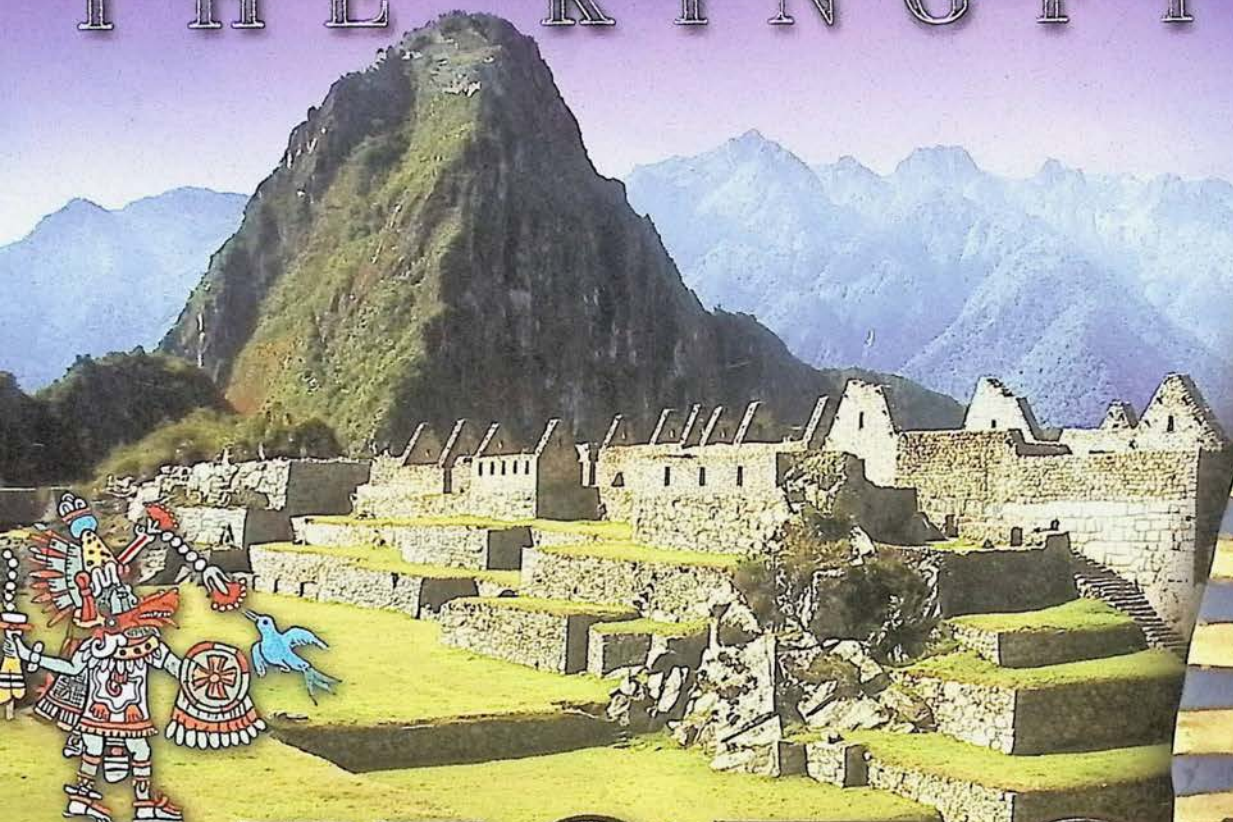


THE KINGFISHER



HISTORY ENCYCLOPEDIA



FULLY REVISED
3RD
EDITION
AND UPDATED

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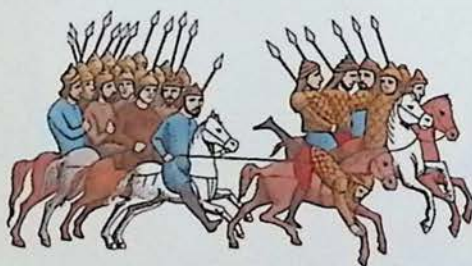
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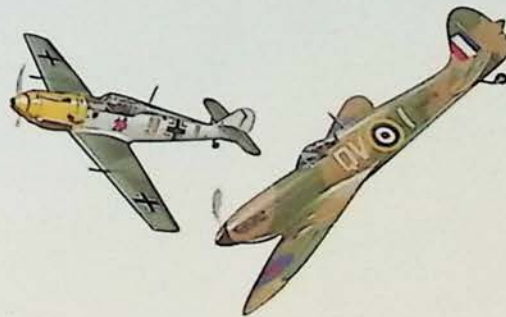
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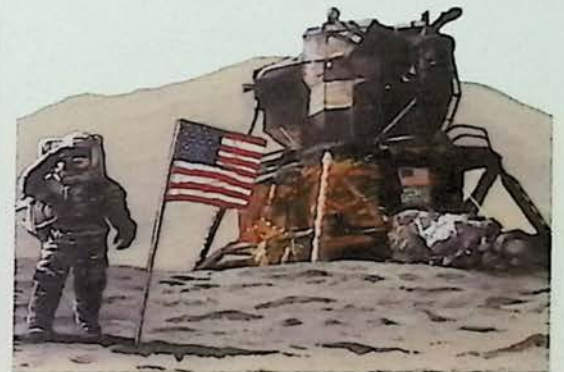
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THE ANCIENT WORLD

40,000–500 B.C.

This is the earliest history of humanity, as it evolved from cave dwellers to village-dwelling farmers to populations in towns, up to and including the first advanced civilizations. It was around 40,000 B.C. that humans first built their own homes, made music, and painted pictures on the walls of caves. It was not until around 8000 B.C. that the first farming and trading villages were built, and another 5,000 years—250 generations—passed before important civilizations appeared in Egypt and Mesopotamia.



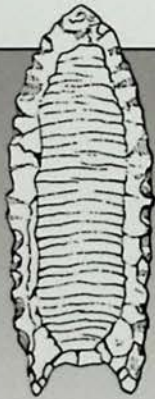
▲ The first peoples lived in caves and made fire by using a bow to spin a stick against another piece of wood to create sparks.

◀ The ancient Egyptians believed in life after death. They worshiped many gods, including Osiris, the god of the dead, whose image is seen here in a painting on the tomb of Horemheb.

THE WORLD AT A GLANCE 40,000 – 500 B.C.

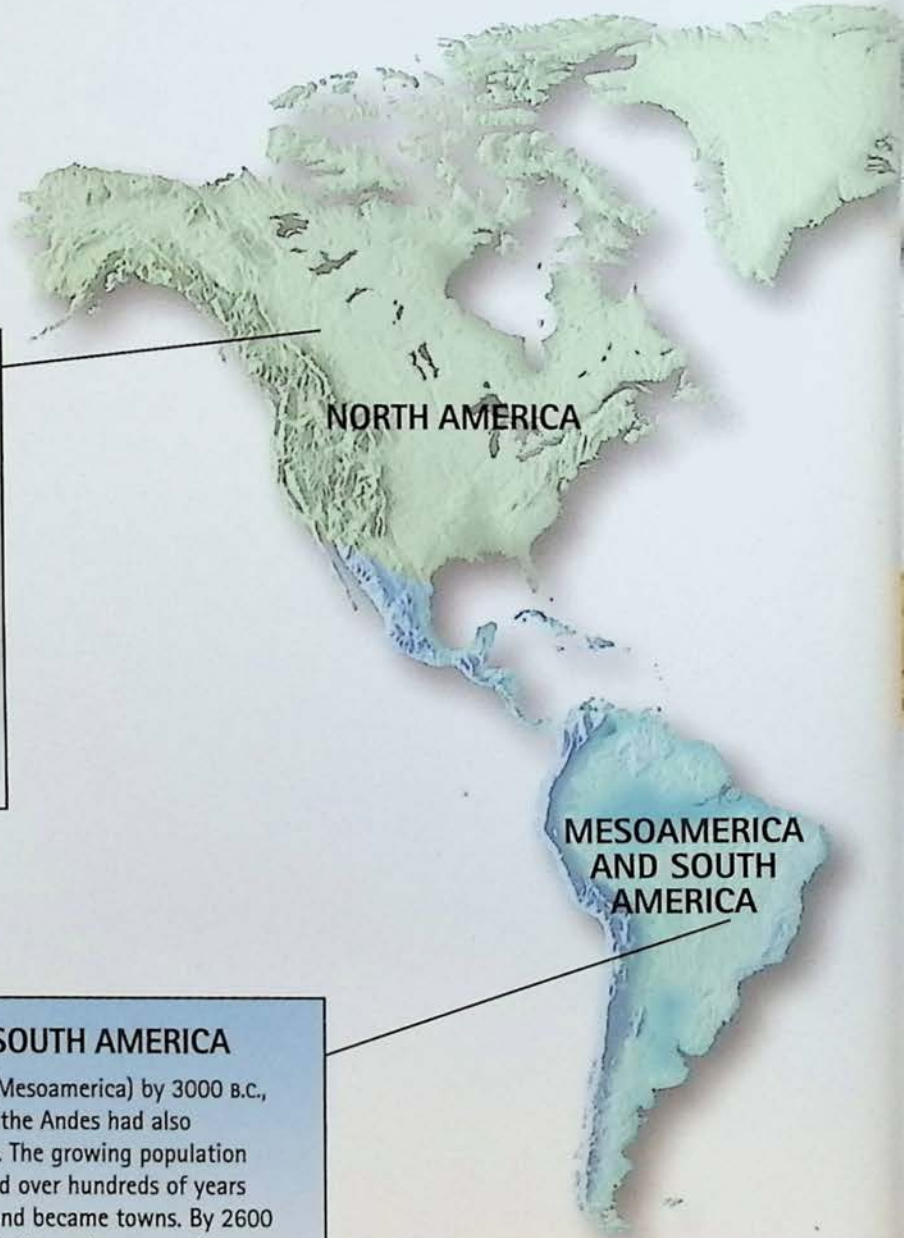
Though there is fossil evidence that the earliest humans evolved at least 130,000 years ago on the continent of Africa, their lives were extremely simple compared to ours. By 40,000 B.C., humans had learned how to use fire to keep themselves warm, cook food, and scare away wild animals. From being hunters and gatherers of wild fruit, berries, and seeds, they slowly found out how to grow crops and keep domestic animals. Around 8000 B.C., life became more complex as farming villages developed in the Middle East. It was much later that other parts of the world developed in this way. During the next 3,000 years, important basic activities such as building, tilling the land, pottery, copperworking, sewing, and animal breeding were introduced.

It was not until 3000 B.C. that the first towns were built, beside rivers in Egypt, Mesopotamia, and China. By 2600 B.C., large constructions such as the pyramids in Egypt, the stone circles in eastern Europe, and the first temples in Peru were built. Around the same time, the people in the kingdom of Kush in East Africa were learning to work metal, and Chinese astronomers first observed an eclipse of the sun. Civilization had come into being.



NORTH AMERICA

In ancient times, North Americans hunted animals and foraged for food on a vast continent with no civilizations. Although these peoples lived off the land, they still had their beliefs, medicines, tools, and simple homes. The first steps toward civilization were made about 700 B.C. by the Adena people in the woodlands of what is now Ohio. They built temple mounds, lived in villages, and worked with copper.



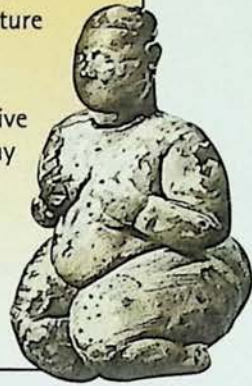
MESOAMERICA AND SOUTH AMERICA

Farming was established in Mexico (Mesoamerica) by 3000 B.C., and by 2000 B.C., the Peruvians of the Andes had also developed farming communities. The growing population lived in permanent villages and over hundreds of years these gradually grew larger and became towns. By 2600 B.C., large temples had been built on the coast of Peru—around the same time as the earliest stone circles in eastern Europe and the pyramids in Egypt began to appear. At the same time, the Olmec civilization emerged in Mexico. By 500 B.C., the Maya in Mexico were also building pyramids.



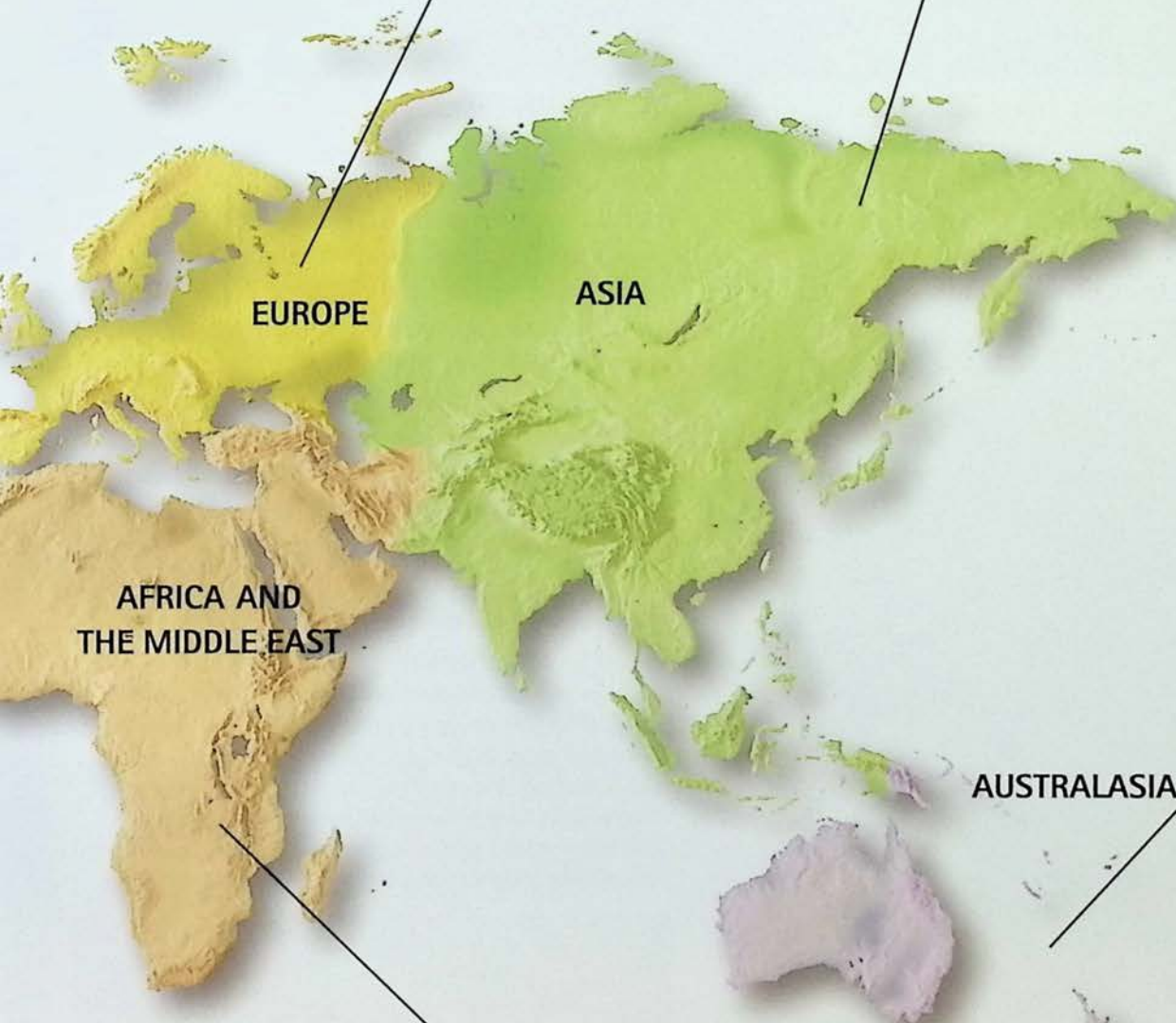
EUROPE

Farming communities sprang up in southeast Europe around 6000 B.C., though it was not until 4000 B.C. that they were established in the northwest. On the Atlantic seaboard, an advanced culture started building mounds and stone circles from around 4000 B.C. The oldest of these are in Ireland, and there are many impressive examples in England, Scotland, and Brittany in France. Later, in the period leading up to 500 B.C., the Celts dominated Europe though the most advanced town-building civilizations were those of the Mycenae in Greece and the Etruscans in Italy.



ASIA

There were four centers of development in Asia. In the Indus Valley (now Pakistan), an advanced civilization developed from around 2600 B.C. Although farming communities flourished in northern China from 4000 B.C., Chinese tradition has it that civilization was started there by the Yellow Emperor around 2700 B.C. The other centers were the Mekong Delta of southeast Asia, where rice-growing had developed, and New Guinea.



AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST

AFRICA AND THE MIDDLE EAST

The earliest known farming communities were established in Mesopotamia (now Iraq), at the crossroads of Europe and Asia. In Sumer, trading towns grew into cities from around 3400 B.C. Along the Nile River, Egypt developed into an advanced civilization that lasted 2,500 years. In other parts of Africa, people lived simpler lives as nomads or hunter-gatherers.

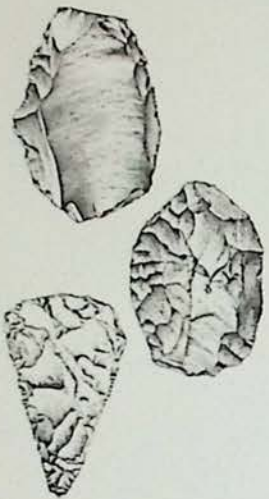


AUSTRALASIA

Of all the people on Earth, the Australian Aborigines have had perhaps the most consistent history of all. They have not seen many of the dramatic changes and events that other cultures have. The Aborigines were spread far and wide across the Australian continent, and survived by foraging and hunting for thousands of years. New Zealand was almost unpopulated. On the Polynesian islands, the seafaring Lapita culture grew adventurous from around 3000 B.C., their people traveling long distances across the ocean to explore remote islands by around 1500 B.C.

