

SYLLABUS

III SEMESTER

PAPER : XIV (CORE PAPER)

CBCS PATTERN

HISTORY OF ANCIENT CIVILIZATION

UNIT – I

Introduction – Origin of earth – Nebular theory – Definition of civilization and culture – Comparisons between culture and civilization.

UNIT – II

Origin and growth of civilization – pre-historic culture: Paleolithic Neolithic Mezolithic and Chalcolithic cultures.

UNIT – III

River valley civilizations: Egyptian civilization - Mesopotamian civilization; Sumerian, Babylonian, Assyrian and Chaldean Cultures – Chinese Civilization

UNIT – IV

Persian civilization – Hebrew and Phoenician civilization, American civilizations – Maya, Aztec and Inca civilizations

UNIT – V

Ancient Greece – Legacy of Greece – City States – Hellenistic civilization, Ancient Rome – Roman life style and its Socio, Political and cultural contributions.

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II MA

Ancient Civilizations

Origin of the Earth

Light year:

→ Unit of astronomical distance which is equal to the distance light travels in one year.

→ Light year - measure of distance and not of time.

→ Light travels at a speed of 300000 km/second.

Solar system.

→ The Sun, the 8 planets & their satellites and other heavenly bodies.

Evolution of the Earth

→ The age of the Earth is approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ of the age of universe.

→ Earth formed around 4.54 billion years ago by accretion from Solar Nebula.

Early Theories:

(i) NEBULAR HYPOTHESIS

→ Immanuel Kant, a German philo. gave this theory. (1734)

He argued that gaseous clouds (nebulae) slowly rotate, gradually collapse and flatten due to gravity and eventually forms stars and planets.

→ A similar model was proposed in 1796 by Pierre Simon Laplace

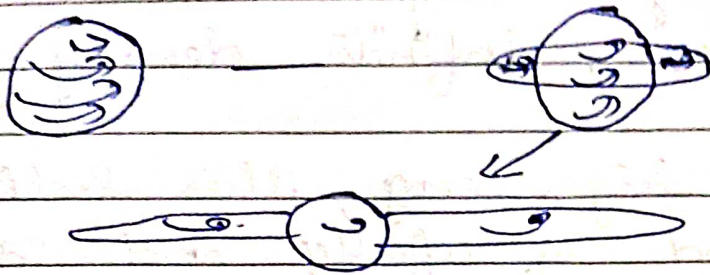
It featured a contracting and cooling proto-solar cloud - the proto-solar nebula.

As the nebula contracted, it flattened and shed rings of material, which later collapsed into planets.

The fall of Laplacean model stimulated scientists to find a replacement for it.

During the 20th century many theories were proposed including planetesimal theory of Thomas Chamberlin & Forest Moulton (1901)

→ In the Nebular Hypothesis, a cloud of gas and dust collapsed by gravity begins to spin faster because of angular momentum conservation with a bulge at the center, as illustrated in the following figure.



→ The collapsing, spinning nebula begins to flatten into a rotating pancake.

→ Condensation of proto sun and proto planets. As the nebula collapse further, instabilities in collapsing, rotating cloud cause local regions to begin to contract gravitationally.

→ These local regions of condensation will become the sun, the planets as well as their moons and other debris in the solar system.

Modern Theories:

Big Bang Theory:

→ Otherwise called → Expanding Universe Hypothesis

→ As per this theory, in the beginning all matter or substance forming this universe existed at one place as a tiny ball.

→ This tiny ball had an extremely small volume, infinite density and temperature.

→ At the big bang, this ball started to expand and forcefully and started a substantial process of expansion which continues to this day.

→ It is accepted that this event took place 13.7 billion years ago.

Formation of Planets

→ The following are regarded as the stages in the planets' development.

→ The stars are localised gas clouds inside a nebula.

→ A core is a gas cloud as well as a spinning gas disc of dust and gas are

created because of the gravitational force within the lumps.

→ After this, the cloud of gas condenses and the matter over the core is changed into tiny rounded objects.

→ These small round objects develop into what are called planetesimals by a cohesion process.

→ The smaller objects start forming larger bodies by colliding with one another and they stick together of gravitational force.

→ In the last stage, these large number of small planetesimals aggregate to develop into a smaller number of large bodies called planets.

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Origin of Life.

Man and evolution:

- Explanation of the origin of life - most complicated one.
- conflict b/w science and religion.

Primitive theories.

→ (1) Bible contains the story.

(2) Babylonian legend.

→ The god Bel - cut off his own head and others - took his blood - mixed with clay and produced man - creature partly divine.

(3) Australian primitive Black men:

→ creator moulded human forms from a common substance and breathed the life.

(4) Greek mythology

→ Prometheus, - creator of men as well as animals, [Zeus - Supreme god - didn't like creation of man]
- created man on mud & Athena breathed life.

→ made man to stand upright & gave him fire.

→ Zeus, man must present a portion of each animal they sacrificed to gods. but Prometheus tricked him.

→ Zeus, ~~stole~~ fire from man. - Prometheus stolen it back to man.

→ Zeus, punished both Prometheus & man

Man - by creating Pandora (1st woman)
- gave Pandora a gift box - full of misfortunes, diseases & plagues at bottom hope.

→ Prometheus - Caucasus mountain - with strong chain - every night an eagle eaten his liver - in day it reborn.

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Upanishads → Ād. Brahman

Scientific Approach:

- There have been abundance of water, a suitable climate, available food supply - made life possible.
- Carbon, H_2 , Sulphur, O_2 , Phosphorus, N_2 , & dozens of other elements - essential to life.
- But the efforts of scientists to combine these elements to produce life - unsuccessful.

Scientific Theories:

- Two imp. hypothesis - (i) Spontaneous Generation (Vitalistic Theory) - explains - life didn't originate on earth but came from exterior source.
- Ād. Kelvin, English Scientist supported this theory - He says life came to earth from other planet, perhaps from Sun.

(ii) Mechanistic Theory -
→ commonly called Evolution

Evolution before Darwin:

→ Man descended from monkey. - originally advocated by Charles Darwin.

Greeks

1. Aristotle → worms and insects originated in mud thru. Spontaneous generation.
- from simple to complex.

2. Thales - aquatic origin of life

3. Democritus - suggested idea of natural selection.

From these early theories - evidence of 3 fundamental laws of evolution.

(i) gradual development of life

(ii) precedence in time of plant life over animal life.

(iii) gradual replacement of imperfect forms by those which are more perfect.

Augustine (354-430)

→ from the beginning, there are

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two-forms of living things -
planned by God and another ^{one}
active through physical environment.

Bruno (1548-1600)

→ man the culmination
development from lower forms through
many causes - habits, orders, manners,
changes in temperature, etc.

Francis Bacon (1561-1626), Descartes,
Leibnitz, etc - - -

Erasmus Darwin (1731-1802) g.f. Darwin
→ put forth the theory of
Transmission.

→ All animals undergo transformation.

↓ ↓ ↓
Charles Darwin (1809-1882)

→ advocated the theory of
'natural selection' of fitness is
environment.

→ The camel for desert, goat for mountains,
fish for sea, birds for air

→ tied together the earlier theories.
All organic life is developed from one-celled bodies to man.

→ wrote 2 books - Descent of man
Origin of Species.

Criticism of the Theory:

→ The clergy opposed strenuously.

The Museum of Natural History in New York City ⇒ Everyone should visit.

From Amoeba to Man:

Steps - in the development of life from one-celled protoplasm to more complex forms.

Protoplasm - 8 distinguishing characteristics.
→ Chemical composition, physical properties, metabolism, growth, reproduction, rhythmicity, variability and adaptability.

Earliest form of life - developed in water.
- jawless, limbless, instead of bones - cartilage.

→ next appeared fishes - skeletal
paired fins & tooth-bearing jaws.

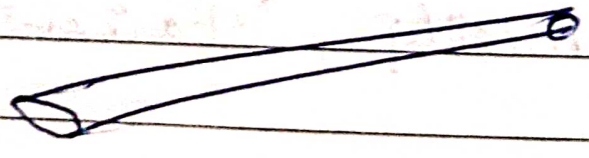
→ next Amphibians - land dwellers
legs - but raising their young
in water.

→ then, the mammals - higher form of
animal life. - warm-blooded
bear their young alive, nursed
- much larger brain capacity - early
primitive group lived in trees. -
the branches with hand of flat
fingers & nails.

↓
next, Anthropoids (Chimpanzee)

hominids - many characters like man

chemically close likeness - b/w H+G
blood



Culture & Civilization.

- cul. & civi. interchangeably.
- cult. is an end. (values & goals)
civilization is a means (tools & techniques)
is an end.
- cul. has no value in itself.
It is a measurement by which we can
value other articles of civilization.
- Civi. is passed without much effort
to next gen. but not culture.
- Civi. may be borrowed without any
change but not culture.
- culture relates to the inner qualities
of society - rel. customs, conv. etc
Civ. - outer society.

Concept of Civilization:

→ word civilization comes from the
16th cent. Fr. *civilise*
La. *civilis*

Concept of culture:

→ 'culture' is based on a term used
by Ancient Roman orator
Cicero.

→ "cultura animi" (agr. metaphor)
refers to "all the ways in which human
beings overcome their original
barbarism"

"the way of life, especially the general
customs and beliefs, of a particular group
of people at a particular time"

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Pre-historic culture

→ period b/w first stone-tools
3.3 million years ago

→ The period when a culture is written
about by others, but has not developed
its own writing is pre-history.

→ Ancient history can be divided into
different periods according to the tools
used by people.

(i) Palaeolithic Period (2 million BC - 1,000 BC)

(ii) Mesolithic Period (10,000 BC - 8,000 BC)

(iii) Neolithic Period (8,000 BC - 4,000 BC)

(iv) Chalcolithic (4,000 - 1,500 BC)

(v) Iron Age (1,500 BC - 200 BC)

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Palaeolithic Age (O.S.A)

→ Further divided into 3

- (i) Lower PLA - upto 1,00,000 B.C.
- (ii) Middle " - 100,000 - 40,000 B.C.
- (iii) Upper " - 40,000 - 10,000 B.C.

Lower PLA

→ Hunters & Food gatherers
tools - axes, choppers & cleavers.
Site (eg) Bori in Maharashtra.

→ Lime Stone was also used to make tools.

habitation sites - Caves & rock shelters.

Middle PLA

tools - blades, points, scrapers
leavers.

- Smaller, lighter, thinner

Upper PLA

→ Emergence of Homo sapiens.

Tools - lot of bone tools, needles, harpoons, blades, fishing tools & spearheads.

(Paintings of Bhimbetka site in M.P.)

Mesolithic Age. (MSA)

→ Major climatic change happened.

→ climatic b/c warmer and more humid.

Rainfall increased - more availability of Flora & Fauna.

→ Domestication of animals and plants - (12000 yrs. ago)

First domesticated animal - wild ancestor of dog.

→ then, sheep and goats were the most common domesticated animals.

→ Hunting & food-gathering cont-d.

First Human colonization - Ganga plains.
→ Microliths have been excavated.

→ Small stone tools that were probably
steel & stones to be used as axes
and sickles.

tools → blades, crescents, triangles,
trapezes, spearheads, knives,
arrowheads, sickles, harpoons &
daggers.

Neolithic Period:

→ Starting of Agriculture.

→ Moving from Nomadic to settled life.

→ wheel - discovered

Ragi, wheat & horsegram - cultivated.

→ knew to make fire.

- knew pottery.
- Art was seen in cave paintings of dance.
- First disposal of the dead.
- Evidence of houses.

Chalcolithic Period:

- Copper Age + Stone.
- transition from stone to copper tools.
- Neol. to Bronze.
- Some weapons & tools were made of copper.
- Like Neolithic → Cold

Bronze Age:

- Most advanced metal working tech. - Copper Smelting & tin.

Iron Age:

writing started.

River Valley Civilizations

- A river valley civilization / river culture is an agricultural nation situated ^{beside} and drawing sustenance from a river.
- A river gives the inhabitants a reliable source of water for drinking and agriculture.
- Additional benefits - fishing, fertile soil due to annual flooding, ease of transportation.
- First great civilizations all grew up in river valleys.
- Civ. tended to grow up in river valleys for a number of reasons.
- (i) access of water
 - (ii) Enrichment of soil (flood)
 - (iii) Excess crops beyond what was needed to sustain an agril. village.

↓

This allowed some members of community to engage in non-agril. activities such as construction of buildings and cities. (Civil)

Egyptian civilization

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- Four different civilizations flourished during the Bronze Age were b/w 5000 BC - 500 BC
- (i) Indus Valley 3500 - 1500 BC
 - (ii) Mesopotamia 3500 - 1000 BC
 - (iii) Nile Valley 4000 - 500 BC
 - (iv) Huang-Ho (Yellow Valley) 3500 - 3000 BC

Egypt - the D/o Nile:

Among the 4 civilizations of the Bronze Age, the civilization of Egypt which flourished in the valley of the Nile, is believed to be the oldest of which systematic records are available.

→ Civ. of N. Africa.

→ Within the various deposits of silt along Nile River are the remains that tell the story of all the peoples who lived in this area.

→ The remains are well preserved and the well-defined annual deposit of silt - help determine the antiquity of the materials uncovered.

→ Nile is the source of water supply for most of Egypt.

→ Except a narrow fringe along the river, the soil is never dry.

→ The success of ancient Egyptian civilization came partly from its ability to adapt to

→ This is a blessing in disguise. Most of the cities and tombs are located a short distance from the river in the dry sand of surrounding desert.

→ Furniture, grain, clothing, even human bodies are found well-preserved.

→ Hence the Sun & Nile virtually dominated Egyptian life.

→ The Valley of Nile, from Syene to Mediterranean Sea, 500 miles long.

Limestone hills and ridges border the main valley. 10-12 miles width.

Cont

Chalcolithic :

→ The name Chalcolithic derived from Greek - Khaleos (Copper) and lithos (Stone)

∴ Chalcolithic Age

also known - Eneolithic (Latin - Aeneo - Copper)

→ ~~Boarder~~ Border of Neolithic,

• Transitional period from Neo. to Bronze Age

East - rocky wastes
West - Sahara
South - rapids in Nile
North - Mediterranean Sea

Egypt Egypt

5 Geography: Soil - replenished each year, as the river, swollen by the melting snow (overflow its banks)
→ Irrigation - through this

10 climate - warm, bt. not too hot for plants & animals

Long season - enabled planting & harvesting of two crops / yr

15 → sluggish stream - helped for navigation

→ Advantage - Egy. b/c pioneers in trade

→ carried commodities to neighbouring
brought back copper, cloth, pottery,
metal weapons.

∴ Nile, "Cradle of civilization"

① Pyramid Age:

→ construction of pyramids. - done under
govt. supervision.

Herodotus claimed 120,000 men worked
20 yrs. to construct the giant pyramid
of Pharaoh cheops.

→ Menes (3400 BC)

→ well-defined Egyptian history really
began with Menes, founded the empire
and united upper and lower Egypt.

→ Menes - conquered Sennar, Palestine,
Phoenicia & Syria.

→ ruler - absolute in power.

- posed as son of god.

- people accepted him as divine.

→ sole master and lord.

→ leader in war, director of industries,
supervisor of public work,
controller of resources.

The govt. was autocratic & bureaucratic.

