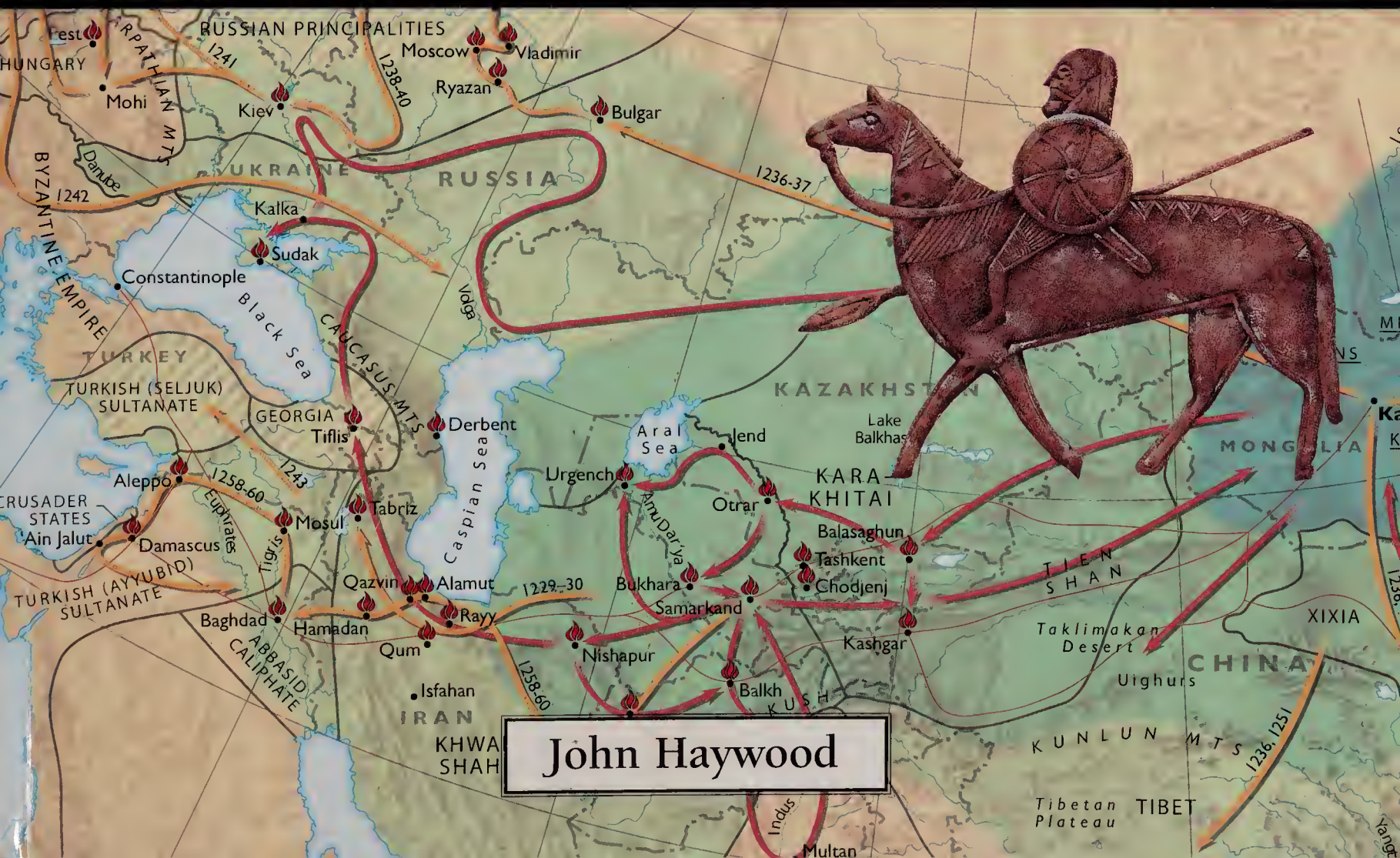


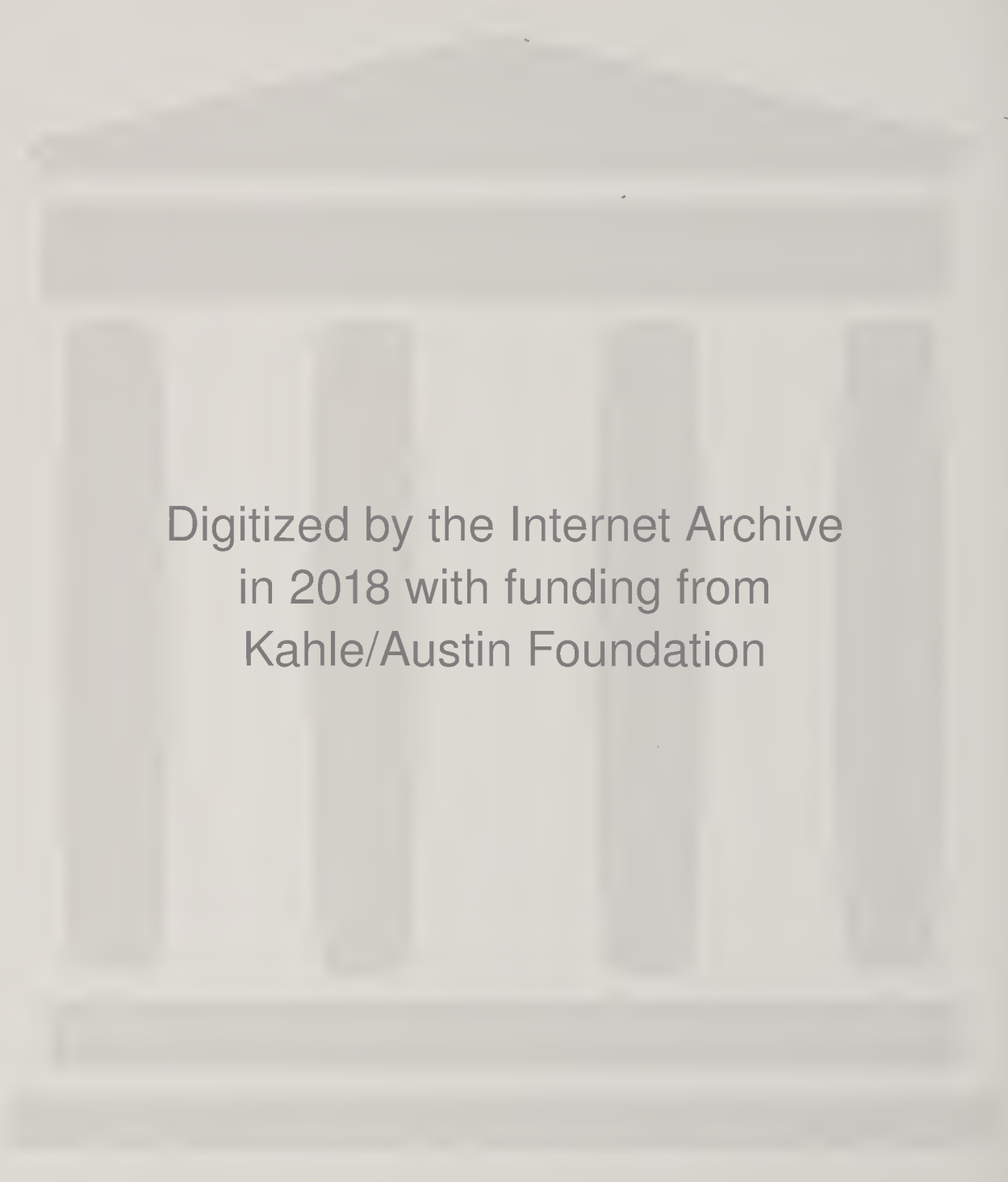


# THE ATLAS OF PAST TIMES



John Haywood





Digitized by the Internet Archive  
in 2018 with funding from  
Kahle/Austin Foundation

<https://archive.org/details/atlasofpasttimes0000hayw>



# ATLAS *of*



# PAST TIMES







# *The* ATLAS *of* PAST TIMES

*John Haywood*

---





# CONTENTS

THE ANCIENT WORLD	9
THE WORLD BY 10,000 BC	10
THE WORLD BY 2000 BC	14
THE WORLD BY 1000 BC	18
ANCIENT MESOPOTAMIA	22
ANCIENT EGYPT	26
LANDS OF THE BIBLE	30
PREHISTORIC EUROPE	34
THE MINOANS & MYCENAEANS	38
ANCIENT GREECE	42
ALEXANDER THE GREAT	46
THE RISE OF ROME	50
EARLY STATES OF SOUTH ASIA	54
FIRST EMPERORS OF CHINA	58



THE MEDIEVAL WORLD	62
THE WORLD BY AD 120	64
THE ROMAN EMPIRE	68
EUROPE IN THE DARK AGES	72
THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE	76
THE RISE OF ISLAM	80
MEDIEVAL EUROPE	84
TANG & SUNG CHINA	88
THE MONGOL EMPIRE	92
THE RISE OF JAPAN	96
KINGDOMS OF AFRICA	100
THE MAYA & THE AZTECS	104
THE INCA EMPIRE	108
THE WORLD'S RELIGIONS	112



AGE OF DISCOVERY	116
THE WORLD BY 1530	118
THE SPANISH–AMERICAN EMPIRE	122
COLONIAL NORTH AMERICA	126
THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION	130
THE EUROPEAN REFORMATION	134
EUROPE IN CONFLICT	138
THE AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT	142
EUROPE UNDER NAPOLEON	146
THE EXPANSION OF RUSSIA	150
THE MUSLIM WORLD	154
IMPERIAL CHINA	158
THE EMERGENCE OF AFRICA	162
THE WORLD BY 1815	166



THE MODERN WORLD	170
THE WORLD BY 1850	172
THE WORLD BY 1914	176
RISE OF THE UNITED STATES	180
EUROPE IN THE 19TH CENTURY	184
WORLD WAR I	188
THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA	192
THE RISE OF JAPAN IN ASIA	196
WORLD WAR II IN EUROPE	200
RUSSIA IN THE 20TH CENTURY	204
ASIA SINCE 1945	208
THE MIDDLE EAST SINCE 1948	212
THE WORLD BY 1975	216
THE WORLD TODAY	220
GLOSSARY	224
FURTHER READING	229
INDEX	229
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	240



Academic consultant  
**Dr. Paul Garwood**  
University of Oxford, UK

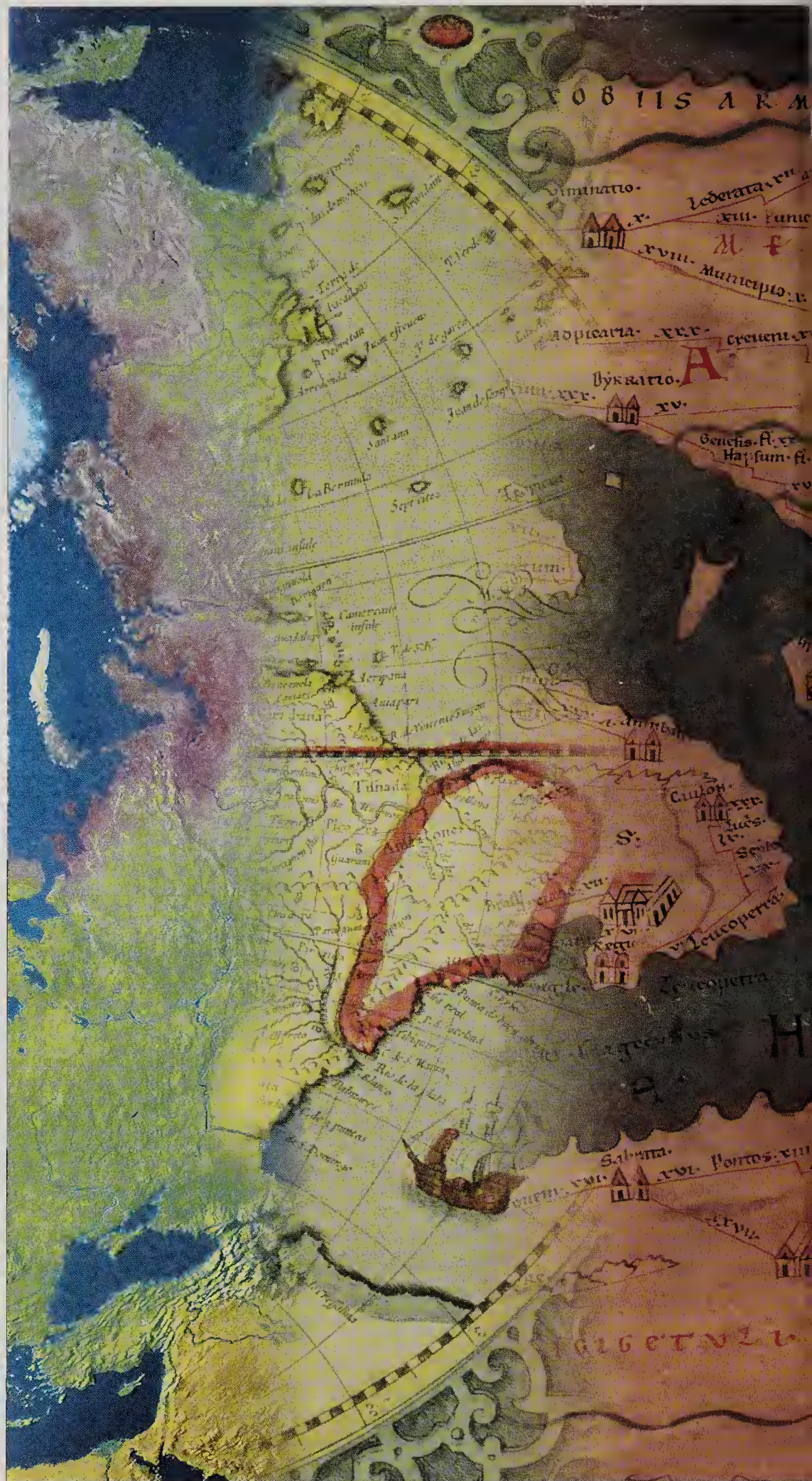
Project editor Susan Kennedy  
Cartographic manager Richard Watts  
Art editor & designer Ayala Kingsley  
Editors Lauren Bourque, Peter Lewis  
Cartographic editor Tim Williams  
Picture researcher Ayala Kingsley  
Picture management Claire Turner  
Production director Clive Sparling  
Proofreader Lynne Wycherley  
Indexer Ann Barrett

The Brown Reference Group plc  
(incorporating Andromeda Oxford Limited)  
First Floor  
9-17 St. Albans Place  
London N1 0NX  
[www.brownreference.com](http://www.brownreference.com)

Copyright © 2002 The Brown Reference Group Ltd

Reprinted in 2006 and 2009

ISBN 978-0-681-42318-3





# USING THIS ATLAS

This four part volume charts the global story of humans from prehistoric times to the present day. Three different types of map are used in the *Atlas of Past Times*. Here are some hints on how to study the information that appears on them.

**WORLD MAPS** show what the world was like at a particular moment in human history. They will tell you where there were organized states and civilizations, where people lived mostly as farmers or pastoral nomads, and where they were predominantly hunter-gatherers. By following these maps through all four volumes of the Atlas you can see how human society has evolved over time and trace the rise and fall of political empires. Black circled numbers on the world maps will help you locate references on the Timeline below.

**REGIONAL MAPS** show the history of a particular region of the world over an extended period of time (indicated in the top right corner of the page). To help you locate historic places, modern countries and borders are shown in light gray. Hill shading is included on some of the maps to indicate the physical landscape.

**SUPPLEMENTARY MAPS** add to the information in the regional maps by illustrating a particular theme or event.

The world and regional maps have been given grid references (numbers running vertically down the page, letters running horizontally across it). If you want to see if a particular place is shown on a map, the index will give you the page number and grid reference (eg. 37 4D) to help you locate it.

## STANDARD MAP INFORMATION

### World maps

<b>PERSIA</b>	civilization, state, or empire
Dutch Guiana	chiefdom, dependency, or territory
<i>Khoisan herders</i>	tribe, people, or cultural group

### Regional maps

<b>FRANCE</b>	state or empire
Henan	dependency, territory, or province
<i>Goths</i>	tribe, people, or chiefdom
<b>ANATOLIA</b>	geographical region
URUK	modern country
—	border of modern country
⌘	battle
•	site, settlement, or town









# THE ANCIENT WORLD

An enormous span of human history is covered in this section, which begins more than 4 million years ago in Africa and ends at the start of the Christian era in the Middle East and Europe. During most of this time, change was incredibly slow. Our earliest human ancestors probably lived, like modern chimpanzees and baboons, in family groups. They ate plant foods and scavenged flesh from animal carcasses using simple stone

tools that did not alter in the way they were made for more than a million years. Gradually humans developed larger brains and by about 100,000 years ago had evolved into the modern human species of *Homo sapiens*. By the end of the Ice Age, about 11,000 years ago, they had spread to almost every part of the globe. They had learned to use fire, build shelters, and hunt and kill animals with spears and other weapons, but these developments had evolved slowly, over hundreds of thousands of years.

As the climate warmed, the pace of change accelerated. Some wild foods became scarce, so people in many parts of the world began to plant wild grasses and tubers and to keep animals for meat, milk, or wool. With astonishing speed—in a little over 3,000 years—farming became established wherever soil and climatic conditions were favorable and there was a range of native plants and animals suitable for domestication.

The adoption of agriculture transformed the way human societies were organized. Crop farmers settled down to live in villages close to the fields they worked. People learned to make pottery and work metals such as copper and bronze. As distinctions in rank and wealth developed, chiefdoms emerged in many parts of the world.

The first civilizations developed in regions of great fertility, such as the Nile valley in Egypt or the Yellow River basin in China, where surplus food could be grown to feed such people as priests or craftsmen, who were not immediately involved in farming. Societies became more complex, trade helped build up wealth, and cities developed. The first writing systems were invented and people began to write down their histories and their religious myths and beliefs, giving rise to the first literature.

Wealthy, well-organized states employed great armies to coerce their less advanced neighbors. By the end of the 1st century BC, a succession of empires and states had emerged and declined in the Near and Far East, around the Mediterranean, and in parts of Central and South America.

*Left* Ceremonial vessel from Crete, c.1600 BC.





① c.4,400,000 y.a. *Ardeipithecus ramidus*, the oldest human ancestor yet discovered

② c.3,600,000 y.a. A family of early hominids walking on two legs leave footprints in wet mud at Laetoli, Tanzania

③ c.3,500,000 y.a. The most complete *Australopithecus afarensis* (known to her discoverers as “Lucy”)

④ c.2,400,000 y.a. Oldest known tools are in use at Hadar, Ethiopia

⑤ c.1,800,000–1,600,000 y.a. *Homo erectus* migrates from Africa to reach southeast Asia

⑥ c.1,600,000 y.a. First known use of fire at Chesowanja and Swartkrans in Africa

⑦ c.1,000,000 y.a. Ice Age begins

⑧ c.400,000 y.a. Wood tools in use in Germany

⑨ c.300,000 y.a. A site at Terra Amata, France, may be evidence of the first human structure

⑩ c.150,000 y.a. Neanderthals evolve in Europe

⑪ c.130,000 y.a. The earliest known modern human, *Homo sapiens sapiens*

⑫ c.100,000 y.a. Modern humans begin to migrate out of Africa

⑬ c.60,000–40,000 y.a. Australia and New Guinea reached by island-hopping sea voyages

⑭ c.47,000 y.a. Bone flute found at Hava Fteah, North Africa, is first known musical instrument

⑮ c.40,000 y.a. Australian rock carvings and cave paintings are first examples of human art

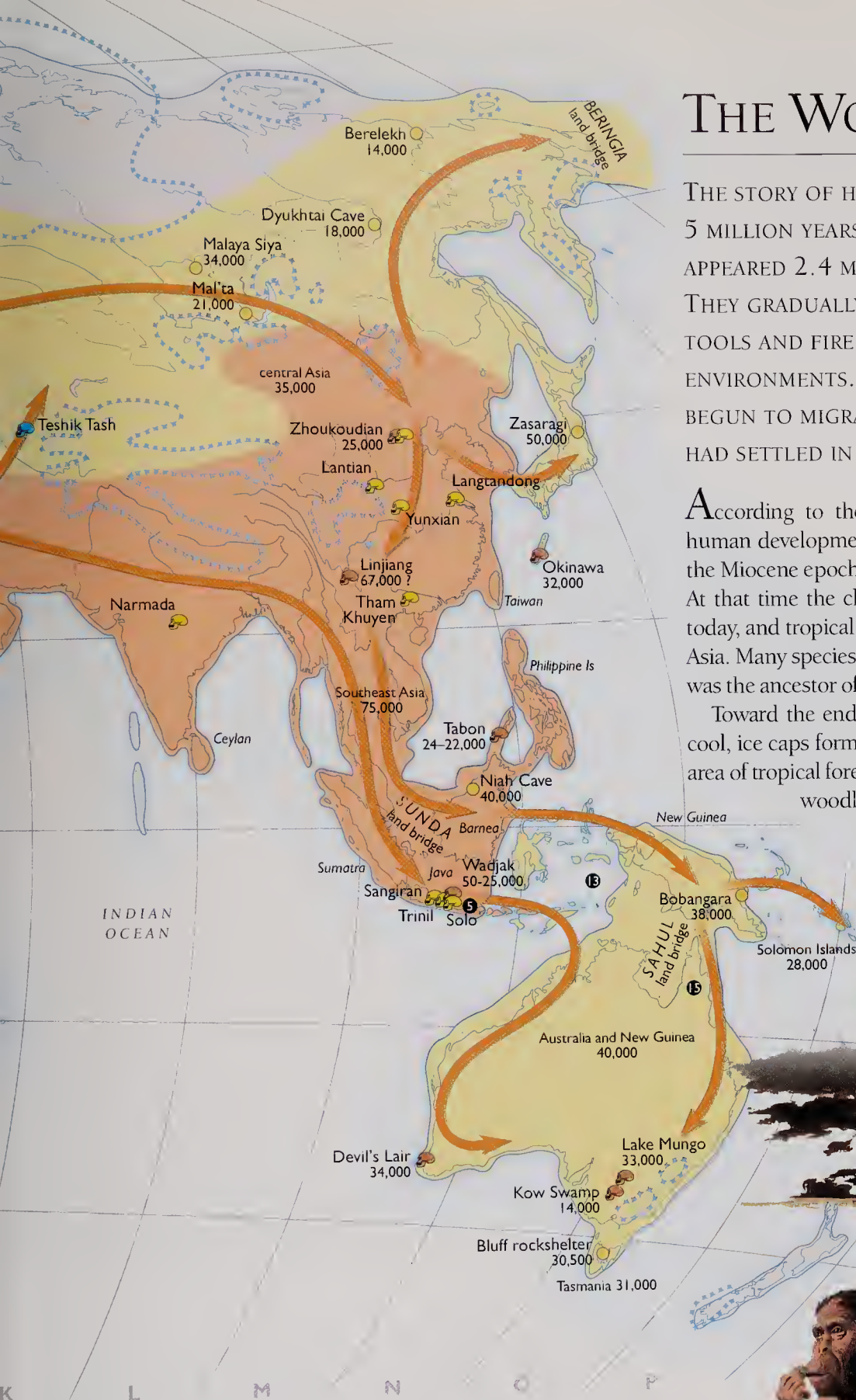


# THE WORLD BY 10,000 BC

THE STORY OF HUMAN EVOLUTION BEGAN MORE THAN 5 MILLION YEARS AGO. THE FIRST REAL HUMANS APPEARED 2.4 MILLION YEARS AGO IN EAST AFRICA. THEY GRADUALLY BECAME SKILLED IN THE USE OF TOOLS AND FIRE AND WERE ABLE TO ADAPT TO NEW ENVIRONMENTS. BY 100,000 BC MODERN HUMANS HAD BEGUN TO MIGRATE OUT OF AFRICA. BY 10,000 BC THEY HAD SETTLED IN ALMOST EVERY PART OF THE WORLD.

According to the most widely accepted theory of evolution, human development began more than 5 million years ago during the Miocene epoch of the Earth's history (25–5 million years ago). At that time the climate was much warmer and wetter than it is today, and tropical forests grew across much of Africa, Europe, and Asia. Many species of apes lived in these forests, including one that was the ancestor of modern humans.

Toward the end of the Miocene, global temperatures began to cool, ice caps formed at the poles, and the climate grew drier. The area of tropical forests grew smaller, giving way to expanses of open woodland and grasslands. In East Africa, early hominids (the family of primates that includes modern humans and their immediate ancestors) were trapped in shrinking patches of forest. Before this, they had lived in the trees and moved on four feet when traveling over the forest floor. In order to cross wide stretches of open ground quickly and safely, some



- 16 c.40,000 y.a. Modern humans replace Neanderthals in western Europe
- 17 c.15,000 y.a. After crossing the Bering Sea "land bridge" humans reach North America
- 18 c.14,000 y.a. The Great Plains and South America are reached as ice sheets melt
- 19 c.12,500 y.a. Southern Chile is reached
- 20 c.9,000 y.a. Mammoth, mastodon, glyptodon, horse, camel, and 25 other American species are made extinct through overhunting

Right A family group of Australopithecines search for edible roots. Their upright walking position allows them to keep a good lookout for animal predators in open country. At night they sleep in trees for protection.





hominids began walking on two feet, like modern humans.

These changes took place over millions of years. Fossil remains of bones provide us with evidence of our earliest ancestors. The oldest yet found, known by the scientific name of *Ardipithecus ramidus*, lived around 4.4 million years ago. They probably still inhabited the forests, living in the tree canopy as chimpanzees do, and it is unknown if they walked on two legs. A later species of hominid, *Australopithecus afarensis*, which appeared around 3.5 million years ago, was certainly able to do so.

By 3 million years ago this species had evolved into two types: "robusts" had massive teeth and jaws; "graciles," from whom modern humans are descended, had smaller teeth and jaws. Their brains were about the same size as a chimpanzee's (one-third the size of a modern human's). Like chimpanzees, they used stones and sticks as rudimentary tools. They lived on plant foods and also on the meat that they scavenged from dead animals.

## THE FIRST HUMANS

The first human species evolved from the graciles around 2.4 million years ago. Its brain was about half the size of a modern human's. It has been given the name of *Homo habilis*. This simply means "handyman," because it made simple stone tools made by striking rocks together until they shattered into sharp flakes which could be used for cutting. They did not use their tools to hunt with, but to cut the meat from animals that had died naturally or been killed by predators such as lions and saber-toothed cats.

After hundreds of thousands of years *Homo habilis* gave way to a new species called *Homo erectus* ("upright man"). They were taller than modern humans, but in other respects were much like ourselves, though their brains were still much smaller. They were the first humans to live outside Africa. Between 1.8 and 1.6 million years ago they probably spread throughout tropical Asia, and after learning to use fire were also able to live in cooler areas of China and Europe. As well as giving warmth, fire was used to harden the ends of wooden tools, for cooking meat, and for protection.

**Right** The Rift Valley in East Africa is sometimes called the "cradle of humankind." It is the most important site for early human fossils in the world. Millions of years ago, when sudden floods occurred, soils were washed down the steep cliff sides of the valley. They covered over the bones of recently dead animals, including early humans, so preserving them from being eaten by carnivores or broken down by the weather. The Olduvai Gorge in particular has yielded unrivaled fossil evidence of our human ancestors.



**Above and right** Handaxes were made by carefully flaking stone or flint pebbles. These were made around 70,000 years ago, and might have been used to cut up the carcasses of animals as big as elephants.

## THE ICE AGE

By now, the Earth was entering a period of climatic change, the Ice Age. In spite of its name, the climate was not cold all the time; there were frequent warm intervals, "interglacial periods," separating the cold, dry "glacial periods." The change between the two could be rapid, and animals and plants had to be able to adapt quickly—for example, by growing thicker fur or smaller leaves to prevent moisture loss—or go extinct. The way that



About 500,000 years ago *Homo erectus* began to evolve in different ways in Europe and Africa. In Europe, a species known as the Neanderthals developed. Their robust bodies and bulbous noses helped them survive the cold conditions by reducing heat loss. *Homo sapiens sapiens* (“wise man”), the first human species to resemble modern people in all anatomical respects, emerged in Africa some 130,000 years ago. As modern human populations increased, small bands slowly colonized neighboring areas, and by 100,000 years ago had migrated from Africa to the Middle East. Over the next 90,000 years their descendants spread out across most of the world. Sea levels were then much lower than today because so much of the Earth’s water was frozen within glaciers and ice sheets. This allowed humans to travel easily on foot across areas of land that are now separated from each other by stretches of sea.

By 75,000 years ago modern humans had penetrated China and southeast Asia. Soon after their arrival they appear to have forced *Homo erectus* into extinction, probably because they were more skillful and resourceful hunters. Between 60,000 and 40,000 years ago they learned how to make boats or rafts and sailed to Australia and New Guinea, then a voyage of only 40 miles (64 kilometers) at its narrowest. Because of the colder climate, *Homo sapiens* was slow to migrate into Europe and central Asia. When they finally did so, around 40,000 years ago, they slowly replaced the Neanderthals already living there.

