Beginnings (8000 BCE to 600 CE)

A THUMBNAIL VIEW

- From the simplest barter system to long journeys along trade routes, the exchange of goods and ideas shaped this period and led to further change throughout the world. Important trade routes like the Silk Roads, Indian Ocean, and Mediterranean Sea influenced development.
- Once people began to settle and gradually organize into early civilizations, the development of agriculture began to change their lives at a more rapid pace. In terms of farming, the Neolithic Revolution was a world-altering event. Alternatively, people living in the Eurasian Steppe developed pastoral nomadism. Also, the use of metals flourished; from

developed pastoral nomadism. Also, the use of metals flourished; from the development of copper, bronze, and then iron, the use of metallurgy allowed humans to develop stronger and more efficient weapons and tools. As humans organized themselves in families, gender roles emerged. With the development of agriculture, the

- As humans organized themselves in families, gender roles emerged. With the development of agriculture, the division of labor further deepened these divisions. These gender roles were reinforced by religious systems and governmental systems. In almost all cultures outside of Africa, women were excluded from positions of power, a condition known as patriarchy. In most cultures, women had some protective rights, but in others, patriarchal societies emerged. This patriarchy was often reinforced by organized religion.
- During this period, major world religions developed and spread, shaping the civilizations they encountered. Religions and belief systems such as Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism, and Daoism (Asia) and Christianity and Judaism (Europe, Asia) influenced large numbers of people throughout the period.
- Civilizations emerged that had organized governments, complex religions, social structures, job specialization, public works, systems of writing, and arts and architecture. These civilizations grew into larger and more complicated governmental organizations such as empires (e.g., Rome, Han, and Gupta). The accumulation of a food surplus allowed some members of society to do things other than farm. This led to job specialization and the beginnings of social class structures based on economic roles: for example, aristocrats (nobles), artisans (craftsmen or tradesmen), and peasants.
- As civilizations developed, so did the need to keep records and further communicate systems of writing. Around the
 world, people expressed themselves through the arts, from the earliest cave paintings to great works of architecture.

> AP EXPERT TIP

As we look at more specific information in this review, be aware of the theme the information is addressing. Also note changes and continuities and why the change or continuity occurred.

NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION

Early humans lived for thousands of years hunting animals and gathering roots and plants. Around 8000 BCE, a dramatic breakthrough in human history called the **Neolithic Revolution** changed the way people lived. It might have been called the Neolithic *transition*, though, since it took hundreds, if not thousands, of years of change before an agricultural economy took hold.

rld Population
4 million
5 million
14 million
27 million
50 million
100 million

The development of agriculture, most likely begun by women who were experimenting with seeds they had gathered, allowed people to change the way they lived. The first farmers used slash-and-burn agriculture, in which they would slash the bark of trees and burn them to the ground. The problem was that although the land was initially very fertile, it lost much of that fertility after a few years. This caused people to migrate to new areas, helping to facilitate the spread of agriculture to new areas. A second great discovery was the breeding of animals. With these tools, people could now remain in one place for several years rather than moving constantly.

While farming was a lot more work (the average hunter and gatherer worked only four hours a day to find food), it was also a lot more stable. Hunters and gatherers had very small families, but now that people had stopped moving as much, families grew.

Life in a Neolithic Village

Early farmers began to organize themselves in a more permanent way through the formation of villages. This permanence allowed for the development of new technologies (farming tools such as the hoe, for instance). Farmers began to produce a **surplus** of food, and once a surplus was produced, **job specialization** was allowed to develop. Other jobs such as metalsmith, miller, brewer, trader, and priest provided services for the farmers—and the farmers could provide them food.

The private ownership of land equaled economic power. Land was kept in families' hands and passed down from generation to generation; with this, social class emerged. It was the new wealthiest class who desired luxury items, which could be traded with other communities.

For the Neolithic people, nature meant life or death. They had to learn the changes of the seasons based on the position of the sun, moon, and stars. Religiously, their main goal was to ensure fertility—both theirs and the land's. Religious beliefs centered on the life cycle of birth, growth, death, and regenerated life. Clay figurines of gods and goddesses that reflect this belief have been unearthed.

The Neolithic Revolution also had consequences for **gender roles**. Men were working in the fields and herding the animals, which required them to be outside the home. On the other hand, women performed such jobs as caring for the children, weaving cloth, and making cheese from milk, all of which required them to be in the home. Over time, the work outside the home was perceived as more important, and men began to take a more dominant role in the gender relationship.

Early Inventions in Metal and Transportation

In Neolithic villages, three main craft industries developed and became essential elements of almost all human agricultural societies: pottery, metallurgy, and textiles. The earliest metal made was copper for jewelry and simple tools. It was later heated to become more workable and was made into knives, axes, hoes, and weapons.