→ Power of Pharaoh's lasted 500 yrs.
after chaos & confusion.

Feudal Age:

pyramidal age is - Feudal Age following the Pol. l disorder.

→ Numerous powerful priests with the support of the people in their districts broke away from the control of the central govt. & formed petty states.

→ Rival Noblemen tried to conquer each other - so constant war.

→ Lit. of the period - tells, poor & humble, wickedness of man, hopelessness of future.

- prophecy of coming savior,
- curious anticipation of Messiah predicted, 2000 yrs. later.

→ Dikes, public works, commercial fleets, canals, levees.

Because of their disunited state, Egypt was overran by Nubians from South & Hyksos from North.

Foreign rule in Egypt.

Hyksos - introduced - horse & military

(iii) The Empire :

city of Thebes (greatest resistance to the invaders)
— reunited Egypt. Theban — 30 yrs
continuously conflict with Hyksos.
→ After defeating Hyksos (1600 BC), Egypt built a powerful fleet.

New Pharaohs

Thutmose I (1545 - 1514 BC) ^{New Kingdom} Pharaohs (beginning of) ^{dom of}
great conqueror.

Queen Hatshepsut (1501 - 1479 BC)

— She — interested in building temples & developing commerce.

— beautified the city of Karnak & rebuilt the temples destroyed by Hyksos.

Thutmose III (1479 - 1447 BC)

→ called "Napoleon of Egypt"
→ long reign, glorious exploits — accounts are preserved on the walls of Karnak.

→ Syria, Phoenicia & Palestine - b/c tributary states.

→ * The new kingdom of Pharaohs began a large-scale building - to promote the god Amen - Amen cult in Karnak.

→ Karnak temple - greatest & largest Egyptian temple ever built.

10 1350 BC - New kingdom - threatened when Amenhotep IV ascended the throne - series of radical & chaotic reforms.

- changed his name as Akhenaten.

→ made Sun deity Aton as Supreme god.

- suppressed worship of other gods.

→ moved cap. to new city of Akhetaten (modern day Amarna)

15
1279 BC

Ramesses II ascended the throne.

more temples!

more states.

bold military leader.

20
Sire more children than any other Pharaoh.

Ramesses II led an army against the Hittites in the Battle of Kadesh and after fighting agreed to the first recorded Peace Treaty (1258 BCE).

Gradually Egy. empire lost its brilliance & weakness.

→ Fall under Assyrian influence.

525 BC

Persians conquered Egypt. Cambyses II captured Egypt & defeated Pharaoh Psamtik III at the battle of Pelusium.

→ Cambyses assumed the title Pharaoh & ruled Egy. from Iran.

Administration:

→ Pharaoh - absolute monarch of country

→ Complete control of land & its resources.

→ Supreme military commander

→ Head of Govt.

→ Relied on bureaucracy of officials. Second to him in admn - Vizier (acted as king's rep. - co-ordinated land surveys, treasury, building projects, legal sy. & archives)

Country → divided into 42 Adm.ve regions called nomes. each governed by nomarch

Temples → formed back-bone of economy. Not only houses of worship - collecting & storing the kingdom's wealth. as granaries & treasuries. Adm. & by. Overseers.

Society

Development of agriculture & industry in Egypt led to the est. of new social classes

(i) Leisure class (U. class)

(ii) Slave class (L. C.)

→ Possible for an individual to pass from lower class to other. (even as high as priesthood and govt. leader)

generally, I Pharaoh and his court
at the top.

II Next, landed nobles & the priests.

III Independent middle class (free land holders
artisans & merchants)

IV At the bottom, Serfs & Slaves.

Position of Women:

position of women - unique.

⇒ Queens ruled the country.

⇒ Wife was independent - own right,

⇒ property & inheritance rights - fully equal

Agriculture:

Agri. - imp. occupation.

Actual work - done by slaves.

⇒ Govt. officials - carefully supervised the work
decided the crops to be planted
& fields to be used.

& collected the govt.'s share. (10-20%)

at harvesting time

⇒ Govt. engineers & scientists constructed
the irrigation projects.

⇒ Farm implements used were very crude

⇒ The ox and donkey were the most
valuable beasts of burden.

⇒ Most imp. crops were wheat, barley, millet, onions, beans, lettuce & pea.

⇒ Flax & cotton were grown - used for cloths.

Crafts:

Construction of pyramids, palaces
→ granite quarrying, brick-making, masonry, metal work, wood carving, ship-building, pottery making, cloth weaving.

⇒ Linen cloths - made of much care - look like silk.

⇒ Fine products of Egyptian - craftsmen - seen at tombs - beautifully glazed & painted clay jars, furniture, vessels of gold & silver, jewellery,

Commerce:

Not developed so extensively but some trade existed.

carried up & down the Nile.

→ Exchange - barter system.

weights → later, est-d. gold & silver, spices, dyes,

→ spices, dyes, cosmetics & perfumed
brought from Arabia & India.

→ Gold, ivory & Negroes (slaves) - from Sudan.

→ Early 1900 BC, a canal constructed
across Suez (later discarded).

Arts:

① Architecture:

Egy. invented - Square-block
masonry & the Pyramid design in
Asch.

1
so far 138
Pyramids → oblong tomb with sloping sides.
138 PY identified - placing one on top of others to
form Pyramid.

→ Massive constructions - built as burial
places for the Pharaohs.

→ grave - at bottom of a shaft under the
structure.

= King's chamber & Queen's
(largest granite stones)

→ use of vaulting, arching, passages -
for soul to move freely.

→ one of wonders of
A. world.

25 ⇒ The great pyramid of Cheops - Khufu
also known as Giza PY. 450 ft. high.

(Egyp^{ian}) Khufu = cheops (Hellenism)

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746 sq. at the base

2,300,000 stones. - 2 1/2 tonnes each

- carefully constructed with ^{correct} mathematical proportions.

- stones - so closely fitted - **lime stones**

Architect: Khufu's ^{marvellous} vizier Hemiunu

Simplicity & massiveness - chief artistic qualities of pyramids.

⇒ Beautiful temples also.

eg: Karnak Temple. - contains most massive colonnaded hall of all time.

→ Central ^{aisle} aisle - 69 ft. high, top capitals 11 ft. high & large - permit 100 men to stand same time.

- careful landscaping - trees, flowers, artificial lakes - impress buildings

→ Dwelling houses for noblemen - beautiful

(2) Painting:

works of sculpture - painted.

famous "Agee of Meidum" (Meidum - "Pyramid" of A. Egyp.)

→ decorated the wall of tomb.
Black & white - colour combination used.
Excellent symmetrical balance

→ Mostly art predominated until the time of Queen Hatshepsut.

in one of her temples - showing 3 ships with their sails outstretched to the wind & with rowers pulling at the oars.



Papyrus
water plant
is Nile
used for
paper
G.M. L.R.

→ circles, spirals & geometric designs - used to portray natural objects, such as waves of a sea, flowering lotus, papyrus reeds.

Sculpture:

Architecture was embellished by the sculptor.

→ Building itself was overshadowed by the colossal statue of pharaohs. (80-90 ft high)

Each - cut from a single block of stone - many tons

→ Figures - rigid in posture, arms & legs seldom extended far from body.

→ Both the seated & standing figures have block like forms.

→ Large section of stone left behind the heel, serving as a support.

- Shoulders, hips & feet - arranged in parallel horizontals.
- interesting sculptures - animal & human forms
 - (i) Sphinx - lions body human head
 - bird's wing - perched the sun-disk - fly above.
- largest & most impressive surviving specimens of Egyp. sculpture.
- located near the Giza pyramid.

Furniture & Minor Art:

- Egyp. Art - household decorations
- Most beautiful - couches, chairs, thrones, utensils of various kinds.
- Precious stones & metals were used in abundance.
- Chairs - covered with gold & silver & fitted with soft cushion cover.
- Still in working of precious stones - metal, ivory & alabaster - great demand in other countries, constituted principal articles of trade.

Religion :

Rel. dominated the political, economic, intellectual & social life of the Egyptians.

- Belief in afterlife. - care is devoted
- preserved the bodies - after 1000 yrs. ago
Some of the pharaohs ~~remains~~ identified from mummies

→ Food, clothing, utensils, art & lit. found in the tombs furnish excellent clues to the life of people.

Rel. → Monothéisme

- ^{group of stars - dep. animals & gods} constellations, human beings, gods & animals all received attention

→ worshiped - sacred animals, sun, moon, Nile river, fertility & generation, men & magic.

Sun-God - Ra :

→ The Sun god Ra - accepted as the most powerful god.

→ He supposed to have power over all enemies.

→ He brought the seasons.

→ responsible for fertility & happiness

→ Every 24 hrs. he visited the realm of the dead, but was born again out of his own substance.

→ Ra - accepted by the priests of Heliopolis. but was superseded by Amon - Theban God.

→ With the union of 2 city-states, a combination of 2 gods was made & he was called Amon-Ra.

Pharaoh Amenhotep IV - tried to create a new monotheism. - declared Aton the creator & ruler of the world.

Amenhotep IV took the title "Akenaton"

Aton - not man nor animal - but sun's disc

Future Life:

impt. in Egyp. Rel.

belief - resurrection was granted, as natural as death.

Dead - were believed to live a second double-life - on earth & heaven

→ The earthly existence was thought to be assured only through the preservation of the bodies.

→ The bodies of wealthy men were mummified or

images of the deceased were placed in the tomb.

↓
Earthly spirit dwelt in these alabaster. — If they were destroyed, the spirit would without home.

→ Earthly spirit — have human desires, need for food, clothing and protection from earthly dangers.

→ Great emphasis was put on the Voyage of the soul to the next world. — Soul of the dead after a long voyage, came to the Hall of Truth, where the final judgement was made.

Soul say — "I come before ye without sin, I haven't stolen, not robbed, nor lied, nor lost my temper, not adulterous, not stolen temple food — — — I have given bread to the hungry, clothing to naked —"

→ It was believed that if a person could say it with energy & conviction. —

he would be admitted to become one with
the god for ever a eternally delightful paradise
paradise — where grain grows taller
than a man's head,
cool breezes always blow,
if found guilty — the unfortunate victim
would be thrown into an abyss of
destruction — fearful creatures —
ready to devour him.

Literature 4 Learning:

a. writing:

— Earliest people to develop a
well-defined sy. of writing. — Hieroglyphics

Chamollion, Fr. scholar = succeeded in
working out the key to Hieroglyphics.

Hiero: — not a popular / general form
of writing.

word "hieroglyphic" means 'sacred carving'
on written language of priest.

→ For use in writing they made a kind
of paper from the pith of the papyrus
and ink from vegetable gums & soot.

Literature

Egy. lit. was predominately religious in nature - praises to gods & pharaohs or instructions for the guidance of departed souls.

- two groups of religious writings, "The Book of the Dead" & "Coffin Texts" written for pharaohs, found in tombs.

"Coffin Texts" - inscribed on wooden coffins of the nobility.

"Book of the Dead" - consisted of papyrus rolls found in tombs of ordinary people.

⇒ Other works - devoted to lengthy deaths of departed pharaohs. (accounts of)

→ "The Song of the Harpes" - belonging to Middle Empire - is a jovial drinking song.

⇒ "The dialogue between a Man Weary of Life and His Soul" - is one of the most artistic, emotional & imaginative of Egyptian poems.

⇒ "The Hymn to the Sun" - written in the reign of Amenhotep IV, is a simple, honest and sincere vision of the god ~~Amon~~ Aton.

⇒ "The Story of the Doomed Prince" - is a fatalistic story of a prince doomed to be killed by a crocodile, a snake or a dog.

The prince escapes to a wonderland where he wins the king's daughter.

- He eludes the crocodiles and the snakes, but finally the inevitable happens; his pet dog causes his death.

⇒ "Story of the Ship-wrecked Sailor" - narrative poem

- a voyage, a ship-wreck, rescue by a serpent of gold & lapis lazuli which carries the voyager, its mouth to home.

⇒ Actually, they produced first tale in history

Learning

eg. prized very highly

→ A teacher's instruction to his pupil, found on a papyrus, admonishes, "give thy heart to learning, and love her like a mother, for there is nothing so precious as learning"

⇒ They worked out, probably as in 4226 a systematic method of recording time on the basis of solar system.

→ Year had 365 days.

12 months

30 days

5 feast days at the end of year

→ Deep-d astrology,

→ Mathematics - they produced decimal sy. pictures representing units

10's, 100's, 1000's,

10000's, 100000's & millions

⇒ lotus leaf = 1000

tad.pole = 100000

1000000 - a man striking his hands together above his head.

studied

Anatomy - Emblaming the deeper diseases and injuries.

temperature, pulse, pus, evacuations of the bowels & the kidneys - were studied to control diseases.

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MESOPOTAMIAN CIVILIZATION

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⇒ Land b/w rivers.

⇒ Middle East. (Modern Iraq)

Two rivers - Tigris Euphrates. (2760 km)

⇒ Land was called ^{origin: Armenia (mountains)} Al-Jazirah (island)

- Land forming a crescent like semi-circle.
- "Fertile Crescent"

- Very suitable for agriculture.

→ Tigris and Euphrates - rise in the mountains of Armenia and flow in a parallel course southward into the Persian Gulf.

⇒ Two streams unite before they enter the sea and form a marshy plain overgrown with reed and lush.

- Garden of Eden mentioned in the Old Testament of Bible - situated here.

⇒ The plain of Shinar contained about 8000 sq. miles of land suitable for agriculture.

⇒ Land was subjected to numerous invasions
" Mesopotamia - like a reservoir into which
constantly poured streams of different people"

⇒ used sun-dried bricks - easily & quickly
destroyed.

⇒ writing was on clay-tablets - lost for
same reason.

People:

Various nomadic racial types -
- They were stocky in stature and had
oval faces and high, straight noses.

⇒ generally, Mediterranean race -

⇒ Mesopotamians - comprises of Sumerians,
Babylonians & Assyrians.

THE SUMERIANS

Sumerian tradition tells the story of a long period of prosperity & a well developed orderly society.

→ word Sumerian means black-headed.

⇒ They settled in the southern part of Mesopotamia near the Persian Gulf.

⇒ adopted city-state type of govt.

→ Sumer - chief city-state, called Sumeria.

Greatest cities - Ur, Lagash, Uruk, Nippur.

A powerful pol. sy. lasted - 1500 yrs.

King of city - "Patesi" - "tenant farmer of the God."

His lease ↙ renewed each year - during a great festival held in honour of God.

Duties of king - collecting offerings, supervising farming and workshops, legalizing all business transactions, defending the city.

⇒ He was a "great man"

⇒ Warfare b/w the various cities was a common practice. The chief cause for rivalry was over land & water.

Akkad :

Sumerian culture was spread all over Mesopotamia & came into contact with Egypt and Egypt through the conquest of Akkad (2500-2370 BC)

⇒ The culture of the Akkadians - Semitic under Sargon I

- His great kingdom included - most of the Sumerian cities.

→ Sumerian culture was accepted & spread over the greater part of the area.

Kingdom was destroyed by barbarians.

→ But was restored by the release of the city of Uruk about 1298 BC.
→ Uruk - a splendid city with walls, palaces and temples.

→ The great Ziggurat temple built in honour of Nannar, the moon-god, was the most notable building.