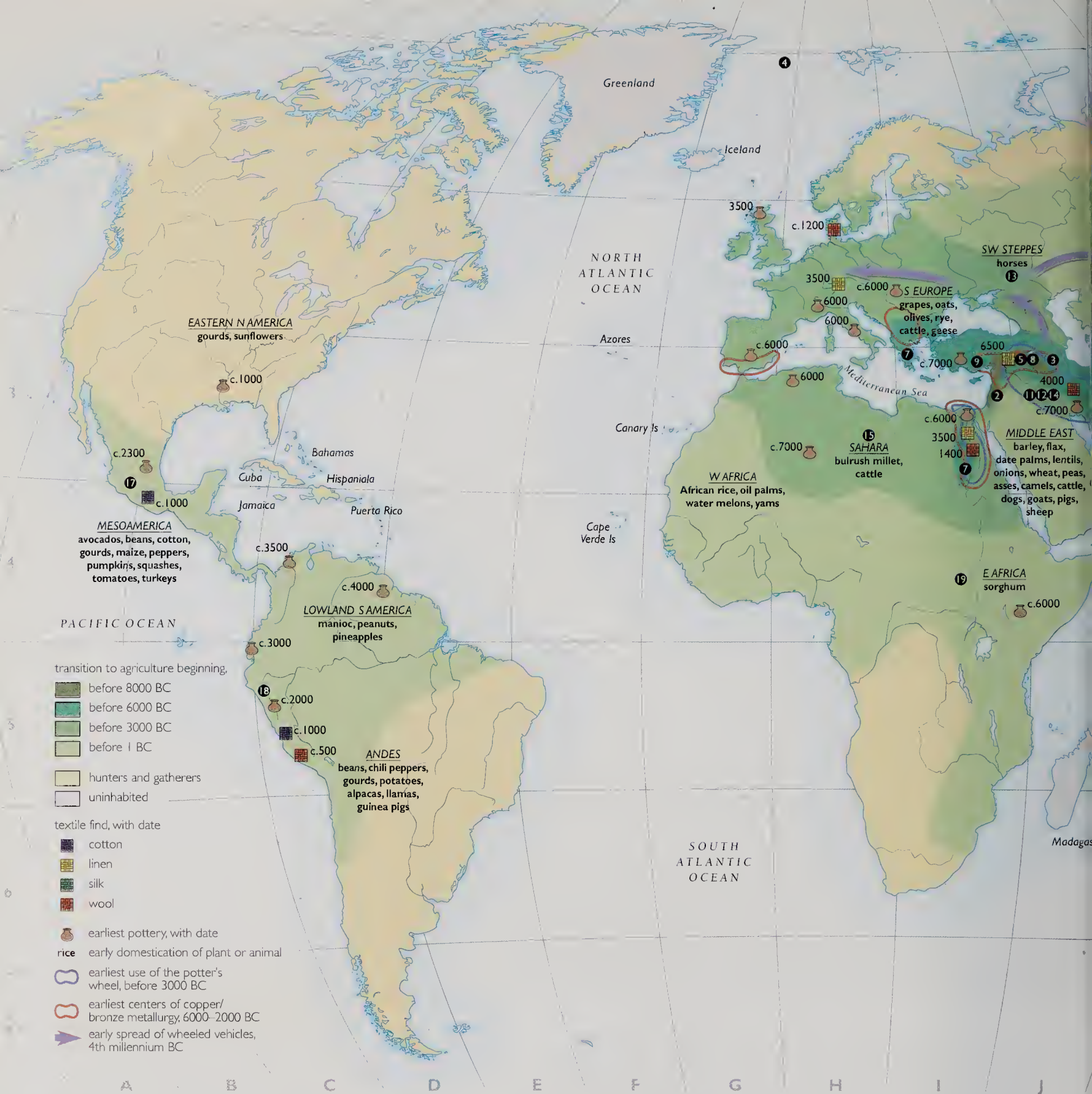
The Americas were the last continents to be reached by modern humans. By 15,000 years ago bands of hunters had penetrated as far as Alaska across a land bridge from Siberia. Great ice sheets blocked their way, making further progress impossible. When these began to melt 14,000–12,000 years ago, the Paleoindians (ancestors of the Native Americans) were able to reach the Great Plains of North America. These vast grasslands swarmed with herds of grazing animals, many species of which they hunted to extinction. The Paleoindians moved on into South America to reach Patagonia around 11,000 years ago. By this time only Antarctica and a few oceanic islands were without human inhabitants.

*Homo erectus* responded to these inhospitable conditions was by developing a bigger brain. This meant that greater intelligence could be applied to solving problems. By 1 million years ago the brain of *Homo erectus* was already three-quarters the size of a modern human’s.

*Homo erectus* was a skillful toolmaker. Wooden throwing spears were used to hunt and kill wild animals, and stone handaxes to butcher them. They cleaned the skins of their prey with stone “scrapers,” perhaps for clothing. They may have built simple shelters and lived in small family groups,

traveling from place to place. At certain times of the year they moved their camps near to waterholes to hunt the wild animals that came there to drink, and foraged for edible plant foods such as fruits, nuts, and roots, knowing where and at what season they would be most abundant. Information of this kind would be passed on from generation to generation. The hunting–gathering way of life, as it is called, remained the way all humans lived until farming began. A few people, such as the Inuit of the Canadian Arctic and the San of the Kalahari Desert in Africa, still live like this today.





- 1 c.11,000 BC The earliest known pots are made in Japan
- 2 c.10,000 Hunter-gatherers in Syria and Israel harvest wild cereals with stone sickles
- 3 c.9000 Wild sheep are domesticated by hunters in the Zagros mountains
- 4 c.8000 End of the Ice Age
- 5 c.8000-7700 Following the domestication of wheat and barley, the first farming villages develop in the Fertile Crescent

- 6 c.6500 Rice is farmed in the Yangtze valley
- 7 c.6500 Wheat, barley, sheep, and cattle farming spread to Egypt and Europe
- 8 c.6500 Wild cattle are domesticated in the Middle East
- 9 c.6200 The smelting of copper at Chatal Huyuk, Turkey, is the first known example of metalworking
- 10 c.5500 Cotton is domesticated in the northern mountains of Pakistan

- 11 c.5000 The use of irrigation makes farming possible on the dry Mesopotamian plains
- 12 c.4500 The plow, sail, and potter's wheel come into use in Mesopotamia
- 13 c.4000 Horses are domesticated for meat and milk in southern Russia
- 14 c.3800 Bronzeworking develops in the Middle East
- 15 c.3500 Overgrazing by herds of cattle may have helped to turn the Sahara into a desert



# THE WORLD BY 2000 BC

AS THE GLOBAL CLIMATE BEGAN TO WARM UP AT THE END OF THE ICE AGE, HUMAN POPULATIONS ROSE SHARPLY IN MANY PARTS OF THE WORLD. HUNTER-GATHERERS WERE FORCED TO GROW THEIR OWN FOOD AS NATURAL SUPPLIES BECAME SCARCER. WHERE THE ENVIRONMENT WAS SUITABLE, FARMING BEGAN IN SEVERAL DIFFERENT PLACES BETWEEN 11,000 AND 8,000 YEARS AGO. IT IS PERHAPS THE MOST IMPORTANT EVENT IN HUMAN HISTORY, LEADING TO NEW SKILLS AND TECHNOLOGIES.

During the Ice Age, vast areas of the Earth were covered with grasslands grazed by huge herds of animals such as bison and reindeer. However, as it began to come to an end between 12,000 and 10,000 years ago, the climate became warmer and wetter, and the forests started to spread. Herds of large animals became scarcer, and in many places people were forced to find new sources of food, hunting small game such as deer or wild sheep, catching birds and fish, and gathering shellfish and edible plants. To ensure a reliable food supply, some people began deliberately to plant wild grasses and tubers. Others managed herds of wild animals by keeping some in pens until they were needed for food.

The next stage in the story of farming was the domestication of particular plants and animals. This was done by planting or breeding only those specimens that would produce the biggest fruits or seeds, or the best meat. Among the earliest food plants to be domesticated were the grain-bearing



- 16 c. 3000 Silkworms are domesticated in China and the first silk cloth is made
- 17 c. 2700 Corn is domesticated in Mexico, leading to farming settlement
- 18 c. 2000 Potatoes are domesticated as a staple foodcrop in the mountains of Peru
- 19 c. 1500 Cattle herding is introduced on the grasslands of sub-Saharan Africa
- 20 c. 1200–800 Pastoral farmers on the Eurasian steppes learn to ride horseback

*Right* Cattle herders are depicted on this rock painting from Tassili N'Ajjer in the Sahara. It dates from c. 2000 BC, when the region was still largely grassland and could support both cereal farming and herding.





cereals: wheat, barley, oats, sorghum, millet, rice, and corn. Their seeds were easy to store, usually in underground pits, until the time came for planting the next year. They are still the main food source for most of the world's people today. Herd animals like cattle, sheep, goats, pigs, camels, and horses proved the most suitable for domestication. As well as meat, they provided milk, wool, and transportation.

## CRADLES OF AGRICULTURE

Farming began in a number of different places around the world, at different times, and independently of each other, between 11,000 and 8,000 years ago. Some of the earliest farmers lived in the area of the Middle East called the Fertile Crescent. This region of good soil stretches through modern Israel, Lebanon, Syria, and Iraq. The Natufian people of Syria and Israel began to grow wild wheat and barley around 10,000 BC. Around the same time, people in the Zagros mountains of Iraq, farther to the east, began to domesticate wild sheep. One reason why farming developed so early in the Middle East was that it had a rich supply of native plants that were suitable for domestication, including wild wheats, barley, pulses, and nut trees. From about 8000 BC farming villages grew up right across the Fertile Crescent. From this center, cereal farming later spread through the rest of the Middle East, Egypt, parts of sub-Saharan Africa (where native grains were domesticated), Pakistan, and Europe.

In east Asia millet and rice farming was taking place in the Yellow and Yangtze river valleys of China at least 8,000 years ago. Southeast Asia and New Guinea saw the early domestication of several tropical food crops such as taro, sugar cane, bananas, and sweet potatoes. In Mexico and South America a large range of edible plants were domesticated, including corn, beans, peppers, squashes, and potatoes. Guinea pigs, alpacas, and llamas were used for food, wool, and transportation. Several regions of the world, in particular North America, southern Africa, and Australia, had few or no native plants and animals that could be easily domesticated. Farming became important in these places only after domestic animals and crops had been introduced from other parts of the world.



## FARMING & TECHNOLOGY

Farming led to new discoveries and inventions. Hunter-gatherers were nomads, so everything they owned had to be carried with them from camp to camp. Farmers, on the other hand, lived more settled lives in villages, and could keep and store more possessions. They needed more tools than before, and new implements were developed for specific purposes: polished stone axes to cut down the forests to clear fields; hoes and digging sticks to make the soil ready for planting; stone sickles to harvest crops.

New technologies arose from the need to store and prepare food. Grindstones were used to make flour from harvested grains. People began to make clay pots to store food and for cooking. The earliest known pottery comes from Japan, around 11,000 BC. It was invented independently in the Middle East around 3,000 years later. As the potters grew more skillful they learned to build ovens for baking the clay. Later, the same ovens were used to smelt and cast metals from natural ores—copper and gold first, then bronze and iron. Metal produced better cutting tools, knives, and swords.





*Left* A wheatfield today in Galilee, Israel. Around 12,000 years ago this area was inhabited by the Natufian people, who supported themselves by hunting gazelle and harvesting grains from wild wheat and barley. They stored these in underground pits to be used in the winter when other food was scarce. With this abundance of food always available, the Natufians began to live in settled villages. In time, they started to plant the wild cereals close to their villages so that they did not have to spend so much time traveling to find food. So the transition to farming was made.

Worked metal articles were worn as jewelry, emphasizing personal wealth and status. Wheels were also developed as an aid to pottery making. Only later (around 4000 BC) was it realized that they could also be attached to carts and used to move objects. Animal skins and plant fibers had long been used for shelter, clothing, and to make baskets; now spinning and weaving developed to turn cotton, flax, and wool into cloth. This could be used to make many things, including sails for sailing ships.

There were a number of technological developments that improved the efficiency of farming. The storage and channeling of river and flood waters to irrigate fields made it possible to cultivate crops in arid regions such as the Mesopotamian floodplain, the Indus valley, and South America. When the plow came into use in central and western Europe around 3000 BC, it became easier to cultivate the region's heavy soil.

In the Eurasian steppes and sub-Saharan Africa, where there were few opportunities for crop cultivation, nomadic pastoralists managed large herds of horses, cattle, and sheep by moving them to new grazing lands once the old ones were exhausted. Around 1000 BC, Eurasian herders learned the skill of horseback riding. This made it possible for them to cover much larger distances than before.

## FARMING & HEALTH

The fossil remains of hunter-gatherers show that they were taller than people are today: food supplies were plentiful and they were well nourished. This was not true of early farmers. Every few years, crops failed because of bad weather, pest invasion, or disease. During times of scarcity, malnutrition was widespread. This stunted the growth of children, and as a result early farmers were shorter than modern people. Now that they were living close to animals all the time, farmers caught many animal diseases. For example, tuberculosis, a big killer before the discovery of antibiotics in the 20th century, was originally a disease of cattle. Farmers also had to work very much harder than their hunter-gatherer ancestors and they began to develop diseases of the joints, such as arthritis.

*Right* Preparing food was a laborious task in early farming societies. This figurine of a woman grinding wheat comes from Egypt. Analysis of skeletal remains shows that arthritis was a common disease by age 30.







- 1 c.3400 The first cities develop in Sumer (southern Iraq). At about this time a simple form of picture writing comes into use
- 2 c.3000 In Egypt, writing with hieroglyphs develops and a unified kingdom is formed
- 3 c.2600-1800 An urban-based civilization rises and falls in the Indus valley
- 4 c.2550 The Great Pyramid is built
- 5 2334-2279 Sargon of Akkad brings all of Mesopotamia under his rule

- 6 c.2500-2300 Bronze-working becomes established in central and southeast Europe
- 7 c.2000 The main stage of the great stone circle at Stonehenge, southern Britain, is completed
- 8 c.2000-1600 The first European civilization, the Minoan, flourishes on Crete
- 9 c.1900 The first bronzes in China are made at Erlitou, which becomes a center of the craft
- 10 c.1800 Large U-shaped ceremonial centers are built on the coast of Peru

- 11 c.1766-c.1122 The first Chinese dynasty, the Shang, flourishes. The first cities are built
- 12 c.1730-c.1350 In North America, hunter-gatherers build a series of complex earthworks at Poverty Point, Louisiana
- 13 c.1700 The kingdom of Kush, the first African state outside Egypt, comes into being in Nubia under Egyptian influence
- 14 c.1600-1200 The Mycenaean civilization flourishes in southern Greece

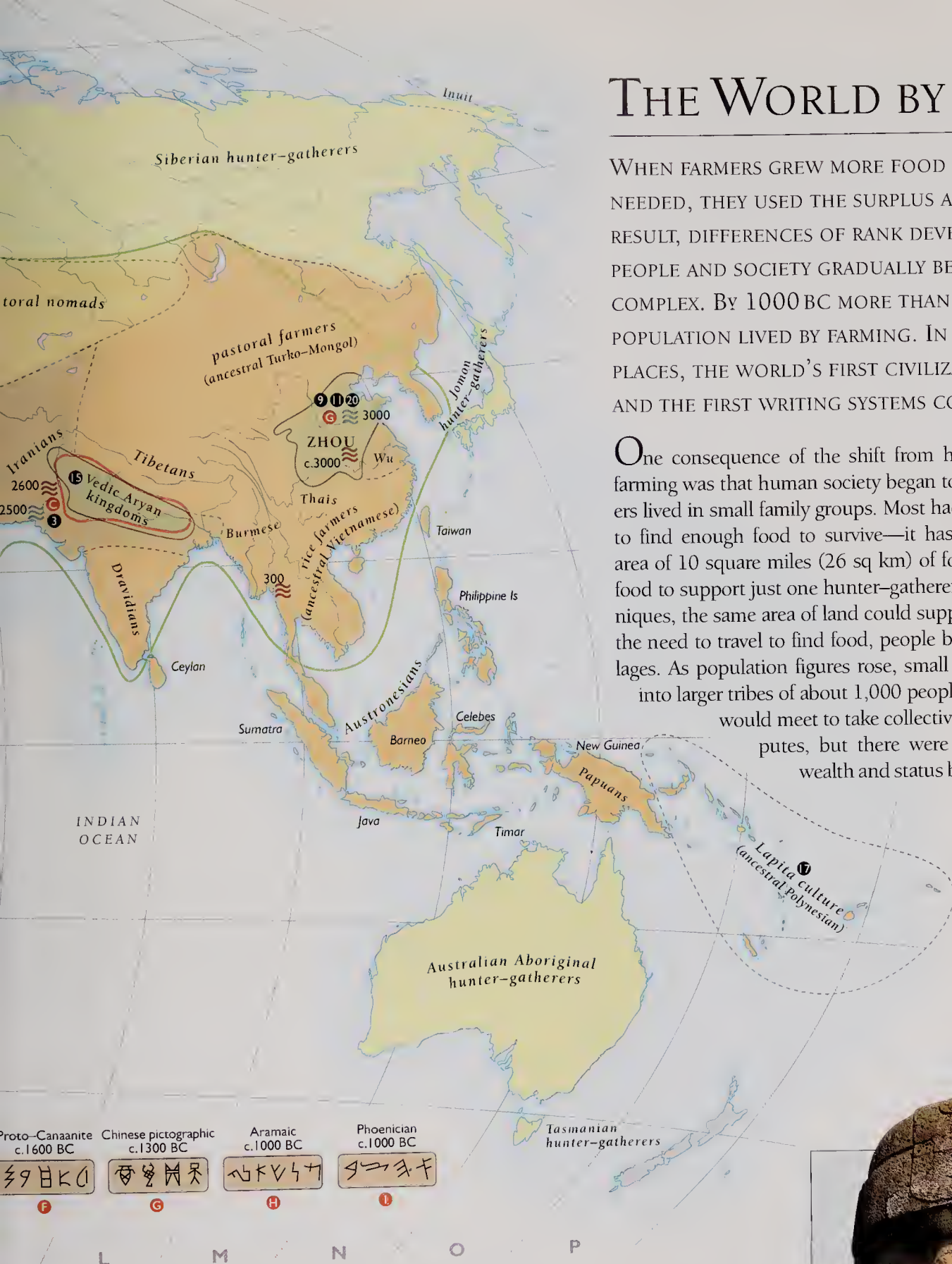


# THE WORLD BY 1000 BC

WHEN FARMERS GREW MORE FOOD THAN THEY NEEDED, THEY USED THE SURPLUS AS WEALTH. AS A RESULT, DIFFERENCES OF RANK DEVELOPED BETWEEN PEOPLE AND SOCIETY GRADUALLY BECAME MORE COMPLEX. BY 1000 BC MORE THAN HALF THE WORLD'S POPULATION LIVED BY FARMING. IN SOME WELL-FAVORED PLACES, THE WORLD'S FIRST CIVILIZATIONS HAD EMERGED AND THE FIRST WRITING SYSTEMS CAME INTO USE.

One consequence of the shift from hunting and gathering to farming was that human society began to change. Hunter-gatherers lived in small family groups. Most had to travel large distances to find enough food to survive—it has been estimated that an area of 10 square miles (26 sq km) of forest would yield enough food to support just one hunter-gatherer. Farmed by simple techniques, the same area of land could support 800 people. Without the need to travel to find food, people began to live in settled villages. As population figures rose, small family groups developed into larger tribes of about 1,000 people. The leaders of the tribe would meet to take collective decisions and settle disputes, but there were very few distinctions of wealth and status between individuals.

*Below This massive stone head from Mexico depicts an Olmec chief or king. Early rulers had statues made of themselves to impress and intimidate their subjects, just as some dictators do in the modern world.*



- 15 c.1500 Cattle-herding Aryans migrate from central Asia into northern India and begin to settle the Ganges plain
- 16 c.1500 Iron-working develops among the Hittites in Anatolia (Turkey)
- 17 c.1500–1200 The Polynesian islands (Fiji, Tonga, Samoa) are settled by people of the Lapita pottery-making culture from Melanesia
- 18 c.1200 The Olmecs build elaborate ceremonial centers in Mexico

- 19 c.1200–1180 The Sea Peoples bring an end to the Mycenaean civilization in Greece. They invade Anatolia and the Middle East, and are defeated by the Egyptians
- 20 c.1122 The Zhou dynasty overthrows the Shang dynasty in China
- 21 c.1100 The construction of hilltop forts begins in western Europe
- 22 c.1000 Iron-working technology spreads to southern Europe from the Middle East





## CHIEFDOMS

In some parts of the world, such as New Guinea and the Amazon basin, tribal societies like this have survived into the modern world. However, in areas where the conditions were especially favorable for agriculture, some farmers would have been able to produce more food than they and their families needed to survive. They would have used the surplus to barter for other goods or exert power over their neighbors. Through this process, distinct inequalities of wealth and power gradually grew up between individual members of the tribe, leading to the development of chiefdoms—ranked societies of around 5,000 or more people.

Anthropologists, who study the way people live, are able to surmise how these chiefdoms were organized by looking at similar

groups that have survived into the modern age; for example, in the Pacific islands. They were probably divided into extended family groups called clans. Each clan had its own hereditary leaders, and some clans had more prestige than others. The leader of the most important clan was the ruler of the chiefdom, while the leading men of the clans formed a ruling elite, or aristocracy. From the excavation of graves, archeologists can tell that differences in rank often continued after death, as some people were buried surrounded by precious objects, while others received no special treatment.

Social changes of this kind were greatest where technological improvements such as irrigation or the plow increased farming efficiency so that larger surpluses of food were produced each year. The chief and other leaders controlled the economic activity of

the whole community. They did not need to work: junior members of the clan were required to give them food in exchange for leadership and protection, an early form of taxation. As the chief and other clan leaders demanded fine weapons and jewelry to show off their wealth, a small class of craftsmen developed in most chiefdoms.

The chief often had a sacred role in religious rituals and there would probably be a permanent ceremonial center, or temple, which served as a focal point for the chiefdom, with or without associated residential quarters and craft workshops. Although chiefs exploited their people, they were also responsible for organizing large building works that benefited everyone, such as the large stone monuments (megaliths) and defensive hilltop forts of western Europe or the irrigation channels of Peru.





*Left* The inner circle of standing stones at Stonehenge in southern England is one of the greatest monuments of prehistoric Europe. This ancient sacred site was built in several stages over hundreds of years, but the stone circle itself was completed around 2000 BC. Without the aid of wheeled vehicles or cranes, a labor force of many hundreds of people would have been used to bring the stones to the site and set them in place. They are believed to have been dragged there on sledges, some over very great distances. Only a very powerful chief could have organized such an undertaking.

great rivers: between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Mesopotamia (around 3400 BC); in the Nile valley in Egypt (3000 BC); in the Indus valley of Pakistan (2600 BC); and in the Yellow River basin region of China (1700 BC). In all these places, annual flood waters supported intensive farming and ensured that good harvests were had nearly every year.

Farmers brought their food surpluses as taxes to the city where they were stored in temples or palace complexes and then reissued to the people of the city who were not directly engaged in farming: bakers, potters, weavers, metalworkers, leatherworkers, and builders. As the wealth and power of the civilization increased, more classes of job were needed—soldiers to keep control and conquer new territory, traders and merchants to travel abroad and add to the city's prosperity, bureaucrats (often priests) to administer public affairs.

## WRITING

By 1000 BC the major world civilizations had independently developed writing as an aid to administration. The earliest known examples of writing are accounts of goods. Found on clay tablets from the city of Uruk in Mesopotamia, they date from 3300 BC. Later on, individual rulers recorded their achievements in writing on stone monuments, and the myths and stories that were central to a civilization's religious beliefs came to be written down.

Early writing systems used simple pictures as signs (pictographs). Later they developed into more complex phonetic scripts. Both systems are still used in different parts of the world today.

In Mesopotamia, scribes made the pictographs by pressing a sharpened reed onto wet clay tablets, which then dried. This form of writing is called cuneiform. The Egyptians wrote on an early type of paper made from the papyrus reeds that grew beside the Nile. In China, most early writing was done on animal bones. Historians are able to decipher many, but not all, of these early scripts. Written records tell us much about past civilizations that archaeology cannot do, but they still do not give us a complete picture.

## THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS

In the period c.3500–1500 BC, in several parts of the world, chiefdoms developed independently into larger, more complex civilizations, based on cities. Their populations amounted to tens of thousands, and most were ruled by kings. The king had too many subjects to rely on family or clan loyalties alone to give him authority, and his power was often based on religion. The Egyptian kings, for example, claimed that they were living gods, while the early rulers of China ruled with the support and approval of the gods. The king might also strengthen his authority by issuing laws for everyone to obey, as certain Mesopotamian rulers did.

Civilizations developed where there were rich natural resources for farming. The earliest grew up on the fertile flood plains of

*Right* Seals from the Indus valley marked with an unknown script. Seals like this, used by many ancient civilizations, were pressed into wet clay and used as a form of identification tag on containers, so they probably show the name of the owner. The finely carved animals may also have been a personal symbol.





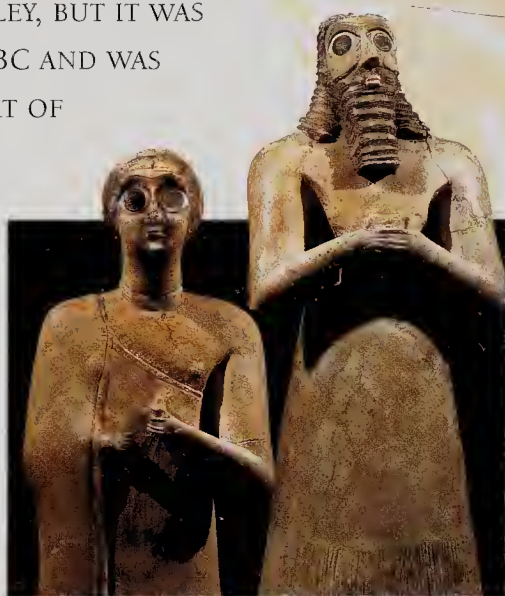
# ANCIENT MESOPOTAMIA

THE WORLD'S FIRST CIVILIZATION DEVELOPED IN MESOPOTAMIA MORE THAN 5,000 YEARS AGO. FOR OVER 2,000 YEARS IT WAS THE HOME OF THE WORLD'S MOST POWERFUL AND ADVANCED STATES. THE MESO-POTAMIAN CIVILIZATION HAD A STRONG INFLUENCE ON ITS NEIGHBORS IN THE MIDDLE EAST, EGYPT, AND THE INDUS VALLEY, BUT IT WAS IN DECLINE BY 500 BC AND WAS EXTINCT BY THE START OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

The name Mesopotamia, meaning the "land between the rivers," refers to the floodplain that lies between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers (modern Iraq). When these rivers flooded, they spread silt over the land, so creating layers of fertile soil.

But very little rain falls in this region, and the land was parched and useless for farming until people learned how to irrigate it by digging canals to carry water from the rivers to their fields. This happened around 5500 BC. They were now able to cultivate the rich soils of the plains to get a reliable harvest almost every year. The invention of the wooden plow about a thousand years later, which broke up the soil prior to the seeds being sown, increased crop yields even further. The population grew, and by 4300 BC hundreds of large villages and small towns had developed in the region.

Aside from its fertile soil, Mesopotamia lacked natural resources. Wood, stone, and metal ores for every purpose from building to jewelry had to be imported from neighboring regions in exchange for surplus food and craft items such as pottery. Trade was controlled by rich and powerful rulers who organized communal projects such as the construction of irrigation canals and flood defenses. These were particularly important as floods could cause serious damage to crops and houses. They were thought to be sent by angry gods—the Biblical story of Noah's Flood has its origins in the early myths of Mesopotamia.



*Left* These statuettes of a man and woman praying may be actual portraits. Such figures were often placed in Sumerian temples as signs of devotion. The Sumerians worshiped hundreds of gods, and each city had its own guardian deity.

## THE FIRST CITY STATES

By 3100 BC dozens of cities with populations of up to 10,000 people had emerged in Sumer, the southern part of Mesopotamia. They were independent states, each ruled by a king. Most of the inhabitants were farmers who worked in the countryside by day and returned to the city at night. The surplus crops they raised were taken to temples in the city, from where they were distributed as food rations to people not engaged in farming—those who performed specialized tasks like metalworkers, potters, builders, merchants, soldiers, and priests. Sumerian cities came to be dominated by their huge temple complexes, which acted as great storehouses for the whole community.