Around 3000 BCE, Mesopotamian metalworkers discovered a mixture, or alloy, of copper and tin that created a harder and stronger metal called bronze. Bronze was used to make weapons such as swords, spears, axes, shields, armor, and bronze-tipped plows for farming. Although copper is a fairly common ore, tin is relatively rare. Long-distance trade routes developed around the need for tin. Sometime around 1000 BCE, iron tools and weapons were first developed. Metalworkers discovered that when carbon was added to iron, it became much stronger. As iron is much more common than tin, it was more affordable to lower classes. Thus, changes occurred in warfare and, in some places like Greece, politics. Knowledge of metalworking spread all over Mesopotamia, the Mediterranean area, Africa, and Asia.

The exact origin of the wheel is unknown, but we do know that Sumerians used wheeled carts for several centuries before they were more formally organized around 3200 BCE. The wheel allowed for the transport of heavier loads and much longer distance travel and trade. This important technology spread rapidly and within a few centuries was the standard means of overland transport.

An Alternative Way of Life—Not Everyone Becomes a Farmer

Pastoral nomadism was another lifestyle that developed at this time. Pastoral nomads depended on their herd for survival and traveled to find grassland or steppe land required for their herds to graze.

Pastoral nomadism was not a step toward a life of farming. It was a complicated and advanced lifestyle in which nomads literally lived off their animals. Life could be quite difficult for these early pastoralists, and in response, they developed fighting skills, using both offensive and defensive military tactics to defend their herds.

> THE EARLIEST CIVILIZATIONS

Farming communities often developed along riverbanks. As the riverbanks flooded and carried silt onto the land, the soil became more fertile. The river also allowed for transportation and communication. Flood control and irrigation projects were soon developed. Such cooperation among these first civilizations led to the development of the first urban centers or cities. These large, densely populated, permanent settlements shared many common characteristics:

- Diverse people
- Specialization—people with different jobs
- Social stratification—some people had more status than others
- Trade

Early cities were larger than Neolithic towns and villages, had more intense specialization, professional craftsman, professional managers (such as governors and tax collectors), and professional cultural specialists (such as priests). Cities had a large economic center called the marketplace, which became the center of political, military, and economic control.

4 AP WORLD HISTORY EXPRESS

These cities often led to the growth of more complex societies. These societies often had the following in common:

· Food surplus

Trade

Complex religions

Cities

Social stratification

Written language

Specialization

Organized government

Arts/architecture

Mesopotamia

The "land between the waters" in southwest Asia is part of the Fertile Crescent, and was the site of one of the earliest farming communities. Small-scale irrigation started in Mesopotamia around 6000 BCE. By 3000 BCE, Sumer (as it came to be known) had a population of 100,000. Temples, public buildings, defensive walls, and irrigation systems were built by laborers recruited by government authorities.

Rulers were followed closely in status by the priests and priestesses. A noble class of warriors and judges advised the monarch. A fourth group was called the **free commoners**, who worked as farmers, builders, craftsmen, or professionals such as scribes. The **dependent clients**, a subgroup of commoners, owned no property and worked only on the estates of others. All commoners paid taxes with food surplus or labor. At the bottom of the social pyramid were the **slaves**, either prisoners of war or those serving punishment for debt crimes.

In Sumer, cities grew as they expanded their irrigation systems, eventually developing into city-states. A city-state is a sovereign city (meaning it makes its own laws and is not ruled by anyone else) that has a hinterland or adjoining lands that support it with agricultural goods. Sumerian city-states had distinctive step-shaped pyramids called ziggurats that were temples to the gods. Over time, these city-states were conquered and united into a single empire by many societies in succession—the Akkadians, Babylonians, Assyrians, and Persians, to name a few.

One of the most famous emperors of Mesopotamia was the Babylonian **Hammurabi** who ruled from 1792 to 1750 BCE. He is most famous for his legal code of laws, which he promulgated on stone stelae (or steles), or columns, throughout his empire; this was the first documented attempt in ancient history to detail crimes with specific punishments.

Hammurabi's code of laws had three main principles:

- Retribution, whereby a crime was punished by a like sentence ("an eye for an eye").
- Social standing determined punishment. The lower in social standing you were, the more severe your punishment. A commoner poking out the eye of a noble in a fight would be put to death.
- Government had a responsibility to its citizens. If your house was robbed and the thief was not caught, the local government would reimburse you.

Egypt

Around 5000 BCB, experimentation with agriculture began in the Nile River area with crops such as barley and wheat. Farmers soon built dikes to protect the fields from the floods. By 4000 BCB, villages had developed irrigation systems. The Nile protected Egypt from invasion, and so did the Red Sea, Mediterranean Sea, and Sahara Desert.

The most famous architecture of ancient Egypt includes the pyramids of Giza, which were built as tombs for pharaohs. The polytheistic Egyptians believed that the gods judged your life and that if found worthy, your spirit lived on in an afterlife. This belief led to the process of mummification and to elaborate tombs in whose walls the hieroglyphic accounts of the pharaohs' lives were written.

The Egyptians excelled in making bronze weapons and were skilled in mathematics, medicine, and astronomy. The solar calendar of 365 days that we use today was first devised in ancient Egypt. Around 3100 BCE, the Egyptians developed their own written language made up of pictographs, or hieroglyphics.