10 Sumerian Culture:

⇒ Greatest contributions of the Sumerians was their system of writing.
- was in use about 4,000 BCE.

→ wrote on clay-tablets with a reed, making wedge shaped marks - i.e., cuneiform.
- designs / signs, each representing a syllable.

⇒ graphs representing - people, animals, plants, temples, gods & cities.

⇒ The Semites & Hittites & Persians adopted this method of writing.

Revised - Moon calendar.

12 divisions.

Each year named - some imp. event.

eg: a storm, a battle, death of some imp. persons, etc.

Religion:

Sumerians believed in an anthropomorphic polytheism. (many gods in human forms)

- No common gods.

- each city had its own - patrons, temples & priest kings.

① An & Ki
Sky (wife) Earth.

② Enki (god of wisdom)

③ Enlil (storm-god) - wind & rain also.

④ Inanna (goddess - love beauty, sex, prostitution & war)

⑤ Moon God

Funerary practices:

→ After death - enter into a gloomy world of Eushkigal, - realm was guarded by gateways with various monsters - to prevent people entering & leaving.

- buried outside city walls - graveyards - small mound covered the corpse - offerings to monsters & small amount of food.

→ Human sacrifices - found:

e.g., Queen Puabi's death pit at the royal cemetery, accompanied in death by her servants.

Agriculture

→ agril. life style 5000 - 4500 B.C

Agri-l. techniques included - organized irrigation
large-scale intensive cultivation of land
mono cropping, ploughing,

- Specialized labour force - under
bureaucratic control.

Primitive pictograms - sheep, goat, cattle,
pigs - domesticated

least of burden - oxen
transporting animal - donkey.

- woollen clothing & rugs - animal skin ^{wool} hats
cereals - wheat, barley, chick-pea,
dates, onion, lettuce, mustard
side of house - trees & plants enclosed.

First known beer drinking society.

caught (eat) - fish, fowl, gazelle.

Irrigation, canal, dykes, etc.

⇒ Sumerians introduced mythological & historical epics.



- (i) Creation
 - (ii) Fall of man
 - (iii) The Flood
 - (iv) Tower of Babel.
- } Hebrews whole in Old Testament

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The Babylonians.

→ Babylonians were - Semitic culture
 - controlled Mesopotamia - following the supremacy of Akkadians.

~~Babylonia~~ - named after Babylon - the chief city.

Hamurabi: (2128 - 2081)

- greatest of the Babylonian kings.
- united Mesopotamia.
- Est-d a centralized govt.
- Authority based on Divine origin.
- Power - absolute.

↓ fate of the country & fate of people depend on his mercy.

2 Sources to learn H.'s rule.

(i) Collection of 55 of his letters.

(ii) Code of laws.

One of the letters → "an order to finish cleaning out the canal in the city of Erekh."

Another letter - "an inquiry concerning the misappropriations of temple revenues".

5 Code of Hammurabi

→ Code of Law - most famous remains

↓
- carved on diorite stone shaft 8 ft high, has been preserved.

10 → Hammurabi - depicted as receiving the laws from Sun-god.

↓
made the people to believe it divine.

15 → Hammurabi adopted many of them from old Sumerian records.

→ He did to codify and enforce them.

20 This code - oldest known in a complete form is modern in several respects.

(i) judges were appointed - to try cases.

(ii) 282 laws.

25 → Nearly half of the code deals - matters of contract. - i.e., setting wages to be

paid to an ox driver or surgeon, etc.

→ Next, terms of transaction — liability of a builder for a house that collapses or

property that is damaged while left in the care of another.

→ Next, issues concerning household & family relations — inheritance, divorce, paternity, etc.

→ "eye for an eye & tooth for a tooth" continued to be practiced, — but under state supervision.

→ Death penalties are common.

eg: if a house collapsed and killed the son of the householder, the builder must suffer the loss of his own son.

⇒ For adultery — both parties — death penalty

→ lower classes & slaves — protected by law.

Slaves

Women :

— High position.

- own property, equal rights in divorce.
leaving lawsuits.
- engage in business & become professional scribes.
- justice to widows & orphans assured.
- Heavier fines for Rich than poor.

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→ Slaves might own property, marry and will their possessions to their children.

Social & Economic Conditions :

- Inequality of social groups
- Special privileges to the select.
- 3 social groups —

and Euphrates rivers was only 45 miles while in some places it was less than 20 miles at one point. This led to the concentration of population into a compact society which developed a civilisation of its own.

It was in the fertile valleys of both the Indus and the Ganges that civilisation began in India. The same factors were responsible for this as for the rise of civilisation in the Nile and the Euphrates-Tigris Valleys. Similarly, the ancient Chinese civilisation arose in the valley of the great river of North China named the Hwang Ho, the Yellow River, so called because of the brownish-yellow colour of its water. The river flows through the highlands in the north-eastern part of China and carries huge quantity of fertile soil from these lands which is deposited on either side of the river for a distance of 400 miles. The early Chinese civilisation sprouted out in these fertile regions.

CHAPTER VIII

THE EGYPTIAN CIVILISATION

Egypt is the daughter of the Nile. Even the soil of Egypt is the gift of that great river. The soil of Egypt is black, rich and productive and so agriculture developed there from very early times. The fertility of Egypt tempted the nomadic tribes of the early New Stone Age to come and settle in that region, and develop the art of agriculture. Protected by natural barriers like the sea on the north and deserts in the east and west, and barren land in the south, the Egyptians were free from foreign invasions. In known history, foreign invasions of Egypt were few and far between.

The history of Egypt prior to 2000 B.C. is mostly a matter of conjecture. The period from 5000 B.C. to 3200 B.C. is known as the pre-dynastic period because during this period there was no rule of the dynasties. In the early part of this period the Egyptians were organised into a number of city-states, each of them being an independent political unit. Gradually two kingdoms arose—Lower Egypt north of the Nile and Upper Egypt in the south. These two kingdoms were united under a king by about 3500 B.C. and thus began a dynastic period of Egyptian history. The official title of the king who ruled during the dynastic period was Pharaoh which means the man who lived in the "big house". Tradition says that the founder of the United Kingdom was a man named Menes. The Pharaohs who ruled over Egypt are grouped

into thirty-one dynasties. Their history is broadly divided into three main periods, viz., the Old Kingdom, the Middle Kingdom and the New Kingdom or the Empire.

The period of the first six dynasties was the period of the Old Kingdom. During this period, the government was a theocracy in which the king exercised absolute power as the Vicar of God. The king was himself considered as divine, and was believed to be the son of the Sun God. But his authority was limited by ancient law and the belief was that ancient law was divine law. In the Old Kingdom there was no separation between the Church and State and the king was the chief priest. The whole country was divided into "nomes" or local districts ruled by "nomarches" or governors who were the agents of the king. There was a well-developed judicial system during this period and there is recorded evidence to show that even cases of treason in the king's household were tried in the ordinary courts following the regular procedure. There was no regular standing army in the Old Kingdom which followed a policy of peace and non-aggression.

The Old Kingdom came to an end about 2300 B.C. Many causes contributed to this. Prominent among them were the centrifugal tendencies fostered by the nomarchs, the growth of individualism and the crushing financial burden which the people had to bear on account of the extravagant schemes of the Pharaohs. The fall of the Old Kingdom was followed by a period of confusion which lasted till the rise of the 11th dynasty—about 2100 B.C. This was a period of feudal anarchy, social revolution of the masses and foreign invasions. With the rise of the 11th dynasty began the Middle Kingdom which lasted till 1788 B.C. This period was characterized by the weakness of the Central Monarchy and the diffusion of authority among local feudal nobles who were mostly benevolent despots. After 2000 B.C., however, the Pharaohs of the 12th dynasty regained much of the power that was lost by their predecessors. It was a great blow to feudalism. Privileges which were hitherto the preserve of a few were now thrown open to the whole population without distinction of birth or rank. For this reason, the government of the 12th dynasty has been sometimes characterized as the first democratic kingdom in history.

The end of the 12th dynasty threw Egypt once more into the vortex of chaos and anarchy. Internal disorder caused by the counter-revolt of the nobles invited foreign invasion and this confused state of affairs lasted for more than two centuries. About 750 B.C. the land was invaded by a Semitic people from Western Asia who won victory by means of their horses and war chariots.

Their conquest had important effects on Egypt. The Egyptians not only became familiar with new methods of warfare but were also forced to forget their internal differences and unite together in the face of their common enemy. This resulted in the restoration of strong government. By 1580 B.C. almost all the foreign conquerors were driven out of the country. The hero of this achievement was Ahmose I, the founder of the Third Period, which is called the Period of the Empire (1580 to 1090 B.C.), so called because it was a period of conquest and territorial expansion. During this period, Egypt was ruled by three dynasties of Pharaohs in succession, viz., the 18th, 19th and 20th. The period witnessed a resurgence of nationalism in the face of which narrow local loyalties melted away, and this in its turn developed into a spirit of aggressive imperialism. The greatest conqueror among the rulers of this period was Thutmose III, who became king in 1479 B.C. By virtue of his sword, he became master of a great empire extending from the Euphrates to the Nile. Phoenicians, Canaanites, Hittites and Assyrians bowed to his authority and paid him tribute. The first great woman ruler in history, Hatshepsut, ruled over Egypt in the period of the Empire. The most illustrious ruler of ancient Egyptian history, Amenhotep IV (1375-1358 B.C.), also belongs to this period. He changed his name to Akhnaton. "From all the early history of mankind," says a famous historian, "Akhnaton stands out as a real person, the world's first idealist, monotheist and prophet of internationalism". He effected a great revolution in the religion of his country by introducing the worship of one God, in place of the worship of many gods which prevailed in Egypt. He was also a great apostle of peace. But his ideas were far in advance of his Age.

The government of the New Kingdom was very much like that of the Old Kingdom, but it was more absolute. It was a military despotism which ruled with the help of a professional army. The whole empire was divided into more than fifty administrative units each of which was ruled by a governor as the direct representative of the monarch.

The Egyptian Empire was not a stable and well-knit unit. The territory was too vast to be managed successfully. There were frequent revolts of the conquered peoples. Increase of wealth led to corruption and luxury. By the 12th century B.C. several conquered provinces had been lost. After the death of the last great Pharaoh in 1167 B.C. there were no able rulers. Egypt fell a prey to barbarian invasions by the middle of the 12th century B.C. At this time the Egyptians themselves became degenerated. The decline of Egypt was hastened by the growing power of the priests who usurped religious power and

prerogatives. A dynasty of Lybian barbarians ruled over Egypt from the middle of the 10th century till almost the end of the 8th century. The Lybians were followed by the Ethiopians or Nubians who came from the regions west of the upper Nile. In 670 the Assyrians conquered Egypt and held it under their sway for eight years after which the kingdom regained its independence for some time. But this was shortlived. In 525 B.C. Egypt was conquered by the Persians and with it perished its ancient civilisation for ever. The Macedonians under Alexander the Great conquered the kingdom from the Persians, and after the death of Alexander, a line of native rulers called Ptolemies reigned over Egypt. In the 1st century A.D. it became a part of the Roman Empire.

The Pre-Dynastic Civilisation of Egypt

Even long before the dynastic period in Egyptian history, i.e., before 3500 B.C. Egypt had attained a considerable level of civilisation. There was notable progress in arts and crafts and even in some sciences. Tools, weapons and ornaments were fashioned out of flint, copper and gold. The art of jewellery had been highly developed and vessels of artistic excellence were produced. The art of weaving had also reached a very high standard and linen cloth of superior quality was woven during this Age. We have already seen that the system of writing originated in Egypt. The beginnings of this can be traced to the pre-dynastic period. One of the most significant contributions of pre-dynastic Egyptian civilisation was the invention of the first solar calendar in the history of man. This calendar provided for 12 months of 30 days each with five feast days added at the end. It is estimated that this calendar was extant in Egypt as early as 4200 B.C. An accurate calendar like this could not have existed if the sciences of mathematics and astronomy had not been highly developed at that time.

Egyptian Civilisation of the Dynastic Period: Religion

Ancient Egypt made wonderful contributions to civilisation. Religion had a leading role in the evolution of Egyptian civilisation. The Greeks described the Egyptians as "the most religious of men". Religion had its imprint upon every department of life in ancient Egypt. As mentioned earlier, the government of the Old Kingdom was a theocracy and the Pharaohs ruled in the name of God. Enormous amount of energy and money were spent on construction and providing elaborate tombs and in lavishly maintaining the priestly classes. The religious history of the ancient Egyptians is a story of evolution through numerous stages. At first it was simple Polytheism, the worship of many gods. There were thousands

of gods and goddesses, each district having its separate local deities. With the consolidation of territory in the Old Kingdom, there was also a fusion of deities so that finally the great Sun God called Re or Ra emerged. It was commonly called Amon. There was another great God called Osiris which personified all the vegetative powers of Nature. It was also called the God of the Nile. Throughout Egyptian history, the cult of Re and the rival cult of Osiris dominated religion. The solar faith which meant the worship of the great Sun God was dominant in the period of the Middle Kingdom. Egyptian ideas of life after death were fully developed in the later history of the Middle Kingdom. In this stage the Egyptians placed food, drink, weapons and face paint by the side of the dead body. It was also the belief that if the body was destroyed the soul could not enter heaven. Hence, as soon as a man was dead, his body was embalmed. The art of embalming was so highly developed that the embalmed body which was called the "Mummy" could be preserved for any length of time.

It was towards the close of the Middle Kingdom and the beginning of the Empire that Egyptian religion reached its perfection. By this time there took place a fusion of the solar faith and the cult of Osiris combining the best features of both. But soon after the establishment of the Empire, religion became debased; Superstition and magic became its chief elements. The priests exploited the people by selling magical charms. They also sold formulas, making the people believe that these formulas would lead the dead to heaven. All the formulas together constituted what is known as the Book of the Dead.

The religious degeneration of Egypt led to a reaction in the form of a religious revolution headed by Amenhotep IV about whom mention has already been made. He conducted a veritable crusade against the abuses of the priest-ridden religion. He sacked the priests from the temples and hacked the names of traditional deities from the public monuments. He taught a religion of universal monotheism. He commanded his people to worship a single God, whom he called "Atom", a God not only of Egypt, but of the whole Universe. It was a God which ordained the moral order of the world and rewarded man for purity and integrity, a heavenly father bestowing his benevolent care overall his creation.

The successors of Amenhotep did not possess the ideal of that great man. Hence, once more religion degenerated, and old superstitions raised their head. Once more, people became steeped in ignorance and fell victims of priestly exploitation

though Amenhotep's teachings lingered for some time among the educated minority. With the decay of religion, there inevitably came the decay of philosophy, literature, art and government which were closely linked with religion.

Intellectual Achievements

PHILOSOPHY: The Egyptians attained a high level of progress in the field of philosophy. The conception of an eternal Universe, the idea of constantly repeating cycles of events and the doctrine of natural cause and effect were some of the contributions of Egyptian philosophy. There was a great philosopher in Egypt about 2500 B.C. by name Ptahhotep. He was a vizier under one of the Pharaohs. His work called "Maxims of Ptahhotep" contained counsels of practical wisdom useful in the pursuit of worldly success as well as inculcation of morality of a very high order. These aphorisms are, in the words of a modern historian, "the first expressions of moral idealism in all the world's literature". During the period of the Middle Kingdom, there developed a philosophy of complete scepticism regarding life after death. Rooted in this philosophy was the doctrine that man should seek his pleasure while he may and also strive for the pleasure of others. The last among the great ethical philosophers of ancient Egypt was Amenemope who lived towards the close of the period of the Empire. There was a heavy dose of theology in his philosophy. He preached that God is the architect of human destiny and inculcated the virtues of tolerance and human sympathy.