Early Sumerian cities were very different to modern cities. Because money had not yet come into use there were no markets. People received food, clothing, and other items as payment for work, or bartered with one another. A small number of rich people lived in palaces, but most lived in tiny houses that lacked water or sanitation. Buildings were constructions of sun-baked mud-bricks: stone was little used, except

BULGARIA

Aegean Sea

Troy

Gordien

TURKEY

LUKKA

TAURUS

copper

Mediterranean Sea

EGYPT

EGYPT

alabaster, diorite, gold

Memphis

Thebes

Nile

- known empire of Sargon of Agade, c.2279
- Babylonian empire under Hammurabi, c.1750
- Hittite empire, c.1322
- Assyrian empire, c.680–627
- earliest cities, c. 3400–2000
- later cities, c.2000–500
- trade route
- tin commodity

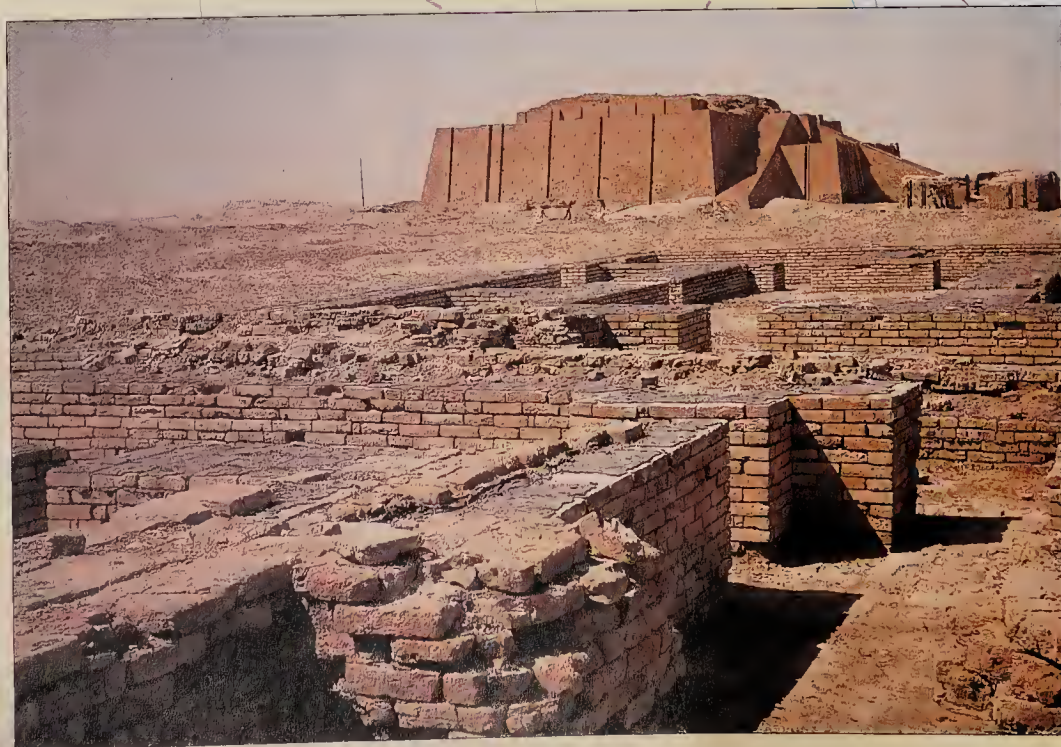
0 300 km  
0 200 mi





5500-539 BC

*Right* The temple of the moon god Nanna at Ur stood on top of a pyramid called a ziggurat. Built about 2095 BC, it consisted of three large mud-brick platforms one above the other: only the partially restored lower stage survives. Ziggurats were built throughout Mesopotamia and some had as many as eight platforms: worshipers ascended steep staircases to the shrine at the top. The ziggurat at Babylon is the Tower of Babel of the Bible.





or sculpture, because of its scarcity. Sometimes lions came into the cities at night and prowled around on rooftops.

By around 3400 BC the Sumerians had invented a simple form of writing to record business transactions. Cuneiform writing, made by marking wet clay with a pointed reed (see page 21), slowly grew more complex over the next several hundred years. It was eventually employed for many different

purposes—to record law codes and historical chronicles, send letters, and write down religious and literary texts. Because thousands of clay tablets have survived, historians have been able to piece together a remarkably full picture of the way life was led in Mesopotamian times.

During the Early Dynastic period (2900–2334 BC), disputes were common between the Sumerian city states, and most built

## THE ROYAL HUNT

*In Mesopotamia, as in other ancient societies, hunting was a sport enjoyed by kings and men of high status. They would acquire prestige, and the approval of the gods, by displaying strength and courage in the hunting field, and it was a good training for war. The Assyrian kings were particularly addicted to the sport and decorated their palaces with scenes of their hunting prowess. Lions, then found in Mesopotamia, were considered especially worthy of being hunted by kings. Royal hunts were carefully managed. Wild animals were captured to be released in game parks for the king to pursue and kill from a light chariot.*

*Right King Ashurbanipal dispatches a lion.*

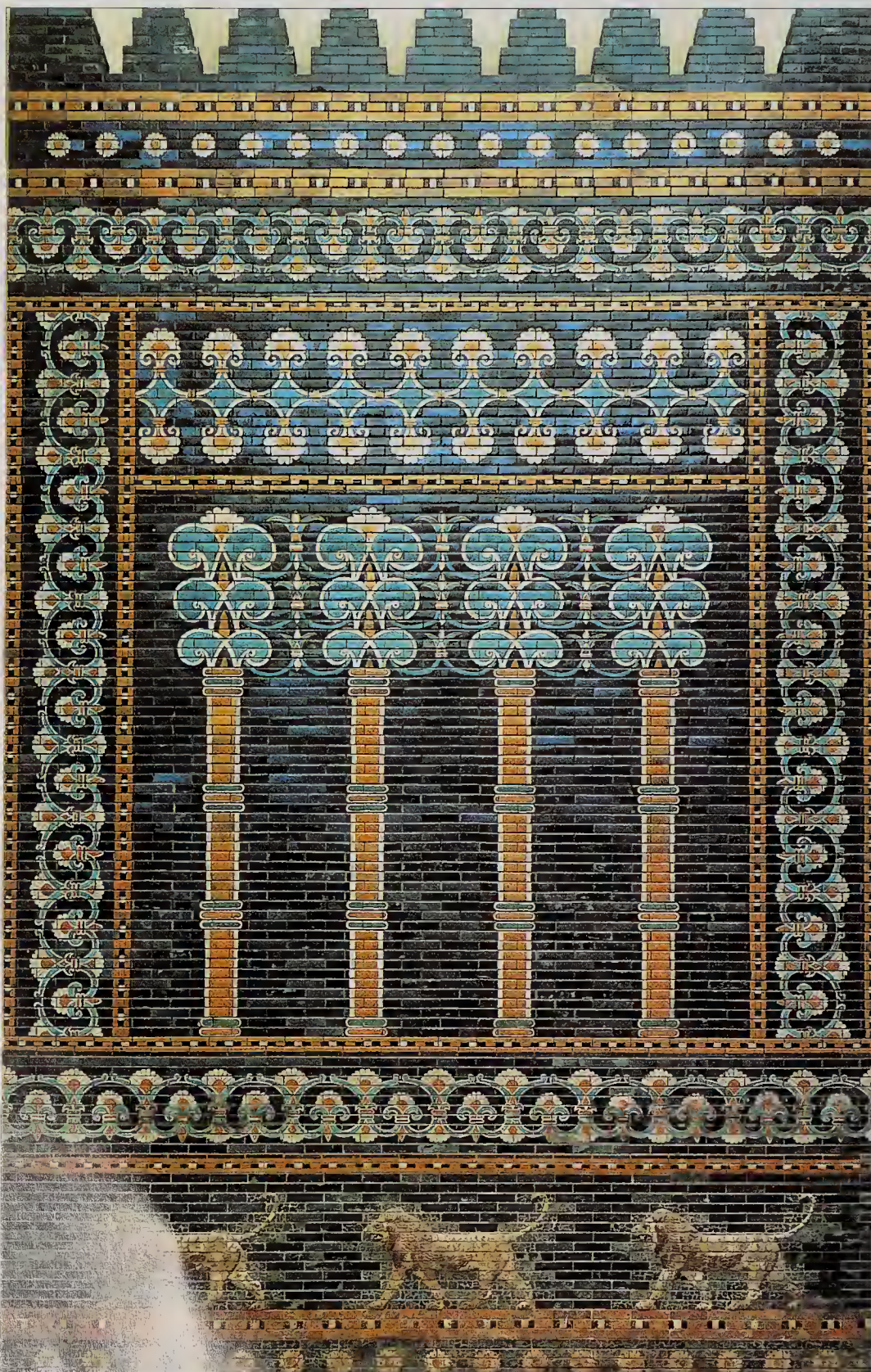
sturdy walls for protection. Warfare grew more sophisticated: sculptures of the time depict warriors riding into battle in four-wheeled carts pulled by donkeys.

Around 2334 BC, Sargon, king of the city of Agade, managed to conquer all the city states of Mesopotamia and to extend his power northward as far as the Mediterranean coast. By uniting so many different peoples and cultures in a single state, he can be claimed to have created the first known empire in history. It did not long survive him, however, as rivalries once again sprang up between city states. For a time Ur, in the south, was successful, but Sumer was now in terminal decline. Power passed to the north, first to the cities of Ashur (Assyria) and Mari, then to Babylon.

## HAMMURABI

Babylon reached its fullest heights in the reign of Hammurabi (1792–1750 BC). He is most famous for drawing up a list of laws, which he had inscribed on a large stone pillar, or stela. It is one of the oldest surviving legal records in the world and shows that women and children were considered to be the property of their husbands and fathers. Punishments were severe, with death or mutilation inflicted for even minor offenses.

*Left A wall panel from Nebuchadnezzar II's palace.*







## THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE

In 1595 BC the Hittites, who lived in the mountains of central Anatolia, where they were the first people to use iron, invaded and sacked Babylon. Soon after, Mesopotamia entered a dark age lasting 600 years. Recovery began in around 1000 BC in the Assyrian cities of Ashur and Nineveh, and by the 8th century the Assyrian empire was the dominant power in the Middle East.

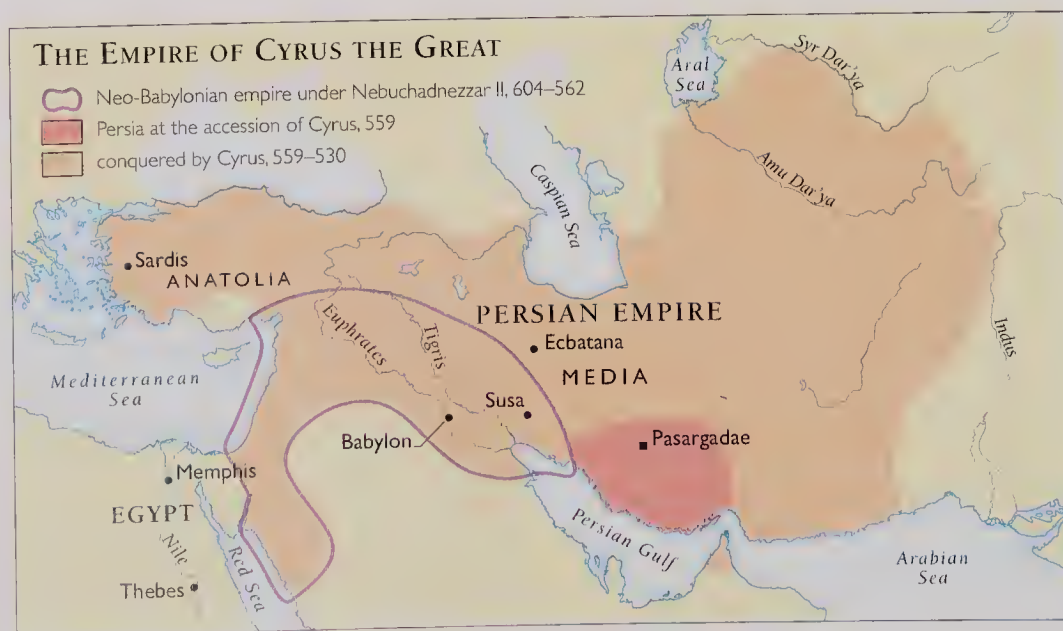
Assyrian society appears to have been extremely militaristic. Even its art was concerned mostly with war. Royal palaces were adorned with carved reliefs showing scenes of battle and defeated enemies being executed, tortured, or taken into slavery. For a time Assyria even ruled Egypt, but it had dangerously overextended its power. Rebellions broke out and after the death of the tyrant Ashurbanipal (669–627 BC), the empire was seized by the Babylonians.

## THE END OF BABYLON

Nebuchadnezzar II (r.604–562) was the most famous of the last kings of Babylon. He put down rebellions throughout the empire and dealt ruthlessly with his enemies: he was responsible for deporting the Jews to Babylon (see page 32). But he spent lavishly on wars and on rebuilding Babylon in imperial style (the Hanging Gardens of

Babylon date from this time), and left the empire divided and impoverished.

In 539 BC Babylon fell easily to the armies of the Persian king Cyrus the Great (c.559–530). From his kingdom on the Persian Gulf, Cyrus had already conquered the vast kingdom of the Medes to the north and overrun Anatolia. He now ruled an empire stretching from the Mediterranean to Central Asia, the largest the world had yet seen. After centuries of overcultivation, Mesopotamia's soil was losing its fertility. Its neighbors overtook it in wealth and population, and under foreign rule its civilization gradually faded into oblivion.



## TIMETABLE

- c.5500  
Farming develops on the floodplain of southern Mesopotamia
- c.4500  
The plow, wheel, and sail are in use
- c.3400  
The first cities grow up in Sumer
- c.3300  
Writing on clay tablets begins
- 2334  
Sargon, king of Agade, establishes the world's first empire
- 2100  
The first ziggurats are built
- 1813–1781  
Assyria emerges as a powerful state under its king Shamshi-Adad
- 1792–1750  
Babylon rises to power under Hammurabi
- 1595  
Babylon is sacked by the Hittites
- c.1500  
Ironworking develops in the Middle East
- 911–627  
Assyria is again the dominant power
- 626–612  
Babylon takes over the Assyrian empire
- 539  
Fall of the Babylonian empire to Cyrus the Great of Persia



# ANCIENT EGYPT

THE CIVILIZATION OF ANCIENT EGYPT DEPENDED COMPLETELY ON THE RIVER NILE. PREDICTABLE ANNUAL FLOODS BROUGHT THE ASSURANCE OF RICH HARVESTS YEAR AFTER YEAR, AND THE RIVER WAS THE KINGDOM'S MAIN HIGHWAY FROM NORTH TO SOUTH. TO WEST AND EAST THE DESERT PROTECTED EGYPT FROM INVASION AND WAS THE SOURCE OF BUILDING STONE AND PRECIOUS METALS. EGYPTIAN ART AND SCULPTURE VARIED LITTLE IN STYLE FOR MORE THAN 3,000 YEARS, REFLECTING THE COUNTRY'S POLITICAL AND CULTURAL STABILITY UNDER THE RULE OF THE PHARAOHS.

The valley of the Nile is 500 miles (800 kilometers) long, measured from the First Cataract, the rapids that marked Ancient Egypt's southern border, to the Mediterranean Sea. Until it broadens out into the delta, the valley is never more than a few miles wide. Sometimes it narrows to as little as a few hundred yards. On either side is desert. But despite the lack of rain, the Nile valley was one of the most favorable places for farming in the ancient world.

The river Nile rises far to the south of Egypt, in the East African highlands. Heavy rains falling here in early summer swell the river, and late in the summer the Egyptian Nile overflows its banks. When the floods retreat in the fall they leave the fields moist and covered with fresh silt. The Egyptians did not need to build flood defenses, or complex canals to irrigate their fields. They planted their seeds each autumn in the damp fertile soil left by the floods, and the crops grew through the warm Egyptian winter and were ready for harvesting in the spring, before the next flood. Only if the Nile failed to flood, as sometimes happened, did the people of Egypt go hungry.

## EARLY CIVILIZATION

Farming began in the Nile valley after 6000 BC. The climate of North Africa was wetter then than it is today, and farming was even possible in the Sahara, then an area of grassland dotted with large lakes. Around 4000 BC, however, the climate became much drier and the Sahara turned to desert. Some farmers became nomadic herders, while others migrated into the Nile valley, which was soon densely populated.

A little while before 3000 BC a kingdom emerged in southern, or Upper, Egypt. The

ancient Egyptian system of writing, using a form of pictographs known as hieroglyphs (see page 18), had come into use by this time. Traditionally the first king of Egypt is Narmer, who is said to have won a victory over Lower Egypt, uniting the two halves of the country. He established a royal capital at Memphis, strategically placed between the two. In the reigns of the kings that came after him, Egypt developed a strong system of government. The power of the king derived from the belief that he was the son of the sun god Ra and thought to be immortal.

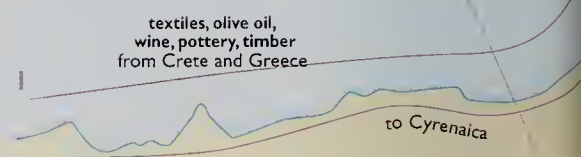
From surviving records, historians have been able to compile detailed lists of the dynasties of kings who ruled Egypt, with approximate dates of their reigns. These stretch from 2920 to 30 BC, with only a few gaps. Historians divide the history of Egypt into distinct periods. The Early Dynastic period (2920–2649 BC) was followed by the Old Kingdom (2649–2134 BC), when the power of the monarchy increased and Egyptian influence extended southward up

the Nile into the region then known as Nubia. Then came a troubled period when Egypt was divided between rival dynasties, (the First Intermediate Period, 2134–2040 BC). It was unified once again during the Middle Kingdom (2040–c. 1640 BC).

## THE PYRAMID BUILDERS

The most famous monuments of ancient Egypt, the pyramids, were built by the rulers of the Old and Middle Kingdoms as magnificent royal tombs. Their flared shape represented the downward slanting rays of the sun, along which the deceased king would ascend to heaven. These massive stone structures took many years to build and were completed before a king's death. When he died, his body was mummified: natural chemicals were used to preserve it artificially, and it was wrapped in bandages. Amulets (charms) were inserted between each layer of wrapping, and the mummy was placed inside one or more coffins. This

Mediterranean Sea







Above The Nile lay at the center of life in Egypt. This tomb painting shows a nobleman and his wife hunting duck from a papyrus boat. River fish were speared or netted.

Left The three famous pyramids at Giza. The Great Pyramid of king Cheops (Khufu) is on the right. It stands 479 feet (146 meters) high and was topped with a gilded capstone to catch the sun's rays.



ensured that the king's body continued as a home for his soul. It was solemnly interred in the burial chamber, right at the center of the pyramid. The walls were inscribed with sacred texts and spells, and the chamber was furnished with luxurious possessions for the king to use in the afterlife. After the king's funeral, the entrance passage to the chamber was sealed with stones to protect it from robbers.

Contrary to popular belief, the pyramids were not built by slaves but by skilled craftsmen, helped by peasant farmers during the flood season, when no work could be done in the fields. No one knows exactly how the thousands of heavy stone blocks used to construct the pyramids were lifted into place. Pyramids were very expensive, and none were built after the end of the Middle Kingdom. Later Egyptian kings preferred to show off their wealth and power by building temples, which they endowed with monumental sculptures and carvings.

## DEATH & THE AFTERLIFE

*The Egyptians called their version of paradise "the field of reeds," a place just like the Nile valley where all the good things of life grew in abundance. Entry to this world was controlled by Osiris, the god of crops and annual rebirth. He was also the judge of souls—only those who had lived good lives could enter the afterlife. The journey to the underworld was a hazardous one. Spells were performed to make sure the deceased would pass safely through its trials. Funeral rites were highly elaborate—by the time of the New Kingdom, the procedure for embalming the body took 70 days. The most important ritual was "opening the mouth," when priests returned the soul to the mummy by touching it with sacred instruments and rubbing its face with milk.*

*Men of wealth and substance began to build their tombs as soon as they reached maturity. The chambered tomb would be their eternal home in the afterlife, so they furnished it lavishly with food, drink, rich furniture, jewelry, and all the other luxuries they would need. Provision was made for their wives as well. The walls were decorated with scenes of everyday life such as harvesting crops, hunting by the Nile, feasting, and making offerings to the gods. These would magically come alive after death. Models of their cattle and other possessions were placed in the tomb, together with small magical dolls, known as "shabti," who would act as servants and do manual work.*

*Right* Priests open the mouth of a mummy.



## INVASION & REVIVAL

Around 1640 BC the Middle Kingdom collapsed and was followed by a period of division known as the Second Intermediate Period (1640–1532 BC). Lower Egypt was conquered by the Hyksos, invaders who probably came from the area of Palestine. At this time Egypt was less developed than its Middle Eastern neighbors. The Hyksos introduced tools and weapons made of bronze, horses, wheeled vehicles (including war chariots), and other innovations. By the time the Hyksos were expelled, at the start of the New Kingdom (1532–1070 BC), Egypt had caught up.

There followed a period of prosperity and expansion when ancient Egypt reached the peak of its power. The New Kingdom rulers were empire builders who extended their authority across the Sinai desert into the Middle East and southward down the Nile far into Nubia, a source of slaves and gold. They exchanged diplomatic letters with their fellow rulers in Mesopotamia, and exercised power over small local states in Palestine. They made Thebes their capital and were buried in underground tombs in an isolated valley on the west side of the

*Left* The New Kingdom pharaohs had huge statues made of themselves, carved from granite.





## TIMETABLE

e.6000

Farming begins in the Nile valley

e.3300–3100

The first towns develop. The hieroglyphic script is invented

c.3000

Upper and Lower Egypt are united into a single kingdom

c.2630

The first pyramid is built for king Djoser at Saqqara

### 2649–2134 OLD KINGDOM

2575–2465

During the 4th Dynasty, royal power increases dramatically

2134–2040

**First Intermediate Period**

Egypt is divided into two kingdoms

### 2040–1640 MIDDLE KINGDOM

2040

Mentuhotpe II reunites Egypt

1640–1532

**Second Intermediate Period**

The Hyksos occupy Lower Egypt

### 1532–1070 NEW KINGDOM

1504–1492

The Egyptian empire is at its fullest extent under Tuthmosis I

1285

Ramses II claims a victory at Qadesh against the Hittites but loses the war

1070–712

**Third Intermediate Period**

Egyptian power is in decline

924

Shoshenq I invades Israel and Judah

e.828–712

Egypt is divided into five kingdoms

### 712–332 LATE PERIOD

712

Egypt is ruled by Nubian kings

671

The Assyrians conquer Egypt

525

The Persians conquer Egypt

332

Egypt falls to Alexander the Great

## THE NEW KINGDOM EMPIRE

- maximum extent of New Kingdom under Tuthmosis I, 1504–1492
- northern border of New Kingdom under Ramses II, 1290–1224



Nile, known as the Valley of the Kings. They began to call themselves “pharaohs.” The title, meaning “Great Palace,” symbolized their place at the center of government.

The New Kingdom reached its fullest extent under Tuthmosis I (1504–1492 BC), who took Egyptian power as far as the river Euphrates in Syria. These possessions were later lost, though Ramses II (1290–1224 BC) attempted to restore them. His lack of success did not deter him from building numerous temples and erecting huge statues of himself. The boy-king Tutankhamen (1333–1323 BC) exercised little power during his lifetime but is famous for the rich treasures discovered in his tomb in the Valley of the Kings, excavated in the 1920s.

## THE DECLINE OF EGYPT

Though an Egyptian navy succeeded in driving off an attempted invasion by the Sea Peoples in 1180 BC (see page 41), Egyptian power collapsed at the end of the New Kingdom. Some pharaohs even had trouble in paying for their tombs. There was a temporary revival of power under Shoshenq I (945–924 BC) but not enough to stave off Egypt’s eventual defeat. It was conquered in turn by Nubians, Assyrians, and Persians before falling to the army of Alexander the Great in 332 BC (see page 46).



# LANDS OF THE BIBLE

THE ISRAELITES, THE ANCESTORS OF THE JEWISH PEOPLE, PROBABLY SETTLED IN CANAAN, THE AREA OF THE MIDDLE EAST THAT FORMS THE LANDS OF THE BIBLE, IN THE 12TH CENTURY BC. THOUGH NOT AS POWERFUL AS MESOPOTAMIA AND EGYPT, THE ANCIENT KINGDOM OF ISRAEL HAD LASTING IMPORTANCE IN WORLD HISTORY. UNLIKE THEIR NEIGHBORS, THE ISRAELITES HAD ONLY ONE GOD, YAHWEH. THEIR RELIGION WAS TO HAVE GREAT INFLUENCE ON BOTH CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM.

The history and founding myths of the Jewish people are recorded in the Bible. This places their origins in Mesopotamia and describes their early wanderings through the Fertile Crescent. According to the Bible narrative, the Israelites, as they are called at this period, endured a long period of captivity in Egypt but were led from there by Moses through the Sinai desert and into the “promised land” of Canaan. Under their war leader, Joshua, they conquered most of the native Canaanite peoples. One famous story recounts that the walls of Jericho tumbled to the ground when Joshua ordered his men to blow their trumpets.

The Israelites settled in tribal units, ruled by chieftains called “judges.” They were opposed by the Philistines, a warlike people who lived near Gaza in the southern coastal



*Above Images of calfs and bulls like this one from Phoenicia were widely worshiped in the Middle East. The Israelites in the desert made a golden calf but were punished for it.*

*Below The valley of Jezreel was a major route from north to east and the scene of many battles. In the dry season it was ideal terrain for the deployment of war chariots.*

plain, and decided to resist them by coming together under one leader. They chose Saul (c.1020–1006 BC) as their king. Saul’s successor David (1006–965 BC) defeated the Philistines and other neighboring states such as Moab and Edom. These became vassal, or subject, states of Israel. The last Canaanite stronghold to be captured was Jerusalem, which became David’s capital.

We cannot be certain how accurate the Biblical account is, but there is supporting archeological evidence for the story of the conquest of Canaan and the foundation of Saul’s kingdom. David’s military successes may have owed something to the fact that Egypt and Mesopotamia had problems of their own at this time and were unable to stop him.

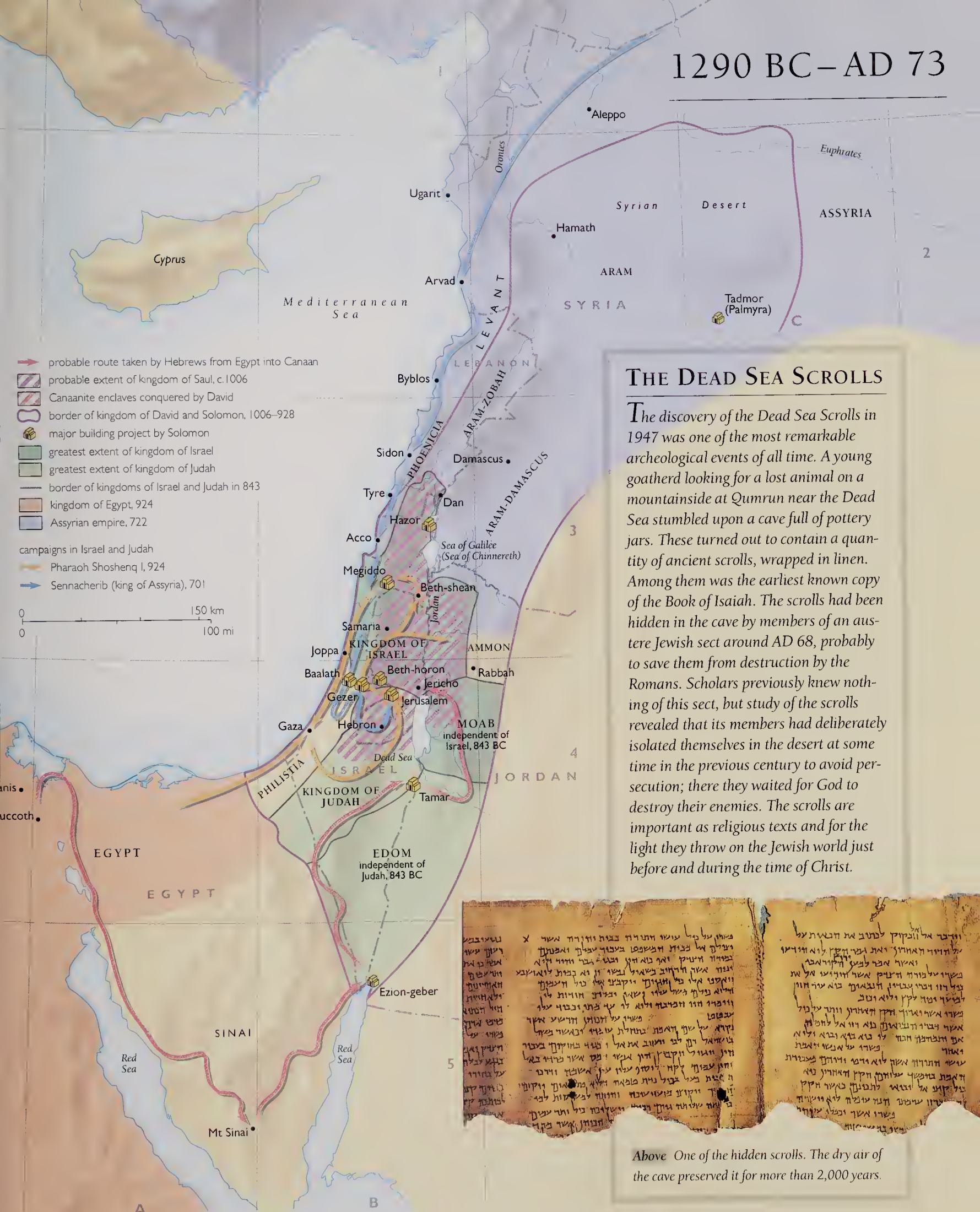
David was succeeded as king by his son Solomon (965–928 BC). Solomon’s reign was peaceful and he was able to concentrate on lavish building projects. The most important was a temple in Jerusalem to house the sacred Ark of the Covenant—the holy laws given to Moses on Mount Sinai by Yahweh. But the cost of Solomon’s buildings was enormous and this made him unpopular with his people, many of whom were forced against their will to work on their construction. He was blamed for giving land to the Phoenician city of Tyre, to the north of Israel, in exchange for craftsmen and building supplies. He was also said to participate in the worship of other gods as well as Yahweh.