The pharaoh was at the top of the social class structure, followed by priests, commoners, and slaves. Egypt had professional military forces and many administrators and tax collectors. Unlike in Mesopotamia, women in Egypt, if they were literate, could often take on jobs as administrators, and there was even one woman pharaoh, Hatshepsut.

Indus Valley

This urbanized civilization developed between 3000 BCE and 2500 BCE. Its written language is still not understood, but we do know that its polytheistic religious belief system centered on a strong concern for fertility. The entire area was approximately 500,000 square miles, larger than both Mesopotamia and Egypt.

The two largest Indus Valley cities have been named Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro. These walled cities, designed in a grid pattern, featured broad streets, marketplaces, temples, assembly halls, public baths, and uniform housing, and even private bathrooms with showers. Indus Valley people traded pottery, tools, and decorative items; they obtained gold, silver, and copper from Persia and wool, leather, and olive oil from Mesopotamia. Metal tools of bronze and copper have been found, as well as jewelry made of precious stones. Cotton was cultivated in this area before 5000 BCE.

The writing system of this early civilization has yet to be deciphered. We do know that it used about 400 symbols to represent sounds and words. These symbols have been found on clay seals and copper tablets. Sometime after 2000 BCE, the Indus civilization was on the decline. A combination of environmental factors might have caused this, and by 1500 BCE, the civilization had collapsed.

Aryans

The Aryans, a nomadic people of Indo-European origin, entered the Indian subcontinent through the Khyber Pass around 1700 BCE. They quickly dominated the inhabitants of the Indus Valley and established a racial mix in what is now India. Aryans left a collection of sacred hymns, songs, prayers, and rituals known as the Vedas. They reveal a hierarchical, male-dominated society. The Aryans were polytheistic with many gods connected to nature. Their social structure had probably the largest impact on India; it gradually became the basis for the caste system.

People were divided into four varnas based on occupation and racial purity:

- Brahmins (scholars and priests)
- Kshatriyas (rulers and warriors)
- Vaishyas (merchants, farmers, craftsmen)
- Sudras (servants)

The lower class of untouchables (outcastes) was incorporated into the system later. Aryans tried to prohibit intermarriage between the varnas, but this was difficult to enforce, and over the years a blending of Aryan and indigenous people took place.

Shang and Zhou

The first river valley civilization in China developed along the **Huang He** or **Yellow River**. The dynasty that ruled this civilization is called the **Shang**, which ruled a northern territory from 1766 to 1122 BCE. Major archeological evidence used to prove the existence of the Shang dynasty is found in "oracle bones." The creation of written Chinese (pictograph) characters is traced back to the Shang.

The Shang developed bronze metallurgy, which helped in the development of a military state. The next and longer dynasty, the Zhou (1122 to 256 BCE), created the concept of the Mandate of Heaven, meaning power to rule was granted from heaven. Zhou society placed great emphasis on the veneration of ancestors. Additionally, in the Zhou period, iron metallurgy spread to China.

The Zhou lost control of their empire in the 5th century. This was followed by the Warring States Period, a time in which various noble families fought amongst each other for control of China. This period ended in 221 BCE with the rise of the Qin dynasty.

Mesoamerica and South America

In the Americas, agriculture developed around 1500 BCE, when the Olmecs settled along river banks in the coastal plain near the Gulf of Mexico. The first important settlement was San Lorenzo, which was the religious, political, and economic center for the Olmecs' large population. Later, La Venta served as an important center, and with its abundant rainfall, there was no need to build an extensive irrigation system. Olmec artisans carved masks and human figurines out of jade. One of the great mysteries of the Olmecs is the Colossal Heads they built, which are six feet high and weigh between 16 and 18 tons each. It is thought that they are carvings of leaders.

In South America, around 2500 BCE, cultivation of such crops as beans, peanuts, and sweet potatoes was occurring in the **Andean heartland.** Around 1000 BCE, an important religious cult—the **Chavin**—gained influence, and the society became more complex. Chavin de Huantar was the most important ceremonial center and had several large temple platforms. Artisans worked with ceramics, textiles, and gold. Both Mesoamerica and South America constructed religious shrines.

DEVELOPMENT AND POPULARITY OF RELIGION

Early civilizations were mostly polytheistic. Often gods or goddesses were associated with nature, and sacrifices were made to these gods to ensure things such as good harvests. Around 600 BCE, major religions and philosophies emerged to address some new questions or concerns that the previous traditions may not have been sufficiently addressing. This period is called the **Axial Age**. The axial represents the core ideas around which a society revolves.

Axial Age in India

HINDUISM

The religion of Hinduism originated in India. It is a belief system that evolved over time and actually refers to a wide variety of beliefs and practices that developed in South Asia. Hinduism is often described as not just a religion but a way of life. At the most basic level, Hindus believe that they have a **dharma**, or duty, to perform in life. If all follow their dharma, the world works smoothly. This dharma is determined by birth and one's stage in life. If one follows his dharma, he will get good **karma**. It is the accumulation of this good karma (the sum of all good and bad deeds performed) that allows someone to move up in level of **samsara** in the next life.