THE FIRST HUMANS 40,000–10,000 B.C.

The earliest humanlike creatures evolved over a period of several million years. Our closest true human ancestors have developed only within the last 50,000 years.



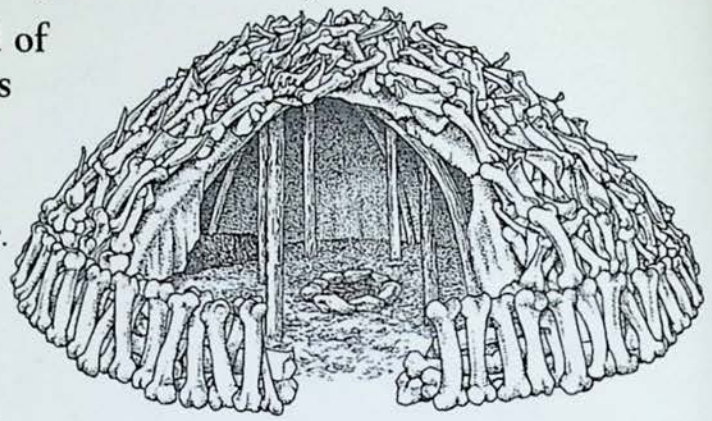
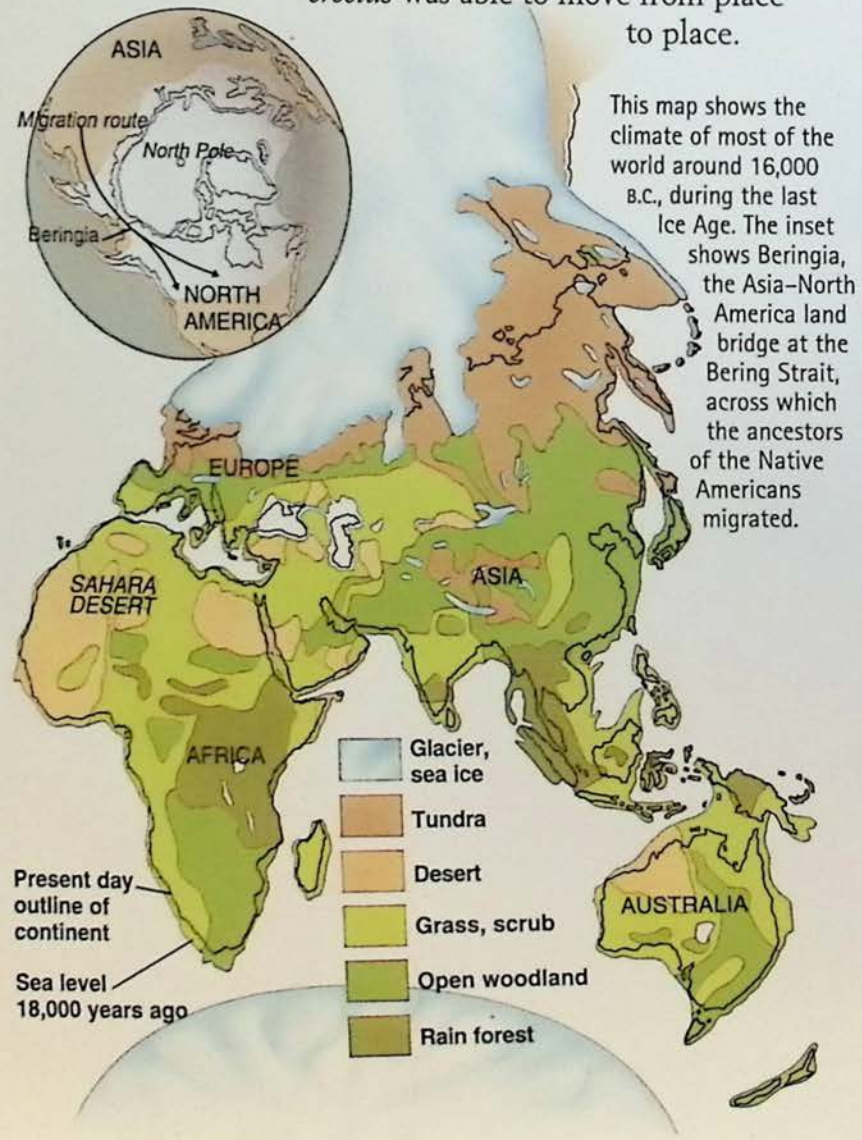
Early peoples used flints of different shapes for making scrapers, knives, arrowheads, and borers.

The earliest hominids (humanlike creatures) were the *Australopithecines*. Many of their bones have been found in East Africa. They walked upright and made simple tools from pebbles. They were probably not true humans because their brains were very small in comparison.

PROTOHUMANS

Homo habilis (handy human) appeared about two million years ago. This hominid had more skills, and lived alongside the last of the *Australopithecines*. The most advanced early human was *Homo erectus* (upright human), and remains have been found in Africa and Asia. By learning to use fire to cook and keep warm, *Homo erectus* was able to move from place to place.

This map shows the climate of most of the world around 16,000 B.C., during the last Ice Age. The inset shows Beringia, the Asia-North America land bridge at the Bering Strait, across which the ancestors of the Native Americans migrated.



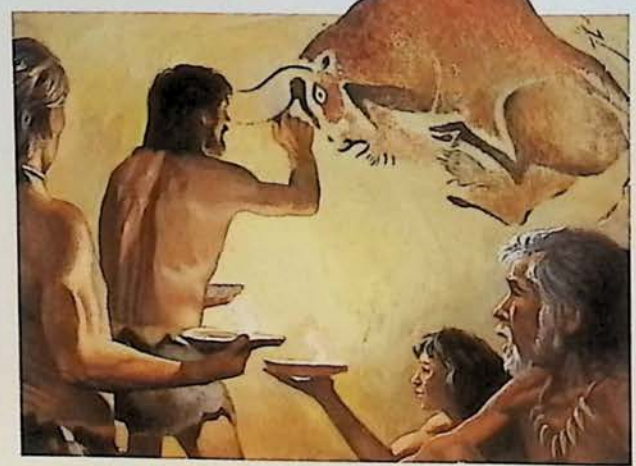
This shelter, discovered in the Ukraine, was made of wood covered with animal skins weighed down with mammoth bones. It was built to survive harsh winters and fierce winds.

NEANDERTHALS

About 200,000 years ago *Homo sapiens* (wise human) developed from *Homo erectus*. At the same time another human type, the *Neanderthal*, adapted to the colder climates of the last Ice Age, spreading through the continent of Europe and the Middle East. The Neanderthals developed many different simple stone tools, though their language was limited. They did not survive into modern times—the last known Neanderthals died out in Spain around 28,000 years ago.

THE ICE AGE

The last Ice Age, at its height around 16,000 B.C., had a major influence on how early people developed. It was the most recent of several ice ages that have occurred over the last 2.3 million years. With much water trapped in ice, the sea level was about 300 ft. (90m) lower than today. As a result there was dry land between Siberia and Alaska, between Australia and New Guinea, and between Britain and Europe, that allowed people to migrate.

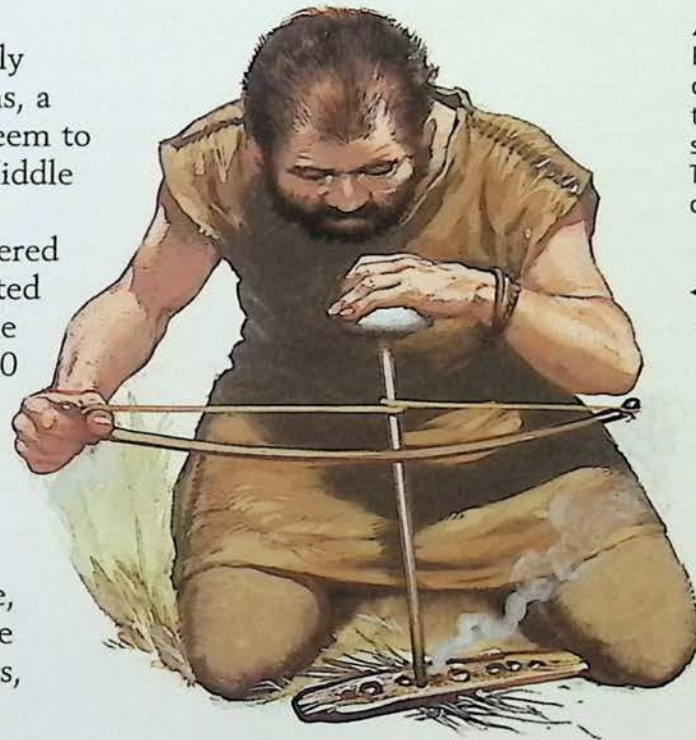


In places such as Lascaux in southwest France, Ice Age people made cave paintings, possibly to honor the spirits of the animals they hunted for food and clothing.



CRO-MAGNONS

The humans of today are probably descended from the Cro-Magnons, a group of hunter-gatherers who seem to have entered Europe from the Middle East and eventually replaced the Neanderthals. These people gathered fruits, berries, and roots and hunted wild animals. They lived in simple caves and shelters. Around 40,000 years ago, they had developed mentally to become more like modern humans, with more ideas and a larger vocabulary. They began creating artworks, including cave paintings in France, Spain, and the Sahara. They made jewelry, figurines, clothes, shelters, tools, and hunting weapons.



▲ This is a tented encampment in eastern Europe about 25,000 years ago. Using this camp as their base, the hunters gathered their food, using skins for clothes and shelter, and bones for tools and ornaments. This way of life demanded teamwork and cooperation among the community.

◀ Using a bow to spin a stick against a piece of wood, heat was built up by friction to create fire. This could take 10–20 minutes.



The Cro-Magnons made jewelry from stones, bones, ivory, shells, and teeth. It was often buried in graves.

Cave-dwelling hunters tackled very large animals, such as mammoths, but they also brought back a variety of smaller animals, including hares and deer.



THE FIRST FARMERS 10,000–4000 B.C.

People's lives changed greatly with the development of agriculture. Slowly they discovered how to domesticate animals and began to cultivate plants for crops.



Early civilizations of the Middle East grew up in the Fertile Crescent, an ideal area for farming and settled village life, for trade, and later for building towns.



People first worshiped mother-goddesses about 25,000 years ago. They believed that, like the Earth, these goddesses gave life to all living things.

The earliest farmers settled nearly 10,000 years ago in the Fertile Crescent in the Middle East. Here people grew wheat and barley. They kept goats, sheep, pigs, and cattle that they used for meat, milk, hides, wool, and to carry things. The improvement in the design of simple tools allowed people to clear land more effectively, build villages, and stay in one place. Later, agriculture developed in fertile areas in China, northwest India, Iran, Egypt, southern Europe, and Mexico.

DOMESTICATION

The first animal to be domesticated was the dog, as early as 10,000 B.C. Dogs were used for herding and as night guards. The horse, goat, and sheep were also domesticated. Farmers learned how to breed animals in order to change their characteristics. A number of species spread as well—chickens and pheasants, for example, originated in the Far East. Meanwhile, some animals, such as aurochs, were hunted to extinction.



Wheat and barley were crossed with grasses to breed new strains. They were used to make bread, the staple of human diet in every early civilization.

IRRIGATION

One of the most important inventions was irrigation, a system of supplying cultivated land with water. Farmers in the Fertile Crescent and Mesoamerica dug channels to carry water to their crops. Using reservoirs and sluiceways, land lying far from rivers could be made fertile. In Egypt and China, annual floods were controlled to provide irrigation. In wetter climates, drainage was also important. After many generations, some farmers started bartering goods with neighbors and travelers, leading to the growth of trade and the founding of the first towns and civilizations.

► Nomadic peoples followed wild herds or moved from season to season. They went where the pickings or the weather were best. They used temporary homes and simple tools. When tribes met they would trade items, hold festivals, and arrange marriages.



◀ In early villages, people thatched their houses, kept their animals in pens and pastures, and tended vegetable patches. They developed new techniques for storing food, fertilizing fields, and making tools.

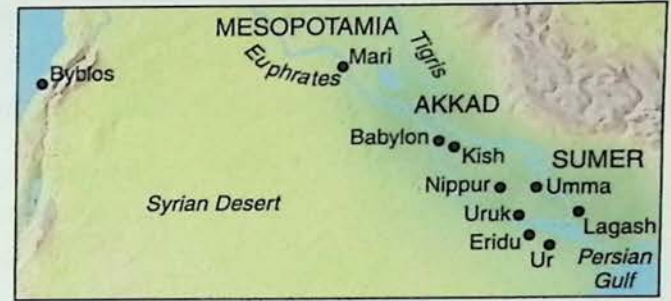
SUMER AND AKKAD 5000–1600 B.C.

The first people to settle in Mesopotamia were the Sumerians more than 7,000 years ago. They built a number of independent city-states—the first civilization.



In 2360 B.C., Sargon of Akkad invaded Mesopotamia, carving out the world's first empire.

The Sumerian civilization consisted of a number of city-states—cities that were also independent nations. Some of these cities lasted for 3,000 years. They were located on important trade routes along the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. Their traders traveled to Egypt and India.



The fertile Tigris and Euphrates river valleys acted as the birthplace of trading cities, extending their influence far and wide—an attractive target for marauding warriors.

SUMERIAN CITIES

Each city-state had fine public buildings, markets, workshops, and water systems. There was a royal palace and a *ziggurat*, on top of which was a shrine dedicated to the god of that city. Around the public buildings were houses. Beyond these lay the farmers' fields and the marshlands of the Mesopotamian rivers.

READING AND WRITING

The Sumerians devised one of the earliest writing systems, *cuneiform*. From about 3200 B.C. they wrote on clay tablets, and scribes held a key role in their society.

Thousands of tablets have survived, containing accounts, records, sacred scripts, and letters. The contents of their graves have shown that the Sumerians were wealthy and their craftspeople skilled.

INTERNAL STRIFE

Around 2900 B.C., with city populations growing, power shifted away from the priesthoods which had been all-powerful—commerce gradually becoming more important than religion. Rivalry between different cities grew, and they fought each other for supremacy. They were also invaded by tribes from Persia, Arabia, and Turkey who wanted to share the cities' wealth and power.

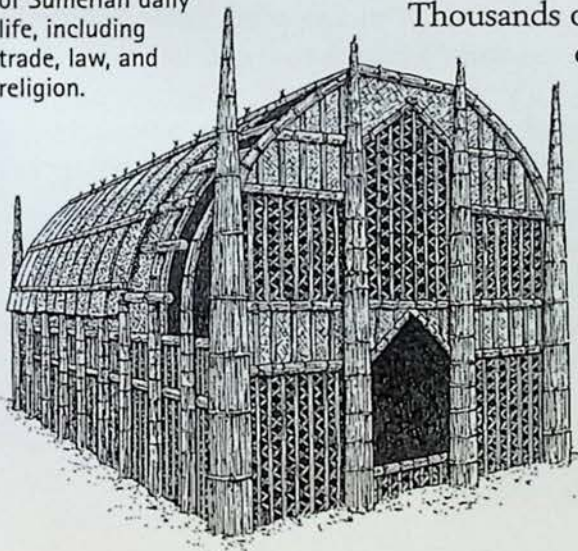
AKKAD AND UR

Eventually, the city of Akkad grew dominant. The city was led by Sargon, who created the world's first empire around 2334 B.C. His rule brought more order—but it also brought cruelty and violence. Around 2100 B.C., as Akkad declined, the city of Ur took its place, rising to prominence for a century.

After its fall, Assyria and Babylon grew to dominate the area.



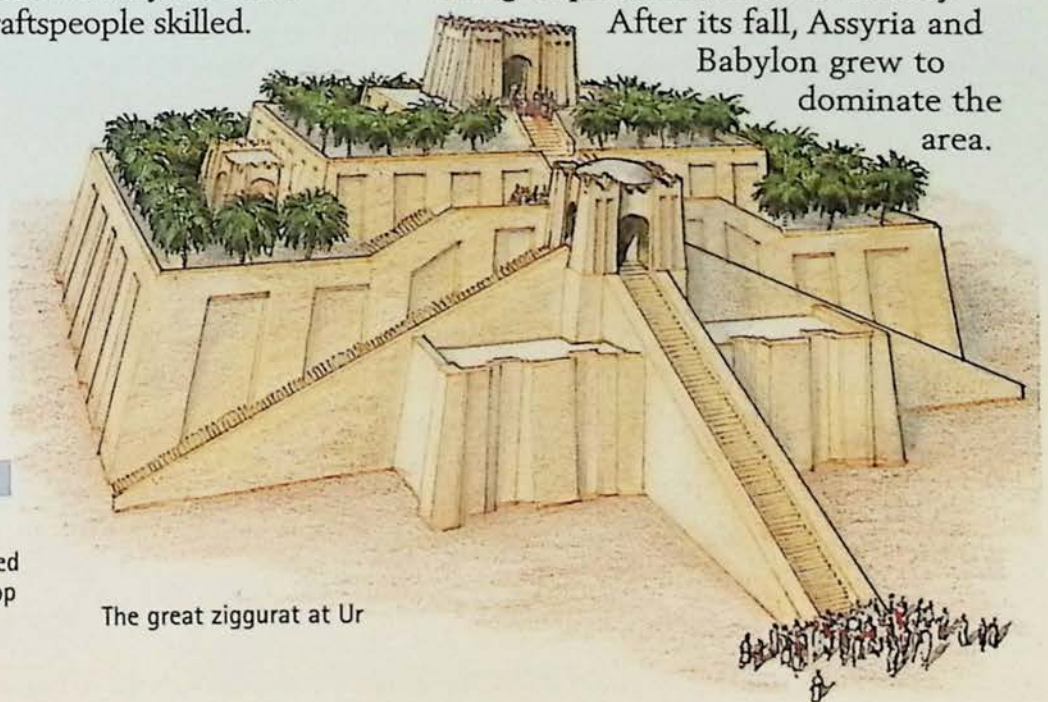
Scribes and accountants were important, and involved in all aspects of Sumerian daily life, including trade, law, and religion.