SCIENCE: There was great development of astronomy and mathematics in the period of the Old Kingdom. We have already studied about the solar calendar which was in vogue during this period. The ancient Egyptians are credited with having laid the foundation of arithmetic and geometry. They devised the arithmetical processes of addition, subtraction and division, but not multiplication. They are also said to have invented the decimal system, though they had no symbol for zero. They had attained a high degree of skill in mensuration and knew how to calculate the volume of the pyramid, the cylinder and even the hemisphere. Another branch of science in which ancient Egypt made wonderful contributions was medicine. Egyptian physicians were specialists in different fields of medicine. Some were dentists, some were surgeons and some specialists in stomach diseases. They learnt the importance of the heart and the significance of the pulse. Many of the remedies for diseases discovered by the Egyptians were carried into Europe by the Greeks. Other sciences in which they attained high level of proficiency were engineering,

metallurgy and chemistry. The word "chemistry" itself is of Egyptian origin. The Egyptians invented the sundial and the water clock. They are also credited with the making of paper and glass. In the field of science they had equalled the Romans and rivalled the Hebrews and Persians.

Writing and Literature

We have already seen that the art of writing originated and developed in Egypt. The hieroglyphic system of writing took its form during the pre-dynastic period. It was originally composed of pictographic signs. Out of this was gradually evolved twenty-four symbols, each representing a single consonant sound of the human voice. The last stage in the evolution of writing was the development of the alphabet. The Egyptians are said to have invented the principles of the alphabet. The Phoenicians some 1,500 years later, copied this principle and spread the idea among the neighbouring nations. Hence, it would not be wrong to say that the Egyptian alphabet was the parent of every other alphabet which later on came into use in the Western world.

The Egyptians had also a rich literature. It was largely philosophical and religious. "The Royal Hymn" of Ikhnaton composed by Amenhotep IV in the 14th century B.C. is one of the best pieces of Egyptian literature. It is a magnificent ode in praise of Aton "the sole God, besides whom there is no other". It was the most sublime embodiment of the Egyptian conception of universal monotheism. Besides the philosophical and religious literature, there was a rich lore of folk songs of the common people, charming love lyrics and stories of adventure. Such popular literature gives a faithful picture of Egyptian society and gives the impression of a fairly high standard of living comparatively free from grotesque forms of tyranny and ignorance. This literature had profound influence upon later oriental peoples.

Egyptian Art

Drawing, painting, architecture, sculpture, pottery, music, weaving and other arts had attained a high degree of perfection in ancient Egypt. Of these, architecture was the most highly developed. The most monumental achievement of Egyptian architecture was the building of the pyramids which belonged to the period of the Old Kingdom. The pyramids were the tombs of the Pharaohs. The first pyramid was built at least as early as 2700 B.C. The largest of the pyramids is the "Great Pyramid" built by King Khufu of the 4th dynasty. It is still the greatest structure ever built by men. It is nearly 500 feet in height and covers an area of about 13 acres. It

is said that no less than one hundred thousand men worked at it for 20 years. Why were the pyramids built? There is no historical evidence that gives a clear and conclusive answer to this. Historians believed that they were built for religious and political reasons. The pyramids are architectural expressions of the ambitions of the Egyptians to endow their State with permanence and stability. As tombs of the rulers, the pyramids were believed to ensure immortality to the people as the ruler was the embodiment of the national life. The pyramids might also have been symbols of Sun worship.

In the periods of the Middle Kingdom and the Empire, the temple took the place of the pyramid as the best expression of Egyptian architecture, as the symbol of national strength and eternity of its culture. The Egyptian temples were of gigantic size. The temple of Karnak was the most famous among them. It is the largest religious house ever built, with a length of about 1,300 feet. The columns of the temple were of colossal size, the largest being 70 feet high with a diameter of over 20 feet. It took nearly two thousand years to complete the construction of this temple, and it is about a quarter of a mile long. Many other marvellous structures were also built by the Egyptians, such as rockcut tombs and statues. The art of portrait sculpture was also of a very high standard. "No age," says H.A. Davies, "produced more life-like portraits". The most famous of them was the largest portrait sculpture ever produced, the Great Sphinx with the head of a man and the body of a lion. The figure is about 160 feet long and about 70 feet high. Statues of Pharaohs were also built which were colossal in size. The height of these statues ranged from 75 to 90 feet. This gigantic size of the statues of Pharaohs was intended to be a symbol of the power of these rulers as well as the power of their kingdom. The art of painting developed rather late in Egyptian history compared to architecture and sculpture. The best paintings belong to the period of Ikhnaton's reign and immediately after. His reverence for Nature was influential in a revival of naturalism in art which was particularly reflected in painting. The mural paintings of this period faithfully portray the world of experience and the beauty of man's natural environment.

Ancient Egypt was also noted for other arts like music. Musicians played upon musical instruments like the harp, pipe and lute. Stone-cutters, masons, potters, carpenters, jewellers, coppersmiths and goldsmiths were available in plenty.

Social and Economic Life

Egyptian society consisted of different classes though there was no rigid caste system. All were equal in the eyes of the

law. Class distinctions were elastic enough to enable a man rise from a lower class to a higher class. In most part of Egyptian history the population consisted of five classes—the royal family, the priestly class, the nobles, the middle class including merchants, farmers, artisans and scribes, and lastly the serfs. A sixth class, the professional soldiers corresponding to the Kshatriyas in ancient India, was in existence during the period of the Empire. In the same period, there was also a seventh class for a time, *viz.*, the slaves who had been captured. In due course they were absorbed in the army and in the personal service of the Pharaoh. The predominance of the various classes shifted from time to time. Nobles and priests held the supremacy in the Old Kingdom. But the commoners gained the upper hand during the Middle Kingdom. A new class of nobility gained ascendancy under the Empire. It was primarily made up of bureaucrats. The priests also were a power to be reckoned with during this period.

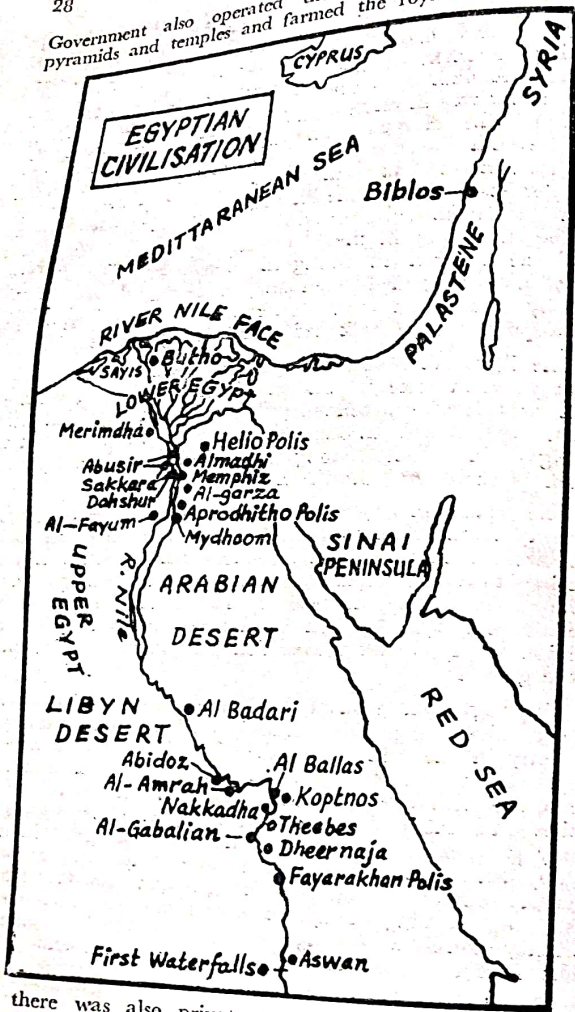
The Egyptian family was monogamous. Women occupied a high place in society. The matriarchal system, the essence of which was female ascendancy, prevailed in Egyptian society. Descent was traced through the female line. It is said that the Egyptians alone among the oriental peoples permitted women to succeed to the throne.

The educational system was one which bears eloquent testimony to the highly developed nature of Egyptian society. There were a number of public schools which trained thousands of scribes to do service in the administration of the government in the matter of keeping records and accounts. Many of them were also employed by rich businessmen and landlords. There is reason to suppose that education was provided free of charge by the government.

The Egyptian economy was essentially agrarian. Wheat, barley, millet, vegetables, fruits, flax and cotton were grown in plenty in the rich soil of the Nile Valley. Commerce also prospered after 2000 B.C. and there was rich commercial intercourse with Crete, Phoenicia, Palestine and Syria. Wheat, textiles and fine pottery were exported while the imports were chiefly gold, silver and ivory. There was also great industrial development. The chief industries were manufacture of pottery, glass and textiles, ship-building and quarrying. Money economy was also prevailing though there was no system of coinage. Currency consisted of rings of copper or gold—perhaps the oldest system of currency in the history of mankind.

There is evidence to show that ancient Egypt had a collectivistic economy. There were huge State enterprises and the government was the largest employer of labour.

Government also operated the quarries and mines, built pyramids and temples and farmed the royal estates. Side by



side, there was also private enterprise so that the Egyptian economy was a mixed economy. But during the period of the

Empire, State control was extended over every department of economic life. The entire agricultural land became the property of the ruler. Compulsory labour was extracted from craftsmen to build pyramids and temples and make weapons of war. Foreign trade was a monopoly of the State. However, during the period of the Empire, the unholy alliance, between the priests and the Pharaohs resulted in special privileges and immunities for the former which sapped the vitality of the nation and contributed to economic and social decay.

CHAPTER IX

CIVILISATIONS OF MESOPOTAMIA

THE SUMERIAN CIVILISATION

Political History of the Sumerians

Contemporaneous with the Egyptian civilisation, an equally brilliant civilisation was developing in the land called Mesopotamia. The name Mesopotamia was given by the ancient Greeks to the fertile river valley between the Euphrates and the Tigris in Western Asia. The northern part of Mesopotamia was called Assyria and the southern part Babylonia. Babylonia in its turn consisted of two districts, Sumer the southern district and Akkad the northern district. Unlike Egypt, Mesopotamia was not protected by natural barriers and so it was exposed to incessant invasions from foreigners. This led to the rise and fall of one civilisation after another.

The earliest people to lay the foundation of an urban civilisation were the Sumerians. They were a race of unknown origin, but their original home is supposed to be Central Asia. Their culture had some resemblance to the earliest civilisation of India. They came and settled in the lower Tigris-Euphrates Valley during the period between 5000 and 4000 B.C. after conquering the native population who were in the stage of later Neolithic culture. The Sumerians founded many cities of which the most famous was Nippur. Many of these cities developed into city-States and these city-States were continuously quarrelling with each other. Gradually a Sumerian Empire was built up which extended from the Persian Gulf to the Red Sea. This empire came to an end about 2650 B.C. when it was conquered by Sargon I, the leader of a Nomadic Semitic tribe known as the Akkadians. He founded a new empire on the ruins of the old empire. But the empire of Sargon was shortlived. His death was the signal for a number of Sumerian revolts which

evil. But the Sumerian religion was a religion of this world and did not offer the vision of a life after death. Hence the Sumerians, unlike the Egyptians, did not bestow much care for the bodies of their dead. Dead bodies were buried beneath the floor without coffins. The Sumerian gods were intensely human with the passions and weakness of ordinary mortals. The concepts of uplift of the human soul and oneness with God were alien to the Sumerian religion. Nor did their religion prescribe or enforce standards of morality.

In the field of science, the Sumerians made notable contributions. They are credited with having discovered the processes of multiplication and division, and the extraction of square and cube root. Among their inventions were the water clock and the lunar calendar. The year was divided into months based upon cycles of the moon and an additional month was added from time to time to conform to the solar year. The science of medicine had not very much developed and it was a curious compound of magic and treatment with herbs.

In the field of art, the Sumerians were exceptionally clever in metal work, gem carving and sculpture. They combined technical skill with a rare gift of imagination. They excelled in making vases of fine design. In architecture, the Sumerian inventions of the arch, the vault and the domes were employed in the construction of royal tombs and private houses. Lastly, the Sumerians had also an advanced system of weights and measures.

CHAPTER X

THE BABYLONIAN CIVILISATION

The Babylonian Empire

We have seen in the previous chapter that the death blow to the later Sumerian Empire was dealt by the Elamites. They were a warlike people of unknown language and race who came from the east and conquered the southern part of Mesopotamia. Another group of people called Amorites came from the region of Syria and settled in the village of Babylon in the northern part of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. They were commonly called the Babylonians from the village of Babylon which became the capital of their empire. They were also known as Old Babylonians as distinguished from the Neo-Babylonians or Chaldeans, who settled in the valley much later. The rise of the Old Babylonians marks the second important stage

of the Mesopotamian civilisation. Under their great king Hammurabi, they conquered the Sumerians and Elamites and established the Babylonian Empire. Hammurabi was an illustrious ruler who brought the whole of Mesopotamia under his sway by about 2100 B.C. But after his time, there was gradual decline of the empire until it was finally destroyed by a barbarian race known as the Kassites about 1750 B.C.

The Old Babylonian Civilisation

The Babylonians made valuable contributions to civilisation, particularly in the reign of Hammurabi. Politically, the system of government was autocracy and the power of the king was made supreme. There was also compulsory military service. The system of law also changed to suit new conditions. The greatest achievement of the reign of Hammurabi was the codification of laws. The Code of Hammurabi was a collection and re-issue of ancient Sumerian laws with modifications in conformity with the changed situation. It was engraved on a huge block of stone 8 feet in height and set up on the temple at Babylon. Some of the laws embodied in the Code are really good. For instance, there were laws enjoining that justice shall be done to the widows, orphans and the poor. But in many respects, the laws were made more severe and barbarous than under the Sumerians. Thus, giving protection to a fugitive slave was punishable merely by a fine under the Sumerian Code, whereas the punishment prescribed by the Code of Hammurabi was to cut off the ears. Unlike the Sumerian law, the Code of Hammurabi prescribed death penalty for adultery. The Babylonian laws also reflected a greater development of trade than under the Sumerian culture. Businessmen enjoyed a privileged position in society. But trade, banking and industry were regulated by the State. There were laws to regulate taking of interest on money. Hammurabi's Code also prescribed penalties for failure to cultivate a field and for neglect of dykes and canals. Both government and private ownerships of land were permitted.

Religion played an important part in the Babylonian civilisation. There was worship of many gods and the priestly class was very powerful and influential. Prominent Sumerian gods were degraded and new gods were exalted in their place. There was more of superstition under the Babylonians than under their predecessors. Astrology and magic became more prominent than before. The priests claimed the power of foretelling the future by the observation of stars and planets. But the Old Babylonians, like the Sumerians, were not other-worldly in their outlook. They had no faith in personal immortality. Demon worship and witchcraft had an important

place among them. In the field of art, particularly sculpture and architecture, as well as in science, there was a decline under the Babylonian rule. But there was some improvement in the Babylonian literature. There were schools in Babylonia to teach the art of writing. The period produced poetry of a high order. The so-called "Babylonian Job" similar to the "Book of Job" in the Bible was written in this period. It contains contemplations of merit on the mysteries of the Universe and the helplessness of man, typical of oriental philosophy.

