good Emperors.** In A.D. 96, the era of the **Good Emperors** began with Nerva. It continued with Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius. The Good Emperors improved frontier defenses and governmental administration to strengthen the empire. All but Nerva were from the provinces and admitted more members of the provincial elites into the Senate and the government. Hadrian in particular spent much of his time touring the provinces and inspecting their administrations. Hadrian also withdrew from some territories in the east in order to build up stronger defenses to guard against invasions.

**Roman Imperial Civilization.** The period from 27 B.C. to A.D. 180 is called the **Pax Romana**, or the Roman Peace. It was marked by a stable government, efficient military organization, and widespread trade and transportation. Members of the aristocracy participated in government in the central administration and in the provinces, but the emperors made all important decisions. Most wealth remained in the hands of the urban elite during this period. Roman law became more universal as it was split into two legal systems: *ius civilis*, or “civil law,” which applied to all

citizens, and *ius gentium*, the “law of peoples,” which applied to disputes between citizens and noncitizens.

Farming remained the primary occupation, and the tenant farmer, or **colonus**, replaced slaves on the large estates. Manufacturing increased in the empire’s cities, and trade and transportation became more efficient.

**Life in the Empire.** Citizens did not share equally in the wealth of the Pax Romana. Many of the nearly one million residents of Rome lived in crowded apartment buildings. To combat possible rebellion, free food and public entertainment became a major feature of Roman city life. Chariot racing was the sport of choice in the Circus Maximus, which could hold 250,000 spectators, while gladiatorial combats in the Colosseum drew crowds of up to 50,000 people.

**Science, Engineering, and Architecture.** Unlike the Greeks, who preferred abstract reasoning, the Romans were interested in scientific research that had practical uses. They were highly sophisticated in the areas of city planning and construction. They developed concrete and created **aqueducts**, or channels for bringing water into the cities. They also learned to use the arch and vaulted dome, both of which enabled them to build new types of architectural structures.

**Answer the questions below in your own words and in complete sentence. Highlight your evidence.**

**1.** How did Augustus bring order to the empire?

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**2.** How did the empire benefit from the reign of the Flavians?

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**3.** How did the Good Emperors strengthen the empire?

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**4.** Who controlled Roman government during the Pax Romana?

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**5.** What two systems made up Roman law?

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**6.** What aspect of scientific research appealed to the Romans?

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