## DISUNITY & DIVISION

After Solomon’s death the northern tribes of Israel complained about their treatment to his successor Rehoboam (928–911 BC). When he refused to listen, a rebellion broke







## THE DEAD SEA SCROLLS

The discovery of the Dead Sea Scrolls in 1947 was one of the most remarkable archeological events of all time. A young goatherd looking for a lost animal on a mountainside at Qumran near the Dead Sea stumbled upon a cave full of pottery jars. These turned out to contain a quantity of ancient scrolls, wrapped in linen. Among them was the earliest known copy of the Book of Isaiah. The scrolls had been hidden in the cave by members of an austere Jewish sect around AD 68, probably to save them from destruction by the Romans. Scholars previously knew nothing of this sect, but study of the scrolls revealed that its members had deliberately isolated themselves in the desert at some time in the previous century to avoid persecution; there they waited for God to destroy their enemies. The scrolls are important as religious texts and for the light they throw on the Jewish world just before and during the time of Christ.



Above One of the hidden scrolls. The dry air of the cave preserved it for more than 2,000 years.



## JEWISH SETTLEMENT IN THE ROMAN WORLD



*Above* The first recorded deportation of Jews from their homeland took place at the hands of the Assyrian king Sennacherib who invaded Judah in 701 BC. This carved relief from the Assyrian palace of Nineveh shows Jews being marched out of the city of Lachish.

out. As a result, the kingdom split into two parts—Israel in the north and Judah in the south, each ruled by its own king.

It was a dangerous time for the Israelites to have fallen out. The pharaoh Shoshenq had brought about a temporary revival in the declining fortunes of Egypt (see page 29). In 924 BC he invaded Judah and Israel and destroyed many cities, compelling the Israelites to pay tribute. However, they continued to quarrel with each other. The vassal states of Moab and Edom seized the opportunity to rebel successfully against their rule. The Bible also tells us that the kingdoms were further weakened by religious disputes. For example, king Ahab of Israel (873–852 BC) is said to have tried to introduce the worship of Baal, a Phoenician god. Religious leaders, known as prophets, such as Elijah and Elisha, warned against the dangers of heresy and internal division.

## ASSYRIA & BABYLON

During the 9th and 8th centuries BC the main threat to the Israelite kingdoms came from Assyria, now the strongest power in the Middle East. Israel and Judah were both forced to become vassal states. Rebellions occasionally took place, but were fiercely put down, and large numbers of captives deported to Assyria.

Assyrian power collapsed in 612 BC and was immediately followed by Babylonian rule (see page 25). In 597 BC a rebellion in Judah was ruthlessly put down by the Babylonian king Nebuchadnezzar II. Jerusalem was sacked, the temple of Solomon destroyed, and its treasures plundered. Thousands of Jews (as the Israelites were now known) were deported to Babylon.

During their years of exile, the Jews were comforted and supported by their religion.

*Right* The fortress of Masada, built at the tip of a steep outcrop of rock, was the site of a heroic last stand of Jewish rebels against Roman rule. When the Romans stormed the fortress after a three-year siege, the last handful of defenders killed themselves rather than surrender.

Jewish settlement, AD 300

■ dense

□ other



city with large Jewish population

— Roman empire, AD 300

— important trade route

0 600 km  
0 400 mi



It helped them to maintain their identity as a people while living in a foreign land. It was at this time that most of the books of the Old Testament of the Bible were written down in their present form.

## THE JEWISH DIASPORA

King Cyrus of Persia destroyed the Babylonian empire in 539 BC and allowed the Jews to return home (see page 25), though many chose to stay in Babylon. The Jewish kingdoms were ruled first by Persia, then by Alexander the Great and his successors (see page 46). A Jewish rebellion against imposed Greek customs led to the creation of the independent kingdom of Judea in 142 BC, but this was short-lived. In 63 BC it became part of the Roman empire.

By now the Jews were divided into many different sects. The teachings of one Jewish leader, Jesus Christ (c.6 BC–AD 30), gave rise to a new religion, Christianity. Other

Jewish sects such as the Zealots stirred up violent rebellions against Roman rule, but these were always severely dealt with. The Zealots were finally defeated with the fall of the fortress of Masada in AD 73. After this uprising the Romans destroyed the temple in Jerusalem and carried its treasures in triumph through Rome.

After each defeat more Jews were forced into exile. By AD 300 few Jews were left in their homeland, but were scattered across the Middle East and all around the Mediterranean Sea. They settled along important trade routes and in busy trading ports.

The spread of Jews around the world is known as the Diaspora. It continued until modern times because Jews were frequently forced to flee persecution in the countries where they had settled, often at the hands of Christians who accused them of murdering Christ. The Jews remained without an independent homeland until the foundation of the state of Israel in 1948.



## TIMETABLE

c.1290–1100

The Israelites flee from Egypt and settle in Canaan

e.1020

Saul becomes the first king of Israel

e.1006

Saul is killed fighting against the Philistines at Gilboa

e.1000

David (r.c.1006–965) captures Jerusalem

c.950

Solomon (r.965–928) builds the temple of Jerusalem

e.928

Kingdom separates into Israel and Judah

e.850

The prophets Elijah and Elisha warn against pagan influences

721

The Assyrians conquer Israel

701

The Assyrians conquer Judah

587

The Jews are deported to Babylon by Nebuchadnezzar

587–539

The key books of the Old Testament are written during the Babylonian exile

539

Babylon falls to Cyrus of Persia who allows the Jews to return home

332–1

The Bible Lands become part of the Greek world after Alexander the Great conquers the Middle East

142

The Jewish kingdom of Judea is founded

63

Judea comes under Roman rule

6 BC

Birth of Jesus Christ

AD 70–73

Thousand of Jews are enslaved and exiled after the Romans put down the Zealot uprising at Masada



# PREHISTORIC EUROPE

MODERN HUMANS HAVE INHABITED EUROPE FOR 40,000 YEARS. FOR MOST OF THIS TIME THEY LIVED BY HUNTING AND GATHERING. ABOUT 8,000 YEARS AGO, FARMING BEGAN IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE AND SPREAD ALMOST EVERYWHERE DURING THE NEXT 3,000 YEARS. THE INTRODUCTION OF METAL-WORKING LED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF MORE COMPLEX WARRIOR SOCIETIES, AND TO THE EMERGENCE OF THE FIRST EUROPEAN CIVILIZATIONS.

When the first bands of modern humans moved into Europe from the Middle East 40,000 years ago, a large part of the northern continent, covered by vast ice sheets, was uninhabitable. They survived in areas of tundra and grassland by hunting herds of grazing animals such as reindeer. Where they could, they found shelter in caves, or else made themselves hide tents or huts of mammoth bones. About 10,000 years ago the European ice sheets began to retreat and humans gradually spread northward. Europe was now covered in dense forests, which made hunting more difficult. People came to depend more on plant foods, fish, and small mammals.

Farming entered southern Europe about 8,500 years ago. Groups of people living in Greece and the Balkans began to grow cereals and beans, and to raise sheep, goats, and cattle. Some crops, for example emmer wheat and barley, were almost certainly introduced to southern Europe from the Middle East, but the cultivation of others may have developed independently.

During the next 3,500 years farming spread gradually into the rest of Europe, first into southern France and Spain, and then northward to reach the British Isles and Scandinavia by about 4000 BC. In the extreme north of Europe reindeer herding did not replace the hunting and gathering way of life until well into the Christian era.

## EARLY FARMERS

Early farming communities were generally small, consisting of between 40 and 60 people. Houses were usually wooden structures, so have left few material remains. In many parts of western Europe, however, the first farmers built tunnel-like tombs of large stones, known as megaliths, which they



Above Bell beakers of early Bronze Age date. Drinking vessels like these are found across Europe.

- Urnfield culture, 14th century BC
- Urnfield culture, 9th century BC
- formative area of Hallstatt culture, 1200–750 BC
- formative area of La Tène culture, 450 BC
- maximum extent of Celtic-related peoples, 100 BC
- Bronze Age fortified site
- Celtic oppidum
- other site
- general direction of the spread of farming, 6000–3000 BC
- northern limit of farming, c.2000 BC

0 600 km  
0 400 mi



## THE DISCOVERY OF THE ICE MAN

When, in 1991, a party of hikers in the Ötztal Alps came upon a body of a man emerging from a glacier, they supposed it to be that of a mountaineer who had died in a fall. But laboratory testing showed the well-preserved frozen body to be far older. He soon gained the popular name of the Ice Man. Radiocarbon dating confirmed that he had lived around 3350–3300 BC.

Right The 5,000-year-old frozen body.

The Ice Man was probably a shepherd or hunter. His ribs had been recently broken, and he may have died of cold and soon after been buried in snow. He appears to have been wearing furs and a cape made of woven reeds, and was carrying many items, including a longbow, 14 arrows, a flint knife, and a small copper ax. Before this exciting discovery, archeologists had not believed metal to be in use in this part of Europe for another several hundred years.





covered with earth and turf. As these chambers held the remains of many people buried over long periods of time, archeologists conclude that they were used for communal burials, and that there were few differences in wealth or status. Later people living in some parts of northwestern Europe began to build large stone circles and alignments known as henges (see insert map above). Their purpose is unclear, though it is probable that they had a ritual and astronomical function. Only a powerful chief would have had the resources to organize the building of an enormous structure like Stonehenge (see pages 20–21).

## THE BRONZE AGE

About 4800 BC people in Europe began to make small tools and ornaments out of copper and gold. Once again, this development started in the Balkans. Metal-working also appears to have emerged independently in southern Spain about 1,500 years later.

Early metal objects were valued for their appearance, but were of little practical use as they were very soft. The next stage was to mix small amounts of arsenic or tin with copper. This produced a hard alloy called bronze, which could be used to fashion hard-edged cutting tools. Bronze-working is



believed to have spread to southeast Europe from the Middle East around 2300 BC. As a result, metal tools began to replace stone ones in everyday use.

Craftsmen working in bronze and gold were highly skilled at making fine weapons, vessels for eating and drinking, and jewelry for personal adornment. The metal ores needed to manufacture bronze are found in only a few areas, so exchange became more important. Powerful warrior-led chiefdoms were formed. The building of thousands of hillforts throughout Europe suggests that wars occurred frequently between rival chiefdoms in the Late Bronze Age.

The growth in exchange resulted in greater contact between different groups of people in Europe. Cultural ideas spread rapidly from community to community through the mountain passes and along the rivers of central and western Europe. For example, the earliest archeological evidence of the Urnfield Culture—the custom of cremating the bodies of the dead and burying their ashes in pottery urns in huge cemeteries called urnfields—is found in Hungary around 1350 BC. Over the next 400 years it spread

throughout almost all of Europe. Earlier burial practices disappear more or less completely from the archeological record.

Trade was responsible for the rise of the first European civilization, the Minoan, which emerged on the island of Crete in the eastern Mediterranean around 2000 BC (see page 38). Its influence extended to neighboring islands in the Aegean and as far as Egypt. A little later, the warlike Mycenaean civilization arose on the Greek mainland (see page 40). Both had vanished by 1200 BC.

## IRON AGE EUROPE

The introduction of iron-working into Europe between 1000 and 750 BC brought far-reaching changes. Iron tools and weapons were harder, and cheaper to make, than bronze ones, and iron ore was much more common than copper and tin ores. The early Iron Age witnessed a revival of economic life in Greece and around the Aegean Sea. Partly through the influence of Greek and Phoenician merchants and settlers, civilizations also began to emerge in Italy and southern Spain. One of the most significant was that of the Etruscans, whose city states in northern Italy were well developed (see page 50).



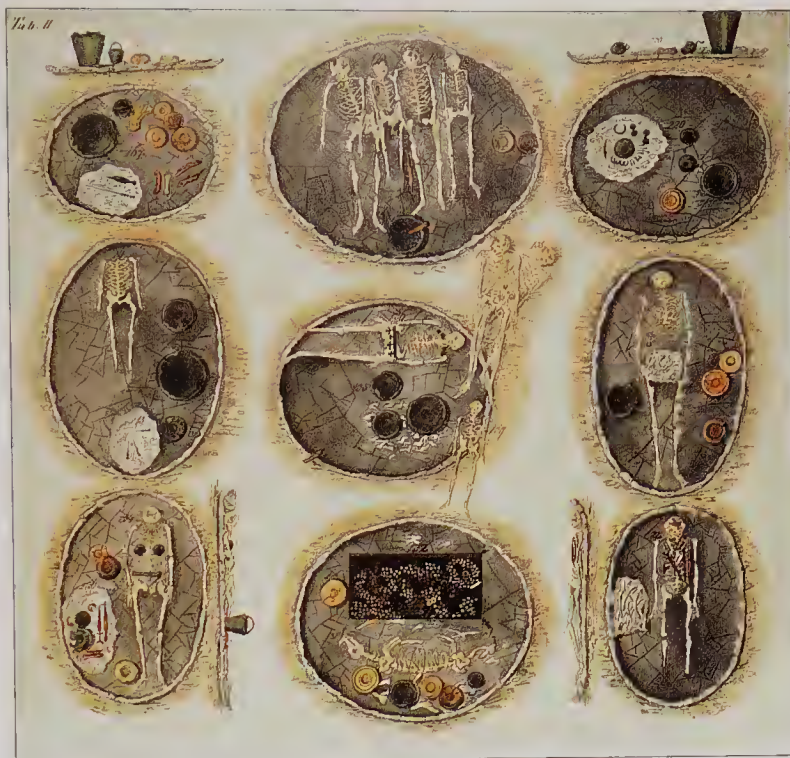
*Above* This Celtic object is known as a torc. Made of silver, it was worn around the neck, probably to denote rank.



*Left* An Iron Age hilltop fort in Wales. Such forts were common in Bronze and Iron Age Europe. Some would have served as tribal capitals lived in by the chief and clan leaders, others as refuges for the farmers of the surrounding country in time of war.



Right A large Iron Age cemetery was excavated at Hallstatt, Austria, in the 19th century. This painting, made at the time, shows some of the graves.



Dominating Central and western Europe were a group of peoples known as Celts to the ancient Greeks and as Gauls to the Romans.

They originated in an area of the northern Alps and started expanding out of their heartland sometime after 700 BC. Objects decorated in the

Hallstatt art-style (named after an Iron Age cemetery in Austria where it was first identified) have been found across western Europe and into Britain, giving evidence of widespread cultural exchange. Around 450 BC the La Tène art-style developed, which made use of lively animal motifs and intricate geometrical patterns.

From the 5th century BC onward warrior bands of Celts began to invade southern Europe, including Greece and Italy. Much of our information about the Celts comes

from the works of Greek and Roman writers, who regarded them as barbarians. They describe them as being given to beer drinking, boasting, and collecting the severed heads of their enemies. Celtic chieftoms were dominated by warrior elites. Some of their tribal centers, which the Romans referred to as *oppida*, were the size of small towns, with several thousand inhabitants.

Priests, known as druids, were important people in Celtic society. They had many gods, often associated with a particular site such as a sacred spring or tree. Weapons and precious objects were often thrown into bogs and rivers, probably as a form of sacrifice. Human sacrifices were also made.

## THE END OF THE CELTS

The Celtic peoples were trapped between two expanding powers. Those living west of the river Rhine and south of the river Danube were overcome by the Romans as they expanded their empire into northern Europe between 225 BC and AD 79. At about the same time, groups of German-speaking people moved into the area east of the Rhine and north of the Danube, extinguishing the Celtic tribes living there. They remain unconquered only in Ireland and the far north of Britain.

Left A Celtic god from the Gundestrup cauldron, 2nd century BC, found in a bog in Denmark.



## TIMETABLE

c.8000 BC

The Ice Age comes to an end

c.6500

The farming of cereals, cattle, and sheep begins in southeastern Europe

c.4500

Copper mining and smelting begin in the Balkans

c.3300

The Iceman is entombed in ice after dying on a hunting expedition. His body is discovered over 5,000 years later

c.4500

Farming spreads to areas of heavy soil with the introduction of the plow

c.4300

The first megalithic tombs are built in Brittany, northwest France

c.3500–2400

Europe's earliest stone temple is built at Tarxien, Malta

c.3000

Construction of Stonehenge begins. The major stone circle is completed c.2000

c.2300–1500

Bronze-working is established in Europe

c.2000

The Minoan palace civilization develops on Crete

c.2000

There is widespread European trade in amber and metals

c.1350–800

Spread of the Urnfield culture

c.750–450

The Hallstatt culture spreads through central and western Europe

c.700

Iron is now in widespread use throughout Europe

c.390

The Gauls (Celts) sack Rome

58–51

The Roman general Julius Caesar conquers the Celts of Gaul (France)

43 AD

The Roman conquest of Britain begins



# THE MINOANS & MYCENAEANS

THE FIRST EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION, THE MINOAN, AROSE ON THE ISLAND OF CRETE IN THE AEGEAN SEA AROUND 2000 BC. ABOUT 400 YEARS LATER THE MYCENAEAN CIVILIZATION DEVELOPED ON THE NEARBY GREEK MAINLAND. THE MYCENAEANS CONQUERED THE MINOANS BUT WERE THEMSELVES OVERRUN BY INVADERS AROUND 1200 BC. MEMORIES OF BOTH BRONZE AGE CIVILIZATIONS WERE RETAINED IN LATER GREEK LEGENDS. ARCHEOLOGISTS HAVE SINCE DISCOVERED PHYSICAL EVIDENCE OF THEIR EXISTENCE.

The Minoan civilization derives its name from Minos, a legendary king of Crete who was said by the later Greeks to have dominated the Aegean Sea with a great navy. Although Crete is a rocky, mountainous island with little fertile land, it owed its early success to farming. On patches of good land in the valleys wheat was grown to feed the island's inhabitants. Vines and olives, native to the region, grew abundantly on the rough hillsides, and the surplus wine and olive oil was traded overseas for valuable products, such as copper, not found in Crete. The Minoans kept flocks of sheep on the high mountain pastures and made the wool into fine cloth, which was exported to Egypt. They also made beautiful painted pottery that was sold abroad.

By 2000 BC Crete had become prosperous. Archeologists have excavated the sites of four great palaces at Knossos, Phaistos, Mallia, and Khania. Each of these palaces

was probably the capital of a small kingdom. Vast storehouses in the palaces were filled with grain, jars of wine and oil, and other produce, paid by the farmers as taxes to the king. Food was distributed by palace officials to all those not involved in farming, such as craftworkers, scribes, and traders.

The Minoans were skillful sailors and their ships carried luxury goods all around the Mediterranean. They founded trading colonies on neighboring islands, and even had a trading post in Egypt. We do not know what language the Minoans spoke, but clay tablets found in the palaces are clearly marked with writing. They were probably lists of stores but no one has yet been able to decipher the script, which is known to scholars as Linear A.



*Left* A wall-painting of boxing boys. It was found in a Minoan house at Akrotiri more than 3,000 years after being buried under volcanic ash and lava. The Minoans appear to have enjoyed all kinds of athletic competition, including bull-leaping.

## FIRE & DESTRUCTION

Around 1700 BC all the palaces on Crete were destroyed by fire. They were later rebuilt, but only one of them—the palace of Knossos—regained its original splendor. A likely explanation is that a war broke out between the kingdoms for control of the island. Knossos was the winner and its king became sole ruler of Crete. The other palaces were reduced in rank, probably becoming local centers of government.

Not much later a still greater disaster occurred. In 1626 BC a massive volcanic eruption blew apart the nearby island of Thera. The Minoan city of Akrotiri on the island was completely buried in lava and ash. It was only found again when archeologists began to dig beneath the layers of ash in the 1960s. They discovered houses complete with well-preserved wall paintings. The scenes on them show that the Minoans were fascinated by the natural world, especially the sea. Similar paintings have been found at Knossos, including one depicting athletes leaping over a bull's horns. This may have been part of a religious ritual. We know that there was a dark side to Minoan civilization, as excavations at Knossos have shown that the Minoans sacrificed children to their gods.

The eruption caused severe damage to the palaces on Crete. This was later repaired



*Left* The palace at Knossos was discovered at the beginning of the 20th century by the British archeologist, Arthur Evans, who partially restored it. It was the largest of the Minoan palaces, with a maze of multi-storied buildings laid out around a central courtyard. The fine royal apartments were elaborately decorated.









*Left* Mycenae was built on top of a crag guarding a sweep of hills. The royal palace stood within massive walls, entered through the great Lion Gate.

*Below* This gold death-mask of a king was found in a grave at Mycenae. It was once wrongly believed to have represented king Agamemnon.



and Minoan civilization continued for a little while longer. It came to an end around 1450 BC when invaders conquered the island and took over the palace at Knossos.

## THE MYCENAEANS

The new rulers of Crete copied the art of writing from the Minoans but used their own script (Linear B). Scholars have been able to decipher this script and found it to be an early form of Greek. From this, and from other evidence such as their burial customs, archeologists believe that the invaders were Mycenaean, a people who migrated into the Greek mainland from the Balkans around 2000 BC. By 1600 BC they had established several fortified cities there. Their name is derived from Mycenae, one of these strongholds in southeast Greece.

Spectacular goods—ornaments of gold, silver, and electrum (a gold and silver alloy), jewelry, and bronze weapons—have been found in several deep graves at Mycenae. They date from between 1650 and 1550 BC and suggest that it was already ruled by kings: such valuable possessions would have accompanied royal burials. Archeologists judge the Mycenaean to have been a wealthy and warlike people. Their main weapons were spears, swords, and daggers,

and they wore clumsy bronze armor and helmets covered with the teeth of wild boars. They rode to war on horse-drawn chariots, though they fought on foot.

Mycenae was only one—though perhaps the most important—of several small independent kingdoms in Greece. Like the Minoans, their rulers lived in palaces. They were smaller than those on Crete and were strongly defended with walls of huge stone blocks, so large





that the Greeks of later times could not believe that ordinary humans had built them—a race of giants must have done so.

The Mycenaean rulers lived in great opulence. The king of Pylos kept 400 bronze-smiths and hundreds of female slaves to weave cloth. Like the Minoans, Mycenaean ships traded all round the eastern Mediterranean and as far west as Italy, Sicily, and Malta. Divers have discovered a ship that was wrecked off the Turkish coast in the 14th century BC. It probably belonged to a Mycenaean king and was found to have jewelry, copper, ivory, ebony, and even ostrich eggs from Africa on board.

## THE LEGEND OF TROY

It is more than likely that the Mycenaean raided as well as traded overseas. We know that they invaded and conquered Crete, and it is also possible that they attacked Troy. This was a powerful city on the coast of Turkey that controlled the entrance of ships into the Black Sea. The legendary story of the Trojan War is recounted by the ancient Greek poet, Homer, who tells of a Greek army, under the leadership of king Agamemnon of Mycenae, which attacked and destroyed Troy after a ten-year siege. Homer's tales of the war—the anger of Menelaus after his wife Helen had been stolen by Paris

and taken to Troy, the epic battle between Achilles and Hector outside the walls, the wooden horse built by the Greeks, and the adventures of Odysseus on his journey home—are still read and enjoyed today. Homer lived many hundreds of years after the events he described. However, archeologists have shown that Troy was attacked at least twice in Mycenaean times, and his epic poems may well have been based on folk memories of an actual incident.

## THE SEA PEOPLES

During the 14th and 13th centuries BC Mycenaean civilization appears to have been exposed to increasing pressure from marauders from the north. Many strongholds, including Mycenae itself, strengthened their defenses at this time, and a wall was built across the narrow isthmus of Corinth. In about 1200 BC invaders known as the "Sea Peoples" destroyed all the major Mycenaean centers of power. Very little is known about these mysterious people who probably came from the northern Aegean. After attacking Greece, they sailed on to the Middle East and Egypt. Some of them settled in Canaan, where they were known as the Peleset, or Philistines (see page 30).

In Greece, the devastation caused by the Sea Peoples was so widespread that the Mycenaean way of life never recovered. Towns were abandoned and people even forgot how to write. For hundreds of years Greece remained in a "dark age," and very little is known about it.

## THE DIVINE MOTHER

Mother goddess cults appear to have a long history in Greece and the neighboring islands of the Aegean, where enormous quantities of stone and pottery figurines of women have been found, dating back thousands of years. They vary in appearance—some are strikingly simple and geometric in form; others are more shapely with well defined figures. Very often they are nursing babies. We can only guess at their significance, but it is likely that their cult was connected to fertility, crops, and the land—crucially important matters for early farmers.

Several goddesses from later Greek mythology (for example, Ge, Hera, Rhea, Demeter, and Cybele) were associated with the divine mother or crop fertility, and are probably survivals of these earlier cults.

Female figures in Minoan and Mycenaean art often have their arms raised and breasts bared. Sometimes they hold snakes or other objects. They may represent goddesses or priestesses, and evidently had a ritual or sacred function.

*Right* These figures, representing nursing mothers, are from Cyprus (left) and Mycenae.

## TIMETABLE

c.6000
The first settlement of Crete
c.2300
Bronze tools and weapons come into use in the Aegean region
c.2000
The first palaces are built on Crete and writing comes into use
c.1700
All the palaces on Crete are damaged. Knossos is rebuilt as the major palace
1626
A volcanic eruption on Thera disrupts life on Crete
c.1600
Rich burials show that a powerful royal dynasty rules at Mycenae
c.1450
The first Mycenaean palaces are built and writing comes into use
c.1450
Minoan Crete is conquered, probably by the Mycenaean
c.1400
The Mycenaean build defensive walls around their cities
c.1200
The Sea Peoples attack Mycenae and other strongholds in Greece
1200–800
Urban life declines and writing goes out of use in mainland Greece





# ANCIENT GREECE

THE CIVILIZATION OF ANCIENT GREECE WAS ONE OF THE MOST REMARKABLE IN HISTORY. GREEK ACHIEVEMENTS IN POLITICS, THE ARTS, LITERATURE, PHILOSOPHY, AND SCIENCE STILL HAVE INFLUENCE IN THE MODERN WORLD. YET WARFARE WAS CONSTANT BETWEEN GREECE'S RIVAL CITY STATES.

During the 9th century BC Greece began to recover from the dark age that followed the destruction of Mycenaean civilization. A new wave of invaders, the Dorians, had introduced the use of iron, and urban life revived. Towns developed into independent city-states, which were first ruled by kings. As the opportunities for trade grew, many of these city-states sent groups of citizens overseas to found trading colonies. These colonies helped solve the problem of overpopulation at home, caused by a shortage of suitable land for farming.

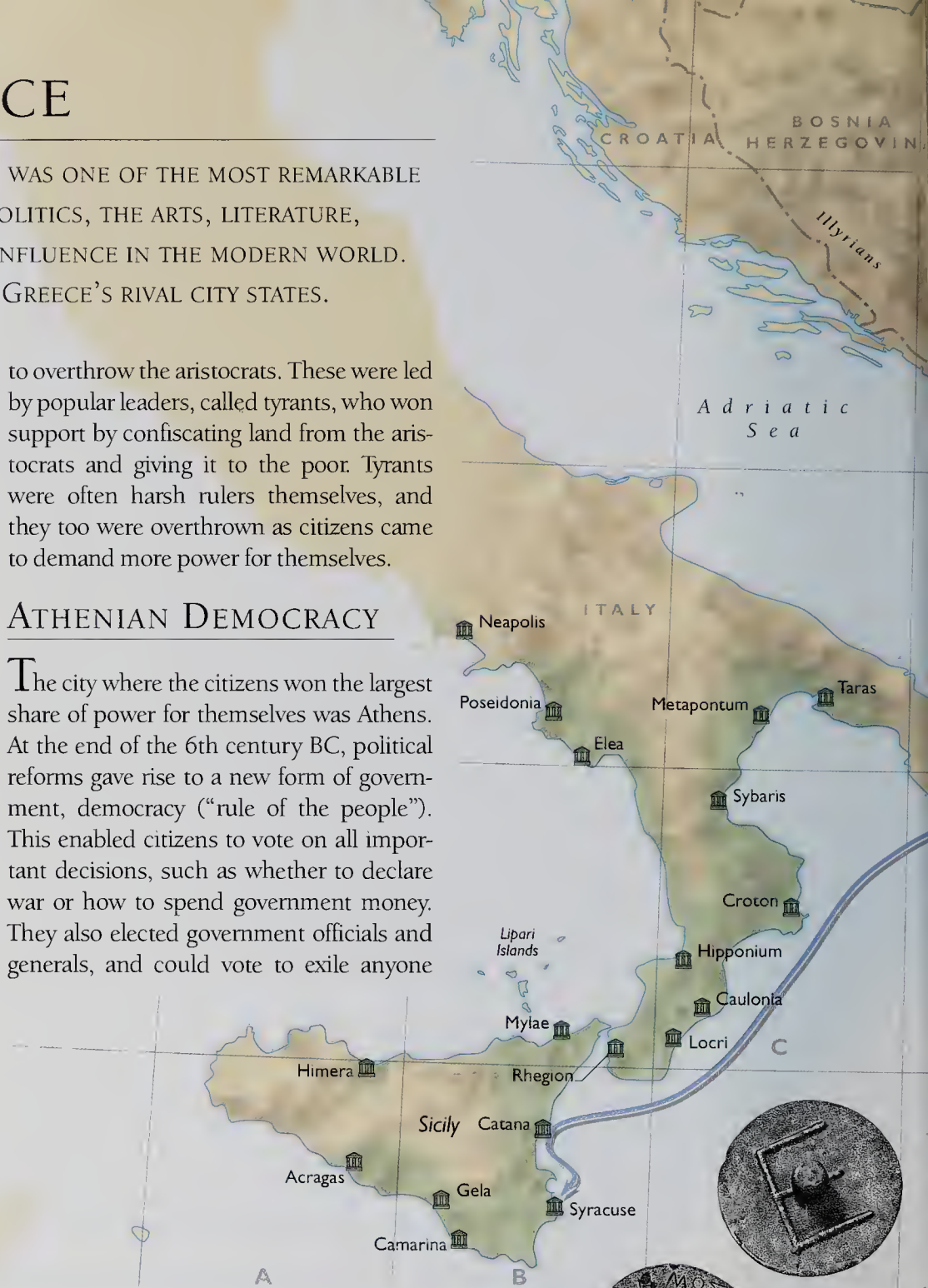
By 500 BC important Greek cities were established along the coast of Asia Minor (Anatolia), around the Black Sea, in Sicily and southern Italy, and as far as southern Spain. The only rivals to the Greeks were the Phoenicians. From their home ports on the coast of Lebanon and Syria they set up colonies in Sicily and Sardinia and along the North African and Spanish coasts.