This reed house was occupied by early Sumerians before bricks were used. Reed houses were still built by Marsh Arabs until recently.

ZIGGURATS

Built of sunbaked clay bricks, ziggurats towered impressively over the river plains. Building them demanded careful architecture and engineering. The shrine at the top was dedicated to the god of the city. Here, priest-kings performed rituals to benefit the cities and their lands and to appease the gods.



The great ziggurat at Ur

ANCIENT EGYPT 4000 – 1800 B.C.

Ancient Egypt was surrounded by deserts, but it was green and fertile because of the Nile River. It flooded every year, depositing rich, silty soil along its banks.



The Egyptians loved to wear lucky charms. Their favorites were carved stone scarabs. The scarab beetle was sacred to the sun god, Ra.

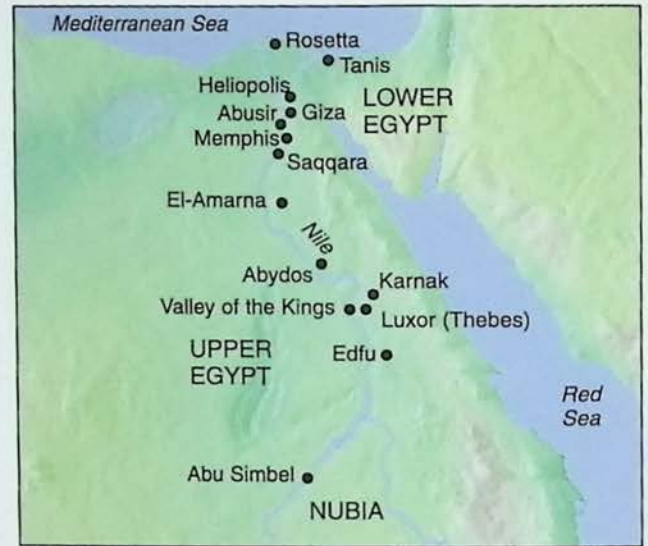
The Egyptians used the Nile for transportation and cultivated the land alongside it. They grew wheat and barley for bread and beer, and flax for linen; they raised cattle as beasts of burden. Egyptians had a highly developed religion and advanced medical, astronomical, and engineering knowledge.

THE PHARAOHS

For most of their history, Egyptians were united in one kingdom. Administrators and priests ran everyday affairs, but the head of society was the pharaoh—a living god. People believed that ceremonies he performed kept the good will of the gods, kept the Nile flowing, and kept society in order. When the pharaoh died, his body was mummified and placed inside a stone sarcophagus in an imposing tomb, along with jewelry, clothing, furniture, and food—everything he would need for eternity. Sacred writings on the tomb walls were meant to protect him in the afterlife.



Papyrus is a stiff paper made from papyrus reeds. The Egyptians glued sheets of it together to make scrolls. Administrative and religious texts were written in hieroglyphs.



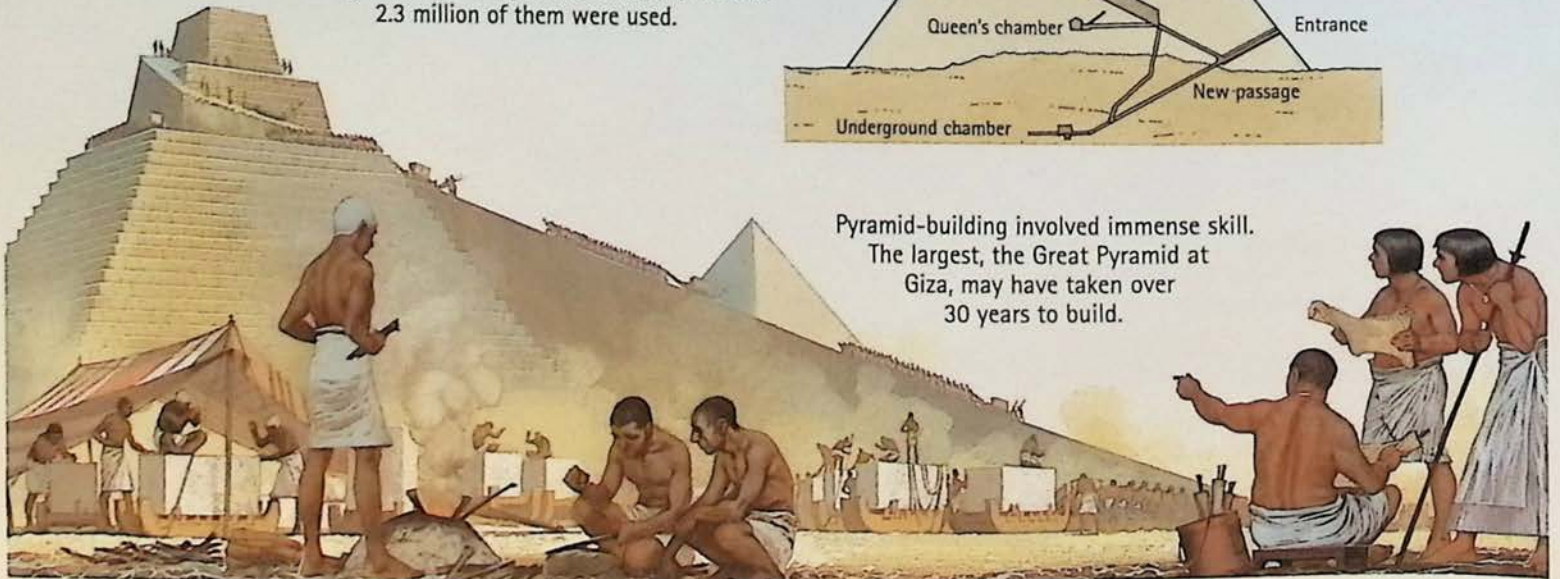
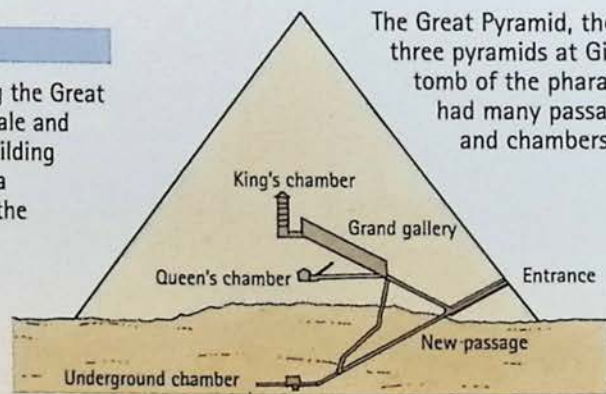
Egyptian civilization hugged the Nile River. The flood plains of the delta were rich and highly populated, though cities stretched a long way up the Nile. Riverboat transportation was important to traders.

EGYPTIAN SOCIETY

Most people in Egypt were farmers. They gave part of their produce to the local temple as taxes. Very few people could read and write, and schooling was only for boys. Those who could write were called scribes. It was they who went on to become the priests and administrators who ran the country for the pharaoh. But at the heart of Egyptian life was communication with the gods.

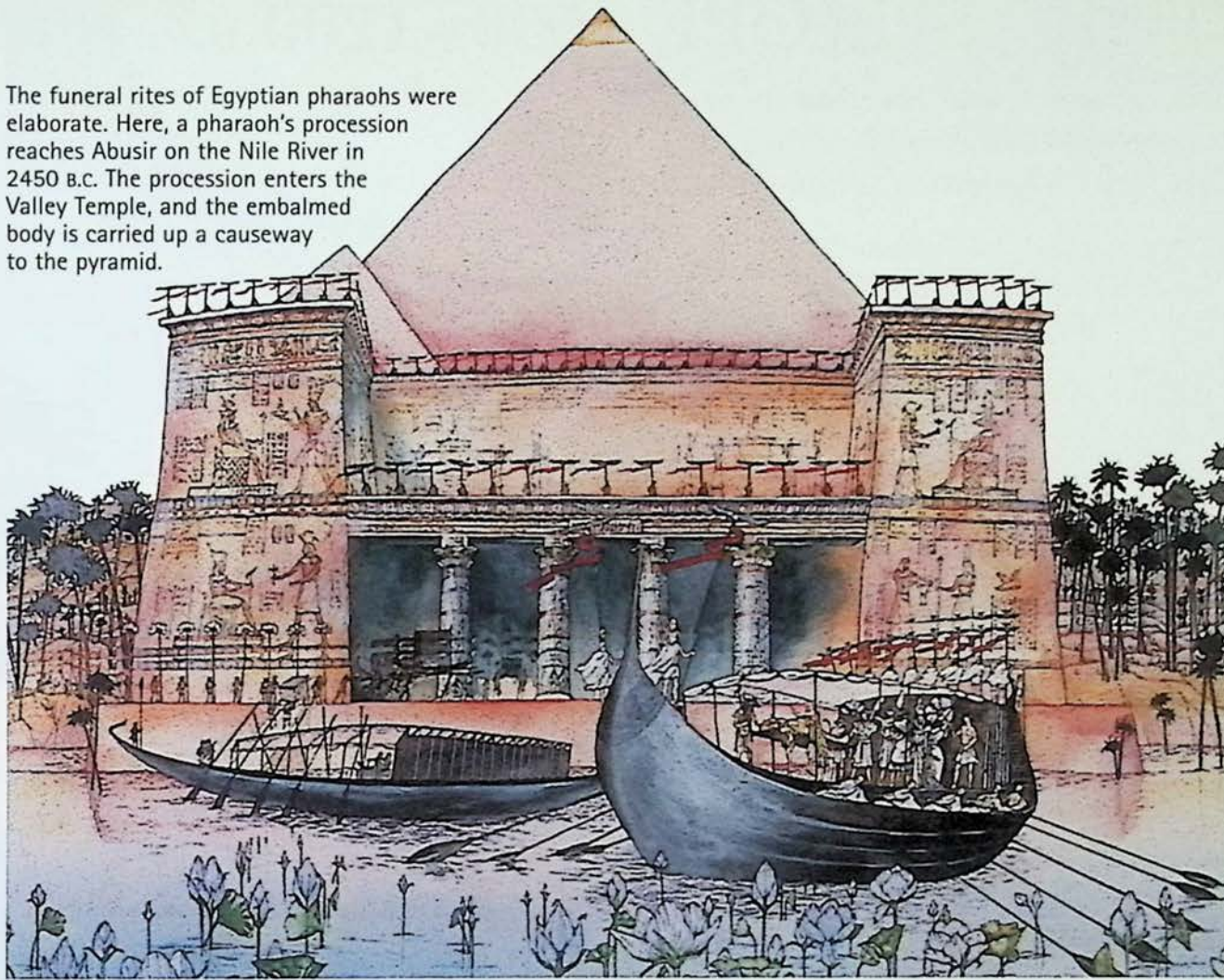
PYRAMIDS

From around 2630 B.C., Egyptians built many pyramids, the most famous being the Great Pyramid at Giza. No one knows exactly why the shape was chosen, but the scale and dimensions suggest astronomical, mathematical, and spiritual purposes. By building such great monuments, the pharaohs sought to please the gods and to leave a significant, permanent mark on history. Some of the long stone blocks above the king's Chamber weighed 60 tons, and around 2.3 million of them were used.



Pyramid-building involved immense skill. The largest, the Great Pyramid at Giza, may have taken over 30 years to build.

The funeral rites of Egyptian pharaohs were elaborate. Here, a pharaoh's procession reaches Abusir on the Nile River in 2450 B.C. The procession enters the Valley Temple, and the embalmed body is carried up a causeway to the pyramid.



Toward this end the Egyptians created remarkable works of stone carving. They built enormous pyramids and temples. Tall obelisks were cut from one block of stone. No effort or expense was spared to honor the gods—or the pharaoh, who was their living link with humanity. The Egyptians developed a way to preserve the body of their god-king, and many building projects were undertaken to provide him with a tomb for his eternal protection. In time, everyone who could afford it would have their preserved bodies placed in tombs, with treasures for the afterlife and sacred scrolls to guide them to it.

RETURN TO GREATNESS

After the time of the first pharaohs and the pyramid builders, there was a decline that lasted for over 100 years. With no strong ruler, the people felt the gods had abandoned them. Then, around 2040, Mentuhotep became pharaoh, brought order, and restored Egypt's greatness. This period was called the Middle Kingdom.

The pharaohs reorganized the country and again built pyramids, although not as large as those at Giza. Some of Egypt's finest art and literature was produced during the Middle Kingdom.

Egypt had been isolated from the rest of the world at this time. Ancient Egyptians were not great travelers, sailors, or conquerors, but great Middle Kingdom rulers such as Amenemhat I and Senwosret III expanded Egypt's boundaries. They built forts to protect the country, and created a strong army. They invaded countries such as Nubia to take control of gold reserves.

KEY DATES

- 3300 Growth of towns in lower Nile valley and development of hieroglyphics
- 3000 Upper and Lower Egypt united
- 2920 The first pharaohs
- 2575 Old Kingdom, capital Memphis—high point of Egyptian civilization
- 2550 The Great Pyramid is completed
- 2040 Middle Kingdom—expansion and development
- 1550 New Kingdom—Egypt at its largest and wealthiest

EGYPTIAN GODS



Horus was the sky-god, and his spirit entered the living pharaoh. His eyes were the sun and the moon.



Ptah, the creator-god, invented the arts. He was the local god of the capital, Memphis.



Hathor, the goddess of love and beauty, once raised the sun up to heaven on her horns.



Isis, sister and wife of Osiris, was the mother of Horus. She had great magical powers.



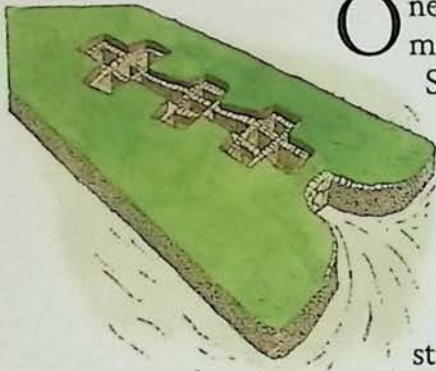
Re-Horakhty, the sun-god and Horus joined together, is shown with the sun on a hawk's head.



Osiris was the god of the dead. In his realm, souls were judged for their worthiness.

MEGALITHIC EUROPE 4500–1200 B.C.

In Spain, France, Ireland, Britain, and Sweden there are ancient megalithic monuments, remains of an ancient civilization that built large stone temples.



Stoney Littleton long barrow, near Bath in southwest England, has several small chambers that would have been used for ancestral burial purposes over a number of years.

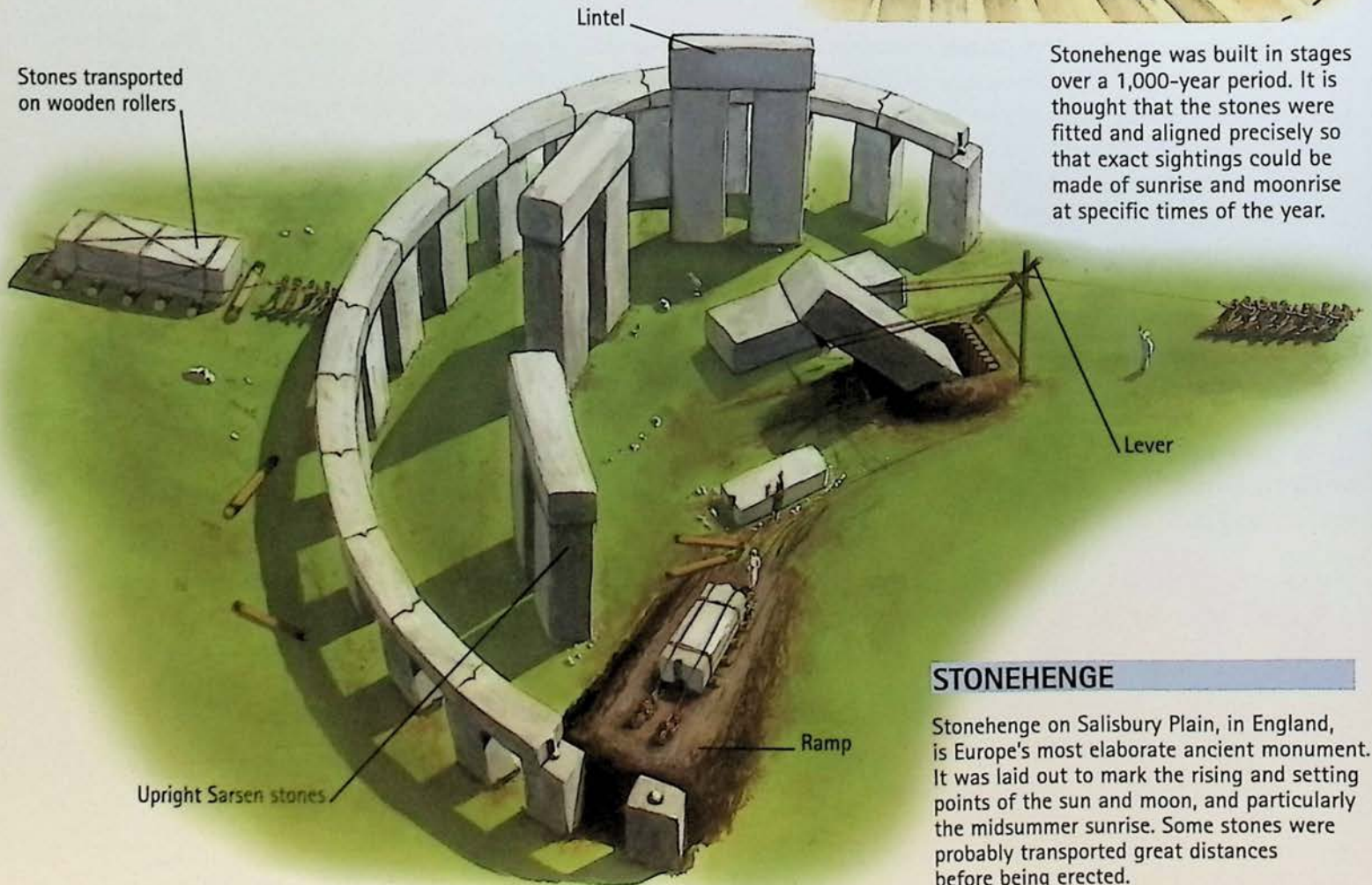
One of the most impressive monuments from this period is Stonehenge, in southern England. It was built in three stages from 3000 B.C. onward, forming a circle of huge, dressed (shaped), upright stones linked by lintels (beams). Scientists think that it was used as a temple, a place to study the stars, and to calculate the calendar. Even older and larger than Stonehenge is the Avebury stone circle, a few miles to the north. It is a much larger ring of stones that have not been dressed.