Hindus believe that they will be reincarnated (reborn) after death. The new position they assume in the next life will depend on how well they performed their dharma in the past life. The ultimate goal for Hindus is to end the cycle of reincarnation by finally reaching moksha or oneness with the universe. Hinduism is a polytheistic religion that believes in Brahma, the creator god, and his various incarnations including Vishnu, Shiva, and Devi. Bhatki is a popular practice in which followers have a personal devotion to a particular deity.

The social structure known as the caste system has had an enormous impact on the followers of Hinduism. The four varnas are the basis for the caste system. A fifth group at the bottom of society became known as the untouchables. The caste system is based on the concepts of racial purity and pollution. To ensure purity, people should marry only members of their own caste.

BUDDHISM

Siddhartha Gautama, who lived from approximately 563 BCE to 483 BCE, became an important axial-age thinker in India. After meditating, he reached enlightenment and became known as the Buddha (enlightened one). The Buddha taught that there were four noble truths:

- 1. All life is suffering.
- 2. Suffering is caused by desire.
- 3. There is a way out of suffering.
- 4. The way out of suffering is to follow the Eightfold Path.

The Eightfold Path includes right understanding, purpose, speech, conduct, livelihood, effort, awareness, and concentration. The ultimate goal for Buddhists is to reach nirvana, which is the release from the cycles of reincarnation and the achievement of union with the universe. According to Buddhism, no one needs the rituals of Hinduism. Gods and goddesses are not necessary—everyone can seek enlightenment on his own, and no one is an outcast by birth.

Axial Age in China

From 600 BCE to 221 BCE, no strong central government control existed in China. This time of constant fighting and disorder is referred to as the Era of Warring States. It is within this time that three important philosophies emerged in China: Confucianism, Daoism, and Legalism.

CONFUCIANISM

Confucius (551 to 479 BCE) was a philosopher who believed the key to restoring peace was to find the right kind of leadership to rule China. His two most important concepts were ren (appropriate feelings) and li (correct actions), which must be used together in order to have any effect. Additionally, filial piety or respect for one's parents was a key concept.

Rulers would rule by **moral example**, and people would learn to behave properly through the example of those superior to them. In Confucianism there are **five key relationships**:

- 1. Ruler to subject
- 4. Older brother to younger brother
- 2. Father to son
- 5. Friend to friend
- 3. Husband to wife

> AP EXPERT TIP

Like many great religious leaders, Confucius did not write his knowledge down. Confucius's teachings were brought together by his disciples in a book called *The Analects*. Knowing the basic doctrines (books, poems, etc.) of the major religions is required by the AP exam.

DAOISM

The **Tao te Ching** or **Dao te Ching**, a collection of Daoist wisdom, is attributed to Laozi, a Chinese sage. The literal translation of Dao is the **way**, the **way of nature**, or the **way of the cosmos**. According to Daoism, all life is interdependent, and human beings should exist in harmony with nature. Daoists taught the concept of **wu wei**, which means act by not acting.

Daoists believed it was useless to try to build institutions to govern humans, because institutions (or anything that rewarded knowledge) were dangerous. For Daoists, the ideal state is a small, self-sufficient town. The ultimate goal should be to cultivate the virtues of patience, selflessness, and concern for all. Daoism provided an escape from the proper behavior of Confucianism—it encouraged people to take time off, relax, just let things happen. Laozi gained many disciples in China, though some mixed his ideas with magic and attempted to search for immortality.

LEGALISM

The philosophy of Legalism was based on the principle that people were inherently evil and needed strict laws and punishment to behave properly. Additionally, a strong central government with an absolute leader and heavy taxes would ensure a more stable society.

Axial Age in the Middle East

JUDAISM

The Hebrews were a nomadic people who migrated out of Mesopotamia sometime around 2000 BCE and settled in the area known as Palestine. By 1700 BCE, many Hebrews had migrated into Egypt, and most were enslaved by the Egyptians. Sometime after 1300 BCE, Moses led the Hebrews out of Egypt in a flight that became known as the Exodus.

The Hebrews believed that they were protected by their own god YHWH (what may have been pronounced Yahweh but was considered too holy a word to say aloud). According to the Bible, the Ten Commandments were given to Moses by God. The Hebrews (who became known as Jews) established a monotheistic tradition, which claims there is one creator (God).

After the Exodus, the Hebrews returned to the "Promised Land" on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, and the kingdom of Israel was established. The height of Israelite power came during the reigns of King David and his son Solomon around 1000 BCE. Later, the Assyrians invaded; the Babylonians then finished the job. Ultimately the former kingdom of Israel was swallowed up by the Greek and Roman Empires after 330 BCE. In 135 CE, the Romans drove the Jews out of their homeland; this is referred to as the Diaspora. Jews then survived in scattered communities around the Mediterranean region, Persia, and central Asia.

CHRISTIANITY

Jesus was born to Jewish parents about 4 BCE in the area know as Judea (today the country of Israel), which was part of the Roman Empire. Jesus taught devotion to God and love for fellow human beings. He earned a reputation for wisdom and the power to perform miracles. His message of the Kingdom of God alarmed authorities, however, and to quell a potential rebellion, they had him executed on a cross in the early 30s CE.