Most of the Greek city-states had ceased to be monarchies by the 7th century BC and were ruled by hereditary clan-leaders, or aristocrats (the exceptions were Sparta and Argos). The aristocrats gradually came to be resented by other citizens, who wanted a say in how their city-states were governed. Revolutions broke out in many cities

to overthrow the aristocrats. These were led by popular leaders, called tyrants, who won support by confiscating land from the aristocrats and giving it to the poor. Tyrants were often harsh rulers themselves, and they too were overthrown as citizens came to demand more power for themselves.

## ATHENIAN DEMOCRACY

The city where the citizens won the largest share of power for themselves was Athens. At the end of the 6th century BC, political reforms gave rise to a new form of government, democracy ("rule of the people"). This enabled citizens to vote on all important decisions, such as whether to declare war or how to spend government money. They also elected government officials and generals, and could vote to exile anyone



Above Counters were used for voting in the citizen assemblies.

Left The great temple of the Parthenon on the Acropolis in Athens. It was built in the 5th century BC, at the height of the city's power and prosperity.



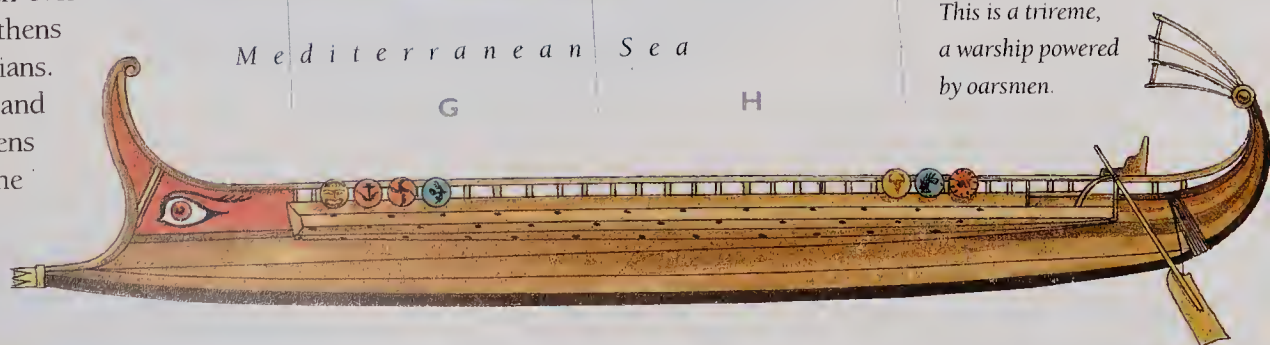
- area of Greek settlement, 6th century BC
- major city-state, 5th century BC
- major temple or shrine, 5th century BC
- Delphi site of pan-Hellenic festival
- Athens and allied states, 431
- Sparta and allied states, 431
- border, 431
- Athenian campaigns, 431–415
- Spartan campaigns, 431–405



*Left* This statue of a young girl was carved in the 6th century BC. Though her dress is finely sculpted, her pose is stiff. Greek sculpture gradually became freer and more naturalistic in style. It has been a major influence in western art.

they thought was too powerful. Democracies throughout the modern world are inspired by the example of Greece, but no country today gives its citizens as much power as ancient Athens did. However, the right of citizenship was restricted to free men over the age of 20 who were born in Athens and whose parents were also Athenians. All other residents—women, slaves, and foreigners who had settled in Athens (in other words, the majority of the population)—were excluded. Most Greek city states were quick to follow the example of Athens and adopt democratic constitutions.

*Below* The Greeks were skilled sailors. This is a trireme, a warship powered by oarsmen.





## THE GREEKS AT WAR

The city states were fierce rivals for power in Greece and the Aegean, and wars took place frequently between them. The Greeks were tough, highly disciplined soldiers. They carried spears and fought on foot in a tight, defensive battle formation called a phalanx. All fit and healthy citizens who could afford to were expected to buy their own armor and weapons and serve in their city's army when needed.

The finest soldiers in Greece came from Sparta, where all boys were taken away from their families at the age of seven and brought up by the state. Their education consisted mainly of gymnastics and training for war. When he was 20, a man could become a citizen and join a military unit. He could also marry, but he was not allowed to live with his wife and children until he was 30. Even then he had to eat with his fellow soldiers at least once a day.

Their military training stood the Greeks in good stead when the armies of the vast Persian empire tried three times to conquer Greece, by both land and sea. The weather defeated the Persians in 492 BC. Two years later, the Athenian army was victorious at the battle of Marathon. On the third occasion (480–479 BC), Xerxes' huge



*Above* Greek soldiers were protected by strong body armor. This bronze helmet would have been crested.

invasion force of 200,000 men and 1,000 ships was vanquished by the combined, much smaller forces of Sparta and Athens.

This show of unity was short-lived. Both Sparta and Athens wanted to dominate Greece. Hostility grew between them as they built up support among the other city

states. Sparta emerged victorious from the Peloponnesian War (431–404 BC) that followed, but was not strong enough to keep control for long. As the fruitless wars continued, the city states grew steadily weaker. They were unable to resist the growing strength of Macedon, lying to the north. By 338, its king Philip II, a soldier of genius, had won control of all the Greek city states, including Athens. The classical age of Greek civilization was at an end.

## THE GREEK ACHIEVEMENT

Despite their almost constant wars, the achievements of the Greeks between the 6th and 4th centuries BC were unsurpassed in the ancient world. Greek sculptors and painters created artworks of outstanding grace and beauty. The architectural styles of their great columned temples are still imitated. They invented drama and the theater. Greek literature, myths, and legends continue to inspire works of art, literature, and cinema today. The Athenian philosophers Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle are the most important early figures in the history of European thought. The Greeks wrote the first histories, were advanced in mathematics and geometry, and established medicine as a scientific discipline.





## THE PERSIAN CAMPAIGNS



Little of this would have been achieved without writing. Other ancient writing systems used hundreds of different symbols and took years to learn, but the Greek phonetic alphabet of only 20 characters was easily taught. Education had an important function in Greek democracy—politicians could not just do whatever they wanted: they had to persuade their fellow citizens to

vote for their policies by skillful argument. Schools were set up to teach these skills, and literacy helped to spread ideas quickly.

High value was placed on physical education, especially athletics, wrestling, and boxing. During great sports festivals like the Olympic games, wars between rival city-states came to a stop to allow competitors and spectators to travel to them safely.

## GREEK MYTHS & LEGENDS

The Greeks worshiped many gods and goddesses. Some belonged to a particular place, such as a sacred wood or spring; others had wider significance. The most important were said to live on the top of Mount Olympus in northern Greece. Chief among them were the supreme sky-god Zeus; his wife Hera; Hermes, the messenger; Apollo, the sun god; Aphrodite, the goddess of love; and Athena, the goddess of wisdom. For the Greeks, gods were powerful beings who had humanlike emotions and intervened directly in human affairs. They gave out terrible punishments to those who offended them, but were also ready to help the men and women who pleased them. The highest reward the gods could give a human was immortality. Hercules, for

example, who was endowed with extraordinary strength and performed deeds of bravery, became a god himself.

Every city-state had its own patron god or gods who gave special protection to the city under their care. Sometimes the gods quarreled among themselves over human affairs. During the Trojan War, Apollo sided with the Trojans, Athena with the Greeks. Hundreds of myths and legends were told about the gods. All Greeks were familiar with these tales and would instantly recognize a scene painted on a pottery dish or know what legendary figures were sculpted on the friezes of their great temples. The myths inspired great works of prose and poetry such as Homer's epic poems and the plays of the Athenian dramatists, Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides.

**Left** Athena settles an argument about the dead Achilles' armor. A vase painting of the Trojan War.

## TIMETABLE

900–800

City-states develop as Greece recovers from the dark age

800–600

The Greeks found colonies around the Mediterranean and Black Sea

776

The first games are held at Olympia in honor of Zeus. They are open to all Greek males and take place every four years

c.750

The Greek alphabet is in use. Homer composes the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, epic poems about the Trojan War

c.600

Coinage is introduced into Greece

c.540

The first drama festival is held in Athens in honor of Dionysius

509–507

Athens becomes a democracy

490

The Athenians defeat a Persian invasion at the battle of Marathon

480–479

Xerxes' invasion force is defeated by the combined armies of Sparta and Athens

461–429

Pericles leads Athens during its golden age. The Parthenon is built; Aeschylus and Sophocles write their great tragedies

441–404

The Peloponnesian War ends in Sparta's victory over Athens

430

Herodotus writes the first major history

399

Socrates, convicted of corrupting youth by his teachings, is forced to drink hemlock, a deadly poison

c.385

Plato founds the Academy as a school for teaching philosophy

343

The philosopher Aristotle is tutor to Alexander the Great of Macedon

338

The Greek cities become subject to Macedon after the battle of Chaeroneia



# ALEXANDER THE GREAT & HIS SUCCESSORS

ALEXANDER THE GREAT WAS ONE OF THE FINEST GENERALS IN HISTORY. ONLY EIGHT YEARS AFTER BECOMING KING OF MACEDON, HE HAD CONQUERED THE ENTIRE PERSIAN EMPIRE AND SPREAD THE INFLUENCE OF GREEK CIVILIZATION AS FAR AS INDIA. HIS EMPIRE, HOWEVER, DID NOT SURVIVE HIS DEATH.

Alexander became king of Macedon at the age of 18, following the murder of his father, Philip II, in 336 BC. He was well educated (the Greek philosopher, Aristotle, was his tutor), brave, bold, and violent. As a boy he dreamed of copying the deeds of the Greek heroes Hercules and Achilles, who were the legendary ancestors of the royal house of Macedon. When still a teenager, he had shown great ability fighting in his father's army. With his strong personality, Alexander had the gift of inspiring men to face great hardships and dangers.

## DEFEATING THE PERSIANS

Philip II had been on the point of invading the Persian empire when he died. Alexander decided to go ahead with the plan, pausing only to put down a rebellion in Greece first. It was 150 years since the Persians had launched their last unsuccessful expedition against the Greeks, and in this time their empire had grown steadily weaker. However, the present king Darius III was far wealthier than Alexander and could raise enormous armies from his vast empire, which stretched from the Mediterranean Sea to the river Indus.

The size of the empire was not always an advantage. It could take weeks for messengers to travel from one end to the other, and months for soldiers from the provinces to join the royal army. Though huge in number, Persian armies were notoriously difficult to control in battle. By contrast, Alexander's army was well-armed, highly trained, mobile, and skilled in battle tactics. Alexander was a brilliant and inspiring general; Darius timid and unimaginative.

In 334 BC Alexander invaded and conquered Anatolia, liberating the Greek cities along the coast from Persian rule. He had only a small navy and was afraid that Darius might launch an invasion fleet against Greece behind his back. Rather than move deeper into the Persian empire, therefore,

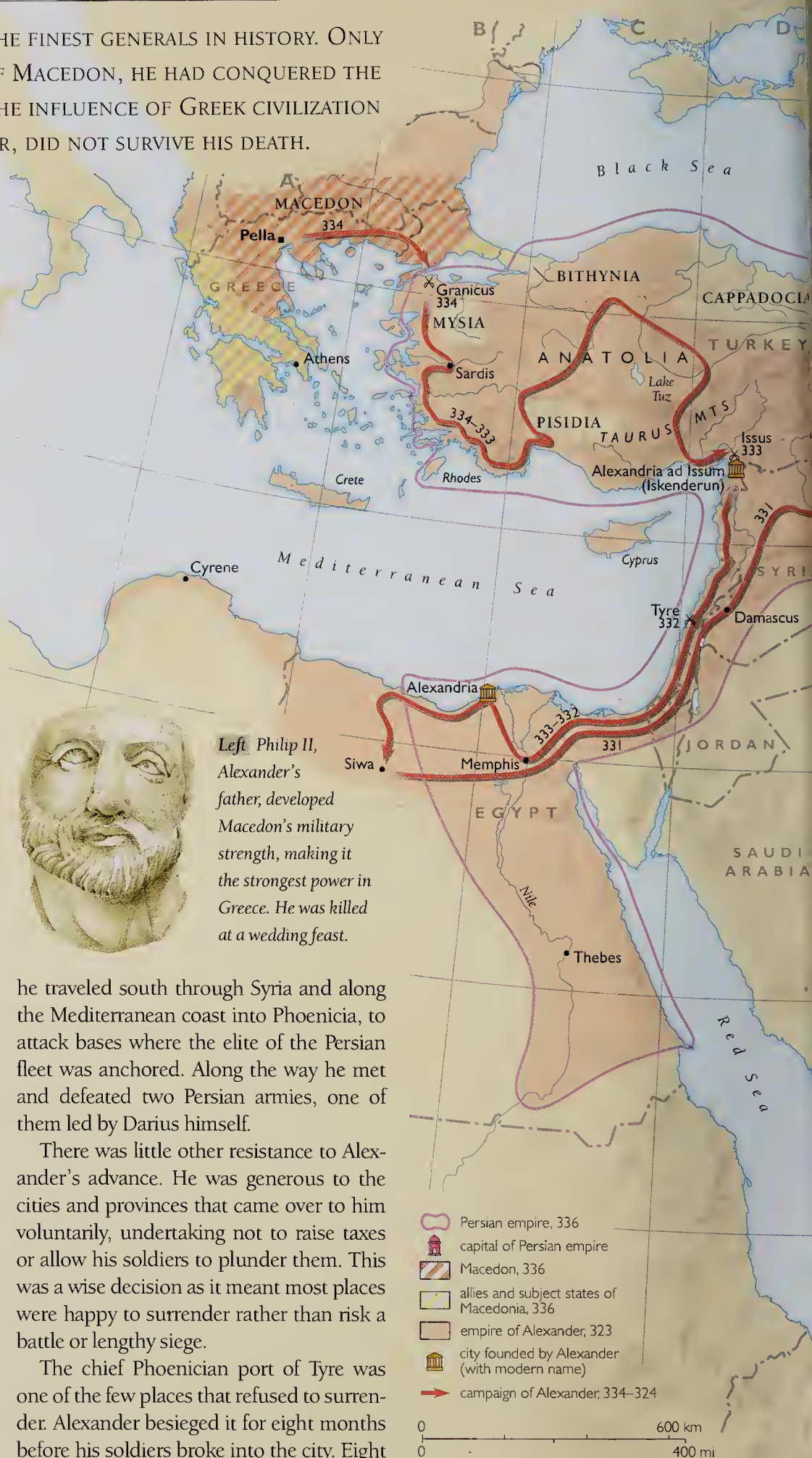


Left Philip II, Alexander's father, developed Macedon's military strength, making it the strongest power in Greece. He was killed at a wedding feast.

he traveled south through Syria and along the Mediterranean coast into Phoenicia, to attack bases where the elite of the Persian fleet was anchored. Along the way he met and defeated two Persian armies, one of them led by Darius himself.

There was little other resistance to Alexander's advance. He was generous to the cities and provinces that came over to him voluntarily, undertaking not to raise taxes or allow his soldiers to plunder them. This was a wise decision as it meant most places were happy to surrender rather than risk a battle or lengthy siege.

The chief Phoenician port of Tyre was one of the few places that refused to surrender. Alexander besieged it for eight months before his soldiers broke into the city. Eight





# 336–30 BC

Right When Alexander invaded India in 326 BC, he came across the use of elephants in battle. They were later adopted into Greek warfare, though they often panicked and trampled their own side. This painting is from a plate made in Italy, 3rd century BC.



Left Alexander's exploits amazed his contemporaries, and he became a legend in his own lifetime. This carved relief of Alexander shows him in a heroic pose while out hunting. It is from the frieze of a monument raised to his memory by the king of Sidon (Phoenicia). The frieze depicts Alexander performing many deeds of courage in battle, providing a pattern for others to imitate.

thousand people were killed and 30,000 sold as slaves. Though cruel, this treatment was not unusual for the times.

With Tyre taken care of, Alexander was able to move on to conquer Egypt in 332 BC. While there, he visited a holy shrine in the desert where he was told by the oracle that he was not the son of Philip but had been fathered by Zeus, the most important of the Greek gods. Because of his remarkable achievements, many people—including Alexander himself—began to believe that he really was a god.

In 331 BC Alexander left Egypt to invade the heartland of the Persian empire. At Gaugamela in Assyria he defeated Darius a second time in battle before going on to capture Babylon. Soon afterward Alexander



entered Persepolis, the chief residence and capital of the Persian kings, and burned it to the ground. Giving up all hope, Darius fled and was murdered soon after.

## THE LAST CAMPAIGNS

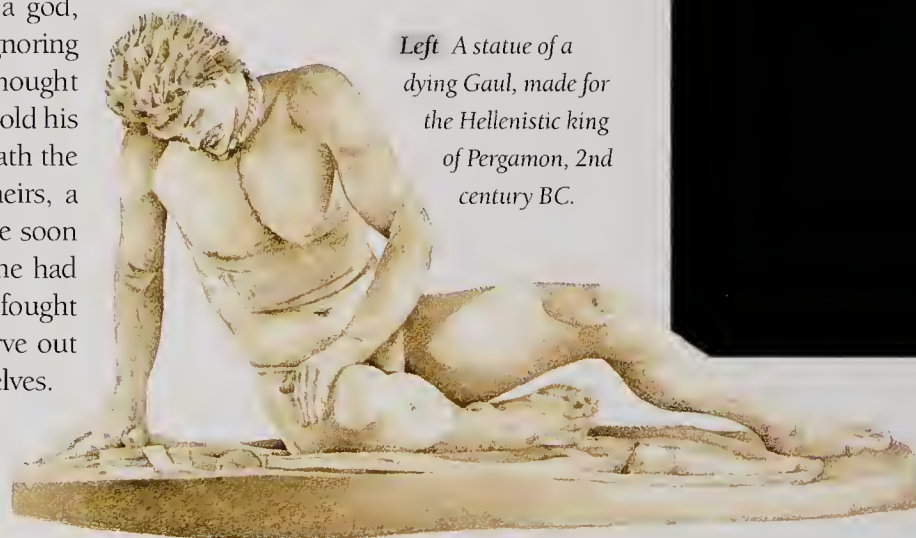
For the next three years Alexander's army campaigned ceaselessly in central Asia to complete the conquest of the Persian empire. This was achieved by 327 BC, and Alexander then decided to invade northern India. He won a battle over an Indian king on the river Hydaspes in 326 BC, but by now his army had had enough. Alexander was forced to agree to their demands to return home. They followed the course of the river Indus to the Arabian Sea and then embarked on a grueling journey across the desert to reach Babylon in 324 BC.

Alexander was planning a new campaign in Arabia when he died suddenly in 323 BC. Aged only 33, he was an alcoholic and probably insane. Believing himself a god, he had begun to rule like a tyrant, ignoring all advice. He had given no time or thought to creating a central government to hold his vast possessions together. On his death the empire collapsed into chaos. His heirs, a mad brother and an infant son, were soon murdered and his generals, whom he had appointed provincial governors, fought each other in a series of wars to carve out independent kingdoms for themselves. The most successful and long lasting of these were the kingdoms founded by Ptolemy in Egypt and Seleucus in Syria.

## ALEXANDER'S LEGACY

Alexander's conquests spread Greek civilization right across Asia to the Indus valley in the Himalayan foothills. Tens of thousands of Greeks emigrated to the dozens of new cities founded in these newly conquered lands, many of them named after Alexander himself. His soldiers grew rich on the treasure looted from the Persians.

The age of Greek cultural dominance in the Mediterranean and Near East is known as the Hellenistic period (from "Hellene," the word the Greeks used to describe themselves). Greece, however, no longer lay at the heart of the Greek world. Under the Ptolemies, Alexandria in Egypt, the most successful of the cities named for Alexander, came to replace Athens as the center of Greek culture. The rulers of the Hellenistic kingdoms were far richer than the Greek city-states had been. They spent their wealth lavishly on buildings such as



*Left* A statue of a dying Gaul, made for the Hellenistic king of Pergamon, 2nd century BC.



*Above* The ruins of Persepolis, in Iran, once the opulent capital of the Persian kings.



the lighthouse of Alexandria, one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. They encouraged new styles of art, particularly sculpture, and extended their patronage to scientists and philosophers like the mathematicians Archimedes and Euclid, and the astronomer Eratosthenes.

The Hellenistic world was overtaken by the rising strength of Rome. Greece and Macedon were conquered in the mid 2nd century. The Seleucid and Ptolemaic kingdoms survived for longer, but they too were ruled by Rome by 30 BC. The Romans had great respect for Greek civilization and borrowed many of its attributes for themselves, including its architecture, science, literature, and mythology.





## CLEOPATRA: LAST OF THE PTOLEMIES

Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemaic rulers of Egypt and the seventh queen of that name, is remembered in history as the lover of two Roman generals, Julius Caesar and Mark Antony. But Cleopatra was ruled by more than her heart's dictates. Her actions were driven by political necessity to secure her own survival.

When the 18-year-old Cleopatra became queen in 51 BC Rome had mastery of almost the entire Mediterranean and was waiting for a chance to seize control of Egypt too. She could not hope to remain queen without powerful support, and saw her opportunity in Rome's civil wars (see page 53). Both her Roman lovers hoped to use Cleopatra to gain



Above Cleopatra wearing Egyptian dress.

access to Egypt's vast wealth and further their own ambitions. Her plans ended in suicide after Mark Antony was defeated in battle in 31 BC. The dynasty that had ruled Egypt for 300 years died with her, leaving Rome as ruler of Egypt.

## TIMETABLE

352–338

Philip II of Macedon conquers Greece

336

After Philip II is murdered, Alexander becomes king of Macedon

334

Alexander invades Anatolia and routs a Persian army at the river Granicus

333

Alexander defeats Darius III at the river Issus (Syria)

332

Egypt is conquered and the city of Alexandria founded

331–330

Alexander returns to Persia. He defeats Darius at Gaugamela before going on to destroy the capital, Persepolis

330–326

Alexander campaigns continuously throughout Central Asia. He wins his last battle at the Hydaspes in India

323

Alexander dies suddenly in Babylon

321–316

Alexander is succeeded by an infant son. His empire breaks up as his generals seize territory for themselves

312

With the capture of Babylon, Seleucus establishes a kingdom in Anatolia, Syria, and Persia

305

Ptolemy proclaims himself king of Egypt and rules in the style of pharaoh

275

The Pharos lighthouse is built at Alexandria (Egypt)

190

The Romans defeat the Seleucid king Antiochus III at Magnesia

148–146

Rome annexes Macedon and Greece

83

The Seleucid kingdom collapses

30

On the death of Cleopatra, Egypt becomes a Roman province



# THE RISE OF ROME

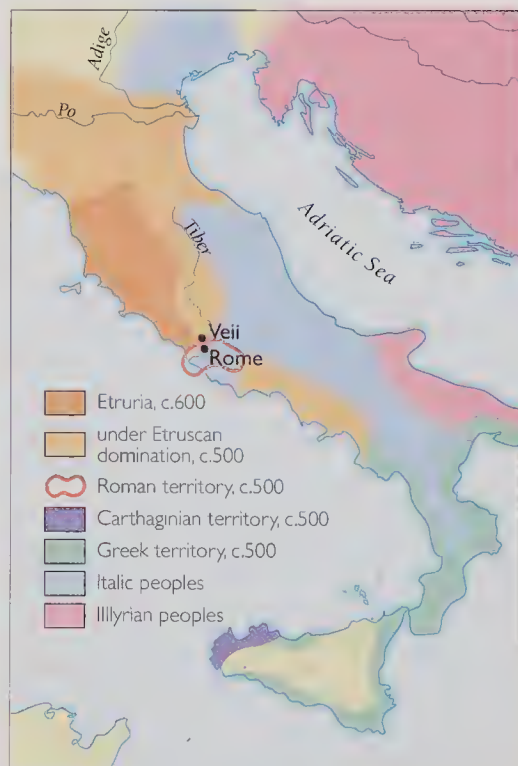
LEGEND HAS IT THAT THE CITY OF ROME WAS FOUNDED IN 753 BC. ACCORDING TO THE EARLY HISTORIES, IT WAS RULED BY KINGS UNTIL 509 BC, WHEN THE MONARCHY WAS OVERTHROWN AND THE ROMAN REPUBLIC FOUNDED. BY THE 2ND CENTURY BC ROME HAD TRANSFORMED ITSELF FROM A MINOR CITY-STATE TO THE MAJOR POWER IN THE WESTERN WORLD.

Archologists believe that the site of the city of Rome was first occupied by Iron Age farmers in the 10th century BC. Urban life seems to have developed there in the mid 8th century BC (about the date of its traditional foundation), and it grew to become one of the largest cities in Italy. The Romans were only one of many different peoples living in Italy at this time. They used warfare and political craft to overcome their neighbors, and by the mid 3rd century BC they controlled almost all of Italy.

## EXPANSION OVERSEAS

The strongest power in the western Mediterranean was Carthage, a rich trading city in North Africa originally founded by the Phoenicians. Once it had made itself master of the former Greek cities of southern Italy, Rome began to challenge Carthage for influence in Sicily. This led to a series of

Wars, known as the Punic Wars (from *Poeni*, Latin for Phoenicians.) Rome emerged the victor from the First Punic War (264–241 BC), with the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica added to its possessions. War broke out again over the control of Spain (the Second Punic War, 218–202 BC). The Carthaginian general Hannibal attacked Rome by marching a large army of men and elephants from Spain into France and from there crossing the Alps to Italy. But despite a series of great victories, he was unable to force the Romans to surrender. Meanwhile, a Roman army under the command of Scipio Africanus defeated the Carthaginian armies



## ITALY BEFORE THE ROMANS

Before the rise of Rome, the most powerful people in Italy were the Etruscans, settled in an area approximately equivalent to Tuscany today. By 800 BC they had developed the first urban civilization of western Europe. Active seafarers and traders, they had close cultural contacts with the Greeks and adopted their alphabet. Their inscriptions, however, cannot easily be deciphered, because they spoke a language unrelated to other European languages. Most of what we know about the Etruscans comes from their unique tombs. They built these like underground houses, in clusters or cities, and richly furnished them with grave goods and painted them with scenes of feasting.

Occupying the center of the peninsula were the Italics, a large group of peoples that included the Latins, Sabines, and Samnites.



Above Tomb statues of an Etruscan couple.

By 500 BC most still lived in tribes, but city-states had developed among the Latins, one of which was Rome. Once Rome achieved sole cultural and political dominance throughout the peninsula, all knowledge of other Italian languages and cultures disappeared.



# 750 BC–AD 14



Right According to legend, a she-wolf suckled the twin brothers Romulus and Remus, abandoned at birth. The same legend records that Romulus later founded the city of Rome. This head of a wolf is from a bronze statue, c. 500 BC.



still remaining in Spain, and then invaded North Africa. Hannibal sailed home from Italy to defend Carthage but was defeated at the battle of Zama in 202 BC. The city of Carthage itself was conquered and completely destroyed by Rome in 146 BC.

Now undisputed master of the western Mediterranean, Rome was poised to extend its influence eastward. Greece had been invaded in 197 BC, to punish Philip V of Macedon for supporting Carthage in the Punic Wars, and by 146 BC had become a Roman province. In 133 BC Rome acquired its first foothold in Asia with the acquisition

of Pergamon in Anatolia (its last king left it to Rome in his will). Bit by bit, Rome took over all the kingdoms founded by Alexander's successors (see page 48). In 30 BC the last of them, Egypt, came under direct Roman control, leaving Rome in supreme command throughout the Mediterranean and Middle East.





*Above* From the earliest days of the Republic, any Roman citizen had the right to appeal against injustice to the people of Rome. The inscription on this coin of the 2nd century BC reads "PROVOCO" ("I appeal"), and shows a Roman addressing his fellow citizens.

## ROMAN GOVERNMENT

A major factor in Rome's rise to power was its unique system of government. The city was governed by elected officers called magistrates. They ruled with the help of the Senate, an assembly of former magistrates who decided government policy. The upper classes, who were known as "patricians," dominated the government, but it was possible for talented people from the lower classes ("plebeians") to become magistrates and senators. New government policies were voted on by an assembly of all Roman citizens. The voting system in the assembly was organized in favor of the richer classes, but the plebeians had their own independent assembly and elected their own officers, called tribunes, to represent their interests. In practice, most tribunes were themselves wealthy and used the position as a stepping stone to higher

office; for the most part, they had no interest in challenging the status quo. This system of government gave Rome strong leadership, ensured that there was public support for government policy, and helped make the Romans a united people during the centuries of its rise to power.

## SOLDIERS & CITIZENS

War was another important factor in securing Rome's success. For the wealthy, military victory brought prestige and the chance to win political power and influence at home. For the poor, it offered plunder and a way to acquire land. Only Roman citizens could fight in the army. At first it was also necessary to be a landowner, but this requirement was abolished in 105 BC. As a result, the Romans were the first people in the ancient world to have a large professional army of well-trained, disciplined soldiers.