Many other stone circles in a variety of shapes and sizes are found elsewhere in Britain, with names like the Merry Maidens, Long Meg, and Callanish.



A megalith in Portugal. No one really knows the purpose of these chambers—they were possibly built as tombs, or places for meditation or healing. They range in age from 4,000 to 6,000 years old.

The Ring of Brodgar in the Orkney Islands, off northeast Scotland, is about the same age as Stonehenge. The stones there are all tall, thin, and pointed.



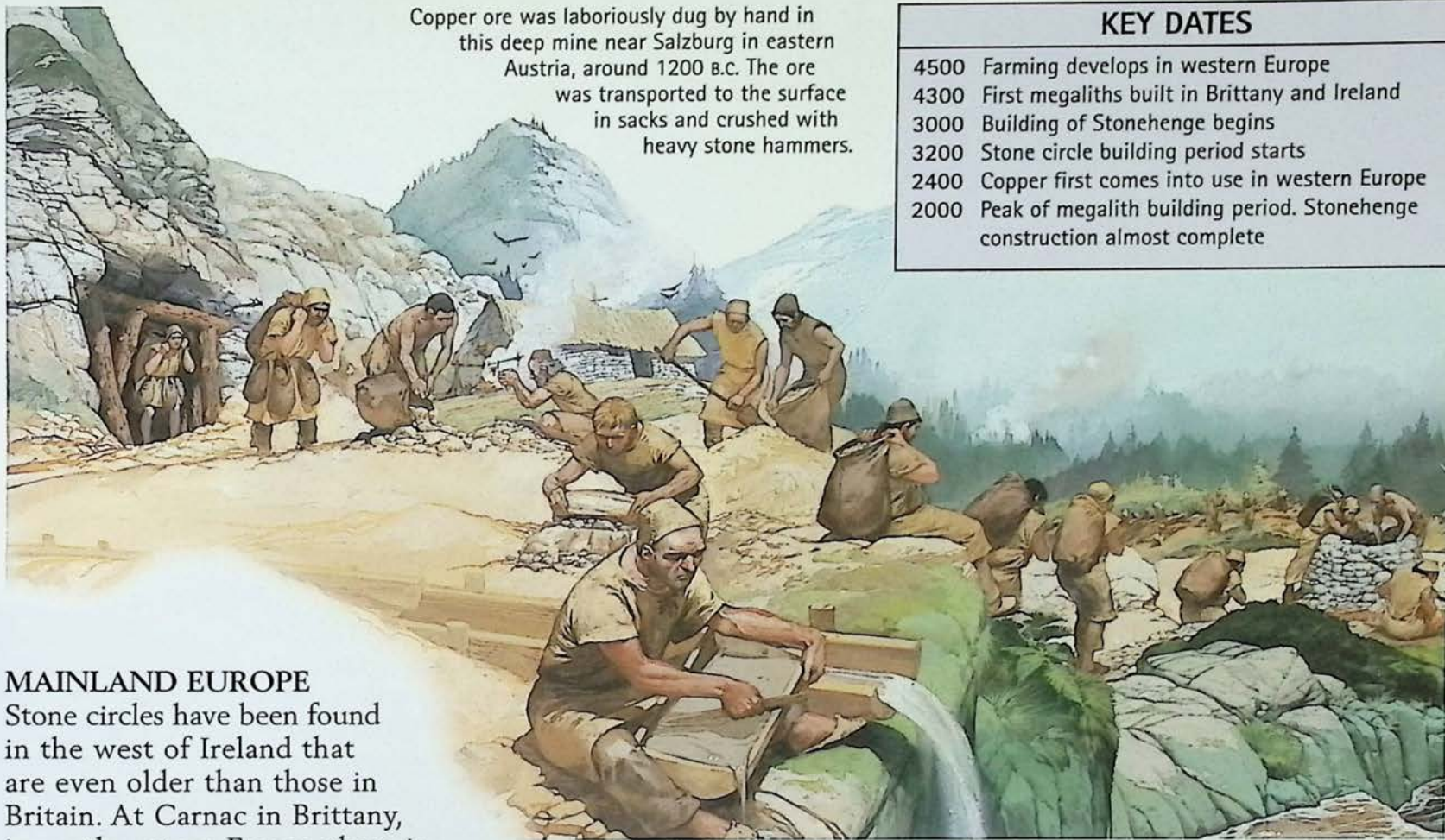
Stonehenge was built in stages over a 1,000-year period. It is thought that the stones were fitted and aligned precisely so that exact sightings could be made of sunrise and moonrise at specific times of the year.

STONEHENGE

Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain, in England, is Europe's most elaborate ancient monument. It was laid out to mark the rising and setting points of the sun and moon, and particularly the midsummer sunrise. Some stones were probably transported great distances before being erected.

Copper ore was laboriously dug by hand in this deep mine near Salzburg in eastern Austria, around 1200 B.C. The ore was transported to the surface in sacks and crushed with heavy stone hammers.

KEY DATES	
4500	Farming develops in western Europe
4300	First megaliths built in Brittany and Ireland
3000	Building of Stonehenge begins
3200	Stone circle building period starts
2400	Copper first comes into use in western Europe
2000	Peak of megalith building period. Stonehenge construction almost complete



MAINLAND EUROPE

Stone circles have been found in the west of Ireland that are even older than those in Britain. At Carnac in Brittany, in northwestern France, there is an impressive series of avenues made up of 3,000 large stones, stretching for several miles. Brittany also has many single standing stones, called menhirs. Standing stones are found all over Europe from Spain to Ireland and Scotland to Sweden.

Many stone chambers (barrows) were covered with soil to make a mound—they are found in France, Ireland, and England. There are also “quoits,” made up of three vertical stones with a single large slab balanced on top.

Another remarkable collection of megalithic monuments is in Malta. Some of the oldest have walls made of massive stones. Several of the temples contain dressed stones carved with simple designs. The most remarkable Maltese monument is the Hypogeum, an underground temple carved on three levels deep into the rock.

The remains of megalithic homes have been found at Skara Brae in the Orkney Isles north of Scotland. These stone houses were engulfed in sand and preserved for thousands of years. They have helped us to reconstruct a picture of life in ancient times.



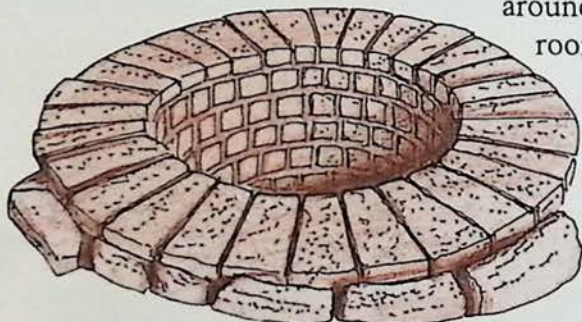
THE INDUS VALLEY 4000–1800 B.C.

The early peoples of the Indian subcontinent lived on the banks of the Ganges and Indus rivers. The first civilization sprang up in the Indus Valley, now in Pakistan.



The two largest cities in the Indus Valley around 2000 B.C. were Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa, each with around 40,000 people. They were among the world's largest cities at the time. At the center of each lay an artificial mound which served as a citadel (stronghold). On this mound stood a large granary which, to the population, served as a kind of central bank. These forgotten cities were only discovered in the 1920s.

Indus seals like this were attached to bales of merchandise. They have been found not only in Mohenjo-Daro, but also as far away as Sumer. This is evidence of a wide trade network.



Brick-lined shafts like this are found in the courtyards of Mohenjo-Daro. They may have been wells or used for cool storage of grains and oil.

CITY LAYOUT

Around the citadel the city buildings were arranged in a grid pattern—administration buildings, markets, storage areas, workshops, houses, and temples. Each house was built around a courtyard, and had rooms, a toilet, and a well. Buildings were



The climate was wetter in the Indus Valley than today. The rivers were used not only for trade and transportation, but also for irrigation of the flat lands of the valley.

made from mud bricks baked in wood-fired ovens. The citadel at Mohenjo-Daro had a bathhouse, as well as private and public baths and meeting places.

These ruins are all that remain of the 4,000-year-old city of Mohenjo-Daro.



FARMERS AND CRAFTWORKERS

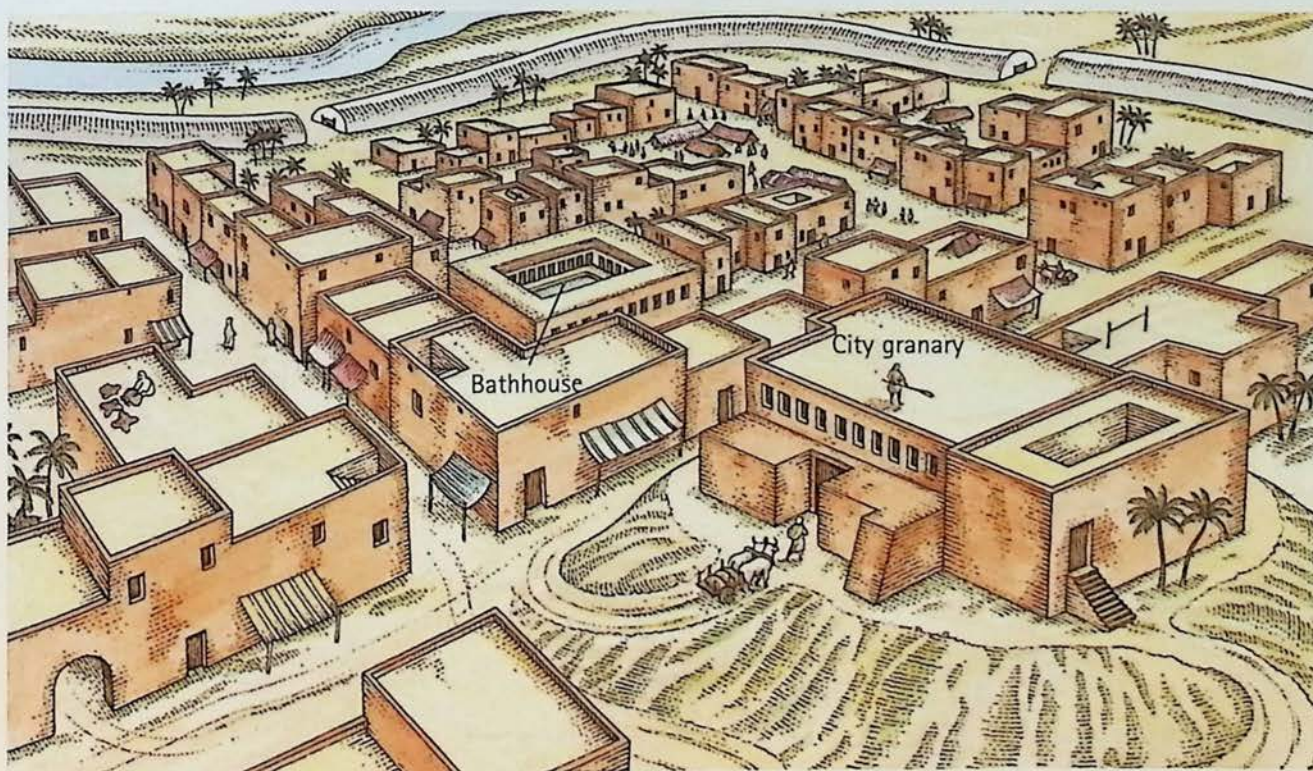
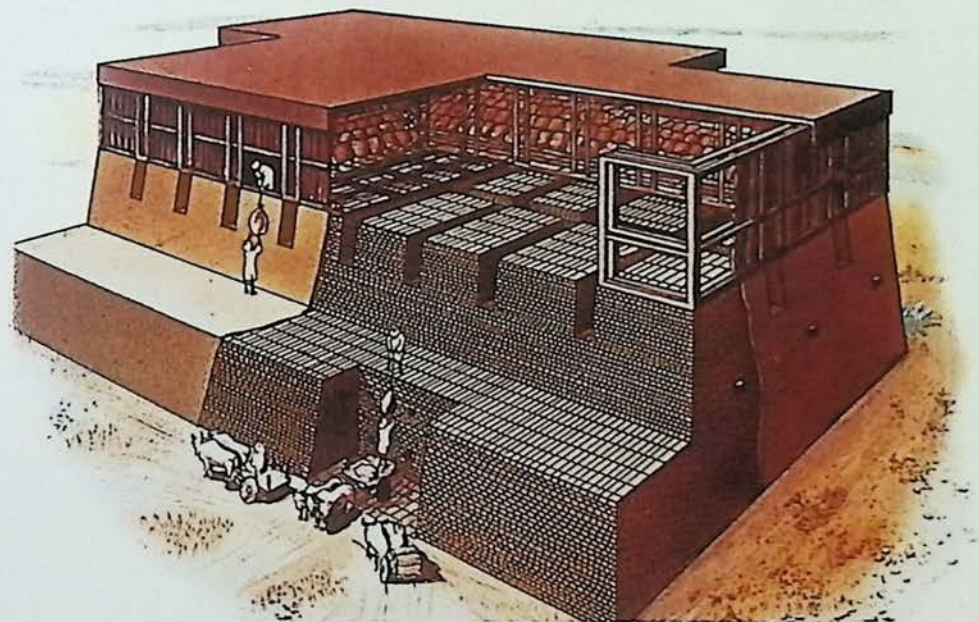
Among other crops, the farmers of the Indus Valley grew barley, wheat, cotton, melons, and dates. Elephants and water buffalo were tamed to work in the fields. The area had many skilled potters who used wheels for throwing pots—a new technology at the time. Harappans used stone tools and made knives, weapons, bowls, and figures in bronze. They had an advanced system of waste-disposal that included the building of covered drains and the installation of garbage chutes.



These are the excavated remains of the Great Bath at Mohenjo-Daro. The people appear to have placed great importance on hygiene and access to water. They may also have used the baths for sports and ceremonies.

THE END OF A CIVILIZATION

No one knows who the people of the Indus Valley were or where they came from. We do not understand their writing, either. The area had similarities to Sumer, but also major differences. The city dwellers traded with the cities of Sumer; they also traded with the tribespeople of India and central Asia. The Indus Valley civilization lasted 800 years, but came to an end about 3,700 years ago. No one knows why it ended, but there are various possible causes: floods; disease; a breakdown in trade, the economy, or civil order; or immigration and takeover by the Aryans who moved into India from central Asia. All trace of the cities lay buried under sand until they were rediscovered in the 1920s.



▲ The storehouses at the center of the cities were very valuable to the inhabitants—they could have had religious as well as practical significance, since grain may have been regarded as sacred.

◀ An artist's impression shows Mohenjo-Daro at the height of its prosperity. Unlike Sumerian cities, it was built in a grid pattern, suggesting orderly government and planning. The bathhouse had its own indoor well, and what seems to have been a granary had a sophisticated storage and ventilation system.

ANCIENT CRETE 3000–1450 B.C.

The earliest European civilization began on the island of Crete about 4,500 years ago. It is called the Minoan civilization after the legendary King Minos.

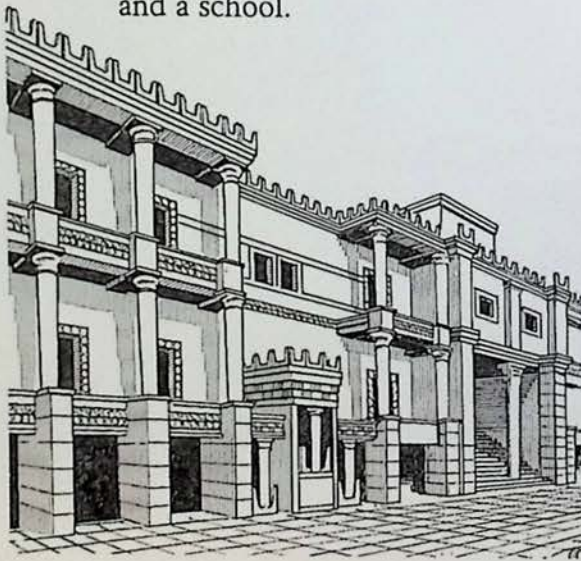


This figure was found at Knossos. It combines the snake cult of Crete and worship of the mother-goddess. The figure itself wears the typical clothing of a Minoan woman.

Stories say that Minos built a labyrinth (maze) in which he kept a Minotaur, a creature with the head of a bull and the body of a man. The Minoan civilization was at its height from 2200 to 1450 B.C. The Minoans owed their prosperity to their abilities as seafarers and traders.