According to Jesus, men and women were considered spiritually equal before God. The faithful would experience eternal life in heaven with God. Jesus' followers believed that he rose from the dead and that he was the son of God. They compiled a body of writings about his life and his messages; this became the New Testament. The earliest followers of Jesus (Christians) were all Jews, but in the mid-first century CE, the disciple Paul began to spread the message of Jesus to non-Jews, or gentiles. He and other missionaries used the Roman roads and sea lanes to spread this new

religion. However, Christians, like the Jews, refused to honor the state cults or to worship the emperor as a god and thus were often subject to campaigns of persecution.

Even so, the religion continued to spread throughout the empire, until Emperor Constantine issued the Edict of Milan in 313 cB, making Christianity legal in the Roman Empire. Emperor Theodosius went on to make it the official religion of the empire in 380 CE. Christianity also spread to Mesopotamia, Iran, and parts of India. Over time, the Southwest Asian Christians and the Western (or Roman) Christians grew apart. Southwest Asian Christians followed a form of the religion called Nestorian Christianity. This form of Christianity continued to spread across the Silk Roads into central Asia, India, and China. Another form of Christianity developed in Northern Africa and is called Coptic Christianity based on the Coptic language they used. Coptic Christian kingdoms have existed in Ethiopia since the sixth century, and the religion still thrives in Egypt and Ethiopia today.

Role of Women in Religion

- Buddhism: Women could achieve nirvana. An alternative lifestyle was available for women as nuns in a monastery.
- Christianity: Men and women were equal in eyes of God. Women could go to heaven. Many early converts were women. Women could live in convents.
- · Confucianism: Men were superior to women. One of five key relationships is that of husband to wife.
- · Hinduism: Men were superior to women. Women were not allowed to read the sacred prayers, the Vedas in order to reach moksha, one must be a male Brahmin.

CLASSICAL SOCIAL ORDER

Greece

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

Greece's political identity revolved around the concept of the polis or city-state. A few functioned as monarchies, but most were based on some form of collaborative rule. The two most famous city-states were Sparta and Athens. Sparta used military strength to impose order, while Athens used democratic principles to negotiate order. Athens's government was a direct democracy that relied on its small size and the intense participation of its citizens. Those citizens were free adult males. (This meant no women, foreigners, or slaves could be citizens.) The Spartans, on the other hand, lived life with no luxuries; social distinction was earned through discipline and military talent. Boys began their rigorous military training at age seven, and girls received physical education to promote the birth of strong children.

Greek cities in Anatolia (modern-day Turkey) resented what they viewed as the oppressive rule of the Persian Empire and revolted, starting the Persian War (500-470 BCE). Athenians sent their own troops in support. The alliance of the Greeks against the Persians led to the formation of the Delian League, of which Athens served as the leader. However, this leadership soon caused resentment in other parts of the Greek world. The conflict came to a head during the Peloponnesian War (431-404 BCE). Sparta and Athens led the two conflicting camps, and though Sparta was victorious, the internal conflict weakened Greece and left it vulnerable to domination by Macedonia, a frontier state north of the Greek peninsula.

King Philip II (359-336 BCE) of Macedon consolidated control of his kingdom, and by 338 BCE the region was under his control. His son Alexander conquered Persia by 330 BCE and went on to conquer most of the northwest regions of the Indian subcontinent. This led to the creation of a Hellenistic Empire and Era. The empire was divided among three of his generals: **Antigonid** (Greece and Macedonia), **Ptolemaic** (Egypt), and **Seleucid** (Persia). During the Hellenistic Era, caravan trade flourished from Persia to the West, and sea lanes were widely traveled throughout the Mediterranean Sea, Persian Gulf, and Arabian Sea.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND GENDER ROLES

Greece was a patriarchal society; women owned no land but could be priestesses. Literacy was common among upper-class Greek women, and Spartan women competed in athletics. Slaves were acquired because they had debt, had been taken as prisoners of war, or had been traded.

CULTURE, ARTS, SCIENCE, AND TECHNOLOGY

The Greeks stressed an appreciation of human beauty through religion, philosophy, art, architecture, literature, athletics, and science. Polytheistic, the Greeks believed that their gods were personifications of nature. The great ancient Greek philosopher Socrates encouraged reflection, and his student Plato wrote The Republic in which he described his ideal state ruled by a philosopher king. Plato's student Aristotle wrote on biology, physics, astronomy, politics, and ethics. Aristotle is considered the father of logic and deductive reasoning. The great epic poems attributed to Homer, The Iliad and The Odyssey, convey the value of the hero in Greek culture. In architecture, the Greeks built temples using pillars or columns, and they developed a realistic approach to sculpture. The Olympic Games were held regularly to demonstrate athletic excellence. The Greeks also made great strides in anatomy, astronomy, and math, including the medical writings of Galen and the mathematics of Archimedes.