*Above* The Forum was at the center of life in Rome. Its most sacred temples were here, including the temple of Vesta, which housed the eternal flame that symbolized the heart of the Roman people. So was the Senate house and other important buildings. In the late Republican period, ambitious politicians tried to win popular support by outdoing each other with lavish building schemes for the Forum.



The Romans' unique view of citizenship was a further major factor in their success. In Greece, citizenship depended on birth and was a jealously guarded privilege: this meant that the number of politically active citizens in the Greek city-states remained small. For the Romans, however, all that mattered was residence in Rome; immigrants were welcomed as citizens, and even freed slaves could acquire citizenship. As a result, the number of Roman citizens grew rapidly, and so did the number of potential recruits for the Roman army. Later on, the Romans were prepared to grant citizenship and its privileges to the peoples it conquered in Italy and abroad, if they proved loyal and were prepared to fight for Rome; Roman identity was no longer simply confined to those living in the city of Rome itself. In this way former enemies were brought within the Roman system of government and made loyal citizens.

## THE END OF THE REPUBLIC

Its rapid overseas expansion made Rome rich. But it also weakened the republican system of government. Corruption spread as officials tried to keep the wealth of the provinces for themselves. Military conquest brought a huge influx of slaves to Italy, and as a result many poor Roman farmers and laborers lost their lands and jobs. When

Tiberius Gracchus, a tribune, tried to introduce reforms, he was murdered in 133 BC. Ambitious generals became increasingly eager to conquer new provinces and plunder their riches. The wealth they won could be used to buy the support of their soldiers if they tried to win power at home. They were also expected to reward their men with grants of land when they left the army. Soon civil wars broke out between rival generals. In 44 BC the successful general Julius Caesar defeated all his rivals. In power, he abolished the republic and became dictator of Rome. His high-handed actions alarmed a number of conservative republicans, who conspired to murder him. Caesar's death set the stage for a new civil war. The eventual victor was Caesar's ambitious young nephew, Octavian, who became sole ruler of Rome and its possessions in 31 BC. Under the new form of government he introduced in 27 BC, Octavian, now known as Augustus ("honored one"), became commander-in-chief of the army; he could make laws and reject decisions of the Senate. His official title was *princeps* ("first citizen"), but he had the power of a king. Augustus's rule restored peace and stability to the Roman empire. He was succeeded in AD 14 by his stepson Tiberius. He and all Rome's subsequent rulers used the title *imperator* ("commander"), from which our word emperor comes.

## JULIUS CAESAR

Julius Caesar began his political career as tribune, going out of his way to win the support of Rome's lower classes, and then embarked on a conspicuously successful military career. His conquests included Gaul, and he acquired great wealth as well as the devotion of his men. After defeating his political enemies in the civil war of 48–45 BC, Caesar declared himself dictator and destroyed the republican system of government in his quest for power. His reforms improved the life of poorer Romans and provincials, but alienated the Senate. He was murdered by conservative republicans who feared that he was about to make himself king.

Left Caesar was the supreme Roman politician.



TIMETABLE	
c.900	Earliest habitation on the site of Rome
753	Traditional date for the founding of Rome by Romulus
509	The Romans overthrow their monarchy and found a republic
390	The Gauls (Celts) sack Rome
272	The Romans capture Tarentum to complete the conquest of Italy
264–241	The First Punic War between Rome and Carthage
218–202	The Second Punic War. At the battle of Cannae (216) Rome suffers its worst defeat ever
e.200	Greek influences begin to appear in Roman art
146	The Romans destroy Carthage. It is later refounded as a Roman colony
146	Greece becomes a Roman province
105–101	Marius reforms the Roman army
73–71	Spartaeus, a gladiator, leads a slave revolt. It is put down and more than 6,000 slaves are crucified
46	Julius Caesar becomes dictator of Rome
44	Julius Caesar is murdered; a new civil war breaks out
31	Octavian (Augustus) defeats Mark Antony at Actium to become sole ruler of Rome
30–19	The poet Virgil (70–19 BC) writes the <i>Aeneid</i> . Livy (59BC–AD 17) completes his history of Rome
27	Augustus introduces imperial rule



# EARLY STATES OF SOUTH ASIA

THE INDIAN SUBCONTINENT HAS A COMPLEX HISTORY OF SETTLEMENT. THOUGH IT IS BORDERED ON THE NORTH BY THE HIMALAYAS, THE TALLEST MOUNTAIN RANGE ON EARTH, INVADERS AND SETTLERS HAVE ENTERED THE SUBCONTINENT THROUGH MOUNTAIN PASSES FROM CENTRAL ASIA SINCE EARLIEST TIMES. THE INDUS VALLEY WAS AN EARLY CENTER OF AGRICULTURE AND SAW THE RISE OF ONE OF THE WORLD'S FIRST CIVILIZATIONS. TWO IMPORTANT WORLD RELIGIONS, HINDUISM AND BUDDHISM, ORIGINATED IN NORTHERN INDIA.

The first civilization of South Asia developed on the flood plain of the Indus river, in Pakistan. The environment here was very similar to that of Mesopotamia (see page 22)—the climate was hot and dry, but the soils were fertile, and the river provided plentiful water for irrigation. Agriculture had an early start here, and by 2600 BC the plain was densely scattered with farming villages. In several places small towns and cities had already developed.

## CITIES OF THE INDUS

Archeologists first began excavating in the Indus valley in the 1920s. Discoveries at two sites, Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa, gave the first indication that a major urban civilization had existed here more than

4,000 years ago as advanced as those of Mesopotamia and the Nile valley at around the same time. Some cities such as Mohenjo-Daro and Harappa were much larger than other settlements in the region, and may have been the capitals of kingdoms.

It is clear that the Indus civilization was highly organized. The towns and cities were neatly planned on a grid system, with different areas of the city being reserved for specific classes and occupations. They were built on mud-brick platforms to protect them from floods, and possessed a sophisticated water-supply and sewerage system.

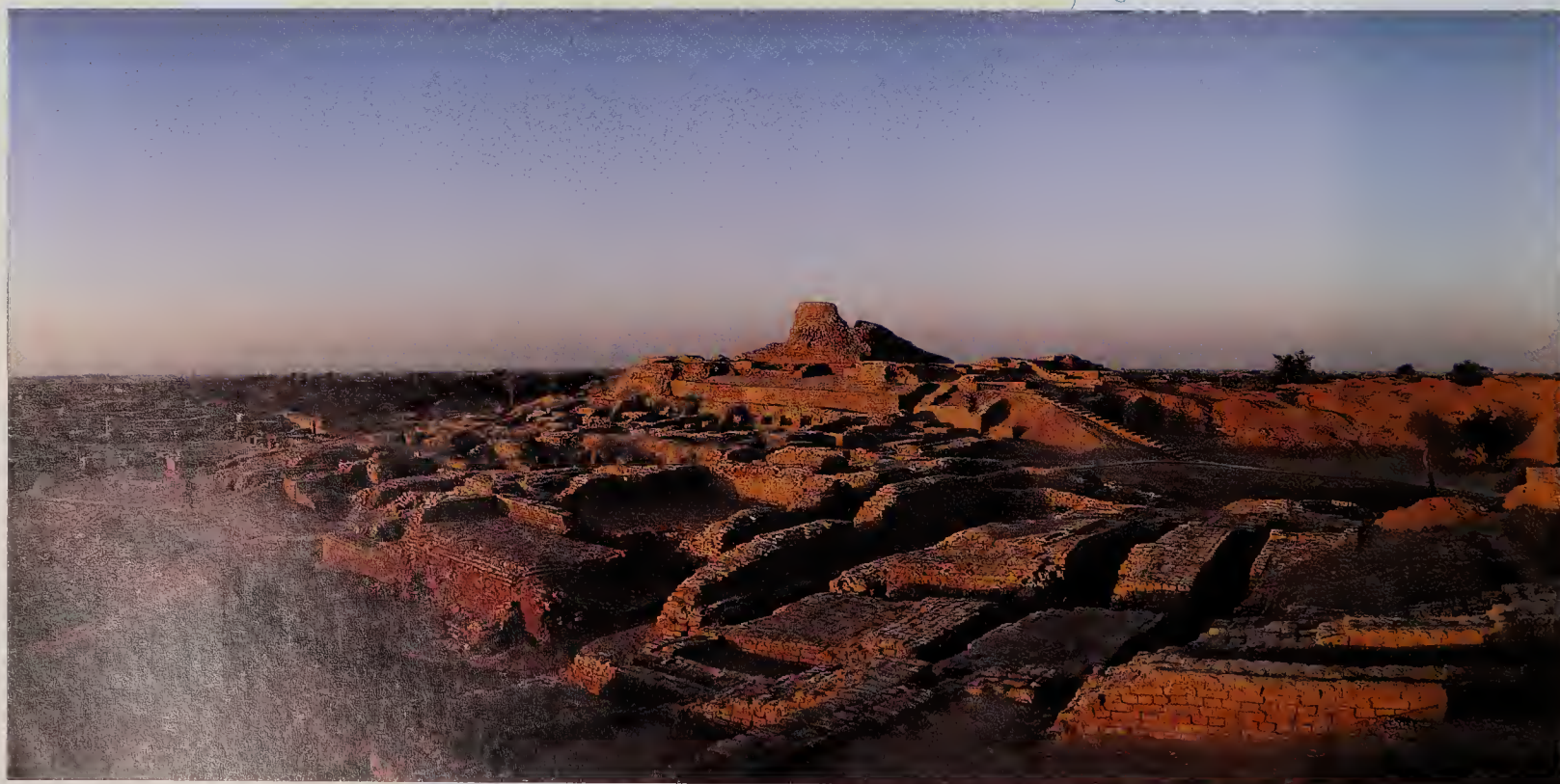
We know very little about the people who built these cities. Though stone seals carved with pictographs (see page 18) show that the Indus people could write, the script



*Left* A small carved head from Mohenjo-Daro. He is thought to represent a priest or king. The bearded right shoulder, headband, armring, and trefoil-patterned robe are all traditional signs of holiness in India.

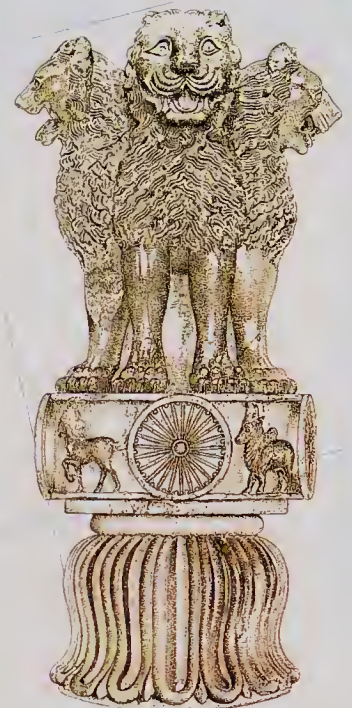
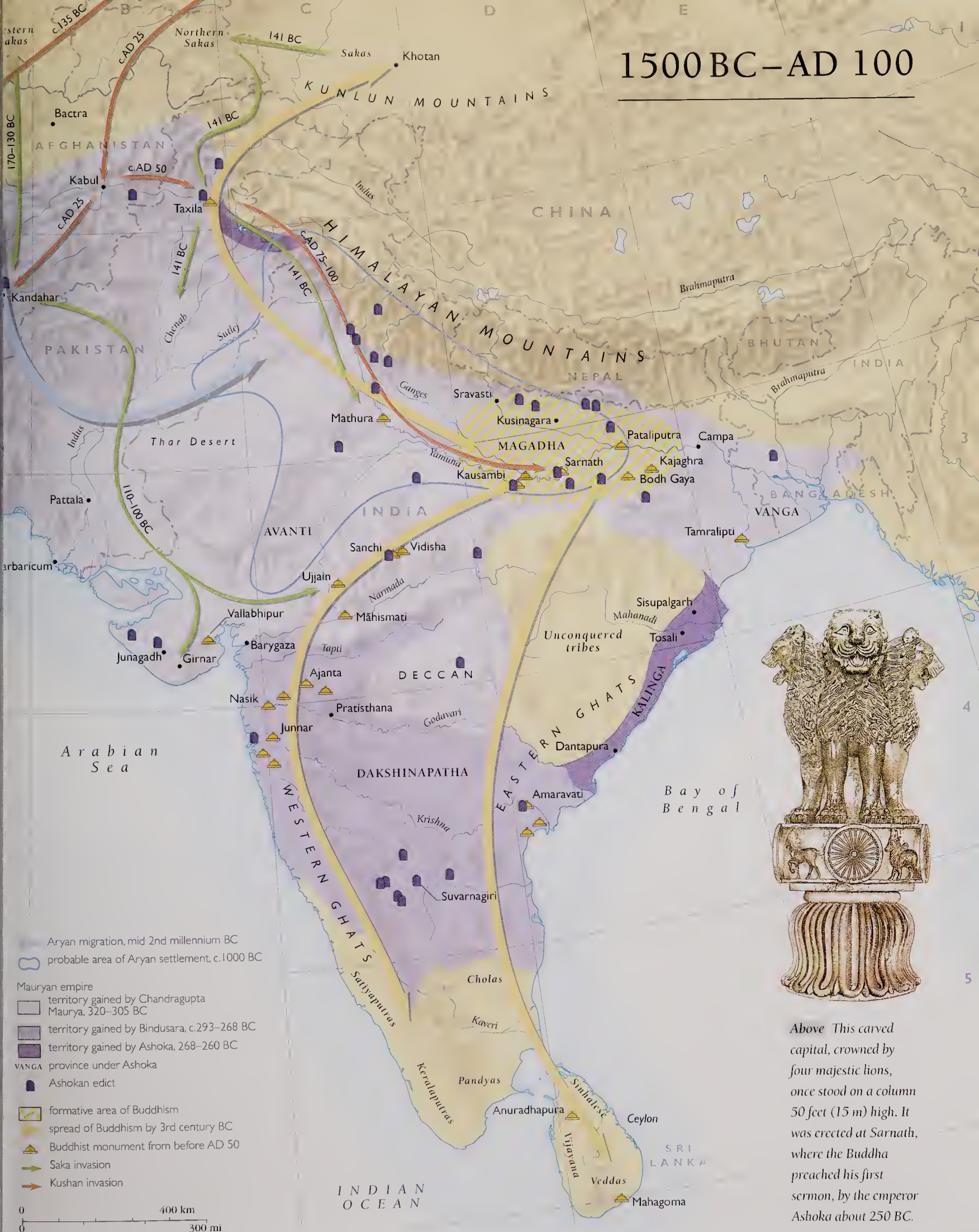


*Below* Mohenjo-Daro stood on a hill above the floodplain of the river Indus. Built entirely of baked mud bricks, it had a population of 30,000–40,000, making it one of the largest Bronze Age cities in the world.



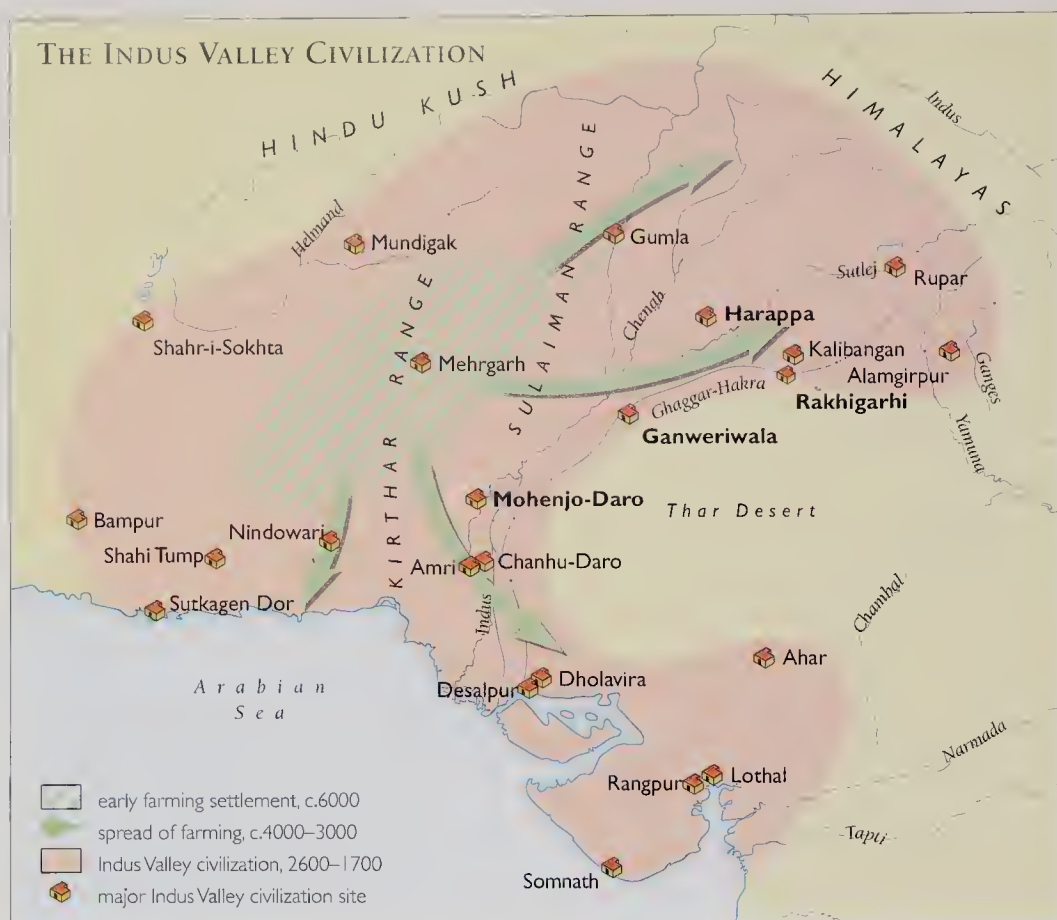


# 1500 BC–AD 100



Above This carved capital, crowned by four majestic lions, once stood on a column 50 feet (15 m) high. It was erected at Sarnath, where the Buddha preached his first sermon, by the emperor Ashoka about 250 BC.





god Indra. They were passed on by word of mouth and did not come to be written down until the 6th century BC.

Central to Hinduism is its caste system, or hereditary system of social ranking. This has developed from the four *varnas* or classes of Aryan society. The two highest classes were the Brahmins, the priestly caste, and the Kshatriyas, the warriors. Next came the Vaishyas, peasant farmers and merchants, with the Shudras, craftsmen, laborers, or slaves, at the bottom. Kings were always members of the warrior class, but they also had important religious duties, such as performing rituals to maintain the fertility of the fields and secure good harvests.

## NEW BELIEFS

By 500 BC Hinduism had spread widely through the Indian subcontinent. It taught that each individual has to go through an endless cycle of rebirth. The Brahmins had come to hold great power, and it was partly dissatisfaction with their role that led to the development of a number of new sects, such as Jainism (still practiced by many people in India today) and Buddhism. The founder of Buddhism was Siddhartha Gautama (c.563–483 BC). His teachings gained hold in and around the Gangetic plain, where he lived and died, but did not achieve wider popularity until the reign of the emperor Ashoka (r.268–233 BC).

*Below An early Buddhist stupa, or shrine.*

has not yet been deciphered and we do not even know what language they spoke. They had extensive trading links reaching far into the subcontinent and along the coast of the Persian Gulf to Mesopotamia.

The Indus civilization appears to have gone into decline about 1800 BC, and by 1700 BC the cities had been abandoned. The reasons for this are unclear, but as life continued unchanged in the countryside, it is unlikely that invaders were responsible. It is possible that repeated flooding or some other environmental catastrophe played a part in their desertion.

## VEDIC INDIA

Around 1500 BC the Aryans migrated into northern India from central Asia. They were cattle-owning seminomads, but by about 1000 BC they appear to have settled down as rice farmers on the vast, fertile Ganges plain that extends for 1,900 miles (3,000 km) west to east across the north of the subcontinent. There they developed a village-based society, loosely held together in small tribal kingdoms. By this time they had begun to use iron tools and weapons, which they had probably learned to make independently of outside influence.

The Aryans had enormous influence on Indian history. Many of the numerous languages spoken in India today have evolved from their Sanskrit language. Hinduism, the most widespread religion of modern India, is descended from the Aryan form of religion. The earliest Hindu scriptures are the Vedas, collections of hymns that tell the mythical history of the migrations and wars of the Aryans under the leadership of their







## THE BUDDHA

All we know about Siddhartha Gautama, the Buddha (or “Enlightened One”), comes from traditions written down long after his death. They relate that he was born a prince of a small kingdom in northern India. One day, age 29, he took a chariot ride outside his father’s palace and saw real human suffering for the first time. Overwhelmed by sorrow, he abandoned his life of luxury. For six years he led a life of extreme austerity, fasting and meditating, until he received enlightenment while seated beneath a tree. The essence of Gautama’s teaching was that by following the Eightfold Path of righteous thought and action it was possible to attain Nirvana, a state free of suffering, and end the Hindu cycle of rebirth.

*Left* A Buddha from Gandhara, in the northwest. It is influenced by Greek art, following Alexander the Great’s conquest of the Indus valley.

## TIMETABLE

**c.4000–3000**

Settled farming begins on the flood plains of the river Indus

**c.2600**

Cities emerge on the Indus flood plains

**c.2350**

Sumerian tablets record trade in copper with the Indus valley

**c.2000**

Bronze tools and weapons come into use in India

**c.1800**

The Indus valley civilization declines

**c.1500**

Aryans migrate into the Indian subcontinent from Central Asia

**c.1100**

Ironworking begins in India

**c.1000**

Aryans settle down as rice farmers on the Ganges plain

**1000–550**

Formative period of the Hindu religion. The Vedas (hymns) are written down

**563–483**

Life of Siddhartha Gautama, the Buddha

**321**

Chandragupta Maurya founds the Mauryan empire

**268–233**

Mauryan empire is at its peak under Ashoka

**c.260**

Ashoka converts to Buddhism

**c.250**

Ashoka sends Buddhist missionaries to Sri Lanka

**c.185**

The last Mauryan king is overthrown

**c.141**

The Sakas invade India

**AD 50–75**

The Kushans invade and conquer northwest India

## THE EMPEROR ASHOKA

Ashoka ruled over the Mauryan empire, founded by his grandfather Chandragupta Maurya (r.321–293 BC). Chandragupta was an able administrator and a fine soldier. He made a name for himself as a commander in the northwest of India at the time of Alexander the Great’s invasion of the Indus valley (see page 46) and later seized power in Magadha, the most important kingdom in the Gangetic plain. He established strong central government and built roads, irrigation systems, and other public works. Chandragupta brought almost all of northern India under his control. His son Bindusara (r.293–268 BC) extended the influence of the Mauryan empire far into the Deccan, the central plateau of India.

Ashoka began his reign by conquering Kalinga in eastern India. This was highly valued as the source of the best war elephants. However, Ashoka was so horrified by the suffering caused by war that he converted to Buddhism and from then onward attempted to live by its teachings of non-violence and compassion for all living things. He informed the rulers of neighboring states that they would not be attacked,

and gave up hunting and eating meat.

On Ashoka’s orders, Buddhist teachings were inscribed on cliffs and stone pillars throughout India. He sent missionaries to Ceylon, Indonesia, and Central Asia, areas where Buddhism would later become very strong, and even as far as Syria, Egypt, and Anatolia. In this way, Buddhism took the first steps to becoming a world religion. But Ashoka also practiced religious toleration. Although many people in India followed his example and converted to Buddhism, the majority were allowed to practice their traditional Hindu beliefs unhindered.

The Mauryan empire declined after Ashoka’s death and by 185 BC had split up into several independent states. They were not strong enough to resist new invaders from central Asia, the Sakas (a branch of the Scythians). After them came the Kushans, who controlled a network of states in the north and enjoyed extensive trading links with China, Persia, and Rome. These newcomers adopted the languages and religions of the people they ruled over and were fully assimilated into Indian culture. Meanwhile, thriving ports and independent kingdoms were beginning to emerge in south India as the opportunities for sea trade increased.



# FIRST EMPERORS OF CHINA

FARMING BEGAN IN THE YELLOW RIVER VALLEY ABOUT 8,000 YEARS AGO. ABOUT 3000 BC RICE FARMING SPREAD THERE FROM THE YANGTZE RIVER FLOODPLAIN, AND IT WAS HERE THAT THE FIRST CIVILIZATION IN CHINA, THE SHANG, DEVELOPED ABOUT 1766 BC. AS DYNASTIES CAME AND WENT, THE BORDERS OF THE EARLY CHINESE STATE EXPANDED SOUTH AND WEST.

About 3000 BC, as agriculture became more developed and the population began to rise, the first towns and fortifications arose in the Yellow river valley of northern China. According to later legends, Chinese civilization was founded by the emperor Huang Di in 2698 BC. However, there is no archeological or historical evidence for any ruling dynasty before the Shang (c.1766–1122 BC).

During this time, cities developed and a pictographic script, the ancestor of the modern Chinese script, came into use. The Shang kings believed that they could talk to their ancestors by writing questions on special bones called oracle bones. The bones were struck with a hot metal rod, and the resulting pattern of cracks was believed to show the ancestors' answer. The kings took



care not to take important decisions without ensuring they had the approval of their ancestors.

The influence of the Shang dynasty was quite widely spread across northern China. Shang rulers were extremely powerful. When a king died, hundreds of his soldiers and servants were sacrificed and buried with him.

This meant that he could be sure of being guarded and looked after in the afterlife.

## THE ZHOU DYNASTY

The Shang dynasty was overthrown by Wu, king of Zhou, in 1122 BC, who founded the longest lasting dynasty of Chinese history. Observing and interpreting astronomical events for the people was part of

*Left* Early Chinese bronze working was the most advanced in the world. Skilled craftsmen could cast incredibly complicated shapes using molds made up of several separate pieces. Vessels like this one of Zhou manufacture were used to make food and drink offerings to the gods.

the obligations of early Chinese rulers. The Zhou kings claimed that celestial approval for their dynasty's authority was demonstrated through the "Mandate of Heaven." The stars could also predict the downfall of dynasties. All future rulers of China would claim to rule by the Mandate.

Later generations looked back to the time of the Zhou kings as a golden age. However, in 770 BC the kingdom was invaded by nomads from the west. The capital moved from Hao to Luoyang, and the kingdom disintegrated into semi-independent states. This troubled time is known as the Spring and Autumns Period (770–480 BC). It was followed by the Warring States Period (480–221 BC), when the authority of the Zhou kings declined even further.

Despite the almost constant background of warfare, important changes were taking place. Iron came into use around 600 BC, though iron weapons did not replace bronze until the 2nd century BC. Literature and philosophy flourished. The most important cultural development was the creation of Confucianism, the system of ethical beliefs that remains fundamental to Chinese thought and behavior. Its founder, Confucius (551–479 BC), was born at Qufu in Lu province to a poor but aristocratic family. He became a government official before seeking the life of a wandering





# 1766 BC–AD 220







*Top* A checkerboard of fields in the Yellow river valley. From the Shang civilization to the Han dynasty, this fertile region formed the heartland of the early Chinese state.

*Above* Horses, first domesticated in southern Russia, were highly prized by the Chinese, who would capture fine specimens on their campaigns in the west. This bronze horse and rider from Gansu is of Han origin.

sage and teacher. Confucius's moral teachings stressed respect for authority, family, and tradition. He instructed rulers to act virtuously so as to set a good example for their subjects to follow.

## THE FIRST EMPEROR

After the Warring States Period, the province of Qin, in the west, emerged as the strongest power in China. Its mountainous borders made it hard to attack, and from about 350 BC onward it steadily expanded its territory by conquering the tribal peoples on its western borders. Between 230 and 221 BC the Qin king Zheng, in a series of lightning campaigns, rapidly conquered the other states of China. To mark his success he adopted the title Shi Huangdi, or "First Emperor."

As a defense against nomad invasions, Shi Huangdi linked the border ramparts built in the Warring States Period into a continuous earth barrier that stretched for more than 1,000 miles (1600 km). This was the beginning of the Great Wall of

## THE TERRACOTTA ARMY

In 1974, peasants digging a well near the ancient Qin capital of Xianyang broke into a pit containing thousands of lifesize clay soldiers. They had been placed there to guard the body of Shi Huangdi, who is buried in a massive mound about 1 mile (1.6 km) away. Records state that more than 700,000 men were conscripted from all over the empire to build it.

Archeologists uncovered more than 7,000 soldiers belonging to the Terracotta Army, together with their horses and war chariots. Enormous care had been taken in sculpting the figures: the head of each soldier is different, with a wide range of facial expressions, beards, and hairstyles being seen. They include archers, infantrymen, and cavalry, and provide invaluable information about ancient Chinese armor and weaponry.

*Right* Terracotta soldiers stand ready for battle.



China, though the stone wall that can be seen today is of much later date.

Shi Huangdi adopted forceful measures to unite his empire. Local customs were banned; everyone had to obey the same laws and use the same coins, weights, measurements, and style of writing. Even the width of axles on wagons had to be the same. The emperor appointed all officials. Opposition to his policies was ruthlessly punished, usually by death.

For a man who did not care how many people he killed, Shi Huangdi was terrified of dying himself. He ordered doctors to try to discover a medicine to make him immortal. They failed, of course, and Shi Huangdi died in 210 BC. The cost of his policies had been enormous. Peasant farmers had been taxed heavily to pay for them, and forced to join the army or work on building projects. In 206 BC a rebellion broke out and the entire Qin royal family was massacred.