CHAPTER XI THE ASSYRIANS

Rise and Fall of the Assyrians

The Assyrians were another Semitic people who came from the Syrian desert and settled on the top of a plateau in the upper valley of the Tigris as early as the 11th century B.C. They were called Assyrians because they worshipped the great desert-god Assur. They built up the two great cities of Assur and Ninevah. They were mighty warriors and experts in riding the horses and driving the chariots and this gave them a great military advantage over their enemies. About 1169 B.C., Babylonia was conquered by them. There were several ups and downs in the fortunes of the Assyrians until they were conquered by the Chaldeans towards the close of the 7th century B.C. Sennacherib was the most famous of the Assyrian rulers. Under him Babylon was sacked. Palestine and Egypt fell before him.

The Assyrian power was based on militarism. The greed of the Assyrians for territory impelled them for more and more conquests until finally militarism recoiled against them and brought about their ruin. The army commanders were the most powerful and the richest class in the country. There was a huge standing army and the Assyrians had improved weapons, and techniques of fighting. Iron swords, long lances, metal shields and helmets were a few of their armaments which gave them advantage over their enemies. Moreover, they used the most barbarous and fruitful methods to overpower their enemies such as skinning the victims alive, cutting off their ears and noses, and exhibiting in cages the captivated human beings in their mutilated forms. These acts of cruelty ultimately turned against the Assyrians like a boomerang. Their enemies took terrible vengeance against them when occasion arose. Their land was sacked, their people enslaved or exterminated, so that in the end not a trace of Assyrian influence was left.

The Assyrian Culture

The Assyrian culture centred around military pursuits so that arts of peace were considerably neglected. Thus, there was no substantial progress in commerce or industry. The chief means of livelihood of the Assyrians was agriculture. There was both private and public ownership of land. Most of the landed wealth belonged to the temples. Army officers received considerable grants of land from the State. There were also many rich landlords among private citizens. The social and economic system contained in it seeds of destruction. The military aristocracy indulged themselves in pleasures and luxury while the serfs and the slaves had to toil hard for the sake of their masters and lead a life of starvation. They were also subjected to compulsory military service. There were two classes of slaves, *viz.*, the domestic slaves and the war captives. The former had some amount of freedom and were even permitted to own property. The latter had to lead a life of utter misery, doing heavy manual labour in public works.

The Assyrians are said to have adopted the law of the Old Babylonians to a great extent. But some modifications were introduced. Thus, the Assyrian law enjoined object subjection of women. Wives were the property of their husbands and could be divorced by the latter at their pleasure. Plurality of wives was allowed and the purdah system was in existence.

Although the intellectual achievement of the Assyrians was on the whole inferior, they made some progress in science and art. They are credited with having divided the circle into 360 degrees. They discovered and named five planets and were able to predict eclipses to some extent. Medicine also received appreciable development in their hands. Symptoms of various diseases were correctly diagnosed and the uses of more than five hundred drugs were discovered. In the field of art, the Assyrians excelled the Old Babylonians and equalled the Sumerians in their achievements. Sculpture, particularly architectural sculpture, was the art in which they achieved special excellence. They made elaborate stone pictures to represent the valiant deeds of kings. The chief features of their architecture were the dome and the arch. But it suffered from the defect of massiveness since the Assyrians identified beauty with size.

The most illustrious ruler of the Assyrians was Assurbanipal who ruled in the 7th century B.C. He shines singularly among the Assyrian monarchs as almost the only ruler who gave real attention to learning and arts. He maintained a magnificent royal library at Ninevah which contained thirty thousand clay tablets properly classified and catalogued for easy reference. These tablets embodied the literary, scientific and religious ideas

of his own time and the past. Among the tablets were included many hundreds of letters, business documents and military chronicles. The military narratives of the Assyrians represent the earliest attempts at patriotic historical writing. Assurbanipal was himself an author of an autobiography.

The chief contribution of the Assyrians was that they received civilisation from others and passed it on to future generations. Their original contributions were scanty.

CHAPTER XII

THE CHALDEANS OR NEO-BABYLONIANS

The Chaldean supremacy marked the last stage in the Mesopotamian civilisation. The Chaldeans were a Semitic race who destroyed the Assyrian Empire in 612 B.C. with the help of an Aryan-speaking people, called the Medes. The Chaldeans were also known as Neo-Babylonians, because they restored the capital at Babylon and attempted to revive the culture of Hammurabi's time. The greatest of the Chaldean emperors was Nebuchadnezzar who ruled from 605 to 562 B.C. He is a figure mentioned in the Bible. He launched upon a career of wars and conquests. He invaded Egypt and subjugated the Jews in Palestine. The Jews rebelled but the rebellion was suppressed and many Jewish princes, soldiers and craftsmen were carried away to Babylon as captives. There was a second Jewish rebellion for which they had to pay a heavy price. The City of Jerusalem was burned to the ground and the temple of Solomon destroyed. The Hebrew king's sons were killed before his eyes and then he was blinded. The blind king and thousands of his subjects were taken as captives to Babylon. The period in which the Jews were held as captives in Babylonia is known in Jewish history as the "Babylonian Captivity". Nebuchadnezzar built a magnificent palace in Babylon and caused to be made on the roof of the temple palace, the famous gardens known as the "hanging gardens" of Babylon, which the Greeks characterised as one of the seven wonders of the world. After the death of Nebuchadnezzar the Chaldean Empire steadily declined until in 539 B.C. it was overthrown by the Medes and the Persians.

The Chaldean Renaissance

The Chaldean ascendancy witnessed a renaissance of the Old Babylonian civilisation. The Chaldeans revived certain of the Old Babylonian institutions and ideals. Ancient law and literature were restored. The essential elements of the Old

and beauty of nature, and their wonderful dexterity in miniature painting and sculpture.

Influence and Importance of Aegean Civilisation

The Aegean civilisation had profoundly influenced subsequent civilisation. Some aspects of Aegean culture were introduced into Palestine and Syria by the Philistines who came from the Aegean islands. Various elements of the Phoenician art were the legacy of the Aegean civilisation. It is supposed that the Greeks were also influenced by the religious and aesthetic traditions of the Cretans as well as their spirit of freedom. However, in the "dark age" which followed the fate of the City of Knossos, much of the Aegean civilisation perished.

The Aegean civilisation provides a welcome relief to the dreary story of the tyranny of despotic monarchy and crafty priesthood in the history of ancient times. The absence of slavery, of barbarous punishments and of forced labour, equality of sexes, and of classes, and the dignity of status enjoyed by women—all point to a social order which assured a fair share of happiness and prosperity to the humblest citizens. Such a civilisation, which afforded necessary climate for comfort and amusement, zest for life and spirit of experimentation was really in tune with the modern spirit.

CHAPTER XIV

THE PHOENICIANS

Who were the Phoenicians ?

Historians have not been able to get authentic evidence about the early or late history of the Phoenicians. It is not known when and whence they came to the land of Phoenicia. It is also uncertain whether they belonged to the Phoenician race. Phoenicia was a narrow strip of land, a 100 miles long and only 10 miles wide, between Syria and the Mediterranean Sea. They were protected from the invasions of warlike people by the barrier provided by the Lebanon hills which stretched on the eastern boundary of their kingdom. They were not a military race and at first did not build up an empire. They made their mark in the arts of peace, particularly through commerce. Their mountain barriers squeezed them into the sea-coast and so they were compelled to lead a maritime life. Their political system was based on city-States which had formed themselves into a loose confederation. The chief commercial cities were Tyre, Sidon and Byblos. The City of Byblos carried

on a brisk trade in Egyptian papyrus about 1100 B.C. From the name of this city, the Greeks adopted the word for book, viz., "biblos" and the word "Bible" is derived from this.

With the fall of the Aegean Empire and the decline of Egypt, the Phoenician city-States established political domination in the Mediterranean by means of their powerful navies. Phoenician colonies were established on the Mediterranean coast of Africa and in the islands of Sicily and Cyprus and perhaps in Greece. The most prominent of their colonies was Carthage in the north-western coast of Africa, which later on waged series of wars against aggressive Rome. The naval empire of the Phoenician cities lasted from about the 12th to the 7th century B.C. In the 6th century it passed first under the Chaldean domination, and then under the Persians. In 332 B.C. the most important city-State of Phoenicia was destroyed by Alexander the Great of Macedonia.

Phoenician Civilisation

The Phoenicians were not reputed for their creative genius. But they were clever in adopting the achievements of others. They did not make any enduring contribution to religion, art and literature. However, they excelled in specialised manufacture. They manufactured various forms and objects of glass and metal and made enamelled vases, weapons, ornaments and jewellery. They were renowned for the manufacture of the purple dye extracted from the molluscs abounding along their shores. The women of Tyre were famous for their wonderful needle-work characterised by gorgeous colours. The Phoenicians took cereals, wines and precious metals obtained from India and the Near East to the Mediterranean cities and brought back in return lead, gold and iron from the southern shores of the Black Sea, copper, cypress and corn from Cyprus, iron from Africa, silver from Spain, tin from Britain and slaves from all parts. They were shrewd and efficient traders and did not hesitate to adopt foul means to promote their trade. "Like all early voyages, and some old languages," says Will Durant, "they made scant distinction between trade and treachery, commerce and robbery; they stole from the weak, cheated the stupid, and were honest with the rest".

The Phoenicians were unrivalled in their trade, in geography and navigation. Due to their unique proficiency in the art of navigation, they could sail by the stars at night. As the Phoenician pilots guided themselves by the North Star the Greek called it the Phoenician Star. It is said that a company of Phoenicians circumnavigated Africa and discovered the Cape of Good Hope some two thousand years before it was discovered for the modern world in 1498.

The most lasting achievement of the Phoenicians was their alphabet. Many scholars think that alphabetic writing (phonetic writing) was invented in Egypt about 1500 B.C. Others think that it originated in the Minoan writing of Crete. Still others hold the view that it was invented in Phoenicia. As far as we know, the earliest Phoenician writing dates back to the 13th century B.C. By the 9th century B.C. the Phoenicians were using an alphabet of twenty-two letters. It is likely that the Greeks learnt it from the Phoenicians. The Greeks transmitted it to the modern world. Although it is a controversial question whether the Phoenicians invented the alphabet, there is no doubt that the credit for its diffusion in different regions goes to them.

The greatest contribution which the Phoenicians made to civilisation was that in the worlds of Will Durant. "they took the arts and sciences of Egypt, Crete and Near East and spread them in Greece, Africa, Italy and Spain. They bound together the East and the West in a commercial and cultural web and began to redeem Europe from barbarism".

CHAPTER XV

ANCIENT CHINESE CIVILISATION

Political History of Ancient China

In China a splendid civilisation developed from very ancient times. But the early history of China is shrouded in darkness. There is no reliable historical information regarding the original home of the Chinese, about their race and as to how old their civilisation is "China like India", says Will Durant, "is to be compared with Europe, as a whole rather than with any one nation of Europe, it is not the united home of one people, but a medley of human varieties different in origin, distinct in language, diverse in character and art and often hostile to one another in customs, morals and government."

In the early stages of Chinese civilisation, China was a land of city-States. Slowly it developed into an empire. The first known dynasty of emperors is the Shang dynasty which is supposed to have ruled from 1750 to 1125 B.C. This dynasty was succeeded by the Chou dynasty (1125—250 B.C.). In the 12th century B.C. the Chinese Empire was very small compared with modern China and did not extend much beyond the fertile plain through which the Yellow River flows. It did not include Mongolia, Manchuria and Tibet. It was called the "Middle Kingdom" because it was encircled on the north

and the south and the west with barbarian races who constantly threatened the security of the Chinese Empire. There were vassal States on the borders of the kingdom ruled by princes or dukes who recognised the suzerainty of the Chinese emperor. They fought against the barbarians who menaced the frontier regions of the empire. In due course these dukes and princes became independent and owed only nominal allegiance to the emperor though the emperor held the title "Son of Heaven". By the 6th century B.C. China became a loose confederation of independent dukes warring with one another, though still under the authority of the emperor in name. During this period China was under a system of feudalism according to which the princes, dukes and other rulers of small States were supposed to owe allegiance to the emperor but were practically independent and were waging war with each other. As centuries passed, this system became worse and until it led to the overthrow of the Chou dynasty in about 250 B.C. by the ruler of one of the duchies, the principality of Chin at the western end of Chinese territory. Then followed a struggle among rival princes in which one of them defeated all others and took the title of emperor in 221 B.C. He adopted the name Shih Hwangti which means First Emperor. He ruled till 212 B.C. He established the Chin dynasty which ruled with greater vigour and effect than any previous dynasty, though it did not long after the death of its founder.

Shih Hwangti has been called the "Candragupta of China". He was an emperor in the true sense. He put an end to feudalism and established a strong centralised administration. He had a well-organised army of cavalry with which he extended his empire southwards across the Yangtse River. He brought about the unification of China under his imperial authority. He caused the construction of roads and canals throughout the empire which knit together the various territories of the empire. China was frequently attacked from the north by a nomadic people called the Huns. Shih Hwangti defeated them and to ward off their invasion he built the famous Great Wall of China, eighteen hundred miles long, about 22 feet high and 20 feet broad. It was largely built from convict labour and was completed within ten years. Shih Hwangti was not popular among the scholar class in his country since he rejected all their antiquated ideas. When they tried to obstruct his paths, he followed the policy of destroying their books as well as themselves. In 212 B.C. about 400 scholars were put to death and books which had any bearing on politics were destroyed. On account of the "Burning of the Books" he is represented by Chinese tradition as a blood thirsty despot.

he lived. But soon after his death, rebellions arose in different parts of his empire and his sons were assassinated. The Chin dynasty came to an end in 206 B.C.

Civilisation of Ancient China

Chinese culture is one of the most ancient cultures of the world. It is said to have a continuity of seven thousand years. In the midst of the disunity and political chaos which characterised the history of ancient China was laid the foundation of China's language, literature, philosophy and art. It appears that the Chinese civilisation was a native, independent and isolated growth without getting any substantial assistance from foreign influence. It was throughout, a Mongolian civilisation. There is evidence to show that by 1000 B.C. the civilisation of China had attained a high stage of development. The Chinese civilisation passed through several stages. There was an Old Stone Age followed by a New Stone Age when agriculture developed. Then came the Copper or Bronze Age in which developed arts resembling those of contemporary Egypt and Mesopotamia. Finally came the Iron Age. It is supposed that iron weapons began to be commonly used in China only about 500 B.C. *i.e.*, two hundred or three hundred years after they were of familiar use in Assyria and Egypt.