India

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

Following the invasions of the Aryans, India by the sixth century BCE saw the development of small regional king-doms, which often fought each other. Though there were periods of centralized rule, the subcontinent remained decentralized through most of its history.

> AP EXPERT TIP

Centralized rule means that the emperor rules directly through governors or military leaders or scholars. Decentralized rule means that the emperor lets local rulers rule their own people, although they must collect and pay taxes and/or tribute to the emperor. Centralized rule is often more stable and resistant to outside invaders.

One significant example of that centralized rule was that of the Mauryans. In the 320s BCE, Chandragupta Maurya successfully dominated the area and set up an administration to rule his empire. His grandson, Ashoka, continued his grandfather's conquering ways until the bloody campaign to conquer Kalinga. This bloodbath convinced Ashoka to stop using violence and instead rule by moral example using his Rock Edicts (carved into cliffs and in caves). During his reign, Ashoka set up a tightly organized bureaucracy, which collected taxes and was made up of officials, accountants, and soldiers. After Ashoka's death, the Mauryan Empire declined, and India returned to being a land of large regional kingdoms.

In 320 ce, Chandra Gupta (no relation to the other one) established the Gupta Empire and conquered many of the regional kingdoms. Instead of

setting up an organized bureaucracy, the Guptas left the local government and administration in power. Under the Gupta, Hinduism again reasserted itself as the primary religion of Indian culture. Gupta rule continued until the invasion of the White Huns severely weakened the empire and India returned to regional rule.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Ashoka encouraged agricultural development through irrigation and encouraged trade by building roads, hospitals, rest houses, wells, and inns along those roads. Agricultural surpluses led to an increase in the number of towns

that maintained marketplaces. Overland trade via the Silk Roads connected India with China through central Asia. Indian sailors mastered the technique of riding the monsoon (seasonal) winds, and they sailed to Indonesia and Southeast Asia. Their goods, such as cotton and black pepper, made it all the way to Rome.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND GENDER ROLES

India developed into a patriarchal society; women were forbidden from reading the sacred prayers (the Vedas), and under Hindu law, they were legally minors and subject to the supervision of men. In order to marry well, a woman's family needed a large dowry. Women were not allowed to inherit property, and a widow was not permitted to remarry. The social structure became dominated by the power of the Brahmins and the caste system. As the Brahmins became more powerful, during the rule of the Guptas, caste distinctions grew.

CULTURE, ARTS, SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY

India's culture thrived, as evidenced by its advancements in the arts, math, and science. The Mauryan emperor Ashoka became a devout Buddhist around 260 BCE, after the battle at Kalinga, and changed the way he ruled his empire. He rewarded Buddhists with land and encouraged the spread of the religion by building monasteries and stupas. He even sent out missionaries, who facilitated the spread of Buddhism. But through political support, Hinduism gradually eclipsed the influence of Buddhism. The Guptas gave land grants to Brahmins, supported education that promoted Hindu values, and built great temples in urban centers. Indian art during this time stressed symbolism rather than accurate representation. Math and science flourished in areas such as geometry and algebra. The circumference of the earth and the value of pi were calculated. Additionally, the concept of zero, the decimal system, and the number system we use today, called Arabic numbers, were developed.

China

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

China's political development began during the Era of Warring States (403-221 BCE). In 221 BCE, the first emperor, Qin Shihuangdi, ended the Era of Warring States through policies influenced by Legalism and started China's tradition of centralized imperial rule under the Qin dynasty. He had a centralized bureaucracy and divided the land into administrative provinces. For protection, he sponsored the building of defensive walls throughout the empire, which were the predecessor to China's Great Wall. Laws, currencies, weights, measures, and the Chinese script were standardized. The emperor had most Confucius books burned and had 460 scholars buried alive. His rule and dynasty lasted only 14 years, but he established the precedent for centralized imperial rule in China, which would last for 2,000 years. When the emperor died in 207 BCE, a new dynasty—the Han—was established.

The Han dynasty (207 BCE-220 CE) was much longer than the Qin dynasty. The most prominent emperor Wu Di (141-87 BCE) built roads and canals and established an imperial university with Confucianism for the curriculum. The university founded the civil service exams, which became the entry test for government jobs. In the Han dynasty, a foreign policy of expansion was pursued, and North Vietnam, Korea, and central Asia came under its control.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

China's economy was based on agriculture, and it flourished with the increase in long-distance trade. Iron metallurgy was introduced, which led to an increase in the military strength of the empire. It was during the Han dynasty that the trade route known as the Silk Road began to flourish. The route was a series of roads that allowed trade to connect the Han Empire with central Asia, India, and the Roman Empire.

The Han also followed a **tributary system of trade**. Officially, the policy was that the Han did not need to trade with their inferior neighbors, so instead they demanded tribute from neighboring groups and gave trade goods in return. In addition, the Han often sent gifts to nomad groups so as to deter invasion.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND GENDER ROLES

China had a patriarchal society; a woman's most important role was to make a proper marriage that would strengthen the family's alliances. Upper-class women were often tutored in writing, arts, and music, but overall women were legally subordinate to their fathers and their husbands.