## THE HAN DYNASTY

Although the downfall of the Qin dynasty sparked off a ferocious civil war, the empire did not break up. The eventual winner was Gaozu, the first emperor of the Han dynasty

(202 BC–AD 220). Gaozu recognized that the Qin dynasty had been overthrown because it had been too brutal. He therefore reduced taxes, gave land to the peasants, and passed other reforms to increase prosperity. The law was made less harsh and the death penalty used much less.

China continued to expand under the early Han emperors, who conquered large territories in the south and much of the Korean peninsula. In the west, seizure of the strategic Gansu corridor opened the way to central Asia, where a protectorate was set up. Xiongnu nomads invaded China many times from Mongolia but were eventually defeated in 36 BC. The Han's constant military campaigns drained the economy, and in AD 9 the dynasty was overthrown by a rebel called Wang Mang.

Though the Han won back their throne just 14 years later, they were unable to revive their former greatness. Peasant rebellions became common. The emperors were figureheads only, isolated from their subjects by the ceremonies of court ritual. Actual power passed into the hands of their generals and officials. In 220, the last Han emperor was deposed and the empire broke up into three separate kingdoms.



## TIMETABLE

- c.6500**  
Rice farming begins in the Yangtze valley
- c.3000**  
Rice farming spreads to the Yellow River valley
- c.1900**  
Early bronzes are being made at Erlitou, in the Yellow River valley
- c.1766**  
The Shang dynasty is founded by king Tang
- c.1350**  
The war chariot comes into use
- c.1300**  
Pictographic writing begins in China
- 1122**  
Wu, founder of the Zhou dynasty, overthrows the Shang
- 770–481**  
The Springs and Autumns Period: the authority of the Zhou dynasty declines
- 551–479**  
Life of Confucius, philosopher and sage
- c.500**  
Sun Tzu writes the *Art of War*, the earliest military handbook
- 481–221**  
The Warring States Period: the Zhou kingdom breaks up
- c.350**  
The crossbow is invented in China
- 230–221**  
Zheng of Qin unifies China and takes the title of Shi Huangdi
- 209–202**  
Civil war: the Han dynasty takes over
- 117–115**  
The Han conquer the Gansu corridor and expand into Central Asia
- 36 BC**  
The Han defeat the Xiongnu nomads
- AD 100**  
Buddhism is introduced into China
- 189–90**  
Warlords seize the Han capital, Luoyang, and install a puppet emperor
- 220**  
Fall of the last Han emperor







# THE MEDIEVAL WORLD

The maps in this section trace nearly 1,500 years between the birth of Christ (the end of the ancient world) and Christopher Columbus' historic voyage to the Americas in 1492 (the prelude to the modern world). It was an eventful period in human history, which saw the rise of Christianity and Islam, the most recent of the world's five major religions.

In the 1st century AD, the Roman empire was at the height of its dominance and prosperity, and people believed it would last for ever. It actually survived for another 400 years in the west before falling to Germanic invaders. After its collapse, Europe entered a long period of economic and political decline, now known to us as the Dark Ages. When they came to an end, about AD 1000, almost all of Europe was Christian.

From the 7th century on, the dynamic Arab empire spread the new religion of Islam through the Middle East into North Africa and Spain, along the coast of East Africa, and across Central Asia as far as India, building a civilization that in terms of art, literature, science, and philosophy far outshone that of early medieval Europe. Islam's cultural life was matched in richness and sophistication only by that of China, whose technology was the most advanced in the medieval world: papermaking, printing, gunpowder, and the magnetic compass were among the many inventions in use in China long before they were known in Europe.

In the 13th century, the Mongols—nomadic warriors who swept out of Central Asia to conquer the largest land empire the world has ever seen—inflicted terrible damage on both the Islamic and Chinese civilizations. In part as a result of this, Europe in the late Middle Ages was beginning to catch up with Asian culture and technology. Art, architecture, and scholarship flourished, trade expanded rapidly, and by the mid 15th century, European seafarers were voyaging around the coast of Africa to India and across the Atlantic to the Americas, which they called the New World.

The globe had started to shrink. Europeans learned that civilizations such as they had never dreamed of existed in this strange New World, with large cities, complex buildings, and advanced astronomical knowledge. Above all, the New World possessed vast wealth—gold, silver, and copper—and this the Europeans envied. Within a short time the Aztec and Inca empires had been conquered and pillaged. Europe's impact on the rest of the world was just beginning.

*Left* Window from Chartres Cathedral, France, c.1200.





- 1 c.140–94 BC A branch of the Sakas, a nomadic people of Central Asia, migrates into northwest India
- 2 128–36 The Han rulers of China subdue the Xiongnu nomads of the eastern steppes
- 3 113 The Chinese expand into Vietnam
- 4 c.100 South America's first state develops in the Moche valley of coastal Peru
- 5 57 According to tradition, Silla, the earliest state in Korea, is founded

- 6 c.58–51 The Roman general Julius Caesar conquers the Celts of Gaul (France)
- 7 c.53 The Parthians inflict a crushing defeat on a Roman army at the battle of Carrhae
- 8 31 The "long count" calendar, the earliest known calendar of Mesoamerica, is devised, possibly by the Toltecs
- 9 c.AD 1–100 The camel is introduced from Asia to the Sahara, opening up trade routes across the desert to sub-Saharan and tropical Africa

- 10 c.1–100 Sheep-herding is established among the Khoisan nomads of southern Africa
- 11 c.1–100 Complex societies develop among the hunter-gatherer peoples living on the Pacific coast of North America
- 12 c.1–100 Pottery skills die out among the Polynesians of the Fiji-Samoa-Tonga triangle
- 13 9 In Germany, a Roman army is defeated in the Teutoburgerwald. No further attempts are made to extend the empire north of the Rhine



# THE WORLD BY AD 120

THE 1ST CENTURY AD WAS AN AGE OF EMPIRES. IN EUROPE, THE ROMAN EMPIRE WAS AT ITS HEIGHT, WHILE IN CHINA THE HAN DYNASTY HELD SWAY. TRADE WAS EXPANDING BY LAND AND SEA, AND THESE TWO GREAT IMPERIAL POWERS KNEW OF EACH OTHER'S EXISTENCE THROUGH TRAVELERS' TALES. EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN MESO- AND SOUTH AMERICA WERE ALSO ESTABLISHING CONTROL OVER THEIR NEIGHBORS.

By AD 1, the start of the Christian era, Rome controlled nearly all the land around the Mediterranean as well as most of the Iberian peninsula and France. After a Roman army was annihilated in the Teutoburgerwald in Germany in AD 9, the emperor Augustus (r.27 BC–AD 14) warned against new territorial conquests, believing that the empire had reached its natural limits. His successors, however, ignored his advice, and it continued to grow for another century. In Europe, most of Britain was conquered between AD 43 and AD 78 and Dacia (modern Romania) fell in 106. The emperor Hadrian (r.117–38) ended further expansion and strengthened the empire's defenses. He even built stone and turf walls to protect the most vulnerable frontiers in Britain and Germany. His policy was a wise one: the Germanic tribes living on the other side of the Rhine and Danube frontiers were

*Below* The province of Britain, the northernmost part of the empire, as shown on a late Roman document.



- 14 c.9–23 An economic crisis causes a rebellion that results in the temporary overthrow of the Han dynasty in China
- 15 25–50 The Kushan state comes into being under Kujala Kadphises
- 16 30 Jesus of Nazareth (Jesus Christ) is crucified in Jerusalem
- 17 50–100 The kingdom of Funan is founded on the Mekong river in Cambodia and prospers from the sea trade between China and India
- 18 115–17 The Roman empire is at its greatest extent following Trajan's short-lived conquest of Armenia and Mesopotamia
- 19 c.120–30 The Kushan empire reaches its greatest extent under king Kanishka, extending from the Aral Sea in Central Asia to the Ganges
- 20 122–28 The emperor Hadrian builds a defensive wall across northern Britain
- 21 150 The Pyramid of the Sun is built at Teotihuacán in Mexico



growing stronger and better organized. The wealth of the empire would come to have great attraction for them, and in the late 2nd century they would begin to make frequent raids into Roman territory. In 167 they would even campaign as far as northern Italy. For the time being, however, the Roman empire was secure, peaceful, and more prosperous than ever before.

## THE MIDDLE EAST

The Roman empire had been dominant in the Middle East for more than two hundred years, following the collapse of the Seleucid empire. The kingdom of Arabia was added to the empire in the 1st century AD, and a Jewish rebellion in Judea in 66–70 was put down with such firmness that it ended all further resistance. The Middle Eastern provinces were one of the richest parts of the empire because they had trading links with Asia. Only the Parthians, who had overrun Persia and Mesopotamia in the 2nd century BC, were a serious challenge to Rome's power. At first the Romans thought the Parthians were little more than barbarians but came to respect their military skills after a Parthian army won an overwhelming victory at Carrhae in 53 BC. Wars between Rome and Parthia were frequent, although neither side had the upper hand for long. However, the emperor Trajan (r.97–117) had ambitions to conquer the Parthians, and seized control of Armenia and Mesopotamia in 115. His successor Hadrian considered them to be undefendable and gave them up as soon as becoming emperor.

## SOUTH ASIA

Parthia was at the western end of the Silk Route, the long overland trade route that crossed Asia from China. It passed through lands controlled by the Kushans who, like the Parthians, were originally nomads from the steppes of Central Asia. Late in the 1st century AD the Kushan leader Kujala Kadphises had created a kingdom in Bactria (northern Afghanistan). From there he went on to invade India, conquering most of the upper Ganges plain. Control of the valuable Silk Route trade enriched the Kushans, and in 120 their empire was at its height. King Kanishka, its most powerful ruler, issued coins that used Chinese, Parthian, Indian,

and Roman titles to proclaim his greatness. Many goods traveling along the Silk Route to Parthia were destined for Rome. Wealthy citizens delighted to wear silk clothes and flavor their food with spices from the east. But they resented having to buy them from their enemies, the Parthians. To avoid this, Roman merchants in Egypt opened up a new route to the east by sailing through the Red Sea and across the Indian Ocean to ports in southern India.

## CHINA

By 120 China was the largest and most populated state in the world. The Han dynasty had ruled it since 206 BC. At first Han rule was beneficial; taxes were reduced and the people prospered. During the 1st century BC the powerful Xiongnu nomads, who regularly made raids into northern China, had been subdued in a long series of campaigns. Han control extended as far as the







*Left* The ancient Silk Route ran for 4,000 miles (6,400 km) across Asia. Merchants did not travel the entire length—goods were passed on by middlemen who exacted large sums of money for their services. Ideas also traveled along the Silk Route—it was the way by which Buddhism entered China from India in the 1st century AD. At Bezeklik, in the foothills of the Tien Shan mountains, Buddhist temples carved into the rock recall the time when travelers, merchants, and missionaries were frequent visitors.

*Below* Caravans, long strings of pack camels, carried consignments of goods across the arid wastes and deserts of the Silk Route. Travelers rested overnight at inns known as caravanserais.

## AFRICA

By AD 44 the entire North African coast from Egypt to Morocco was in the hands of the Romans. It was a prosperous region that supplied the empire with grain and olive oil. The introduction of the camel from Asia, about 100 BC, opened up trade across the Sahara, while the kingdom of Axum on the Red Sea grew wealthy from exporting ivory and other goods to Rome. As Bantu-speaking farmers continued to move out of the rainforests of tropical Africa onto the central grasslands, they introduced arable farming and the use of iron to the nomadic herders and hunter-gatherers already living there. Bantu languages and customs soon became predominant among them. In the far south of the continent, Khoisan hunter-gatherers used stone tools and weapons. During the 1st century AD voyagers from Indonesia, probably traders on their way to East Africa, settled the previously uninhabited island of Madagascar.

## THE AMERICAS

While the civilizations of the Old World knew of each other through trade and war, they were completely ignorant of the New World and the civilizations that had developed there. At the end of the 1st century AD the city of Teotihuacán was the most powerful state in the Americas. It dominated central Mexico and had strong cultural influence over its neighbors, the Zapotecs and Maya. The Teotihuacáns had probably developed an early form of writing but no inscriptions of theirs have survived. We know that the Maya understood advanced mathematics and astronomy and used a form of hieroglyphic writing. The first organized state in South America arose in the Moche valley in northern Peru around 100 BC; by AD 120 it controlled several hundred miles of the coastal lowlands. The Moche were fine craftsmen in gold, silver, and copper and produced fine pottery and textiles. They built vast ceremonial centers of adobe (mud brick). Farther south on the Peruvian coast the Nazca culture was flourishing. It is best known for its “geoglyphs,” vast drawings of geometrical patterns and animals that were laid out on the ground as a means of communicating with the gods.

northern Korean peninsula. A number of major territorial gains also took place in the west and the south, and the first Chinese expansion was made into Vietnam. However, the economic costs of these policies were high, leading to rebellion and the overthrow of the dynasty from AD 9–23. Although the Han rulers were restored, they failed to stop the abuse of peasants by rich landowners, and discontent continued to spread.



# THE ROMAN EMPIRE

THE ROMAN EMPIRE WAS AT ITS PEAK IN THE 2ND CENTURY AD. IT STRETCHED FROM BRITAIN TO ARABIA, UNITING A MULTITUDE OF RACES, CULTURES, AND RELIGIONS. ALTHOUGH THE EMPIRE WAS CREATED BY WAR AND CONQUEST, IT PROVIDED THOSE LIVING WITHIN ITS WELL-DEFENDED FRONTIERS WITH PEACE, STABILITY, AND PROSPERITY. BUT INCREASING PRESSURE FROM THE PEOPLES LIVING JUST BEYOND ITS BORDERS WEAKENED IT, BRINGING ABOUT ITS EVENTUAL DOWNFALL.

The emperor Augustus (r.23 BC–AD 14) restored peace to the Roman empire after a long period of civil war, bequeathing to it a strong and efficient system of provincial government. This contributed to the steady growth and stability of the empire over the next 200 years. The authority of the emperors was weakened, but not fatally damaged by, the scandals of Caligula's reign (37–41) and the despotic rule of Nero (54–68). The latter was deposed by an army rebellion, and from then on the army had ultimate control over the choice of emperor. Their preference was often given to a professional soldier rather than a high-born Roman. The empire reached the height of its prosperity during the 2nd century when it had the fortune to be ruled by an unparalleled succession of able and efficient emperors—the Spanish-born Trajan (r.97–117), Hadrian (r.117–38), Antoninus Pius (r.138–61), and Marcus Aurelius (r.161–80).

## A FAR-FLUNG EMPIRE

The vast Roman empire was divided into provinces, each with its own legal administration. It was Roman policy to persuade leading native provincials to take part in local government and loyal service was rewarded with Roman citizenship. Although there was a state religion, many hundreds of gods were worshiped by the different peoples living within the empire; the Romans were ready to tolerate any religion that did not involve human sacrifice. All citizens were expected to observe the official cult of the emperor and make sacrifices to the Roman gods; refusal to do so was seen as a sign of disloyalty. Because Jews and Christians held back, they were often persecuted.



## INFLUENCES FROM THE EAST

During the 1st century AD a number of religious mystery cults from the eastern Mediterranean became hugely popular throughout the Roman empire: there is evidence that they were practiced even in northern Britain by the soldiers garrisoning Hadrian's Wall. One of the earliest was the cult of the wine god Dionysus (Bacchus to the Romans), which involved riotous drinking and dancing. It was officially frowned on as a danger to public order, but its followers met in secret—no doubt that was part of its attraction. The cult of the Egyptian mother

goddess Isis also won many followers. Initiates into its mysteries took part in long fasts during which they received visions of the goddess and were given a foretaste of the delights of the afterlife.

The cult of the Persian sun god Mithras was open only to men. Mithras killed the cosmic bull of creation, symbolizing victory over death and evil. It was very popular with soldiers throughout the empire because it laid great stress on loyalty, self-sacrifice, courage, and strength.

All these cults were overtaken in the 4th century by Christianity, like them a mystical religion that originated in the eastern Mediterranean.

Left A painting from the temple of Isis in Pompeii shows a mythological scene associated with her cult.





All the peoples of the Roman empire were encouraged to adopt Roman styles of living. Whether in Britain, beside the Danube, in Palestine, or North Africa, towns were built on an identical grid pattern with aqueducts for a piped water supply, baths, theaters, and all the other amenities the Romans thought essential for a civilized life. The army also helped to spread the Roman way of life. Provincials could enlist in "auxiliary," or support, regiments. Men serving

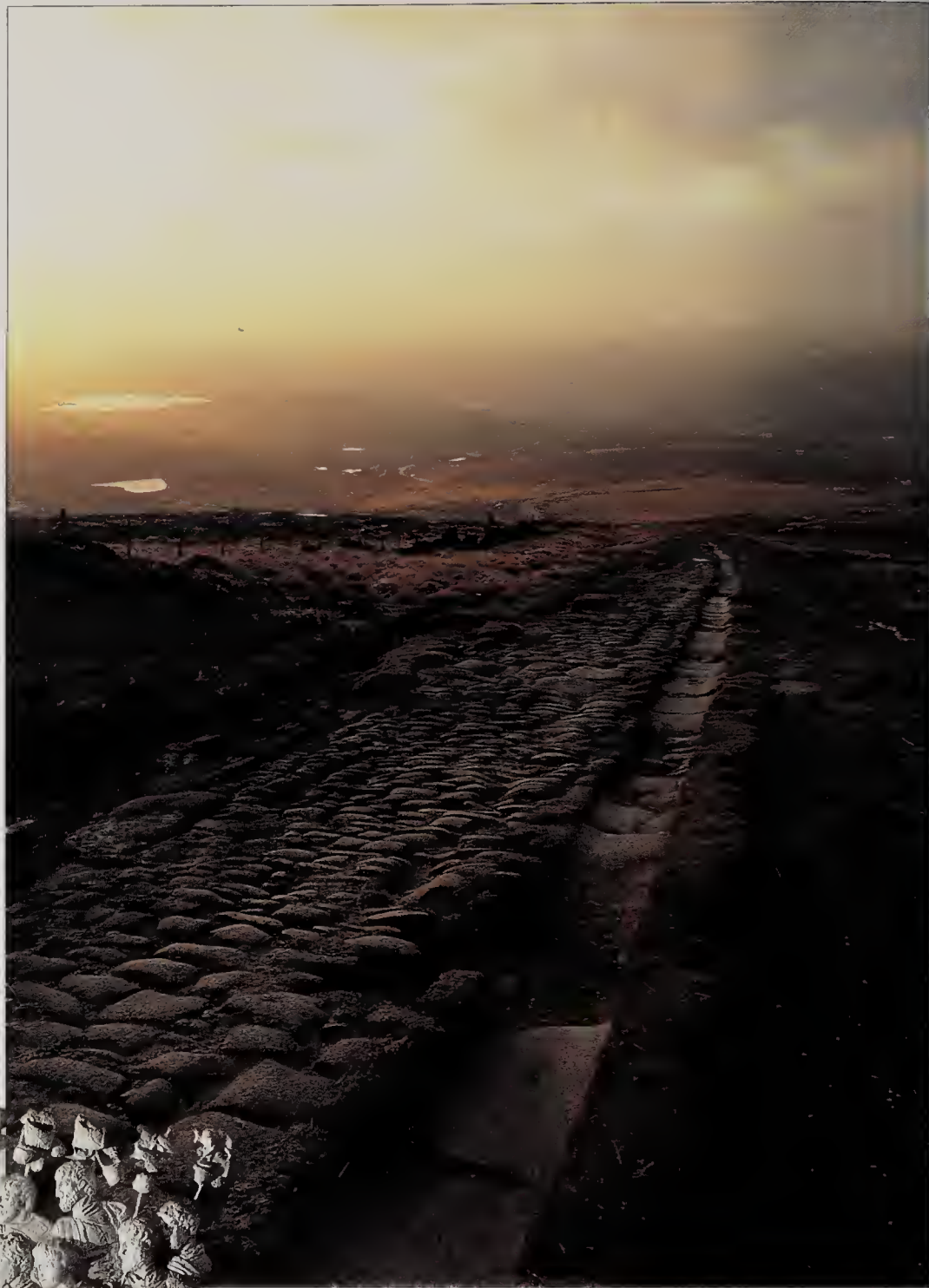
in the army learned Latin, the common language of the Roman empire, and were given Roman citizenship on retirement. In this way, they began to think of themselves not as conquered peoples but as Romans. In AD 212 Roman citizenship was granted to all the empire's free inhabitants. Latin came to replace most local languages in the west (Celtic survived in Britain and Basque in the Pyrenees). The Romance languages (Italian, French, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese, and



Romanian) have all developed from regional Latin dialects. Latin did not make the same inroads in the eastern provinces of the empire; there Greek remained the most widely spoken language.

## ECONOMY & DEFENSE

Within the empire's borders, trade flourished without the threat of war or piracy, and the Roman coinage was the basis of all transactions. The empire was self-sufficient in all essential resources. A large agricultural trade developed to feed its growing cities: Rome, by far the largest city in the empire, imported 400,000 tons of grain annually in large ships from Egypt, Africa, and Sicily. The army consumed more than 100,000 tons of grain each year, while the hides of 54,000 calves were required to make the tents for one legion alone. Rome's network of paved roads, built to move the army quickly from place to place as needed, was the most developed in the ancient world, covering more than 55,000 miles (88,500 km), but road transportation was always slow and expensive and goods usually traveled by sea or river boat. Most people were peasant farmers. Their tools, utensils, pottery vessels, baskets and everyday clothes were made at home or by local craftsmen. But expensive luxuries for the rich, such as spices, silks, perfumes, ivory, and precious



*Above* Roman roads were built to withstand use by troops and heavy wheeled vehicles in every kind of weather.

*Left* Legionaries had to be engineers as well as fighting soldiers. Here an army crosses the river Danube on a bridge of boats.

stones, were imported from as far away as China, India, and East Africa.

The prosperity of the empire began to decline in the 3rd century. Mounting pressure on the empire's frontiers forced it to strengthen its border defenses. To find the money to pay the army, the amount of silver in the coinage was reduced. People began to charge more for all goods, and inflation soared. If an emperor failed to win success and booty on the battlefield, the soldiers following him might easily be led to depose and execute him. Armies serving in different parts of the empire would then elect rival emperors to succeed him. Civil wars



were common. The Germans and Persians were able to invade the empire at will. Of the 26 emperors who ruled between 235 and 284, all but one died violently.

## THE EMPIRE DIVIDES

The empire was saved by Diocletian (r.284–305), who realized that it was too large to be ruled by one man and divided it into eastern and western halves, each with its own emperor. In time, there came to be two capitals: Rome in the west and Constantinople in the east. Diocletian doubled the size of the army. Taxes had to be raised to pay for it, and this created more long-term problems: in many parts of the empire the tax burden forced peasant farmers below subsistence level. There was a fall in manpower numbers, and German mercenaries had to be recruited into the army to fill its ranks.

In 313 Constantine the Great (r.306–37) extended toleration to Christians. Although he only accepted baptism on his deathbed, throughout his reign he ordered churches to be built in many parts of the empire. Christianity came to influence all aspects of Roman life. In 391 the emperor Theodosius (r.379–95) put an end to traditional pagan worship and recognized Christianity as the empire's official religion.



*Left* Born a pagan, Constantine the Great believed that the God of the Christians intervened to give him a decisive victory at the battle of the Milvian Bridge in 312. He issued the Edict of Milan, which freed Christians from the threat of persecution.

In the late 4th century the Huns, mounted nomads from central Asia, migrated into eastern Europe. They caused panic among the Germanic tribes already living there, sending waves of uprooted peoples across Rome's weak defenses. Some received land within the empire in return for military service but proved unreliable allies. The western empire, poorer and less populated than the east, was unable to resist the continuing waves of invasions into Gaul, Spain, and North Africa. Under Attila (r.434–53), "the scourge of God," the Huns, too, ravaged the empire until they were defeated by an army of Romans and Germans at the Catalaunian Plains. It was too late to save the western empire, which had already collapsed by the time the last emperor was deposed in 476. The eastern empire hung on to become the Byzantine empire (see pages 76–79).

## TIMETABLE

- 14  
Augustus is succeeded by his stepson Tiberius (d.37)
- 43  
The emperor Claudius begins the conquest of Britain
- 64  
Nero blames the Christians for a fire that destroys Rome, and orders a mass execution
- 68–69  
Civil war as Rome has four emperors in one year, ending in the accession of Vespasian
- 115–17  
Trajan annexes Armenia and Mesopotamia. The Roman empire is at its greatest extent
- 133  
A defensive stone wall is built across northern Britain on the orders of the emperor Hadrian
- 212  
Roman citizenship is granted to all inhabitants of the empire, regardless of birth
- 235–84  
Civil war, invasions, and economic crisis bring the empire to the brink of collapse
- 286  
The emperor Diocletian divides the empire into western and eastern halves
- 313  
The emperor Constantine grants toleration to Christians
- 324  
Constantine founds Constantinople as a new capital for the empire
- 410  
An army of Visigoths led by Alaric sacks Rome
- 453  
The Huns cease to threaten the empire following the death of Attila
- 455  
Vandal pirates from North Africa attack Rome
- 476  
Romulus Augustulus, the last emperor of the west, is overthrown by Odoacer, a German general

## THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS





# EUROPE IN THE DARK AGES

AFTER THE COLLAPSE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, WESTERN EUROPE ENTERED A LONG PERIOD OF DECLINE, OFTEN CALLED THE "DARK AGES." RECOVERY BEGAN AMONG THE FRANKS. THEIR GREATEST KING, CHARLEMAGNE, CONTROLLED MOST OF WESTERN EUROPE IN THE EARLY 9TH CENTURY, BUT HIS EMPIRE BROKE UP AFTER HIS DEATH. BY THE LATE 10TH CENTURY, POWER HAD PASSED INTO THE HANDS OF THE GERMAN EMPERORS.

With the fall of the Roman empire, western Europe reverted to a simpler pattern of life. Trade declined and towns almost died out, especially in the north. Rule was in the hands of local kings who tried to keep order as best they could, but for most people life was less secure than it had been under the emperors. Instead of a standing army, the new rulers maintained bands of soldiers in their households at their own expense. They had to be ready to do battle at any time, and if successful were rewarded with a share of the plunder. Peasant farmers looked to powerful local lords for protection, surrendering their freedom, ownership of the land they farmed, and part of their annual harvest in return. This was known as serfdom.

## THE CHRISTIAN SURVIVAL

Except within the Christian church, literacy all but disappeared. For administrative purposes the church was organized into dioceses under the rule of a bishop, and in many places this structure survived the end of the Roman empire. Although the city of Rome lay in ruins, it remained important as the seat of the bishop of Rome, the pope, who came to be recognized as the leader of the church in western Europe.

The rulers of the new Germanic kingdoms were nearly all Christian, but they followed a form of the religion, Arianism, that most of their Catholic subjects considered heretical. The Franks were an exception to



*Left* This helmet, found at Sutton Hoo in east England, belonged to a powerful 7th-century king. He was buried inside a ship, and was surrounded by splendid treasures: fine armor, gold ornaments, silverware, and a purse of coins. Some were of Anglo-Saxon workmanship, others from as far away as Byzantium.

this. They had settled in an area approximating to modern Belgium, and did not become Christian until Clovis (r.481–511) was baptized about 503 as a Catholic. This made him more acceptable to his new subjects, and he was able to expand the boundaries of his kingdom southward, overcoming the Germanic leaders already settled there. By 600 the kingdom of the Franks was the strongest power in western Europe.

The peoples of north Europe, living outside the former limits of the empire, were still pagan. Angles, Jutes, and Saxons from Denmark and north Germany migrated to Britain in the 5th century and settled wherever there was good land for farming; the native Celts were confined to mountainous parts of the north and west. The Anglo-Saxons, as they are known, were converted to Christianity in the 7th century by missionaries who were sent from Rome by Pope Gregory the Great and by Celtic monks from Ireland, which had been Christian since the 5th century.



In 711 a new threat appeared in Europe when a Muslim army of Arabs and Berbers from North Africa invaded Spain and easily conquered the Visigothic kingdom. Except for the small Christian kingdom of Asturias in the northern mountains, the Iberian peninsula became absorbed into the Umayyad caliphate (see pages 80–83).



c.AD 500–1000



Above Kings and warlords maintained bands of warriors to fight for them. It was from these household soldiers that the knights of medieval Europe developed. This stone carving, made at the end of the 7th century, comes from Germany.





## THE LIFE OF THE MONASTERIES

**M**onasteries—houses where monks (or nuns) lived secluded lives dedicated to prayer—formed scattered centers of learning and culture in Dark Age Europe. In the west, monastic life was governed by the Rule of St. Benedict (c.480–547), a nobleman who had chosen a life of religious austerity and founded a monastery for like-minded companions at Monte Cassino in Italy. His rule divided the monk's day into periods for physical work, study, and prayer. Monks had to be obedient to the abbot, could own nothing, and could not marry. Rulers supported monasteries because they believed the monks' prayers would benefit their kingdoms. Most monasteries had schools attached to them where monks were trained to copy the Gospels and other books. These were beautifully decorated and illustrated, and given covers of gold encrusted with jewels.

By the 10th century monastic life had become lax. An abbey founded at Cluny in France in 910 introduced a return to strict observance of the Benedictine Rule. Reform spread to other monasteries and helped to bring about a revival in Christian enthusiasm in the next century.

*Left* A decorated page from the Book of Kells, a lavish 9th-century Gospel Book.

## CHARLES THE GREAT

**T**he most successful of the Frankish kings was Charlemagne (r.768–814); his name means simply “Charles the Great.” He halted the Muslim advance in Spain and, in 30 years of unbroken campaigning, he all but doubled the size of the Frankish kingdom. Charlemagne believed he had restored the “golden age” of the Roman empire and was crowned emperor in Rome by the pope on Christmas Day 800.