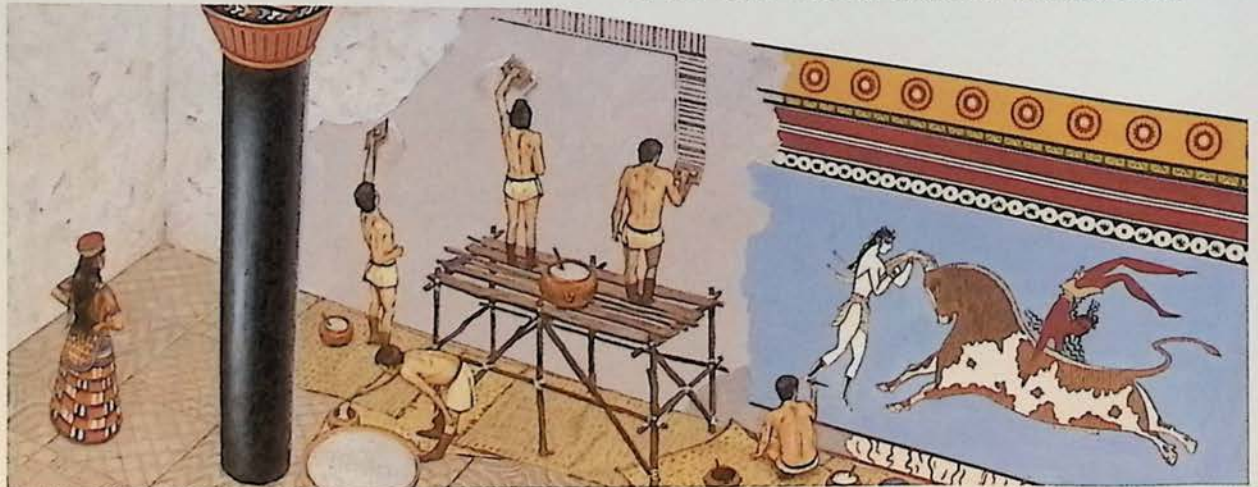
MINOAN CITIES

The Minoans built several large cities connected by paved roads, each of them a small city-state. At the heart of each city was a palace with a water supply, decorations, windows, and stone seats. Minoan craftsmen were renowned as potters and builders. They also made beautiful silver and gold jewelry. The capital, Knossos, had the grandest palace. It had splendid royal apartments, rooms for religious ceremonies, workshops, and a school.



The massive royal palace at Knossos, 500 ft. sq. (150m sq.), was several stories high and built from wood, stone, and clay. A large courtyard, was in the center. Royal apartments were on the east of the court, on the first floor.

The walls of the state rooms at Knossos were elaborately decorated. The wall painting shows the sport of bull leaping. The bull was a sacred symbol of power, and the ability to vault over its horns symbolized the mastering of its strength.



Crete was well placed for trading with and influencing other areas. In the end, this was the Minoans' undoing, since the Mycenaeans envied their civilization and eventually invaded.



Minoans were expert shipbuilders. They traveled around the Aegean Sea and to Egypt in boats like this, carrying their pottery and other craftworks far and wide.

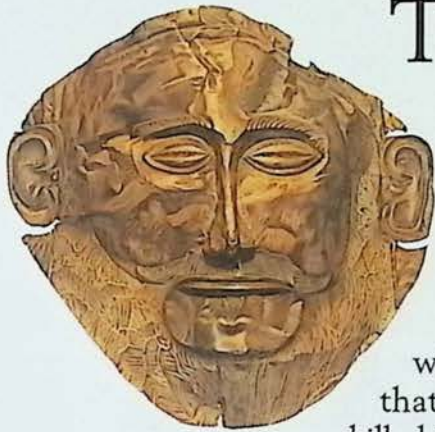
The internal walls of the palace were plastered and decorated with large, magnificently painted pictures.

DOWNFALL OF A CIVILIZATION

Advanced Minoan civilization came to a sudden and mysterious end in about 1450 B.C. A volcanic eruption on the nearby island of Thera had already been a major disaster, overwhelming much of Crete. The end came when Knossos was invaded by the Mycenaeans who greatly admired the Minoans and took their ideas to the European mainland. In Crete lay the roots of the later Greek classical civilization.

THE MYCENEANS 2000–1200 B.C.

Mycenae was a city on the southern peninsula of Greece. It was the center of the first Greek civilization, which developed after that of the Minoans in Crete.



This gold mask was found in a grave in Mycenae by archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann. He thought it was Agamemnon's mask—modern scholars think it belonged to a man who lived 300 years earlier.



This beautiful gold goblet from Mycenae clearly demonstrates the skill of the local craftsmen.

The Mycenaeans (known as Achaeans) migrated to Greece from the Balkans around 2000 B.C. Mycenaean civilization began as a series of hillside villages occupied by people speaking an ancient form of the Greek language. By about 1650 B.C., many villages had grown into fortified towns, with rich palaces and luxurious goods that rivaled those made by the highly skilled Minoans. Mycenae consisted of about 20 city-states.

MYCENAEAN TOMBS

Before they built fortresses and cities the Mycenaeans buried their leaders in elaborate “beehive tombs.” These were built of large stone blocks, shaped to form a great dome. One tomb at Mycenae, the Treasury of Atreus, has a doorway nearly 20 ft. (6m) high, that opens into a chamber 43 ft. (13m) high and 46 ft. (14m) wide. It was once lined with bronze plates. The richness of these tombs shows that a great deal of money and effort was spent on royalty and the aristocracy. One

This reconstruction shows the city of Mycenae as it probably looked at the height of its power. The royal palace on the hilltop was built on several levels.

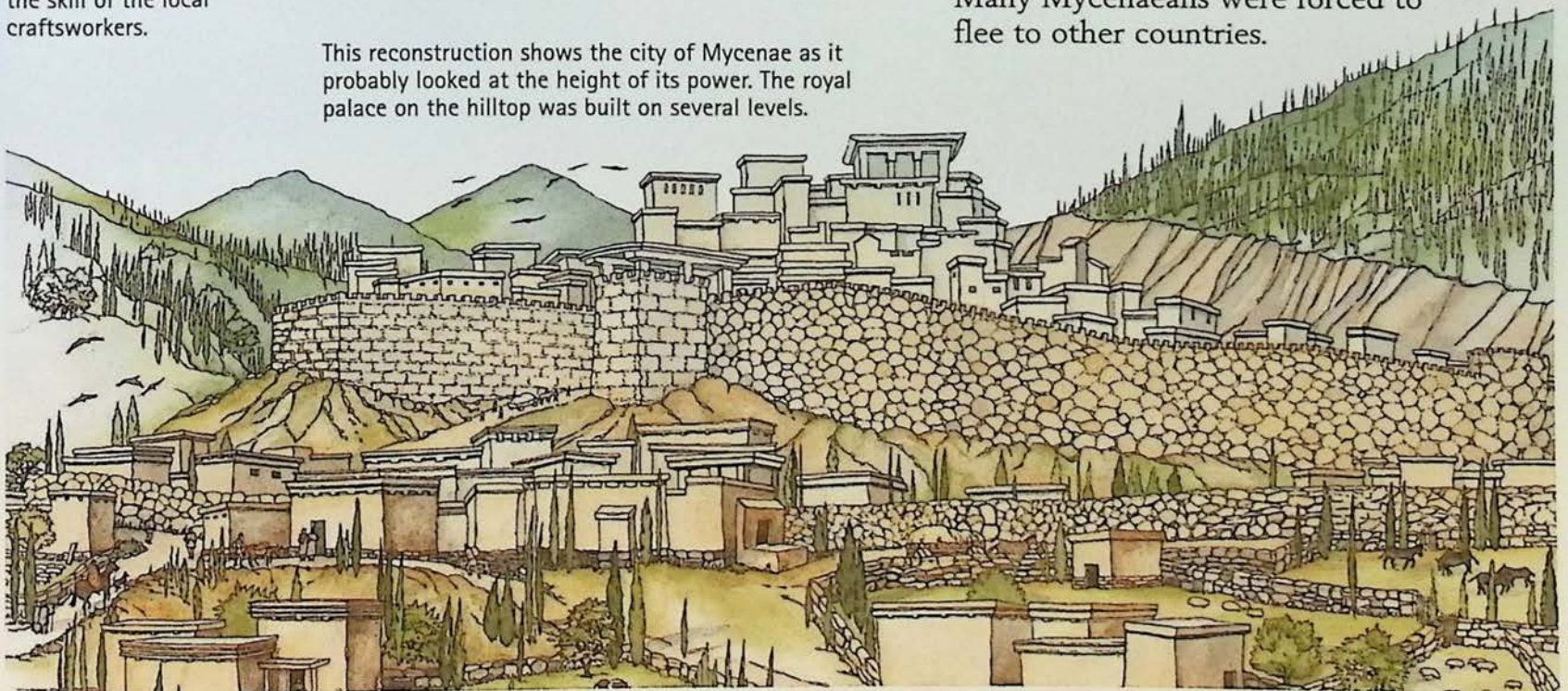


The ruins of the Lion Gate at Mycenae, the main entrance to the city, built around 1300BC. It was one of the few ways through the walls, which were built with huge stones and were easy to defend.

king had as many as 400 bronzesmiths and hundreds of slaves. Wealthy Mycenaeans treasured the gold that they imported from Egypt. Skilled craftworkers made gold cups, masks, flowers, and jewelry; even their swords and armor were inlaid with gold.

EXPANSION AND DOWNFALL

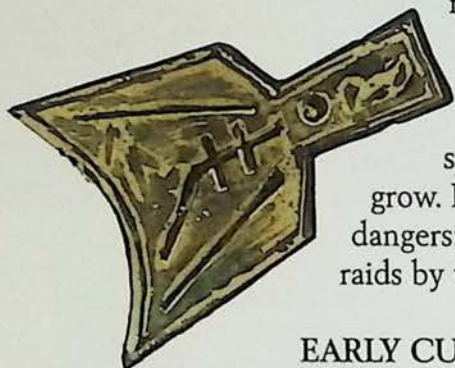
Around 1450 B.C., the Mycenaeans conquered Crete and established colonies around the Aegean Sea and on the islands of Rhodes and Cyprus. They traded throughout the Mediterranean, particularly with Phoenicia, Egypt, and Italy. However, around 1200 B.C., Mycenae fell to invading wandering raiders called the Sea Peoples. Many Mycenaeans were forced to flee to other countries.



SHANG DYNASTY 1766–1122 B.C.

The earliest civilizations in China from around 3200 B.C. grew up on the banks of the three largest rivers: the Huang He, Chang Jiang, and Xi Jiang.

Like the people of Sumer, Egypt, and the Indus Valley, Chinese farmers relied on the country's rivers for transportation and water to grow their crops—paddy fields needed floods in springtime to help the rice grow. But the Chinese also faced two dangers: major floods and devastating raids by tribes from the north and west.



A piece of bronze Shang money, cast in the shape of a spade. This may have been made to slot into a case or sheath where several coins would be kept.

EARLY CULTURES

The first small towns appeared around 3000 B.C., during the Longshan period, around the Huang He (Yellow River) in the north. According to tradition, Huangdi, the Yellow Emperor, was the first emperor from around 2700 B.C. The first dynasty was that of the Xia (Hsia), who ruled for four centuries from 2200 B.C. Yu, its founder, is credited with taming the rivers by building dikes to stop floods, and also irrigation channels.

TANG AND THE SHANG

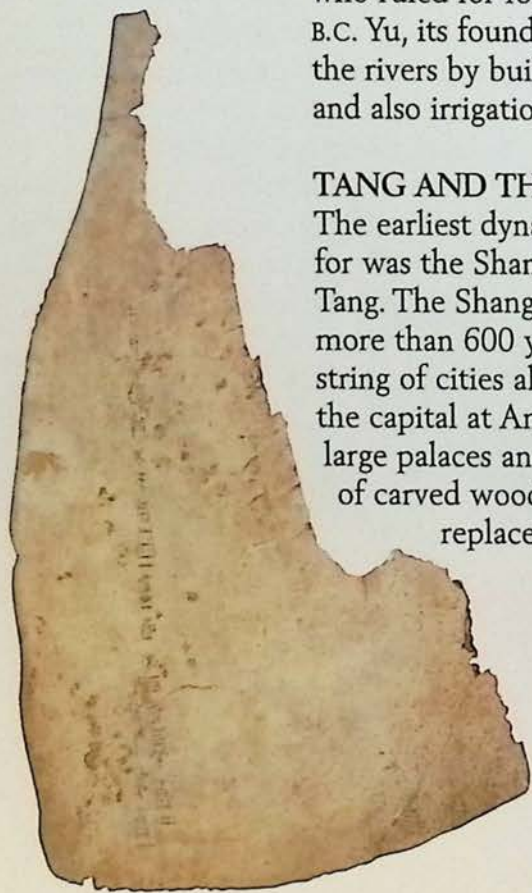
The earliest dynasty we have evidence for was the Shang, founded by Emperor Tang. The Shang ruled north China for more than 600 years. They lived in a string of cities along the Huang He, with the capital at Anyang. The city had many large palaces and temples, built mainly of carved wood. The Zhou dynasty replaced the Shang in 1122 B.C.



Shang civilization was based around the Huang He River in the north, though it also influenced central China. Later, the Zhou dynasty extended control over a larger area.

The Shang people grew millet, wheat, and rice, and also mulberries for feeding silkworms, from which they produced silk. They kept cattle, pigs, sheep, dogs, and chickens, and hunted deer and wild boar. The Shang used horses to draw plows, carriages, and chariots. Early in their history, they used cowrie shells as money, later switching to bronze. They were skilled in working bronze and jade, and made highly decorated practical and religious objects.

▼ Tradition says that silk was discovered by Empress Xiling Ji around 2690 B.C. She was the wife of the legendary Yellow Emperor, Huangdi, who was reputed to have brought civilization, medicine, and writing to China. The empress found that silkworms fed on mulberry leaves, so she had mulberry groves planted. Silk was spun into a fine textile that was so valued it was even used as a form of money. Silk manufacture remained a closely kept secret by the Chinese for about 3,000 years.



This is an oracle bone from the 1300s B.C. Large numbers of these have been found, engraved with early Chinese pictograms (picture writing). Diviners used these to interpret the future.

KEY DATES

- 3000 The first Chinese towns appear, during the Longshan culture
- 2700 Huangdi, the "Yellow Emperor," becomes emperor
- 2200 Period of Xia dynasty—Yu is the emperor
- 1766 Foundation of the Shang dynasty by Emperor Tang
- 1400 Peak of the Shang period
- 1122 Zhou dynasty displaces the Shang

BRONZE

Bronze is a mixture of copper and tin, which, when polished, looks like gold. The Shang became strong through their bronze-working, since it was a hard metal with many uses in tools, household items, and weapons. Bronze was also used for adornments, artistic, and religious items. It was cast in clay molds carved with patterns. Across the world, bronze represented a technological breakthrough.



▼ When found in 1970, this bronze vessel held well over 300 pieces of jade. It was designed during the Shang period as a vessel for storing large amounts of wine and was known as a *pou*. The high quality and intricate design show that by this time bronze casting was a highly developed art. Other bronze vessels, called *jue*, with three legs and a long spout, were used for pouring wine during ceremonies.

▲ The ancient Chinese cooked sacrificial food in large bronze decorated vessels like this one. It had long legs so that it could stand over a coal fire.



CHINESE WRITING

Around 1600 B.C., the Shang developed the earliest forms of Chinese calligraphy—a pictorial writing in which each letter represents a whole word. The Chinese script we know today evolved from Shang writing. The Shang worshiped their ancestors, who were seen as wise guides for their way of life, and they used oracles to help them make decisions.



Shang warriors fought in cumbersome armor made of bamboo and wood, padded with cloth. Early Chinese were warlike, and tribes used to fight long feuds. Centralized states such as the Shang developed to stop the feuding between warlords.

THE HITTITES 1600–1200 B.C.

Around 1650 B.C., a number of small city-states were united, through warfare. The result was the rich and powerful Hittite kingdom.



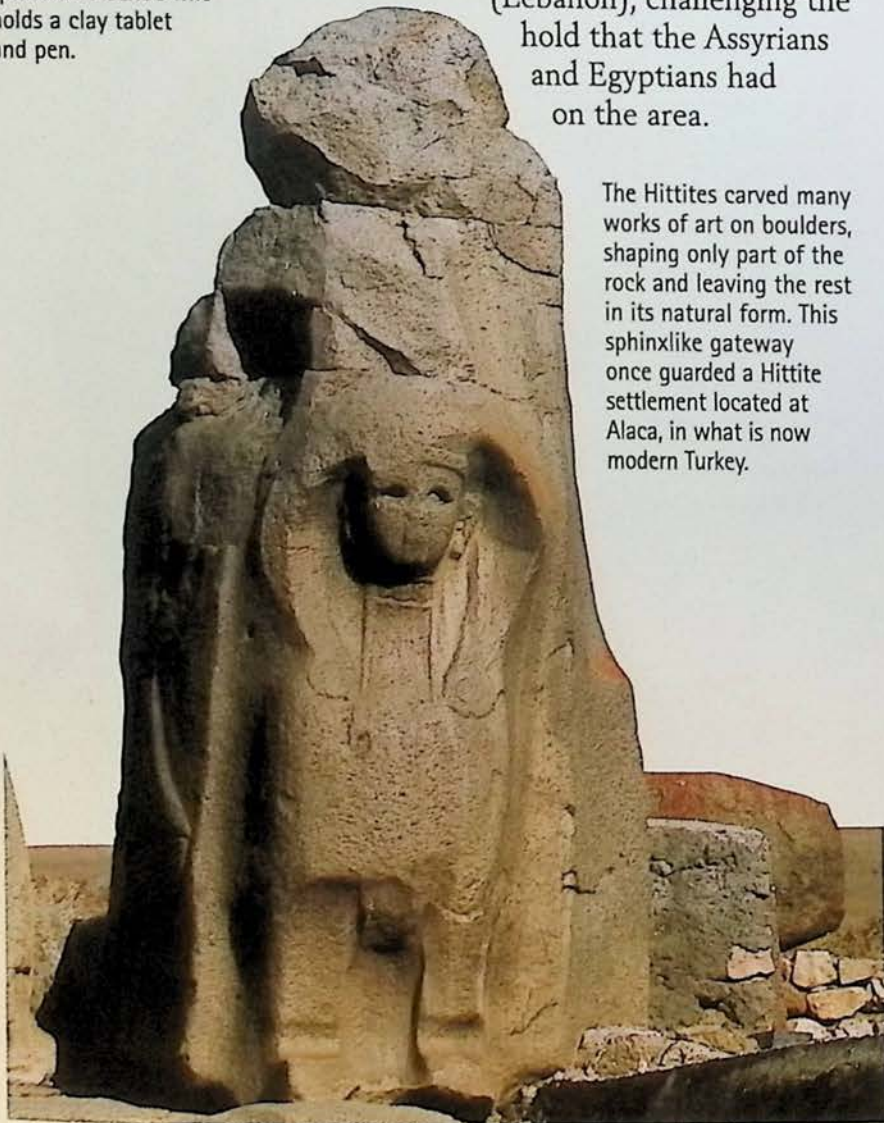
This Hittite stela (carved standing stone) from Anatolia (Turkey) shows a woman doing her spinning, while she speaks to a scribe who holds a clay tablet and pen.