The Chinese had developed a system of writing from very early times. At first the Chinese used the device of tying certain knots in a cord to convey ideas. The next step was the system of cutting small pictures on a smooth surface. This is what is known as pictorial writing. Each picture represented a word. From this was developed the Chinese as it is written today. The pictures were gradually simplified into symbols for things. The next stage was ideograms, *i.e.*, combination of pictorial writing or pictograms representing ideas. Thus, the drawing of a picture of the sun above the horizon meant the idea of dawn. The next and final stage was the phonograms, *i.e.*, symbols representing sounds. The system of writing which developed in China is very complicated and extremely difficult to learn. The use of brush made of hair for writing came into use from the 3rd century B.C. onwards. The Chinese considered the art of writing one with the art of painting and the same brush is used for both.

The Chinese are credited with having invented paper. Papyrus, which was well known in the Mediterranean world, had not spread to China. The Chinese, on the other hand, used paper which was invented by them as early as 2nd century A.D. It was made of rags and old fish nets pounded in mortar. The Arabs learnt the art of paper-making from

Chinese prisoners of war and the Spaniards and Italians learnt it from the Arabs in the 13th century A.D.

The Chinese had excelled in many practical arts from early times. Even during the period of the Chou dynasty agriculture was improved by irrigation and division of lands. The art of sculpture was widely spread throughout China in the 2nd century B.C. Tombs have been discovered with various figures carved in stone on the inside walls.

One of the distinctive features of the Chinese civilisation was the development in thought. "As India is *par excellence* the land of metaphysics and religion", says Will Durant, "China is, by like pre-eminence the home of humnistic, or non-theological philosophy". China produced three great philosophers during the period we have reviewed. They were Lao-Tze, Confucius and Mencius. Lao-Tze is supposed to have been born in 604 B.C. and tradition credits him with having lived for 87 years. The word "Lao-Tze" is a description which means "the Old Master". His real name is said to have been Li Erh. Very little is known about his life. He is said to have been the keeper of archives of the State of Chou, but disgusted with the evil ways of politicians, renounced his job and went away to some distant and secluded country side. It is not known when he died. He was the founder of Taoism, one of the great Chinese religions. Some historians compare him with Buddha and call him the Gauthama Buddha of China. Like Buddha he taught a "path" of "way" and "Tao" means the "way". The "way" of Taoism is a life of retiriement and quiet contemplation of Nature. Thus disdain for all things worldly was the essence of Taoism. Like Buddhism, Taoism insists that desire is the root of all evils and that happiness and contentment can come only by suppressing desires. Some of the teachings of Lao-Tze resemble those of Christ. "If you do not quarrel", he says, "no one on earth will be able to quarrel with you". "Recompense injury with kindness", was another of his sayings. After the death of Lao-Tze he became a tradition and people even worshipped him as a God. A temple was built for his worship seven hundred years after his death. Confucius (551 B.C.—497 B.C.) was the greatest of the Chinese philosophers. The "Age" of Confucius was the most remarkable period in Chinese philosophy though it was an Age of confusion in the political life of China. He was born at Ch'ufu, in the kingdom of Lu which is the present province of Shantung. His original name was Kung Chiu and his pupils called him "Kung-fu-tse" which means "Kung the Master". He was born in one of the oldest families in China, the son of an army officer. But his father died while he was only 3 years old and he had to work hard from his early age to support himself and his mother. He

began his career as a teacher at the age of 22 and his own home was his school house. He was skilled in archery and music and enjoyed reading, hunting and fishing. He taught three important subjects in his school, viz., History, Geometry and the Schools of Propriety. Though he had few pupils at first, in due course there were three thousand young men who learnt at his feet. At the age of 51 he was appointed by the Duke of Lu as governor of a city. Soon he was elevated as the Minister of Justice at the duchy of Lu and his administration was so successful that there were hardly any crimes during his regime. But he resigned his post when the Duke after accepting a gift of dancing girls from the Duke of a neighbouring State, became fascinated with them, and neglected the affairs of the State despite the sage advice of Confucius. For the next 14 years, he wandered from State to State to find out a ruler willing to accept his theories. Having failed in this attempt, he returned to his native place at the age of 67 and formed a school where he spent the rest of his life as teacher.

The essence of his philosophy was passion for morality. He taught the need of moral regeneration based upon a sound and regulated family life. Wisdom, he said, begins at home and the foundation of society is a disciplined individual in a disciplined family. Confucius stressed that self-development is the root of social development and that the foundation of character is sincerity. Loyalty to the king, devotion to the parents and brotherhood between man and man were essential ethical principles of Confucian philosophy. Society rests upon the obedience of the children to their parents and of the wife to her husband. The law of morality alone is higher than the law of obedience. Confucius insisted upon good manners and he wrote a Chinese "Book of Etiquette" which contains rules for the life of a gentlemen. Thus, his teachings were responsible for developing in China a great fondness for elaborate etiquette, and the practice of ancient religious customs formed part of this etiquette. Confucius was essentially conservative in outlook and this is reflected in his "Book of Etiquette". But he was more concerned with men than with Gods. Hence, he is looked upon as an agnostic in religion. Most of his teachings were in the nature of proverbs applicable to daily life and conduct of man in this world. The most famous saying of Confucius in his Golden Rule, "What you do not like when done to yourself, do not do, to others".

Confucius had sound ideas about government and politics. He opposed the luxury of the rulers and their oppression of the common people. He said that rulers should be fathers to their people and should govern with wisdom and righteousness. He wanted that rulers should rule

according to good old ways. But as a political reformer he failed and is dream to bring to an end the wars among the feudal vassals of the emperor was unrealised.

The influence of Confucius on the life and philosophy of China after his death was incalculable. Perhaps no single man has exercised so much influence on the Chinese as this great man. Schools arose in different places after his death, where his disciples taught the Master's philosophy. "These schools, as the intellectual centres of China, kept civilisation alive during centuries of political collapse". In the long run the philosophy of Confucius became the strongest influence in moulding the life and character of the Chinese. "From the rise of the Hun dynasty to the fall of the Manchus—i.e., for two thousand years—the doctrine of Confucius moulded and dominated the Chinese mind".

"The history of China," says Will Durant, "might be written in terms of that influence. For generation after generation, the writings of the Master were the texts of the official schools, and nearly every lad who came through those schools had learnt those texts by heart. The Stoic conservatism of the ancient sage sank almost into the blood of the people, and gave to the nation, and to its individuals, a dignity and profundity unequalled elsewhere in the world or in history". Confucianism became the code of official life until 1905. Entrance into any branch of government service was possible only on passing an examination in the Confucian classical books.

Mencius (372 B.C.—289 B.C.) was second in fame only to Confucius in the history of Chinese philosophy. He belonged to an ancient family. His original name was Mang Ko, which by an imperial order, was changed to Mang-Tze, which means Mang the Master or Philosopher. The scholars of Europe transformed this name as Mencius. He opened a school of philosophy where there was a famous collection of students. He received invitations from various princes to discuss with them his theories of government. His teachings were secular like those of Confucius and more confined to moral and political speculation. He asserted that men are by nature good and that social problems arise not due to the fault of men but due to the wickedness of governments. To ensure good government, philosophers must become kings or kings must become philosophers. Mencius preferred monarchy to democracy because in a democracy, all the people must become educated, whereas in monarchy, only the monarch need have wisdom. The good ruler will fight not against other countries, but against poverty and ignorance which is the root of all crime and disorder. Mencius recognised the

right of revolution against tyranny and preached it openly in the face of kings. He condemned war as a crime and branded warriors as great criminals. He denounced the luxury of the courts and demanded that a king who is not able to prevent famine should resign. He said that people are the most important element in the country and that the sovereign is the lightest so that the people have the right to depose their rulers.

Mencius was hated by the rulers for his radicalism and by the socialists and communists of his time for his conservatism. When the latter raised the cry that working men should be made the heads of the State, Mencius rejected the idea saying that governments should be in the hands of educated men. At the same time, he denounced the profit motive in human society. Until the Revolution of 1911, Mencius remained one of the heroes of China, the second great name and influence in the history of Chinese philosophy.

CHAPTER XVI

ANCIENT INDIAN CIVILISATION

I

THE INDUS VALLEY CIVILISATION

Pre-historic India

Ancient India was a vast sub-continent bounded on the north by the world's largest mountain range, the Himalays and on the east, west and south by the Indian Ocean. The name "India" is derived from the river Indus, which flows from the Himalayas. The Indians knew this river as "Sindhu" and the Persians called it "Hindu". The Greeks who knew the word from the Persians named it "Indus". The present India is not geographically as large as the ancient land of that name. This is on account of the partition of India and the creation of the separate State of Pakistan in 1947. But in a cultural and historical sense, India means the whole sub-continent comprising the regions of the pre-partition days that it is in this sense that we review the history of India.

India, like other countries of Asia and Europe, passed through the Stone Age into the Metal Age. The Stone Age is generally divided into three periods—the Eolithic, Palaeolithic and Neolithic. The Eolithic Age is so called because of the existence of eoliths or rudely-shaped flints during this Age. Opinion is divided whether India passed through an Eolithic Age

① Persian Civilization

1800 BC - herdsmen (2 tribes) - Medes and Persians - moved south-east from the grasslands to high plateaus of Iran (Persia)
↓
East of Tigris river.

- Several centers - herded their sheep
- Both united under the Medes.
↓
over threw the cruel Assyrians.
- 612 BC (after the downfall of Assyria) Medes & Persians held all the Iran as well as part of northern Tigris - Euphrates Valley.

Cyrus:

550 BC - Cyrus - a Persian -

→ ablest leader - led a revolt against the Medes - defeated their king - b/c ruler of 2 tribes.

- ① Medes - fierce fighters
- ② Extensive use of horsemen & archers.
- ③ Persian edu. - emphasized 3 things -
1) to ride 2) to draw the bow 3) to speak the truth.

Cyrus - defeated the Chaldeans. captured Babylon, - gained the rest of Tigris & Euphrates Valley & Asia Minor.

↓ Cyrus' son - Cambyses conquered Egypt.

② Darius:

Darius, the great.
→ added south and east Iran. as far as river Indus.

Persians - maintained & extended the
1. Assyrian road sy.
2. Postal sy.
so governors & generals could make regular reports.

most famous High way - extended all the way from Sardis in Asia Minor to Susa

Persian Religion:

- greatest contribution - rel.
- worshipped many gods.
- 500 BC - a prophet & rel's reformer completely changed - Zoroaster
- Zoroaster taught - world was a place where human beings were trained for better life.
- ① great struggle b/w good & evil.
- good - symbolised by light.

② Darius & his son Xerxes - invaded Greece in 400 B.C. - failed to conquer it.

Persian Govt:

- kings - great generals & wise rulers.
- tax collection & the admin of justice - fair
- Achaemenes → laws should be applied equally without favour to anyone.
- ↓
kind man.
- ↓ allowed the Hebrews (carried by Chaldeans as slaves) to return to Palestine & rebuild their Jerusalem church
- Persians copied many features of Assyrian imperial admin.
- kinds of officials
3 types - (i) a governor & his officials
(ii) a general & his troops
(iii) inspectors - kings checked the Governor's & generals' eyes & ears.

③

Good - led by Ahura Mazda (Source
of truth and purity.) -
creator & upholder of the universe
evil - darkness - symbolized by the
spirit Ahriman.

His teachings inculcated reverence for the cow and cultivation of the soil as sacred duty.

Zoroastrianism was a revealed religion, perhaps the first of its kind in the history of the Western world. Its followers believed that they were the exclusive possessors of truth, which God had revealed to them through their great leaders. These revelations are sacred writings known as the Avesta, which may be called the Bible of the ancient Persians. In it is embodied the hymns and teachings of Zoroaster.

Zoroastrianism became corrupted after the death of its founder and was contaminated by primitive superstitions, magic and priestcraft. It was also polluted by the influence of alien faiths in course of time. The result was the emergence of a number of cults stemming off from the Zoroastrian religion. The oldest of this was Mithraism, known after the God Mithra, who was at first only a minor deity in the religion of Zoroastrianism. Subsequently Mithra became the most popular God of the Persians. In course of time Mithraism became a religion of elaborate rituals and ceremonials. In the last century B.C. it gained entrance into Rome and ultimately it became one of the most popular religions of the Roman Empire.

Zoroastrianism had profound influence on the Persian people and it is today the religion of the Parsis in India. This religion had also considerably influenced Judaism and Christianity. Their doctrine of angels and devils and the conception that good and evil are eternal enemies were probably inspired by Zoroastrianism.

CHAPTER XXII

THE ANCIENT GREEK CIVILISATION

Who are the Greeks?

It is said that the foundation of the European civilisation was laid in Greece. Greece is a Mediterranean country halfway between the cold north and the tropical south in the southernmost part of the Balkan Peninsula. It is a land of rugged mountains rising suddenly and sharply from the inlets of the sea. The history of Greece has been deeply influenced by its geography and climate. The fascinating beauty of the land and its refreshing climate have attracted men in all ages to come and settle there. The country consists of mountain ranges, interrupted by deep depressions so that it is divided into a number of separate compartments providing ideal habitation

for small communities of settlers. Greece has an extraordinarily irregular coastline with numerous gulfs and inlets, with no area more than 40 miles distance from the coast. This has made the Greeks, a maritime nation like the British and the Japanese. Mountains and sea, amidst which the Greeks lived, brought in them a love of independence and freedom and this national character has greatly influenced their destinies. The climate of Greece has also greatly influenced their life. It is one of the most delightful climates in the world, with its balanced division between winter and summer, its seasonable rainfall and equable trade winds. It is not surprising that the Greeks developed as a hardy and enterprising nation.

The people known in history as the "Greeks" were not the first to inhabit the land known as "Greece". The name "Greek" is said to have its origin from the people called Achaeans, one of the early settlers of Greece. Before the coming of the Greeks, Greece was under the influence of an older civilisation called the "Aegian civilisation" about which we have already learnt. The early Greeks when they landed in Greece, came into contact with, and were deeply influenced by the Aegian civilisation.

The Greeks were a mixed race of people belonging to the Aryan stock. Probably their original home was the Danube Valley. They were a pastoral people, who wandered southwards from their homes in search of fresh pastures. Somewhere between 2000 and 1500 B.C. they occupied Greece. In the early stages of their migration, they came slowly along with their herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and settled in thinly populated areas. The early settlers belonged to the group known as Ionians. They were followed by another group called the Achaeans (from whom originated the name "Greeks"), who occupied Mycenae and Troy and finally gained control over Crete. The third group known as the Dorians began their invasion in the 12th century B.C. and continued their infiltration in the Peninsula as well as the Aegean Islands for about 200 years. The Ionians, Achaeans and Dorians came to be collectively known as Greeks. In later times the Greeks called themselves "Hellen" after their fabled ancestor "Hellen" and their land was called "Hellas". Their language belonged to the family of ancient Greek and Persian. It is, therefore, supposed that they belonged to the same racial stock as the Aryans in India and the Iranians in Persia.