Socially, the highest class was that of the **scholar-gentry**. These landowning families were often the only ones able to take the civil service exam, because preparation was very expensive. Most Chinese were peasants who worked the land. Merchants, who gained great wealth with the increase in trade, were considered socially inferior because they did not produce anything but rather lived off the labor of others.

CULTURE, ARTS, SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY

In China, the family became the most important cultural and organizational unit in society. The family consisted both of its living members and its ancestors. Confucius's filial piety, respect or reverence for one's parents, was also very important. This was also a time of great invention and innovation. Agriculture was aided by the development of the wheelbarrow, while watermills were created to grind grain. The sternpost rudder and compass aided sea travel. Possibly most important was the invention of paper, which increased the availability of the written word.

Rome

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT

In 509 BCE, the Roman nobility overthrew the Etruscan king, and what had been a monarchy became a **republic**—a government in which the people elect their representatives. The republic consisted of two consuls who were elected by an assembly that was dominated by the wealthy class, known as the **patricians**. The Senate, made up of patricians, advised these consuls.

This system of leadership created tension between the patricians and the common people, known as the **plebeians**. Eventually, the patricians granted the plebeians the right to elect tribunes, who had the right to veto patrician-made laws. When a civil or military crisis occurred, a dictator was appointed for six months. Rome expanded throughout the Italian peninsula and then the Mediterranean. It encountered a fierce competitor in the city of Carthage in North Africa. This competition led to the Punic Wars, which took place between 264 and 146 BCB. Rome sacked the city of Carthage, solidifying its domination of the Mediterranean.

As Rome expanded, it transitioned from a republic to a dictatorship. The Roman general Julius Caesar led the army in its conquest of Gaul and, in 46 BCE, made himself dictator. He centralized military functions and initiated large scale building projects. But the senators feared Caesar was becoming a tyrant and assassinated him. Octavian took over and, in 27 BCE, was given the title Augustus. The next 250 years were called the Pax Romana, or Roman Peace. Rome's system of law had begun in 450 BCE with the Twelve Tables.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Some 60,000 miles of roads linked the empire's 100 million people, linking all regions of the empire for trade and communication. A uniform currency was used, and while Latin was the language of politics and the Romans, Greek was the lingua franca for trade throughout the Mediterranean. The cities had sewers, plumbing, public baths, and access to fresh water through aqueducts.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND GENDER ROLES

Rome was patriarchal; the eldest male, pater familias, ruled as head of the family. Roman law gave the pater familias authority to arrange marriage for the children and the right to sell them into slavery—or even execute them. Women's roles were in supervising domestic affairs. Slaves, one-third of the population by the second century CE, worked on large estates in the countryside or in the cities as domestic servants.

> AP EXPERT TIP

You should be able to compare various forms of labor throughout history: for example, which societies made extensive use of slaves (Greece and Rome) and which did not (India and China) and why

CULTURE, ARTS, SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY

Romans were polytheistic and believed that the gods intervened directly in their lives. The empire tolerated the cultural practices of its subjects—if they paid their taxes, did not rebel, and revered the emperors and Roman gods. The Jews, strict monotheists, were considered a problem, and various groups often tried to overthrow Roman rule. After a series of bloody rebellions in the first and second centuries CE, the Jews were completely defeated by the Romans and forced out of the city of Jerusalem—the start of the Jewish Diaspora (or scattering). The Christians were often also persecuted. However, the number of Christians continued to grow, and by 313 CE, Emperor Constantine issued the Edict of Milan, which legalized Christianity in the empire. By 380 CE, Emperor Theodosius proclaimed Christianity as Rome's official religion.

Roman architecture took its inspiration from Greece, making its columns and arches more ornate. Improvements in engineering, including the invention of concrete, allowed the Romans to build stadiums, public baths, temples, aqueducts, and a system of roads.

> FUNCTION OF COMMERCE IN CLASSICAL CIVILIZATION

The Han Empire secured the trade routes through Central Asia; India's Mauryan Empire's regional states were able to provide the necessary stability; and the Romans kept the Mediterranean Sea safe for travel. This security allowed for long-distance trade to thrive.

The Silk Road trade originated during a diplomatic mission to Central Asian by nomads during the Han Empire. The silk brought as gifts was very popular, as were the horses that the diplomats brought back. The trade route began in the east in Changan, went through Mongolia and Turkestan, and veered either north or south around the Taklamakan Desert. It branched southeast to India or through Central Asia, and finally to the eastern end of the Roman Empire. Caravan routes were traveled in stages, from one oasis town to the next.

The Indian Ocean trade went from Guangzhou in southern China through the South China Sea to the islands of Southeast Asia, India, the Arabian Sea, and the Persian Gulf. The principal players in the trade were Malay and Indian sailors. The Mediterranean Sea is sometimes referred to as the Roman Lake, because the Roman Empire surrounded the sea. Sea trade flowed from Syria to Spain to North Africa. The Romans kept their "lake" safe from pirates, which allowed trade to grow and enabled the transport of goods from one part of the empire to the other.