The Hittites consisted of several tribes and they spoke as many as six languages among them. One was the language of the Hatti, the original occupants of Anatolia. The Hittites were the first use iron—a metal that replaced the softer bronze.

THE HITTITE EMPIRE

The Hittites were a warlike people. They controlled the supply of iron, and they used chariots, which gave them a great military advantage. They worshiped around 1,000 gods, chief of which was a storm-god. Early on, in 1595 B.C., they sacked Babylonia, plummeting it into a dark age. Gradually they conquered Anatolia, Syria, and the Levant (Lebanon), challenging the hold that the Assyrians and Egyptians had on the area.

The Hittites carved many works of art on boulders, shaping only part of the rock and leaving the rest in its natural form. This sphinxlike gateway once guarded a Hittite settlement located at Alaca, in what is now modern Turkey.



The Hittite territories at their peak, around 1300 B.C. They fought with the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Phrygians, and their empire disappeared in less than a century.

The Hittites adopted civilized ways, such as writing, from other peoples. They also introduced the horse into the Middle East from China. Men were dominant in society, and they were rich and well traveled. The Hittites reached their peak around 1300 B.C. The Hittites survived many threats until they fell to the Sea Peoples. Finally, they were destroyed and occupied by the Phrygians, who came from the Balkans, to the north. The Hittites were never heard of again, but they had had a strong influence on their neighbors.



This Hittite rock-carved relief at Yazilikaya shows the protector-god Sharruma with the goddess Ishtar in the background. The relief was carved around 1250 B.C.

BABYLON 1900–700 B.C.

Ur's domination of Mesopotamia was followed by many invasions. Around 1894 B.C. the Babylonians replaced their rulers with a dynasty that lasted 300 years.



A local boundary stone from Babylon is carved with prayers that ask the gods to protect the owner's land.

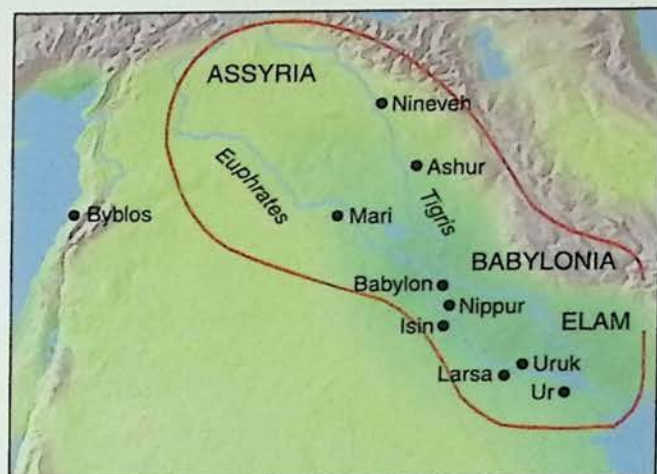
The Babylonians began to dominate southern Mesopotamia under their sixth ruler, Hammurabi the Great (1780–50 B.C.). He was a highly efficient ruler, famous for the code of laws that he laid down, and he gave the region stability after turbulent times.

Babylon became the central power of Mesopotamia. The armies of Babylonia were well-disciplined, and they conquered the city-states of Isin, Elam, and Uruk, and the strong kingdom of Mari. But Mesopotamia had no clear boundaries, making it vulnerable to attack. Trade and culture thrived for 150 years, but then the Hittites sacked Babylon in 1595 B.C.



Hammurabi was famous for his detailed code of laws. Well known to us today is "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth," prescribing punishments for personal crimes. The laws brought all of Babylon under a uniform legal system. They protected the weak from the strong, and regulated business and land ownership.

This stela shows Shamash, the god of justice, giving Hammurabi the instruction to formulate a code of laws. Underneath are inscribed the laws that Hammurabi codified, for all to see. In this way, people were shown that the laws were given to Hammurabi by the gods.



Under Hammurabi and his successors, Babylon controlled the whole of Mesopotamia. However, it became vulnerable to invasion from the north and west.

Its cities continued for 100 years under different foreign rulers. Then, for 500 years, Babylon was overshadowed by Assyria before its next rise to greatness.

EARLY SCIENCE

The mathematicians of Babylonia devised a system of counting based on the number 60, from which we get the number of minutes in an hour and the degrees (60 x 6) in a circle. Babylonian scholars developed early sciences and astrology from the knowledge they gained from the Sumerians.



Skilled archers helped Babylon to defend itself against the Assyrians and many other invaders—Kassites, Aramaeans, Elamites, and Hittites. Its wealth, and its location at the meeting place of roads from Asia to the Mediterranean, was envied by jealous neighbors.

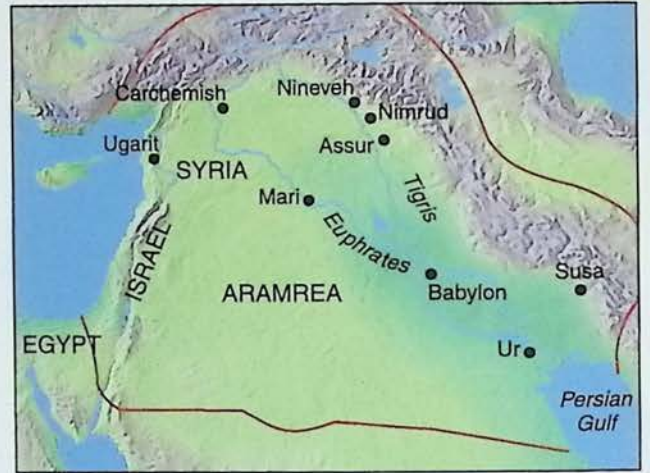
THE ASSYRIANS 1900–612 B.C.

While Babylonia ruled southern Mesopotamia, the warlike Assyrians dominated the north. Their kingdom lay in the valley of the upper Tigris River.

King Adadnirari I, the country's first powerful ruler (1770–50 B.C.), enlarged the Assyrian lands and took the boastful title "King of Everything." He and his successors were fierce dictators, who did not allow individual states to be independent. Assyria grew rich through the activities of its trading families, who sold textiles and metals far and wide.

COLLAPSE AND REBIRTH

As Assyria grew in size, rebellions by its conquered subjects increased. Eventually, Assyria fell to the Hurrians (relatives of the Hittites). The Hurrians dominated Assyria for over 250 years. As their overlordship dwindled, Assyria grew in strength again. Its next period of greatness



The Assyrian Empire grew and shrank in phases. It reached its greatest extent at the end, around 650, covering the whole of the Fertile Crescent. When Ashurbanipal died, Egypt and Babylon broke away and the empire collapsed.

lasted for 300 years. It reached its height under Tiglathpileser I (1115–1093 B.C.), who led many campaigns against neighboring lands. Assyria eventually dominated the whole region, including Babylon.

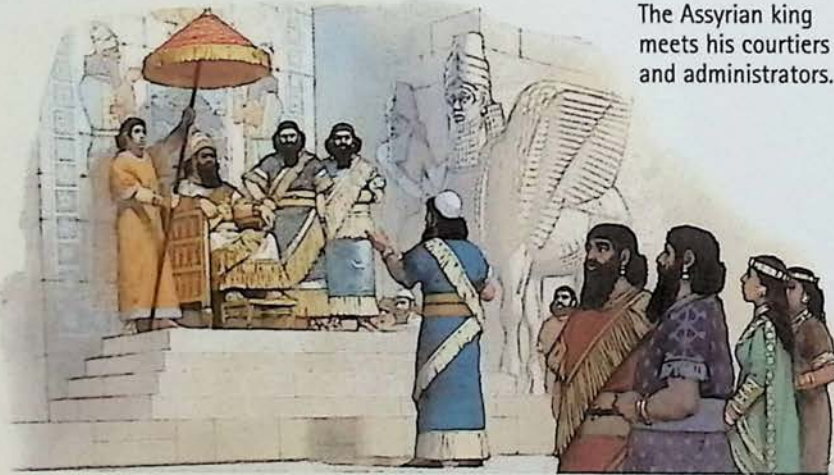


Ashurbanipal was the last great ruler of Assyria. A ruthless soldier, he was also a patron of the arts, building the great library at Nineveh and vast gardens stocked with plants from all over the known world.

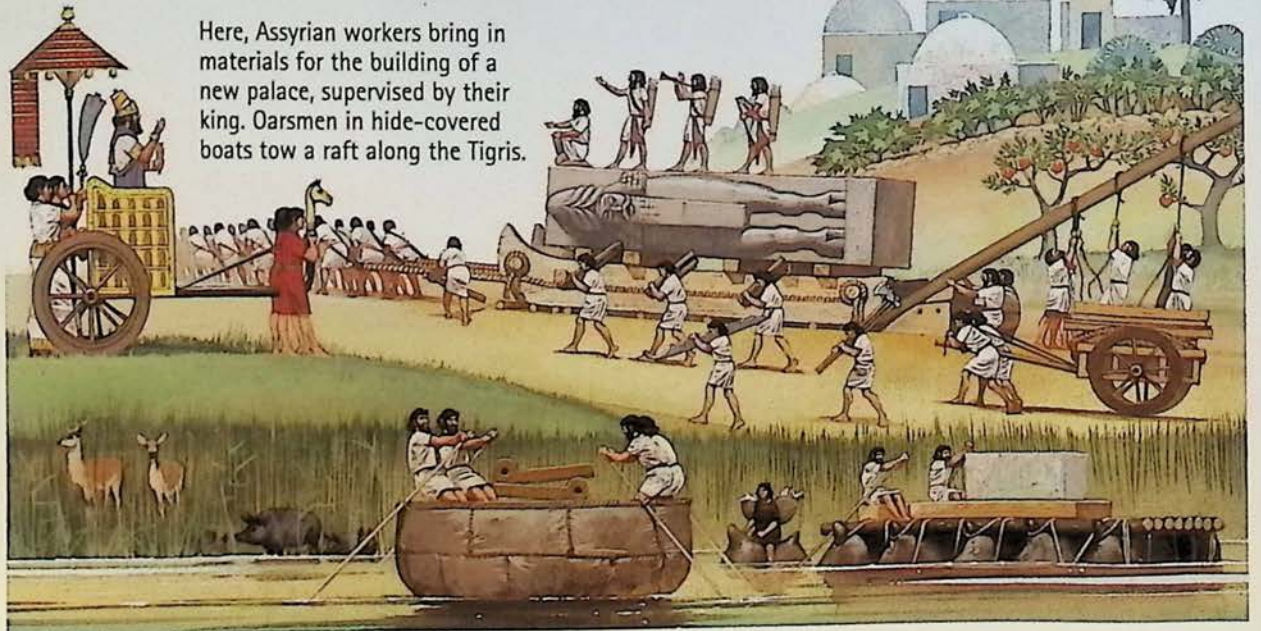
ASHURBANIPAL'S PALACE

The Assyrian king was an absolute ruler with very active involvement in all matters of state. In his magnificent palace, Ashurbanipal, surrounded by his advisors, heard the cases presented by the people. The palace was large, with extensive gardens. As a patron of learning, the king ordered many historic records from Babylon and Sumer to be written down, and texts on mathematics, chemistry, and astronomy were produced. Literary texts such as the *Epic of Gilgamesh* and the story of the Flood, from Akkadian times, were also recorded. All of these were destroyed by invaders after Ashurbanipal's death, though many records survived.

The Assyrian king meets his courtiers and administrators.



Here, Assyrian workers bring in materials for the building of a new palace, supervised by their king. Oarsmen in hide-covered boats tow a raft along the Tigris.



The Assyrians believed that the winged lion from Ashurbanipal's palace could ward off evil.

ASSYRIA FLOURISHES

From about 1076 B.C., Assyria and Babylonia were overrun by Aramaean tribes from Syria. But 150 years later, Ashurdan II and his successors reconquered the Assyrian Empire. The capital was moved to Nineveh, and buildings were erected and irrigation schemes undertaken. Assyrian kings expanded their lands to control all trade routes and suppress troublesome neighbors. The Assyrian Empire was at its greatest extent under Tiglathpileser III (745–727 B.C.), when it included the lands of Babylon, Syria, Palestine, Cyprus, northern Arabia, and Egypt.

ASSYRIAN LIFE

The Assyrians were great builders and erected magnificent cities, temples, and palaces. The men wore long coatlike garments and were bearded. Women wore a sleeved tunic and a shawl over their shoulders. It was not unknown for men to sell their wives and children into slavery to pay off debts.

The Assyrians were experts at siege warfare. Their battering-rams knocked holes in city walls; then scaling ladders and mobile towers helped the men climb over. The soldiers protected themselves with large shields.

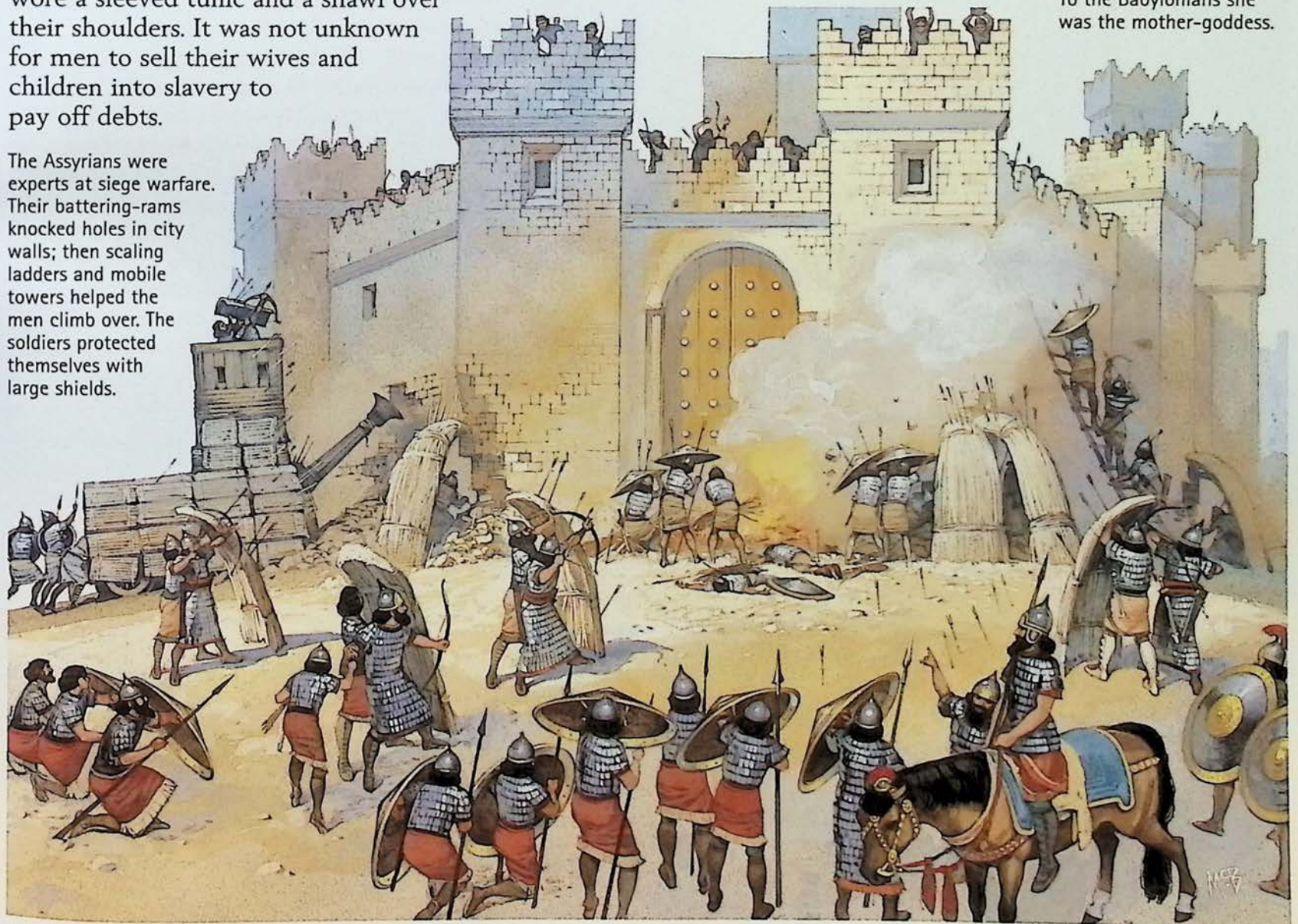
KEY DATES	
2500	Assyrians settle the upper Tigris valley
1900	Growth of Old Assyria
1680	Assyria falls to the Hurrians (until 1400)
1300–1200	Assyrian expansion
1076	Assyria falls to the Aramaeans (until 934)
730–630	Assyrian expansion at its greatest
612	Fall of Assyria to the Babylonians and Medes

THE FINAL CHAPTER

The last and greatest ruler of Assyria was King Ashurbanipal. He was a scholarly king and during his reign he created a huge library in Nineveh, his capital. The ancient records of Sumer and Akkad were preserved on clay tablets, together with literature and histories, mathematics, and astronomy from ancient times. When Ashurbanipal died in 627 B.C. the Assyrian empire fell to the Babylonians and Medes.