The Mycenaean Civilisation

Some historians speak of the period from 1400 to 1200 B.C. as the Mycenaean Age since during this period Mycenae in the Greek Peninsula was powerful in Greece, and the civilisation

which centred in Mycenae during this period is known as the Mycenaean civilisation. Mycenae was a city situated in the north-east corner of the Peloponnesian Peninsula in the mainland of Greece. We do not know when and by what people the city was built and how civilisation began there. According to Greek tradition, the Mycenaeans came down from Thrace and Thesaly into Peloponnesus in the dim distant past. It was, however, their cultural-commercial contact with the Minoans that raised them to the height of civilisation. As early as 1600 B.C. the city was rich in gold which earned for it the name of "Golden City". It was inhabited by a strong community with art and crafts of Cretan pattern, and was the seat of kings. After the fall of Cnossos at the beginning of the 14th century B.C. Mycenae became the chief centre of culture in the Aegean. By 1400 B.C. Mycenae had a mercantile fleet strong enough to challenge the sea power of Crete and this enabled the Mycenaeans to grow rich by trade. After the decline of Crete art painting flourished vigorously in Mycenae and its sphere of influence. The exquisite paintings of Mycenaean art are images of "the active and physical life of Mycenaean, the proud beauty of their women, the vivid adornment of their palaces". The highest Mycenaean art was in metals. Jewellery of many kinds, stud buttons of marvellous beauty, and elegantly engraved daggers are eloquent testimonials of the excellence which this art had attained. The tombs of kings at Mycenae were a repository of Mycenaean art. In these tombs were found golden vases and cups and diadems, bronze daggers and swords inlaid with gold. About 1400 B.C. an unknown king built a fortified palace with massive walls and spacious halls, and a tomb of hewn stone with a huge drum. The latter survives even to the present day as one of the wonders of world.

The Mycenaean might have believed in a future life. Otherwise they would not have placed valuable objects of use in the graves. The religion of the Mycenaean was the cult of a mother-goddess with attendant divinities in the form of snakes.

Early in the 12th century B.C. all the peoples of Greece were united under the Mycenaean kings in a loose confederation. The most famous among these kings was Agamemnon, who styled himself as "King of Kings". He was the leader of the Greeks in their famous war against Troy.

The Homeric Age

According to Greek tradition, Homer was a great Greek poet, blind and aged, who composed the two great epic poems "Iliad" and "Odyssey" narrating the Trojan War and the

epic adventures of the great warrior Odysseus. Some are of opinion that these poems were not composed by a single man, some even refused to believe that Homer ever lived. But the whole, there is evidence to think that Homer lived in the 9th century B.C. and was the author of the two great epic poems. Giving allowance for legends and exaggerations which crept into the narratives of Homer, the poems undoubtedly give a picture of Greek life from the 12th to the 9th century B.C. This period in Greek history is known as the Homeric Age. From the Homeric poems we understand that the Greeks of this period were tall and fair. They did not live in the Greek Peninsula alone. Between 1200 and 1000 B.C. they spread to the region of Troy and other parts of Asia Minor. Later on, they founded cities on the shores of the Black Sea and the north, on the Mediterranean shores of Africa in the south, and the countries of Italy, France and Spain in the West. Southern Italy colonised by the Greeks was called "Magna Graecia" meaning "Greater Greece". All this colonisation took place before the beginnings of written history. By the 7th century B.C., the Greeks had made their distinctive settlements in the Greek Peninsula and around. Many important Greek cities rose up by this time. Athens, Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, Samos and Miletus were the most important of them.

Greek Civilisation of the Homeric Age

The early Greek civilisation was built upon the ruins of the Aegean civilisation. It was, therefore, not an original growth. "Moderation in all things" was the Greek ideal. Hence the Greeks had that sweet reasonableness which enabled them to borrow from others what they considered to be valuable. "They received much, they gave much".

Political Life

The early Greeks settled in village communities independent of external control. In the 12th century B.C., Greece was divided among a number of kings whose kingdoms were small in area. The king was the leader of the people in war, their judge in peace and the high priest of the State religion offering sacrifices for the people. His decrees were laws and his decisions were final. But law was nothing but custom and the king's power was limited by custom. Thus, the king was required by custom to consult a Council of his nobles to decide on important matters. Administration of justice was private and each family had to defend and revenge itself. There were no public agencies of justice. The village assembly was the one democratic element in the Greek society which was essentially feudal and aristocratic. Matters which demand united action would be placed before the assembly for approval.

Social and Economic Life

The pattern of social and economic life was simple. Though the society was predominantly aristocratic, there was no rigid class distinction. An ordinary warrior could become a noble by virtue of his heroic achievements. Manual labour was not looked down upon. Slavery does not seem to have prevailed as an institution although there were dependent labourers who worked on the lands of the nobles. The basic occupations were agriculture and herding. There were a few skilled labourers like goldsmiths, potters, wagon makers and swordsmiths. But each family was more or less self-supporting, making its own tools, wearing its own clothing and raising its own food. The Greeks at this stage had not yet become a trading people. Barter was the only method of exchange. There was no word in the Greek language for "merchant" at this time.

Religion in the Homeric Age

The religion of the early Greeks was Polytheism. They worshipped many Gods, who were, as H. G. Wells pointed out, only "glorified human beings", with human bodies and human weaknesses and wants. The chief among these Gods was Zeus, the Sky God and the God of Thunder, Apollo, the Sun God, Athena, the Goddess of War and the patroness of Handicrafts and Hades, who presided over the nether world. The only difference between men and Gods that the latter were immortal. The Greeks of the Homeric Age did not care for life after death. Dead bodies were cremated and not buried. The chief form of worship was sacrifice. Offerings were given to Gods to seek favours. There was no belief in reward for good deeds or punishment for sins. There was no professional priesthood since the simple religious rites could be performed by any man. There was no system of temple worship and temples were looked upon merely as shrines for the occasional visits of Gods. The Greeks during this Age believed in "Oracles". The most popular of these oracles was the "Delphic Oracle", that is the Oracle of Apollo in a place called Delphi in Greece. It was believed that Gods would make revelations to their worshippers through inspired persons. The place at which such revelations were made was called "Oracle". The belief in the Oracles of Delphi continued even in later times. Not only the Greeks, but the Romans and Axian monarchs consulted the Delphic Oracle before undertaking any serious business.

There was no intimate connection between religion and morality among the Greeks of the Homeric Age.

were not expected to combat evil and uphold virtue though they were generally disposed to support the right. The essential foundation of Homeric morality was military. The virtues extolled were bravery, self-control, patriotism, wisdom, love of one's friends, hatred of one's enemies and hospitality to the stranger.

Art and Literature in the Homeric Age

"Homeric life", says Will Durant, "is poor in art, rich in action." The Greeks made use of the art of writing only later than the Homeric Age. Hence the Homeric Greeks were a pre-literary people during the major part of their history. Homer also says nothing about painting or sculpture, but makes references about architecture. Beautiful palaces were built during this Age. Another important art which was highly developed during this Age was the hammering of metals into plastic forms.

Although the art of writing was not prevalent among the Greeks during this Age, the Greek genius manifested itself in literature from early times. It was in the form of folk songs, ballads, and epics sung by wandering minstrels. Handed down from generation to generation, they were subsequently put into written form. The most magnificent of these poems were Homer's Iliad and Odyssey. Next to Homer, the greatest poet was Hesiod, who lived in the 7th century B.C. In this poem he made a bitter attack on the tyranny and greed of the rich and the miseries of the poor. He preached about the sacredness of work. "Work is no disgrace," he said, "It is idleness that is a disgrace".

CHAPTER XXIII

ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE GREEK CITY-STATES AND THE EVOLUTION OF GREEK POLITY

In the last chapter we have briefly traced the beginnings of Greek civilisation. Now let us see how the Greeks developed their civilisation in their city-States.

In Greece the city-States emerged as a result of the transition from village communities to larger political units from about 800 B.C. A city-State is a small State with an independent city as its centre and a few miles of dependant agricultural villages around it. The civilisation of Egypt, Mesopotamia, China and India began in such city-States. But,

of Plebeian Aediles.
of the Plebeians secured the
whole people, for which the Senate's approval
as a matter of course. This law made the Roman Government
much more democratic than before.

The Senate

The Senate was the most powerful body. Its members were the richest and the most influential men in Rome. The membership of the Senate was for life. In theory it was only the advisory body to the two Consuls. But in practice it was all-powerful. All the laws had to get the Senate's approval. The appointment of all chief government officials had to be approved by the Senate. It decided foreign policies, and regulated taxation and expenditure. As C.F. Fowler remarks, "the Senate is Foreign Minister, Financial Minister, War Minister, and the Senate is responsible to no other person or assembly". In the early stages, the Senate was an exclusive body of the Patricians. But in course of time Plebeian ex-officials were also added to the Senate year by year.

An Estimate

The Republican Constitution of Rome in the 3rd century B.C. was democratic in theory, but oligarchic in practice. In fact both the Patrician and Plebeian families acquired a kind of hereditary right to hold the Consulship. Power came to be concentrated in the hands of a new hereditary nobility—a nobility resting its claims chiefly on service done to the State. The Senate was at this time almost entirely made up of men who had held office and done to the State good service. There is much truth in the statement that the Romans even during the period of its Republic "never really abandoned the principle that the people were not to govern, but to be governed".

CHAPTER XXXII

EXPANSION OF ROME

The Romans had grown up in the midst of enemies. So they had to fight for life. This made them a warlike people with exceptional strength and endurance. The Roman farmers became soldiers and they learnt to work both in the grainfield and the battlefield. With the increase of population, the Romans fought for land. Growing greedy and ambitious, they began to fight for booty and glory. This led to the growth of the Roman Empire. From 350 to 265 B.C. the Romans fought a series of wars by which the whole of Italy south of the River Rubicon was brought under their authority.

During the 5th and 4th centuries B.C. Rome was exposed to the danger of hostility from her neighbours in the north, east and south. On the north there was the Etruscan League of twelve strong cities. To the east were a number of mountainous tribes, the chief of whom were the Samnites. In the south were strong cities in the Latin plain. There was also the menace of barbarian invasions from the north. All these perils kept the Romans vigilant and military-minded.

In the 5th century B.C. the Gauls, a barbarian tribe from the north, crossed the Alps and occupied the north Italian plain displacing the Etruscans. Taking advantage of the war between the Gauls and the Etruscan League, Rome attacked Etruria from the north and in 396 B.C. a Roman Dictator captured Veii, the southernmost of Etruscan cities. Rome had, however, to confront the invasion of the Gauls in 387 B.C. but as we have learnt in a previous chapter, the Romans held out stubbornly and expelled the invaders. There is also the story that the Gauls were bought off by paying a thousand pounds of gold. Soon Rome was able to recover from the shock of the Gaulish invasion and started on a career of territorial expansion. First, the cities of Latium were conquered and by about 336 B.C. Rome became the mistress of Latium. Next the Romans turned against the Samnites. The struggle between the Romans and Samnites continued from 325 to 290 B.C. In the end the Samnites were conquered and added to the list of Rome's allies. This was followed by the complete conquest of Etruria which was accomplished before 280 B.C. The Gauls who had occupied the land just south of the River Rubicon was driven back beyond Rubicon and their land was occupied by Rome. The next targets of Roman attack were the highly civilised Greek cities with the kingdom of Magna Graecia (Great Greece) in the southern part of Italy. Of these, the city of Tarentum sought the help of Pyrrhus, king of the Greek State of Epirus. Pyrrhus marched to Italy with a large army. At first the Romans suffered defeat in his hands and the triumphantly reached the outskirts of Rome. But soon the tide of war turned against him. Rome allied herself with Carthage, the greatest sea-power of the western Mediterranean. With the naval help of Carthage, Rome ultimately defeated Epirus. At last Tarentum opened her gates to Rome. By 270 B.C. the whole of southern Italy was brought under Roman rule.

The Roman conquests endured for long. This was due to the wise policy followed by the Roman conquerors. They treated the defeated enemies not as their slaves, but as their allies. A considerable measure of self-government was granted to the conquered nations. They were allowed to preserve their own institutions and laws. Above all, the Romans built

a network of good roads wherever they conquered. The truth of the saying "All roads lead to Rome" was well illustrated by the elaborate system of roads which radiated in all directions from the city of Rome. These roads built for military purposes became great arteries of civilisation. The Roman roads promoted travel and trade as well as carried Roman civilisation to the nooks and corners of the Roman Empire.

Struggle between Rome and Carthage

Rome's conquest of Italy was only the first stage in her goal of world conquest. The next stage was the struggle with Carthage. Carthage was a Phoenician colony which had risen into a great maritime empire by commerce. Carthage means "the New City". The people of Carthage belonged to the Semitic race, akin in blood and features to the ancient Jews. The city of Carthage was situated in the south-western coast of the Mediterranean Sea, not far away from the island of Sicily. The Phoenicians founded the city-State of Carthage about 800 B.C. Eventually Carthage became the mistress of the Mediterranean. "From Sicily to Gibraltar the Mediterranean was a Carthaginian lake." In the height of its power Carthage had a civilisation superior in luxury and scientific achievements to that of Rome. She became a wealthy empire by prosperous trade. Her government was a plutocracy, *i.e.*, government by wealth. The wealth and political power of the country were concentrated in the hands of a few rich and powerful families.

At first Carthage was a friend and ally of Rome and she helped the Romans to defeat Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. But soon conflict arose between Rome and Carthage. The primary cause of the conflict was Roman jealousy over Carthaginian occupation of Sicily. Carthage had taken possession of the western portion of the island and attempted to occupy the Greek cities of Syracuse and Messana on the eastern coast. This threatened to cut off all chances of Roman occupation of Britain. This induced Rome to declare war upon Carthage. The long struggle that followed was marked by three important wars known as the Punic Wars which covered a period of 119 years. (Punic is the adjectival form of the name "Poen", *i.e.*, (Phoenicians, by which name the Romans called the Carthaginians.)

The First Punic War lasted for twenty-three years from 264 B.C. to 241 B.C. The Carthaginian army was defeated by the Romans in Sicily, but confronting the naval power of Carthage, Rome, which now knew little of ships, built a fleet and became a sea-power. The Naval battle of Mylae in 260 B.C. was a great victory for the Romans. Following this the Romans attacked the Carthaginian possessions of Corsica and Sardinia and even sent an army over to Africa. Carthage

itself was in peril. But a fresh supply of troops and war elephants arrived in Carthage for the help of the Carthagenians and with this the war took a sudden turn against the Romans. The bulk of the Roman soldiers were killed and only a small remnant escaped to Italy to tell the tragic tale. The stubborn Romans, however, built new fleets and raised new troops. The war dragged on for fifteen years more. Despite the gallant resistance of the Carthagenian General Hamilcar, the Roman legions were victorious in Sicily. On the seas, the Romans had disastrous losses. But they raised another fleet and the new fleet defeated the enemy. With the capitulation of Carthage, the war ended in 241 B.C. According to the terms of the treaty, Carthage had to pay a heavy war indemnity and surrender all her possessions in western Sicily. Shortly after this, Rome conquered the islands of Sardinia and Corsica from the Carthagenians. Another calamity which befell Carthage was a civil war. When Hamilcar returned to Carthage after the First Punic War, a civil war broke out between his mercenary troops and his opponents. The civil war was, however, suppressed by Hamilcar. He then crossed over to Spain with a small army to recover and enlarge the Carthagenian possessions there. When he died, his work was continued by his son-in-law upon whose death Hannibal, son of Hamilcar, assumed command.

Second Punic War (218—201 B.C.)

The Second Punic War was indeed a battle between giants. The great leader on the side of Carthage was Hannibal. Rome had the great Generals Fabius and Scipio. Hannibal ranks along with Alexander the Great, Julius Caesar and Napoleon among the greatest Generals in history. He was undoubtedly the greatest military genius in the ancient world. "He had disciplined his body to hardship, his appetite to moderation, his tongue to silence, his thought to objectivity. He could run or ride with the swiftest, hunt or fight with the bravest." The military tactics of Hannibal have been copied by military experts even to the present day.