Spread of Illness

During the second and third centuries CE, both the Han and Roman Empires suffered large-scale outbreaks of epidemic disease. Diseases such as smallpox, measles, and bubonic plague had a devastating effect because people did not have the immunity or the medicine to combat them. In the second century in the Roman Empire, the population dropped by 25 percent. The effects of these diseases caused great economic and social change. Trade within these empires declined, and their economies became more regionally focused.

MIGRATION OF CULTURES

Bantu Migration

The migration of the Bantu people began around 2000 BCB, and by 1000 CE, the Bantu occupied most of sub-Saharan Africa. Resources were stretched to their limits as the population increased. As a result, groups of people began to leave their homelands (in modern-day Nigeria) to set up new agricultural settlements, and the process repeated itself slowly.

The Bantu people often intermarried with those they came in contact with, and these people often adopted the Bantu language and joined the Bantu society. Around 1000 BCE, the Bantus began to produce iron and iron tools, which enabled them to clear more land and expand agriculture. This led to an increase in population and more migration. Around 500 CE, the cultivation of bananas—which had made their way to Africa via the Indian Ocean trade—enabled the Bantus to expand into heavily forested regions and to continue this migration process. Migration led to an increase in the overall population of Africa—from 3.5 million in 400 BCE to 22 million in 1000 CE—and the spread of agriculture throughout much of Africa. Today there are over 500 distinct (though related) languages that can be traced back to the Bantus.

Polynesian Migration

Humans migrated to Australia around 60,000 years ago via watercraft that could travel the shallow seas. These people developed maritime technology and agricultural expertise and eventually established settlements in the islands of the Pacific Ocean. Beginning around 2000 BCE, the peoples who settled the Polynesian islands migrated to islands such as Vanuatu, Fiji, Samoa, and later Hawaii. Long-distance voyages were taken on double canoes with large triangular sails and a platform between the two hulls for shelter.

▶ AP EXPERT TIP

The city-state form of government is common throughout history. Sumeri, the Maya civilization, medieval Germany, East African Swahili, and arguably modern-day Singapore are all examples of city-states throughout history. Knowing the characteristics of this form of government and comparing historical examples is an example of the type of knowledge the AP exam may ask you to demonstrate.

Some scholars believe that this **settlement** was accidental and caused by sailors being blown off course, while others believe it was a planned colonization. As the migration spread, so did the cultivation of new food crops such as yams, taros, breadfruit, and bananas and the husbandry of domesticated animals such as dogs, pigs, and chickens. The Polynesian islands developed into hierarchical chiefdoms in which leadership was passed down to the eldest son and relatives served as the local aristocracy. Conflict between groups, as well as population pressure, often led to further migration to new islands. The cultures and languages of these widely dispersed islands often adapted and evolved differently.

FALL OF ANCIENT EMPIRES

Han. 220 CE

- · Economic Reasons: Scholar officials were often exempt from taxes, and many peasants fled from tax collectors to these estates. A severe reduction in tax revenue financially crippled the empire. Long-distance trade decreased, but the Chinese were self-sufficient and not severely affected.
- · Political Reasons: The government was unable to check the power of the large private estate owners. The emperor heavily relied on the advice of his court officials and was often misinformed for their personal gain.
- · Social Reasons: The population increase led to smaller family plots and the peasant class had increased difficulty paying taxes
- * Role of Nomads: The Xiongnu invaded, but only after the empire had already fallen. Nomadic invasions took place because the empire was no longer providing people with what they needed

Western Rome, 476 CE

- · Economic Reasons: The rich landowning class often resisted paying their taxes, and when the tax collectors did approach, they were driven away by the landowners' private armies. Also, the church land was not taxable. As the empire declined, so did trade because of unsafe roads. The drop in tax revenue and inflation crippled Rome's economy.
- · Political Reasons: The government had trouble finding bureaucrats who could enforce the laws. Power struggles for the throne plagued the empire. From 235 to 284 ce, 25 out of 26 emperors died violent deaths. The division of the empire into two sections allowed the eastern portion to remain stronger, while the western portion weakened
- Social Reasons: Plagues dramatically reduced the population, in particular the farming population.
- · Role of Nomads: The Roman army could not defend against the movement of such nomadic groups as the Ostrogoths, Huns, and Visigoths. Rome was sacked by the Visigoths in 476 CE.

Gupta, 550 CE

- · Economic Reasons: The government had great difficulty collecting enough taxes to pay the army to protect its borders.
- Political Reasons: The regional powers of the Guptas were allowed to keep much of their administrative power. They eventually grew more powerful than the central government.
- Role of Nomads: The government was too weak to defend against the nomadic invasions of the White Huns.

Also, environmental problems, such as siltation and deforestation, were subtle factors in the collapse of many empires. As agriculture spread, extensive irrigation systems and slash-and-burn farming all took a toll. Agriculture introduced new diseases by allowing for more standing water, creating a breeding ground for mosquitoes and malaria. Contact with cattle and pigs spread measles and smallpox. The bubonic plague spread as rats became common.