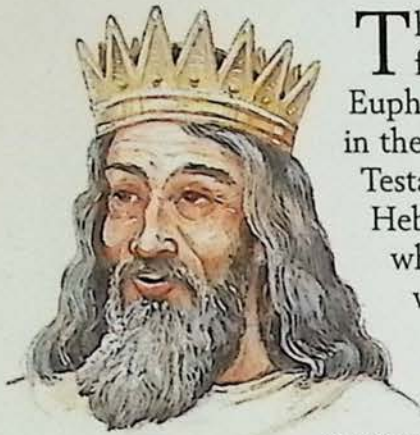


Ishtar was the goddess of war to the Assyrians. To the Babylonians she was the mother-goddess.



THE HEBREWS 1800–587 B.C.

The Hebrews first settled in Palestine about 4,000 years ago. They came to Palestine from Ur, although no one knows exactly where they came from before then.



Solomon (965–928 B.C.) was one of the wiser kings of history and he carried out his royal duties fairly. His rule brought order and peace, and Jerusalem became one of the richest cities of the period.

Their name meant “the people from the other side” of the Euphrates River. Their story is told in the Bible. According to the Old Testament, the leader of the first Hebrews was Abraham, a shepherd who lived in Ur. Abraham traveled with his family first to Syria and then to Canaan (now Palestine), where they finally settled.

EARLY YEARS

Abraham’s grandson, Jacob (also called Israel), had twelve sons. He is said to have started the twelve tribes of Israel, which were named after his sons. When famine struck Canaan, Jacob led his people to safety in Egypt. Later, they became slaves of the Egyptians until Moses led them out of Egypt and took them back to Canaan, probably around 1200 B.C. There, led by Joshua, they fought the Philistines (Palestinians) for the right to settle and establish the land of Israel. Tradition has it that they used the sound of trumpets to bring down the walls of the city of Jericho.



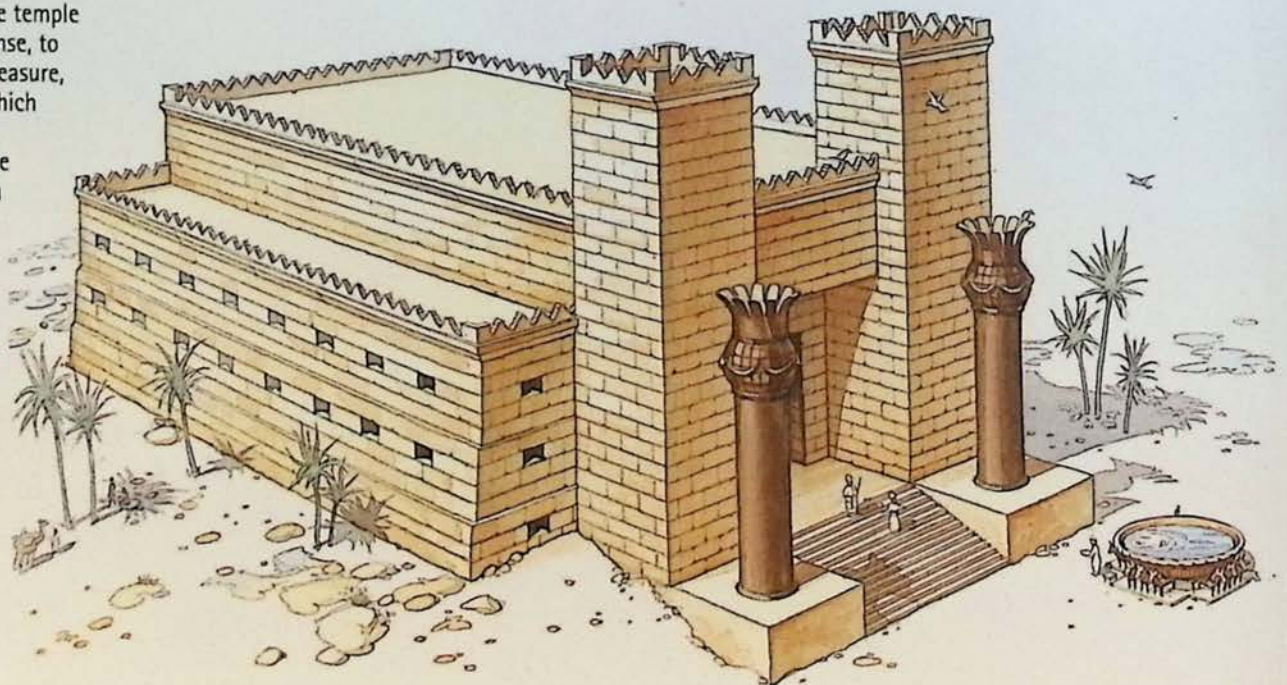
After Solomon’s death, Israel split into two different states, Israel and Judah—this weakened them against outside attack and led to their downfall.

THE FIRST STATE OF ISRAEL

Around 1020 B.C., the Philistines began to threaten the Hebrews. To defend themselves, the Hebrews banded together and appointed Saul their first king. His successor, David, united all the tribes, made Jerusalem the new nation’s capital, and added a number of other territories. As defensive measures, his son Solomon built several new cities and a wall around the capital. The great temple at Jerusalem was his most famous work. He was a peace-loving king.

SOLOMON’S TEMPLE

Solomon built an impressive temple in Jerusalem, at great expense, to house the Israelites’ holy treasure, the Ark of the Covenant, which contained Moses’ Ten Commandments. The Temple became the focus of Jewish culture. It is said that Solomon’s temple had walls inlaid with precious jewels, and that it was designed in accordance with mathematical principles learned from the Egyptians.





This panoramic painting by James Tissot (1836–1902) imagines the Exodus, the journey of the Israelites from Egypt to the land of Canaan, led by Moses.

According to the Bible, Solomon was a wise king. It is said that two women came before him with a child, each claiming to be its mother. Solomon suggested that he cut the child in two, so each mother could have half. One woman broke down and gave up her claim. Solomon recognized her as the true mother, and gave her the child. His reign marked the peak of Israel's history. After he died, his people argued and divided into two nations: Israel and Judah.

TROUBLES AND DISPERSION

After a rebellion by the Israelites, the Assyrians captured Israel in 721 B.C., and then Judah in 683. The Jews scattered in various directions, and many were carried away to Assyria as slaves. Nebuchadnezzar of Babylon crushed a Jewish rebellion in 597 and most of the Jews were taken to Babylon. During that exile, much of the Old Testament of the Bible was written down. This was the beginning of the *diaspora*, the dispersion of the Jews, which lasted into the 1900s.



This early Christian fresco from Italy shows three Hebrew captives cast into a burning fiery furnace for refusing to worship the gold statue of Nebuchadnezzar, the ruler of Babylon.



A Jewish man blows on a *shofar*, a ram's horn fitted with a reed to amplify the sound it makes. It is possible these were used to bring down the walls of Jericho—or at least to frighten the inhabitants into opening the gates. The shofar is one of the world's oldest musical instruments, and it is blown on Jewish holy days. The woven prayer-shawl is called a *tallith*.

KEY DATES

c.1800	Abraham and the Hebrews move to Canaan
c.1200	Moses and Joshua take the Jews to Canaan
c.1020	Saul becomes king of the Hebrews
c.1000	David becomes king of the Hebrews
965–928	Solomon, king of Israel, reigns
721	Assyrians invade Israel, dispersing many Jews
587	Babylonians destroy Jerusalem and deport most of the Jews to Babylon

EGYPT, THE NEW KINGDOM 1550–1070 B.C.

The New Kingdom is the third major division of Egyptian history. It was a time of artistic achievement, military might, prosperity at home, and prestige abroad.



In Ancient Egypt, the dead were embalmed and tightly wrapped in cloth, a process called mummification, so that they would "live" forever. The mummy was put inside a coffin that was often highly decorated.

After the Middle Kingdom, a weak and divided Egypt was dominated by the Hyksos from Canaan, for 100 years. They ruled in Lower Egypt, the north. Around 1550, an Upper Egyptian royal family rose and battled to oust the Hyksos and reunite the whole country. In 1532 they succeeded. Ahmose established the 18th dynasty and became the first pharaoh of the New Kingdom—Egypt's Golden Age.

THE NEW KINGDOM

One of its early pharaohs, Thutmose I, conquered Palestine and the lands west of the Euphrates around 1500 B.C. During the rule of Amenhotep III, the New Kingdom, with its capital at Thebes, was rich and prosperous. Farmers and workers lived simply, but the nobility had a luxurious lifestyle. By law, men and women were equal, and women owned property. Women were able to follow one of four main professions: priestess, midwife, dancer, or mourner. Apart from the nobles, scribes and priests held the most important positions in Egyptian society.

AKHENATEN

The strangest ruler was Amenhotep IV (1353–35 B.C.). He attempted to change Egyptian religion by replacing its many gods and complex traditions with worship of only one god: Aten. He changed his name to Akhenaten and built a new capital at El-Amarna, dedicated to Aten. His queen, Nefertiti, was not of royal birth and may not have been Egyptian. When Akhenaten died, the priests of the old gods regained control, and worship of Aten was discouraged. The dead king's name was removed from every monument and record. His new city was abandoned and it was as if he had never existed.

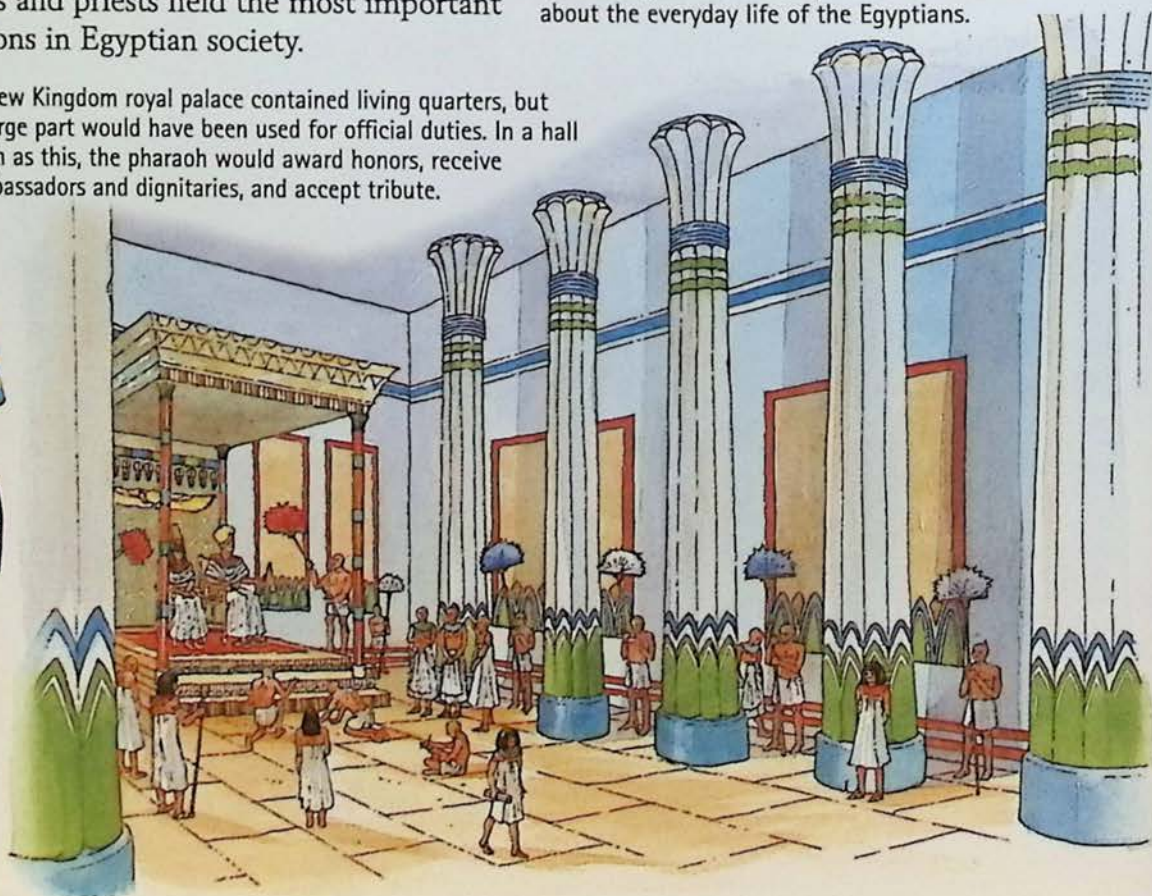


Prosperous Egyptians were buried with jewelry, pottery, and models showing activities such as baking, brewing, and fishing. These models provide vivid details about the everyday life of the Egyptians.



This solid gold mask lay over the face of Tutankhamun's mummy. His tomb was found in the Valley of the Kings, in 1922, and the mummy with its sumptuous mask was revealed to stunned onlookers in late 1925.

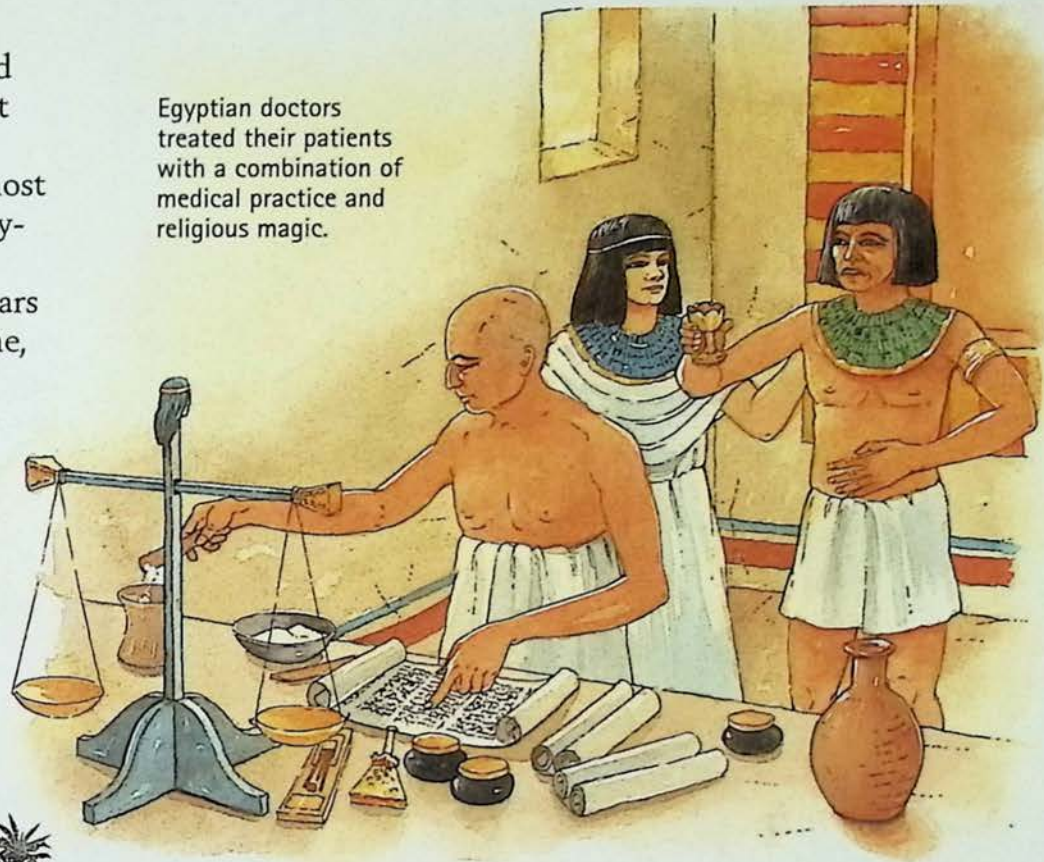
A New Kingdom royal palace contained living quarters, but a large part would have been used for official duties. In a hall such as this, the pharaoh would award honors, receive ambassadors and dignitaries, and accept tribute.



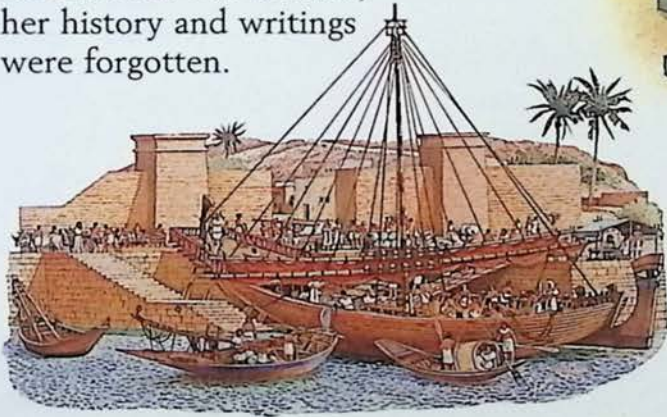
THE END OF GREATNESS

Most New Kingdom rulers were buried in the Valley of the Kings, in tombs cut deeply into the rock. But robbers still broke in. Only one tomb survived, almost intact, to modern times, that of the boy-king Tutankhamen, who succeeded Akhenaten and died not yet twenty years of age. Egypt stayed powerful for a time, especially under Seti I and his son Ramses II—the Great—of the 19th dynasty (1307–1196 B.C.). Over time, rulers became weaker. Priests took control, and finally Egypt fell to a succession of foreign invaders. The Greeks conquered Egypt and ruled for around 300 years. Finally, Egypt became a Roman territory. Her monuments fell to ruins, her history and writings were forgotten.