At first Hannibal conquered the city of Saguntum in Spain, with which Rome had made defensive alliance. Then he carried war into Italy. He crossed the Alps and entered Italy from the north. For fifteen years he marched up and down Italy defeating one Roman army after another and systematically laying the country waste. It was in the course of Roman resistance to the Carthagenian conqueror, that, Fabius came into prominence. To meet the crisis following the annihilation of the Roman armies of forty thousand men each, a new army was raised and Fabius appointed Dictator. He was a middle-aged

aristocrat, who systematically adopted the tactics of "inaction". For several months he followed Hannibal never willing to engage in a decisive battle. His policy of caution has been such that the term "Fabian" is used in modern language to denote a cautious policy of watchful waiting. The caution of Fabius was wise because it gave time for the Romans to revitalise themselves. But in the battle of Cannae to 216 B.C. the Roman army, though far outnumbering the enemy, was disastrously defeated by Hannibal on account of his brilliant military tactics. Fifty thousand Romans and Italians were killed and ten thousand were made captives. The Romans, however, did not lose courage. They heroically continued their resistance. Gradually the tide of war turned in their favour. The Romans had not lost their supremacy on the seas. The great Roman General Scipio who was only 24 years old, was despatched to the Spanish command. He became the darling of the Romans because he was handsome, eloquent, intelligent, brave, pious, courteous and just. After becoming victorious against the Carthagenians at Spain, he sailed with an army and a fleet to attack Carthage. Hannibal returned to Carthage and raised a new army. In 202 B.C. he met with defeat for the first time in the battle of Zama. Scipio's victory in this battle earned for him the name "Scipio Africanus", a title which he took for himself as a mark of his triumph in Africa. Carthage surrendered. According to the terms of Peace (201 B.C.) she had to pay a huge war indemnity to Rome, surrender all her warships except ten, and all war elephants. She also handed over to Rome all her possessions in Spain and promised never again to wage war without the consent of Rome. Rome insisted that Hannibal should be exiled from Carthage. The old warrior escaped to Antioch and persuaded its ruler Antiochus III to war with Rome. But the Romans defeated Antiochus, and Hannibal who escaped to Crete was hunted out by them. At last, in 184 B.C. Hannibal killed himself by taking poison.

The Third Punic War (149 B.C.—146 B.C.)

After the end of the Second Punic War, Carthage regained much of her prosperity and her courage was revived. But this excited Rome's old hatred and fear of Carthage. The Roman Senators were bent upon the extermination of Carthage. Cato the Censor instigated the Romans by ending everyone of his speeches with the fateful words "Carthage must be destroyed". Cato was the leader of the anti-Carthagenian faction in Rome. As Censor he had gained notoriety by his extreme severity. By his instigation Romans demanded that the Carthagenians should abandon their city and build new homes at least 10 miles from the coast. This amounted to a death sentence for the Carthagenian nation which was entirely dependent on

maritime commerce for their subsistence. Naturally, therefore, they refused to yield. Thus, arose the Third Punic War. Despite the most heroic resistance of the Carthaginians, the city finally fell to the Romans. It was destroyed and its people were butchered or sold as slaves. The kingdom of Carthage was made a Roman province—the province of “Africa”.

Results of the Wars with Carthage

The triumph of Rome over Carthage immensely increased the power and strength of the Romans. Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica and Carthage became Roman provinces. Rome became supreme in the western Mediterranean. This was an important stage in the development of the Roman Empire. Secondly, the Punic Wars brought the Roman soldiers into contact with Hellenic culture in the cities of Sicily, Syracuse, Capua and Tarentum, which were great centres of Hellenism. Enthusiasm for Greek art, literature and luxury swept over the upper classes in Rome as a result of this. The Punic Wars also led to a social and economic revolution in Rome. The capture and sale of prisoners of war led to a great increase in slavery. There was a decline of the small farmer due to the reduction of population caused by Hannibal's invasion and this led to the establishment of large-scale plantation system managed by slave labour. A new middle class of wealthy merchants, money-lenders and contractors came into prominence. Further, Roman society became a paradise of parasites and exploiters. The gulf between the rich and the poor became wider. The old ideals of discipline and devotion to the State were very much weakened. Corruption, luxury and the spirit of vulgar display raised their heads. Thus, there was a general decay of public morality.

Conquest of the Hellenistic East

The Republic of Rome also extended her dominions to the east by means of conquests. First, the Romans turned against Macedonia. The king of Egypt sought the help of the Romans against the threatened invasion of Egypt by King Philip V of Macedonia. Rome had Grudge against Philip V as he had allied himself with Hannibal. Moreover, if he conquered the eastern lands, he might become a menace to Italy. Hence, the Romans in 197 B.C. attacked and defeated the king of Macedonia and liberated the Greek city-States from the Macedonian yoke. But the Greeks misused their freedom by quarrelling among themselves as they had done in the past. This provoked the Romans to invade Greece. They burnt down the city of Corinth and sent a Roman Governor to rule over Athens. Meanwhile, Antiochus III, king of Syria, created trouble for the Roman allies in Greece. Then a Roman army led by Scipio

Africanus and his brother defeated Antiochus and destroyed his armies in 190 B.C. Soon Asia Minor became a Roman province. Not long afterwards, Macedonia which defied Rome was made a Roman province under a Roman Governor. Another conquest of the Roman Republic was the little kingdom of Pontus on the southern coast of the Black Sea. Its ruler Mithradates, taking advantage of a civil war in Italy, conquered various States friendly to Rome, in 80 B.C. Finally, he invaded the Roman province of Asia. But after the civil war in Italy was over, a Roman fleet under the command of an able General, named Sulla, sailed to the east and defeated Mithradates and compelled him to give up his conquest. Finally, he was driven out of his kingdom of Pontus.

Meanwhile the Romans also extended their conquests to the west. Rome had already conquered the whole of northern Italy as far as the Alps including Cisalpine Gaul (Gaul on this side of the Alps) in the years 224—219 B.C.

The next step was the conquest of Transalpine Gaul (Gaul across the Alps), i.e., the country now known as France. A century later, in 121 B.C. they conquered the southern part of Transalpine Gaul. The Romans had also fought against different races in Spain and by about 133 B.C. Spain became a province of Rome. When the Roman Republic reached the zenith of its power in the 1st century B.C., Rome had become “the mistress of the Mediterranean” in the fullest sense.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE FALL OF THE REPUBLIC AND THE RISE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

“Power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely,” said the great historian Lord Acton. This truth is illustrated by the Romans who became luxurious and corrupt by the power, which they exercised over their subject dominions. The provinces of Rome supplied grain to the idle populace of Rome. This enabled the Romans to have plenty of time to indulge in sensuous and unhealthy pursuits of life. The richer class was envied by the poor. The senatorial class which filled most of the seats in the Senate excited the jealousy of others. The city of Rome once more became a centre of class conflicts and quarrels. Demagogues, that is, leaders who knew the tricks of capturing the mob-mind, fished in the troubled waters of the Roman society. Thus, the Republic of Rome degenerated and

its downfall became inevitable. Let us briefly trace how that downfall happened.

The Dictators

The army gained in importance at this time because it consisted of professional soldiers who joined the army as a means of livelihood. The army Generals were therefore able to hold the reins of power. Not all the demagogues who captured power were bad men. Some of them wanted to do things beneficial to the common people. They were the brothers against the senatorial aristocracy. The elder of the Gracchi brothers was Tiberius Gracchus who was elected Tribune in the year 133 B.C. He introduced certain land reforms, mainly a view to take excess lands from rich landlords and give them to the landless people at a nominal rent. But his reforms met with severe opposition from the aristocracy. Riots broke out in which Tiberius and three hundred of his followers were killed by slaves and followers of the aristocracy. Caius Gracchus, the younger brother of Tiberius, continued the struggle for the have-nots. He was elected Tribune in 123 B.C. He persuaded the Assembly of Tribes to pass laws for the benefit of the landless people. He also planned to send landless Romans to establish colonies at Carthage and other provinces. Besides, he took steps to provide for the distribution of grain to the poor in the city of Rome at half the market price. Another important reform he proposed was to extend Roman citizenship to all the people of Italy. But he had his enemies in the Senate and they instigated riots against him. In 121 B.C. he was killed by senators and their slaves. The chief cause for the failure of the Gracchi was that they had no army to defend them against the Senate.

The next great Dictator of the Roman Republic was Caius Marius who had become popular by his successful military campaigns. He was elected as Consul in 107 B.C. and re-elected five times thereafter. He crushed a rebellion in Africa and defeated two barbarian tribes that invaded Italy. But Marius was no statesman. After he retired from politics, there followed a civil war in Italy, often called the Social War. It ranged for two years from 90 to 88 B.C. The cause of the civil war was that Rome refused to extend Roman citizenship to the rest of Italy. The civil war ended with the granting of citizenship rights to all who surrendered. Thereafter all Italians were deemed as Romans and Italy as Rome.

Cornelius Sulla was an able General who became distinguished by playing a prominent part in defeating Mithradates, king of Pontus. He was appointed Dictator in 82 B.C. for an

indefinite period. He was the champion of the aristocrats and endeavoured to restore to the Senate its original powers and curtail the powers of the Tribunes. After three years of rule he retired from politics. This was followed by the emergence of two figures to the forefront—Crassus and Pompey. Both of them were Generals, who had served Sulla in war and in the struggle for power. They espoused the cause of the people against the aristocracy. They were elected Consuls in 70 B.C. Pompey secured command of the Mediterranean and destroyed the pirates of the eastern Mediterranean in 67 B.C. He also inflicted a severe defeat on Mithradates and annexed Syria. In 62 B.C. he returned to Rome with the spoils of his Asiatic Wars.

Julius Caesar

It is at this stage that Julius Caesar emerged into the political scene. Caesar was an able General—one of the ablest the world has ever produced. He was an excellent orator, an able lawyer, a facile writer, and above all an astute politician. He was an aristocrat by birth, but identified himself with the democrats and spent lavishly on public entertainments and festivals to win the favour of the populace. He began his political career by associating himself with Crassus and Pompey. The partnership of these three men was called the "Triumvirate" (which means group of three men). With the help of his partners, Caesar managed to get himself elected as one of the two Consuls in 59 B.C. He also obtained governorship of Illyricum and Gaul and was to have command over four legions for five years. Pompey was to remain in Rome and keep the Senate in order. Crassus was to have control over Asia.

Caesar, as Governor of Gaul, proved his greatness as a General. In not less than eight campaigns, he defeated the Gauls and other north-western enemies of Rome and extended the Roman boundaries up to the River Rhine on the north and to the Atlantic Ocean on the west. In the course of his conquests he also invaded Britain and brought it under subjection. It was as a result of Caesar's conquest that Roman civilisation first reached Britain.

Meanwhile, Crassus was killed while fighting against the Parthians in Asia. Thus, power was now left with Caesar and Pompey and soon rivalry arose between them. With the approval of Pompey, the Senate called upon Caesar to surrender his provinces and disband his army. Caesar's answer to this was to cross the River Rubicon which separated his province from that of Pompey (49 B.C.). This meant a declaration of war against Pompey. The latter fled to the east, but was pursued by Caesar. In the decisive battle of Pharsalus (48 B.C.) Pompey

was defeated. This was a deathblow to the government of Rome because henceforth the government of Rome was the military rule of Caesar except in name. Pompey was soon afterwar killed by agents of the king of Egypt. Then Caesar conquered Egypt, but was in turn conquered by the charms of the Egyptian Princess Cleopatra, whom he helped to become the queen of Egypt, ousting her brother from the throne. This was followed by the conquest of Syria. The last battle that Caesar fought was in Spain where the supporters of Pompey offered resistance in vain. Just before his death he was preparing a huge army to conquer Mesopotamia and Persia.

Caesar was a military dictator like his predecessors the Gracchi, Marius, Sulla and Pompey. But his power was more complete. The title and office of "Dictator" was conferred upon him for life. But he was careful to preserve the old institutions of the Republic in name. The Senate was retained but swamped by his own friends and supporters. He did not assume the title of "king" but so great was his power that the word "Caesarism" derived from his name has come to mean imperialism or autocracy.

Reforms of Caesar

Caesar was not only a superb General, but a great reformer and administrator. He introduced many reforms for the benefit of the Romans. He extended Roman citizenship to more classes and more countries. He discouraged idleness in Rome by drastically reducing free gifts of grain to the Roman citizens. One of his most memorable reforms was the reform of the calendar. He revised the official calendar so that it would have 365 days in the year with an extra day added for every fourth year. One of the months, July, was named in honour of Caesar. The reformed calendar known as Julian Calendar in memory of his name, is the western calendar observed in the present day, though with some slight modifications. In the field of administration he reorganised the Central Government so as to concentrate all power in his hands as Dictator. By his municipal reforms he standardised the municipal government of the cities throughout Italy. Another important reform of Caesar was in the field of colonisation. Many of his army veterans and a good number of the urban poor were settled on unused lands, not only in Italy, but throughout the empire. The Roman colonies thus absorbed the landless and discontented elements in Rome. Further, Caesar's colonising policy helped considerably to unify the empire. It is, however, to be noted that Caesar did not take any concrete steps to enlarge the political rights of the masses or reduce the inequalities in the distribution of wealth.

In 44 B.C. Caesar met with a tragic end. He was attacked by a band of Senators in the Senate Chamber under the leadership of his treacherous friends Cassius and Brutus and was stabbed to death. The root cause of this conspiracy for the assassination of Caesar might have been the fear that he would have established a regime of oriental despotism in Rome and thereby deprived that proud city of dominance in the Roman Empire. There is, however, no doubt that Caesar was the uncrowned monarch of Rome while he was in power and was the link between Republic and Monarchy.

CHAPTER XXXIV THE ROMAN EMPIRE

Emperor Augustus

The death of Julius Caesar was followed by selfish struggle for power by unscrupulous politicians. The man who emerged victorious in this struggle was Octavian, who was the grandson of Julius Caesar's sister and was Caesar's adopted son. He was educated in the literature and philosophy of Greece and Rome and was trained to lead a life of Spartan simplicity. He was an "idealist forced to be a realist, a man of thought painfully learning to be a man of action". Caesar had given him careful instruction in the arts of war and government. Octavian was more patient and cunning than his great uncle and proceeded more slowly and cautiously. So he succeeded where Caesar had failed.

Octavian was only 18 years old when Caesar died in 44 B.C. On hearing the news of Caesar's death, he hurried to Rome from Illyria where he was pursuing his studies. Then he found it prudent to share political power for the time being with two of Caesar's friends, Mark Antony and Lepidus. So all the three men formed an alliance. This three-man dictatorship was the second Triumvirate according to which each of the three was to hold consular power for five years. This was followed by the most bloody reign of terror in Roman history. Several Senators and businessmen were slain and their wealth confiscated. Cicero, the great orator, was one among the victims. Brutus and Cassius escaped and organised an army of republicans. But they were defeated in the famous battle of Phillippi in 42 B.C. Both Brutus and Cassius committed suicide. The administration of the empire was divided among the three victors: Antony, Lepidus, and the eastern empire and