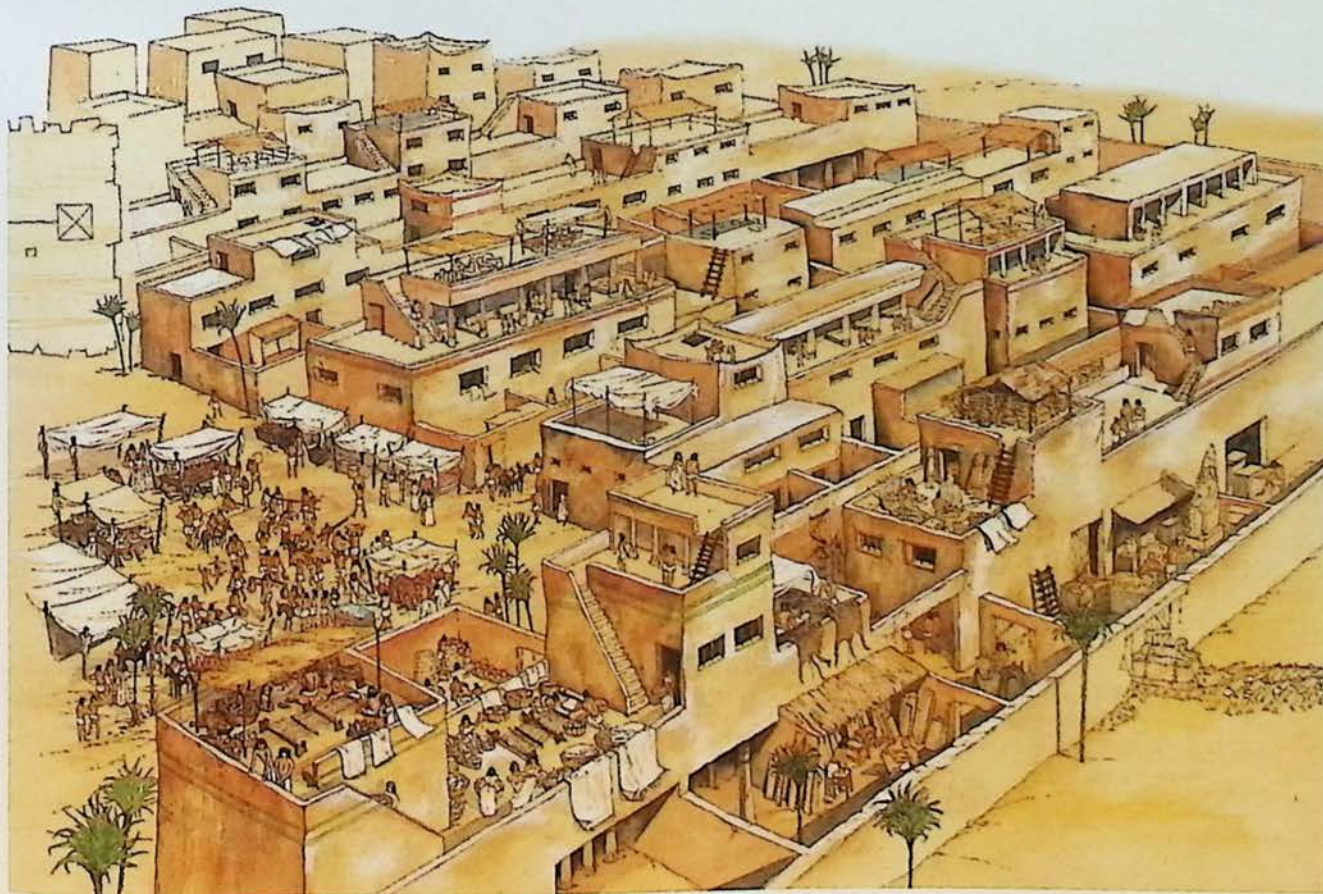
Egyptian doctors treated their patients with a combination of medical practice and religious magic.



◀ Early Egyptian ships were flat-bottomed, suitable only for river transportation. Later they began to make larger, heavier ships with deeper, rounded bottoms that could be used for sea travel. These ships greatly increased Egypt's ability to trade goods with the lands bordering the Mediterranean Sea.



▲ Hatshepsut was the daughter of the great Thutmose I and widow of the weak Thutmose II. After her husband's death she took the throne and ruled as pharaoh in her own right. She wore male clothing and even the traditional false beard worn by the pharaohs.



◀ Kahun was an Egyptian town built of mud bricks. The houses had two levels, plus a flat roof on which people spent much of their time. Trades and crafts occupied different areas in the town, as they do in modern Eastern cities. A pyramid was connected to Kahun by a causeway. On the edge of the town was a temple.

THE PHOENICIANS 1500–500 B.C.

The Phoenicians were the greatest seafarers of the ancient world. They lived along a coastal strip in the Levant at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea.



The Phoenicians were the first to make transparent glass like this perfume bottle, on a large scale.



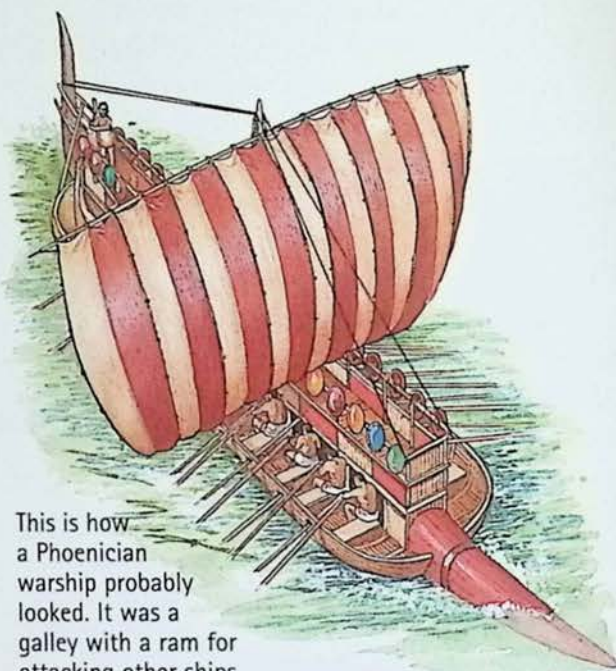
Phoenicians were famous for ivory carvings, like this finely detailed head.

The Phoenician Temple of Obelisks at Byblos in the Levant, the Phoenicians' homeland. The use of this site goes back at least 4,000 years, to the same time as the Minoans.

The Phoenicians, who were merchant adventurers, lived in a string of independent city-states with good harbors in what is now Lebanon. Originally from Canaan, they were not interested in farming the land, but in seafaring, manufacturing, and trading.

TRADE AND CRAFTS

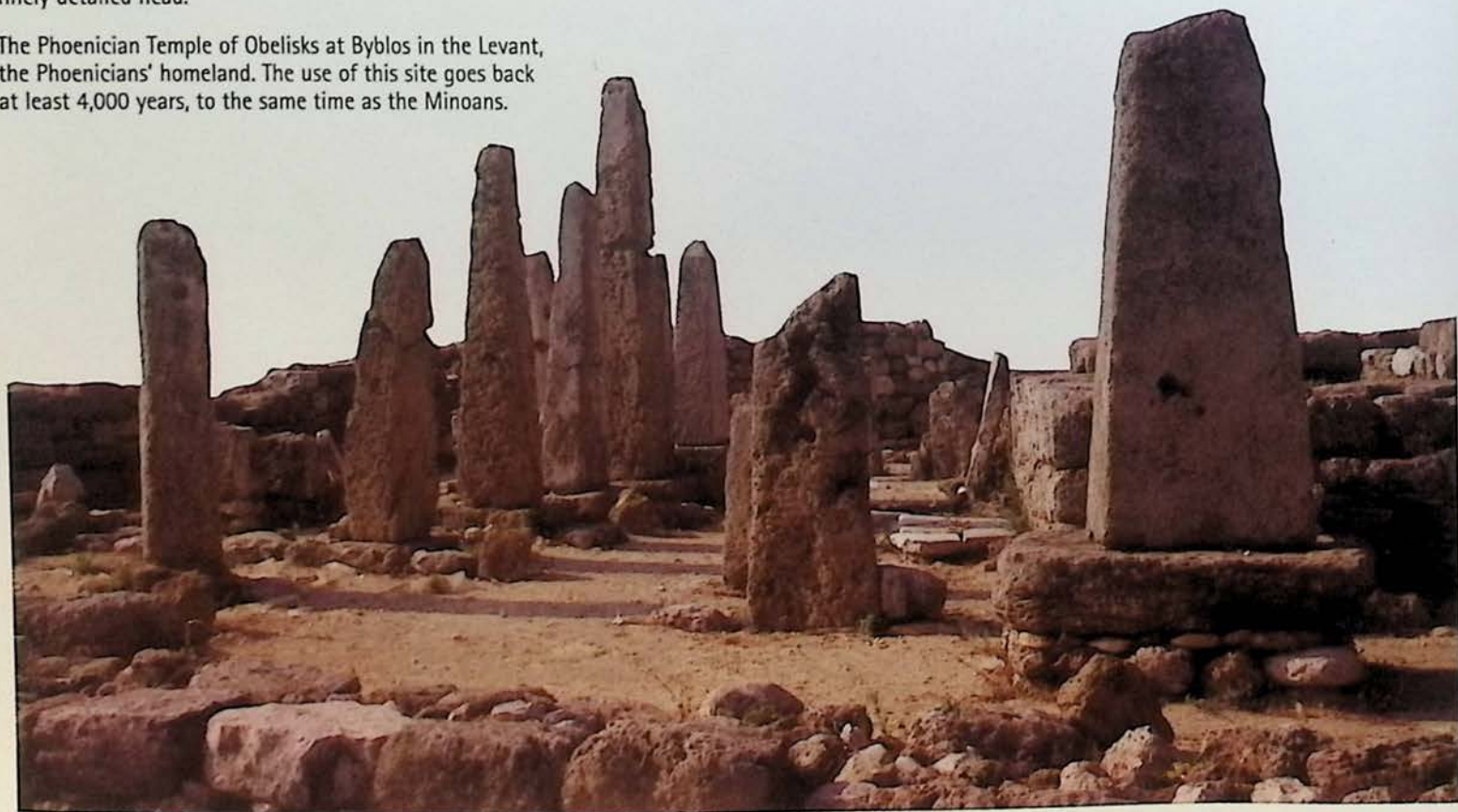
The Phoenicians traded overland with merchants carrying valuable goods from as far away as India and China to the west. The goods were sent by sea to Egypt, Greece, Italy, and north Africa. This trade made Phoenicians prosperous and powerful. They saw the rise and fall of the Minoans and Mycenaeans, and actively helped the rise of Greece and then Rome. The Phoenicians were skilled craftworkers, making glassware, metal items, jewelry, and cloth. They also invented glass-blowing. The port of Tyre was famous for Tyrian purple dye, a rich color worn by Greeks and Romans as a sign of status.



This is how a Phoenician warship probably looked. It was a galley with a ram for attacking other ships.

PHOENICIAN PORTS

The Phoenician ports in the Levant were Ugarit, Sidon, Byblos, and Berytus (Beirut). The main port was Tyre which, according to tradition, was founded 4,750 years ago. The city had close links with Israel. Hiram, king of Tyre, supplied King Solomon with mighty beams of Lebanon cedarwood and with craftworkers to build his great temple in Jerusalem.



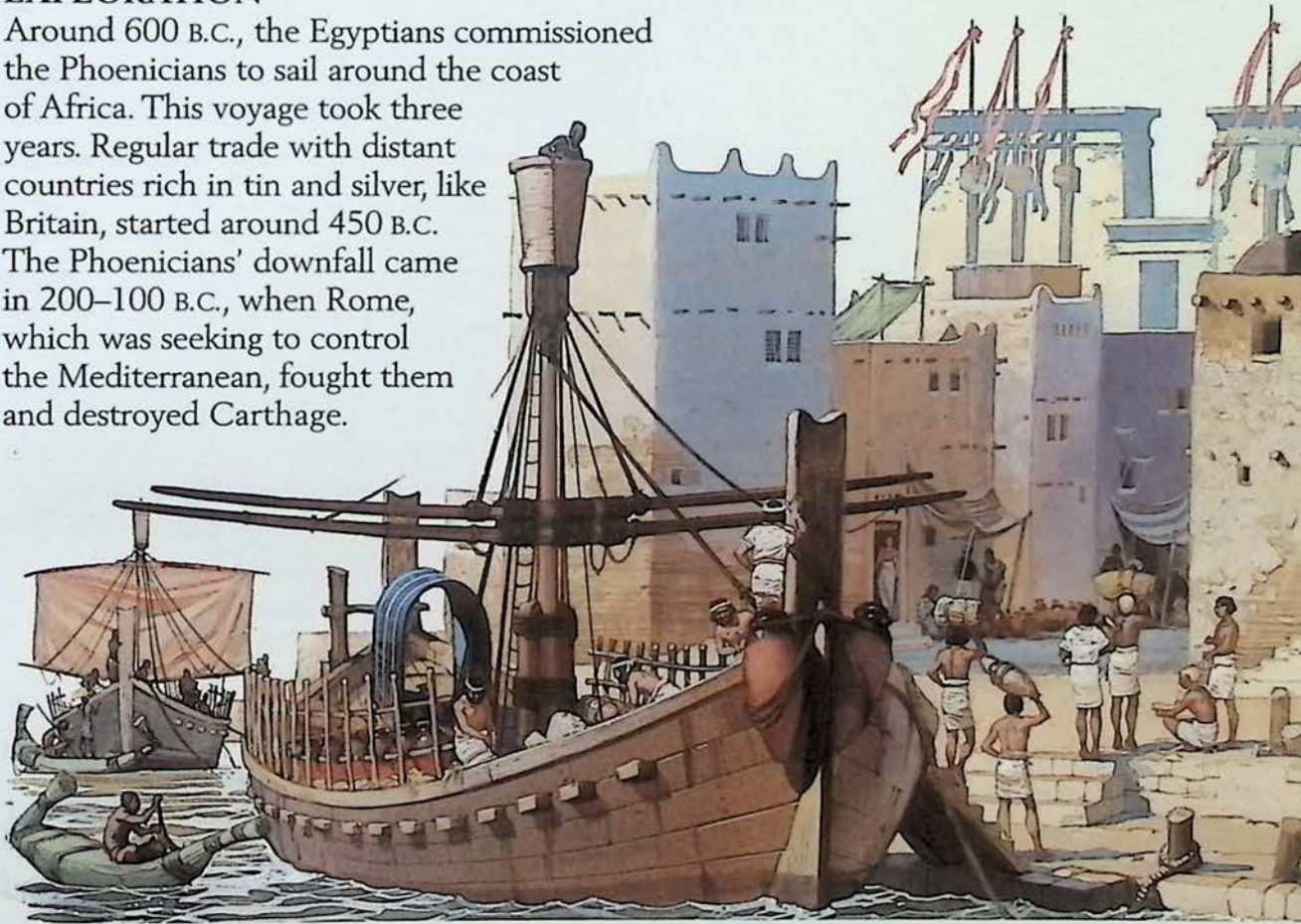
Starting in Cyprus, the Phoenicians gradually spread westward and set up many colonies around the Mediterranean. The most important was Carthage in North Africa, which became a large city. Other colonies were in Spain, Malta, Sicily, Morocco, and Sardinia. Later the Phoenicians colonized Cadiz and Tangier, founding trading posts down the coast of West Africa. Eventually, their homeland was invaded by the Babylonians around 570 B.C., so the colonies became independent, with Carthage as their chief port.



The main Carthaginian deity was the warrior god, Baal Haamon, connected with fertility. This is the temple of Salambo Tophet, from around 700 B.C. where worshipers sacrificed and buried children.

EXPLORATION

Around 600 B.C., the Egyptians commissioned the Phoenicians to sail around the coast of Africa. This voyage took three years. Regular trade with distant countries rich in tin and silver, like Britain, started around 450 B.C. The Phoenicians' downfall came in 200–100 B.C., when Rome, which was seeking to control the Mediterranean, fought them and destroyed Carthage.



The Phoenicians sailed from port to port throughout the Mediterranean, trading valuable goods and transporting them for others. Here a Phoenician trading ship docks in an Egyptian city. Phoenicians did not control great areas of land as other nations sought to do, but they were nevertheless very influential. They connected the different parts of the ancient world.

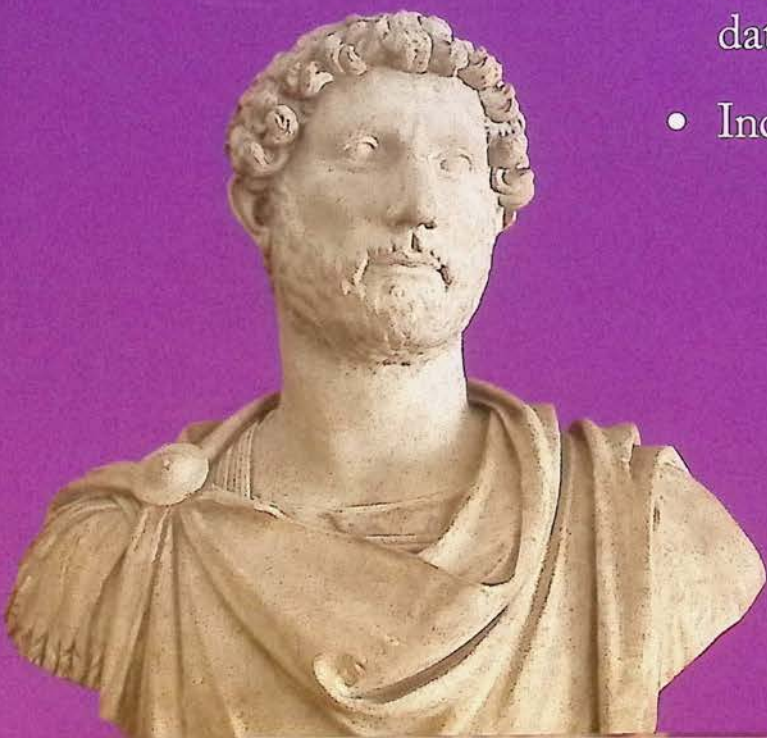


The bold sailors from the city-states of Phoenicia founded many colonies along the coasts of the Mediterranean, trading throughout that sea and venturing into the Atlantic, sailing to West Africa and Britain.

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