Charlemagne was a devout Christian. He believed that God would hold him personally responsible for his subjects' behavior, and passed laws to ensure that people lived a Christian life. He encouraged attempts to

improve the quality of the clergy and personally sponsored a revival of monastic learning. We owe much of our knowledge of classical Roman literature to the copying of their works by Frankish monks. Charlemagne also sent missionaries to north Germany to convert the pagan Saxons.

## THE VIKINGS

**C**harlemagne's reign saw a recovery of economic activity in western Europe, and with it a revival of seaborne trade. During the 790s Viking pirate ships from Denmark and Norway were seen along the Frankish and British coasts, creating terror wherever



*Above* A portrait of Charlemagne sitting at God's right hand, from a medieval French medallion.





*Left* This head of a fierce Viking warrior decorates a wagon from a royal burial. The Vikings were not only raiders; they were also farmers and merchants. Craftsmen fashioned intricate patterns in wood and metal. At feasts, skalds (court poets) were famed for their skill at rhyming and storytelling.

they landed. Rich, undefended monasteries were the targets for their raids. Their attacks increased in the 830s during the civil wars that followed Charlemagne's death. Their fast longships gave them terrifying mobility. By the time an army had been raised against them, they had moved on to their next raid.

Late in the 9th century Vikings began to settle in Britain, Ireland, and northwestern France. Sailing farther west than any before, they colonized the Faroe Islands, Iceland, and Greenland, and even reached North America around 1000, but did not found a permanent settlement there. Vikings from Sweden pioneered trade routes down the rivers of eastern Europe to reach the Black Sea and Constantinople. Known as "Rus," they founded the ruling dynasty of Kiev, the origin of the medieval Russian state.

In England, Wessex under its king Alfred the Great (r.871–99) halted the advance of the Viking armies. His successors expelled them by 954. In so doing, they united all of England under one crown. The Frankish empire did not recover its former strength. Disunity continued among its rulers, and in 889 it broke up for good, with France and Germany emerging as the largest kingdoms.

Europe now faced new invasions from the Magyars (Hungarians), mounted nomadic warriors from central Europe. Their raids caused great damage in the east until they were halted by the German king Otto I (r.936–73) at the battle of Lechfeld in 955. In 961 Otto annexed northern Italy. He was by now the most powerful ruler in Europe. The following year he was crowned emperor, to found the Holy Roman empire.



## TIMETABLE

503

Clovis, king of the Franks, is converted to Christianity

596–97

Pope Gregory I sends a mission to convert the Anglo-Saxons

711–13

Muslims from North Africa invade and conquer the Visigothic kingdom of Spain

732

The Franks defeat a Muslim invasion at Poitiers in France

793

Viking raiders sack the monastery of Lindisfarne in Northumbria in Britain

800

Charlemagne is crowned emperor on Christmas Day

843

Charlemagne's successors divide his empire in three at the Treaty of Verdun

856–57

A Viking army sacks Paris, France

882

Kiev becomes the capital of the first Russian state

889

Final break up of Charlemagne's empire following the death of Charles the Fat

911

An abbey founded at Cluny, France, spearheads reform of the church

911

Vikings are allowed to settle in Normandy, northern France

927

Athelstan, king of Wessex, unites the Anglo-Saxons to create the kingdom of England

955

Otto I, king of Germany, defeats the Magyars at Lechfeld

987

Hugh Capet becomes king of the Franks. His dynasty rules France until 1598

c.1000

Vikings from Greenland establish a shortlived settlement in Newfoundland



# THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE

WITH ITS CAPITAL AT CONSTANTINOPLE, THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE WAS THE DIRECT DESCENDENT OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE EAST. IN THE 5TH CENTURY ITS LANDS INCLUDED GREECE, ANATOLIA, SYRIA, PALESTINE, AND EGYPT. THE EMPIRE SURVIVED FOR MORE THAN A THOUSAND YEARS AFTER THE FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE, ONLY COLLAPSING WHEN CONSTANTINOPLE WAS CAPTURED BY THE TURKS IN 1453.

In 324 Constantine the Great (r.306–37) chose Byzantium, a Greek port on the western shore of the Bosphorus, the narrow strait between Turkey and Europe, as the site for a new capital in the east, which he renamed Constantinople. Trade flourished as a result of its excellent communications by sea with the Mediterranean and Black Sea, and the city grew fast. It was surrounded on three sides by the sea and was strongly defended on its landward side by a fortified wall built in the 5th century.

*Below* The great domed cathedral of St. Sophia in Constantinople was built by Justinian in the 6th century; it is now a mosque. The patriarch of Constantinople was leader of the eastern Orthodox church as the pope was of the western Catholic church.



The eastern empire, which was wealthier and more populated than the west, had greater resources to resist the impact of the Germanic invasions (see page 71). Justinian (r.527–65) even managed to recapture lost land in North Africa, Italy, and southern Spain. At the end of the 6th century attacks from the Slavs and Avars, who lived north of the Danube, weakened the empire. In the east, the Sasanian Persians overran Syria, Palestine, and Egypt before being defeated in 627 by the emperor Heraclius (r.610–41). He saved the empire from collapse and introduced much-needed reforms.





## A GREEK EMPIRE

Heracius's reign is usually taken to mark the beginning of the Byzantine empire. As most people in the east were Greek speakers, he replaced Latin with Greek as the official language of government. However, the Byzantine emperors continued to call themselves Roman. Heracius's most important reform was to introduce a system of military recruitment districts called *themes*. Soldiers were settled on land as free peasant farmers, growing their own food and paying taxes to the state. In wartime, the soldiers of

each *theme* formed a single military unit. The system greatly improved the empire's defenses by providing a reliable supply of soldiers who could be swiftly mobilized.

In 633, before it had had time to recover from the recent war with Persia, the Byzantine empire was attacked by a new enemy, the Muslim Arabs (see pages 80–83). They overran Syria and after a decisive victory at the Yarmuk River (636) went on to conquer Palestine, Egypt, and much of North Africa. A little while later, around 679, the Bulgars crossed the Danube to establish an independent state in Byzantine territory, from

which the modern state of Bulgaria gets its name. As a result of Heracius's reforms, the empire was able to survive and rebuild its military strength, in spite of these territorial losses. In 1014 Basil II "the Bulgar-slayer" (r.976–1025) defeated the Bulgars at Balatista, pushing the frontier back to the river Danube. Byzantium was now the greatest power in the Middle East and Europe.

In the course of the 11th century Seljuk Turks from central Asia conquered much of the Arab empire and were converted to Islam. In 1071 they invaded the Byzantine empire. The welfare of the army had been





*Left Icons (painted images of saints) were objects of prayer and contemplation. In every Orthodox church, they were fixed to the screen that divided the people from the clergy in the sanctuary. Spiritual serenity was suggested by the stylized postures of the figures. The Virgin in this icon gazes out at the viewer with an expression of watchful calm.*

*Below left Saladin, the most feared of Muslim warriors, and King Richard the Lionheart of England, a leader of the Third Crusade, meet in battle; an encounter fancifully recreated here by an English artist.*

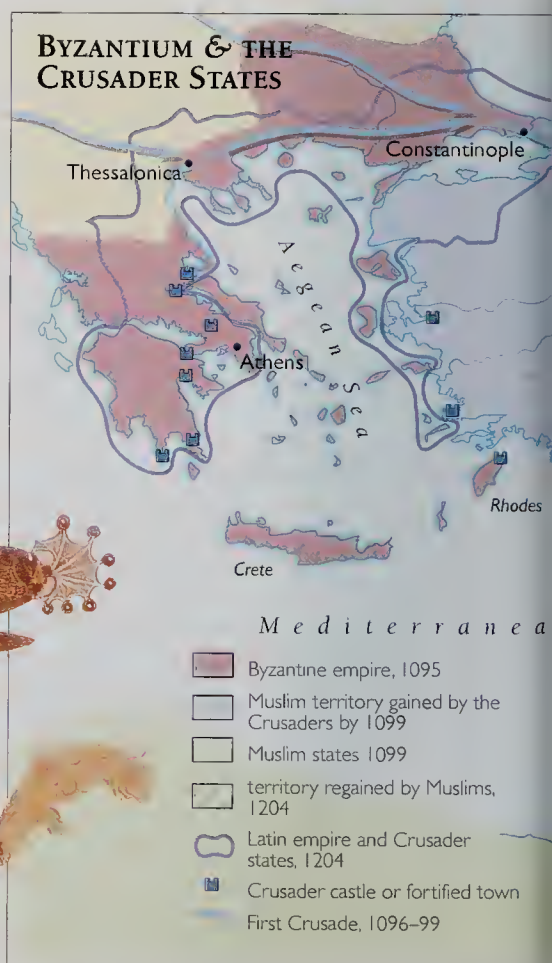
neglected by Basil's successors, and the Byzantines were crushingly defeated at the battle of Manzikert. The Seljuk occupation of Anatolia was a crippling blow, as this was the most populated part of the empire, providing most soldiers. Byzantium's days as a great power were ended. In the aftermath of the disaster, the emperor Alexius I Comnenus (r.1081–1118) appealed to the west for help in recovering his lost lands. Pope Urban II responded by calling faithful Christians in the west to join a crusade to free the Holy Land from Muslim control.

## THE CRUSADES

In many ways, Urban's action was a surprising one. For centuries, the Catholic and Orthodox churches had been drifting apart. Distrust had hardened into outright hostility as the two competed for influence in eastern Europe: missionaries from Constantinople converted the Balkan Slavs, Bulgars, and Russians to the Orthodox faith, while Hungary and Poland became Catholic. In 1054 the breach became permanent after the pope and the patriarch had mutually

excommunicated each other. The Byzantine emperors saw themselves as the legitimate rulers of the territories of the former western Roman empire. Southern Italy and Sicily remained within the Byzantine sphere of influence, but it was here that landless Norman adventurers established an independent kingdom in the late 11th century.

Urban's calling of the First Crusade met a mood of spiritual fervor in the western church (see page 86). Thousands of knights made the long journey to the Holy Land, and in 1099 Jerusalem was captured by a Crusader army. Relations between Byzantium and the west worsened as a result of the Crusades. After making some gains in Anatolia, the Byzantines would not follow the crusading army to Palestine. This was seen in the west as a sign of their lack of religious zeal: many Crusaders believed their Greek allies were not truly Christian at all. They refused to hand back to the Byzantines the territory they gained in Syria and Palestine from the Seljuks, but established independent states of their own. The Italian ports of Genoa and Venice, benefiting from the increased traffic with the crusading kingdoms, took over control of Mediterranean trade from the Byzantines.







## RUSSIA CONVERTS

Vladimir, prince of Kiev, was a pagan descended from the Vikings who founded the first political state in Russia. Both the Byzantines and Germans, who wanted to win converts among the Slavs of eastern Europe, tried to bring him over to their side. In 988 the emperor Basil II offered Vladimir his sister Anna in marriage on condition that he was baptized into the Orthodox faith. Vladimir agreed, and ordered all the idols in Kiev and Novgorod to be thrown into the river Dnieper. A later chronicle shows a picture of his baptism.

Further Crusades were made to defend the Holy Land against Muslim attacks. Much territory, including Jerusalem itself, was lost after a defeat at Hattin in 1187. In 1204 the Fourth Crusade was held up in Constantinople while it sought funds for a new campaign in the east. When these were withheld, the Crusaders sacked the city and created a Latin empire in Greece and the Balkans. The Byzantines were unable to

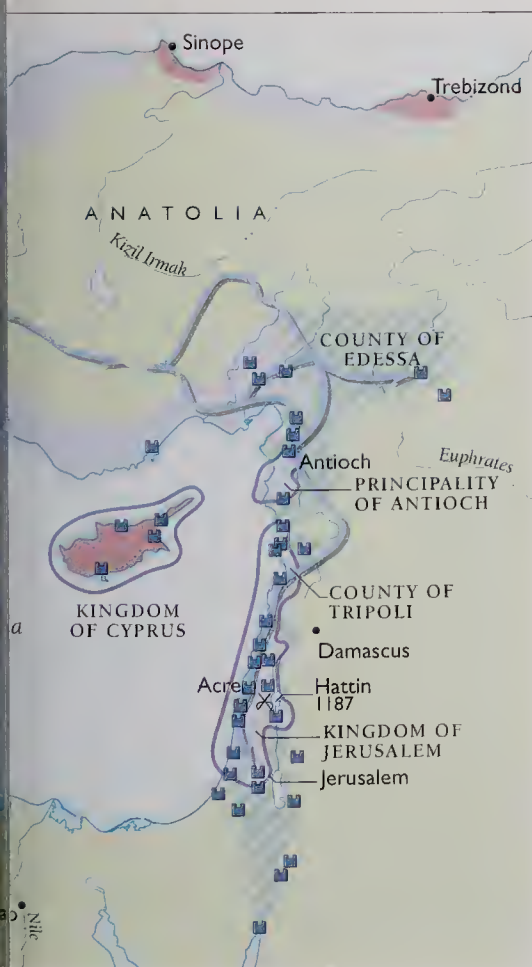
regain their capital and empire until 1261. Thirty years later the Turks destroyed the last of the Crusader states in Palestine.

Weakened by civil wars, the Byzantine empire never recovered. The Turks seized control of Anatolia in the 14th century and gradually reduced the empire to no more than a small area around Constantinople. In 1453 they took the city, marking the end of the Roman empire in the east.

## THE BYZANTINE LEGACY

Despite its slow and painful collapse, the legacy of the Byzantine empire was a splendid one. While western Europe had fallen into intellectual and cultural decline, it preserved the cultural traditions of late Roman times. Art, music, literature, and architecture flourished. The mosaics that decorated its churches were especially noted for their brilliant colors. One account says that Vladimir of Kiev (see box) decided to embrace the Orthodox faith after his ambassador declared that no other religion could match the cathedral of St. Sophia for beauty.

The influence of Byzantine culture was spread more widely by the Greek missionaries who converted the Slavs. The Cyrillic alphabet devised by the brothers Saint Cyril and Saint Methodius is the basis of the Russian and other Slavic alphabets. After Constantinople fell, the Russian prince Ivan III (r. 1462–1505) believed that his capital, Moscow, would carry on the traditions of the Roman empire. As a sign of this he adopted the double-headed eagle in 1472.



## TIMETABLE

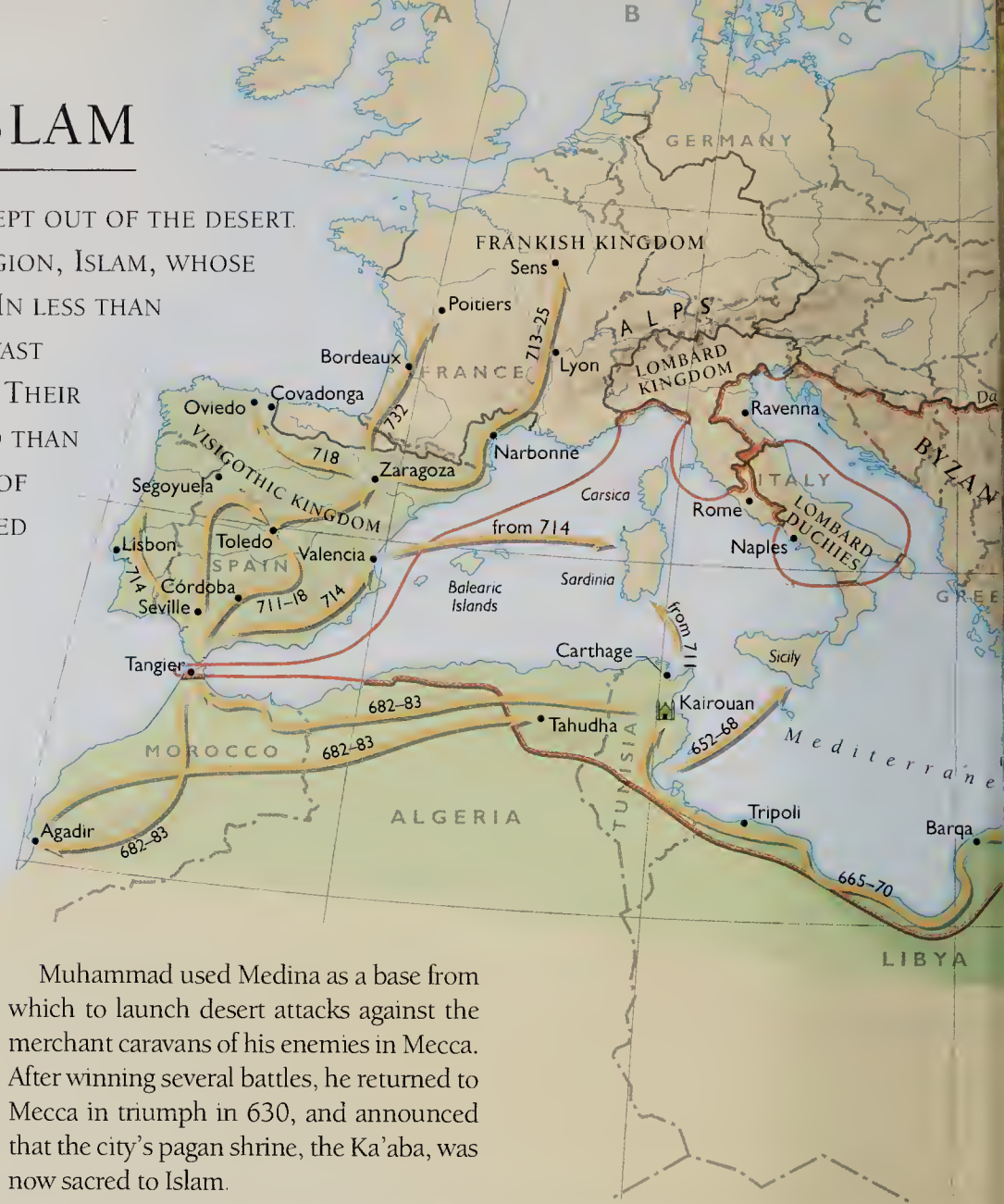
324	Constantinople is founded as Rome's capital in the east
610–41	The emperor Heraclius reforms the eastern Roman empire, so creating the Byzantine empire
635–98	The Arabs conquer the Byzantine empire in Syria, Palestine, Egypt and North Africa
716–17	An Arab army lays siege to Constantinople but is defeated
860	Swedish Vikings ("Rus") attack Constantinople from the Black Sea and are driven off
863	Saints Cyril and Methodius begin converting the Slavs
903	Monasteries are built on Mount Athos, Greece, the center of Orthodox monasticism
988	Orthodox Christianity is adopted by the rulers of Kievan Russia
1018	Emperor Basil II conquers the Bulgars
1054	The pope excommunicates the patriarch of Constantinople
1071	The Seljuk Turks defeat the Byzantine army at Manzikert and occupy Anatolia
1180	In the Balkans, Serbia breaks away from Byzantine control
1204	The Crusaders sack Constantinople and set up a Latin kingdom in the Balkans and Greece
1261	Constantinople is recaptured by the Byzantines
1453	After a long siege, Constantinople falls to the Ottoman ruler, Sultan Mehmet II



# THE RISE OF ISLAM

IN THE 7TH CENTURY ARAB ARMIES SWEEPED OUT OF THE DESERT. THEY CARRIED WITH THEM A NEW RELIGION, ISLAM, WHOSE FOLLOWERS ARE KNOWN AS MUSLIMS. IN LESS THAN A CENTURY THE ARABS CONQUERED A VAST EMPIRE FROM SPAIN TO CENTRAL ASIA. THEIR CIVILIZATION WAS MORE SOPHISTICATED THAN THAT OF WESTERN EUROPE. CONTROL OF MUCH OF THE ARAB EMPIRE LATER PASSED INTO THE HANDS OF THE TURKS, WHO WERE CONVERTS TO ISLAM.

Islam (which means "submission to the will of God") was founded by the Prophet Muhammad (c.570–632). He was a merchant from the city of Mecca in Arabia. As a result of a vision he experienced in a cave in the mountains outside Mecca, he began to preach that there was only one God and that he was His messenger. At this time the Arabs worshiped many gods, and Mecca was an important cult center. The people of Mecca feared that this new religion would lessen their city's wealth and prestige. They turned against Muhammad, and in 622 forced him to flee with a band of followers to the city of Medina.



Muhammad used Medina as a base from which to launch desert attacks against the merchant caravans of his enemies in Mecca. After winning several battles, he returned to Mecca in triumph in 630, and announced that the city's pagan shrine, the Ka'aba, was now sacred to Islam.

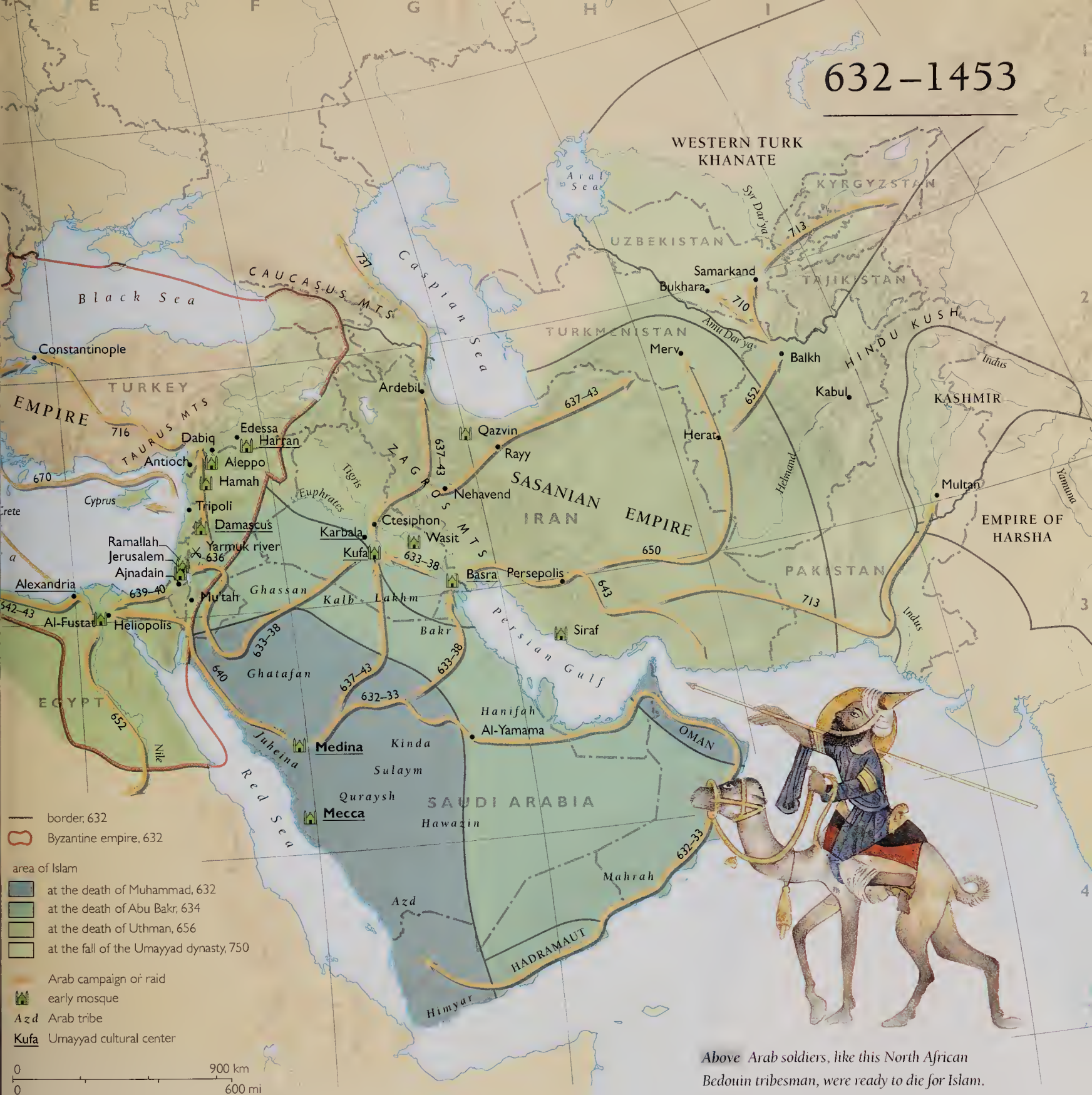
## THE WORD OF GOD

Muhammad's teachings are contained in the Koran, the holy book of Islam. He taught that Muslims have five basic duties: to know that there is only one God and that Muhammad is His prophet; to pray five times a day facing Mecca; to give alms to the poor; to observe the fast of Ramadan; to make the pilgrimage to Mecca once in their lifetime if able to afford it and physically capable of making the journey. Because it was the word of God, the Koran could only be written in Arabic script. Muslim artists could not depict themes from nature, so they put their creative energies into forming beautiful calligraphy (writing) and intricate patterns as an expression of devotion.

Right A decorated page from the Koran.







Above Arab soldiers, like this North African Bedouin tribesman, were ready to die for Islam.

## THE ARAB CONQUESTS

Muhammad had no male heirs to carry on his work. His followers chose his father-in-law Abu Bakr (r.633–44) to be his first successor, or caliph. He completed the task of converting the Arab tribes. War was traditionally extremely important to the Arabs as it gave individuals the chance to win prestige and wealth. But Muhammad had united the Arabs behind the common cause of

Islam, and put an end to intertribal conflicts. He taught that it was every man's sacred duty to fight in the *jihad* ("holy war") and that anyone who died in the service of Islam would immediately enter paradise. As a united people, the Arabs were able to put far larger armies into the field than they had ever done before. During the reigns of the next two caliphs, Umar (634–44) and Uthman (644–56), they began to expand northward. Their raids were so successful

Muhammad was a political as well as a religious leader. His ambition was that all Muslims should live within a single community or state (*ummah*), ruled by the laws of Islam. He made Medina the center of this community. During the last two years of his life he converted many of the other tribes of Arabia to Islam. One reason for Islam's success is that Muhammad's teachings, contained in the "five pillars" of Islam, are simple and easily understood (see box).



that they were encouraged to attempt to conquer new lands and peoples.

The Persian and Byzantine empires were taken completely by surprise by the huge, well-organized Arab forces that poured out of the desert in the 630s. They had just ended a damaging 20-year war with each other (see page 77), and did not have the resources or might to resist such a strong enemy. Palestine, Egypt, Libya, Syria, and all of Persia were conquered in only 20 years. During the late 7th century expansion continued into the rest of North Africa



*Right* Islamic science was well in advance of the west. One astronomer is using dividers, another a sextant, while two more examine an astrolabe, used to calculate the positions of the planets and the stars.

*Left* At the center of every Islamic community was the mosque where prayer was held on Fridays. The mosque also served as a school and public meeting place. Islamic rulers showed their devotion by spending great sums on elaborate mosques. This, in Isfahan, was begun by the Seljuk Malik Shah c.1085.



(670–98) and Spain (711–18), and as far as the Indus river and into Central Asia. Defeat by the Byzantines at the gates of Constantinople in 716–17 and by the Franks at Poitiers in 732 halted the Arabs' advance into Europe.

Internal divisions within the Byzantine empire aided the Arabs' success. The Orthodox church was the official religion of the empire, but most people in Syria, Palestine, and Egypt were Monophysite Christians: they did not believe that Christ was true man as well as true God. They were frequently persecuted for their beliefs and, as a result, welcomed the Arabs as liberators. Similarly, the Visigothic kings of Spain were Arian Christians while their subjects were Catholic (see page 72). This created a wide gulf between them and people felt little loyalty to the ruling class. Islamic rule met with hardly any resistance once the monarchy had been toppled.

It was not long before conflicts began to appear within the community of Islam. Discontent with the caliph Uthman led to his assassination and he was succeeded by Muawiya (r.661–80). On his death, many

believed that Husain, Muhammad's grandson, had a better claim to the caliphate than Yashid, Muawiya's son (r.680–83). This led to a civil war, in which Husain was killed. His followers regarded him as a martyr and broke away from the main body of Islam, who became known as Sunnites, to form the smaller Shiite branch. Today, this division still exists within Islam.

## ISLAMIC CULTURE

Muawiya founded the Umayyad dynasty of hereditary caliphs. They modeled the government of their vast empire on the Byzantine system, and the capital was transferred from Medina to Damascus in Syria, nearer to its center. The populations ruled by the Arabs were not forced to convert to Islam, but tax and social advantages encouraged them to do so. The Arabic religion, language, and culture soon became widespread. But the Arabs in their turn were heavily influenced by the civilizations they conquered. From desert dwellers, they became highly urbanized and sophisticated. Literary styles, decorative arts, music and





## END OF THE CALIPHATE

The conflict between Sunnites and Shiites gradually undermined the authority of the Umayyads. In 750 they were overthrown by the Abbasid dynasty, who ruled over the Islamic empire from Baghdad. Every member of the Umayyad family was massacred, with the exception of one, Abd al-Rahman I (r. 756–88). He escaped to Spain, where he established an independent state, or emirate, with its capital at Córdoba. Under his successors it was made a caliphate, claiming authority over North Africa.

The ideal of a single Muslim community under one caliph had been broken for all time. The authority of the Abbasid caliphs gradually withered away as province after province rebelled against them. By 1000 they were purely religious leaders who did not even control Baghdad. Political power lay in the hands of the Seljuk Turks, a people from Central Asia who had converted to Islam and entered the Abbasids' service as mercenary soldiers. By the end of the 11th century they had seized control of much of the Arab empire and conquered Anatolia from the Byzantines (see page 78).

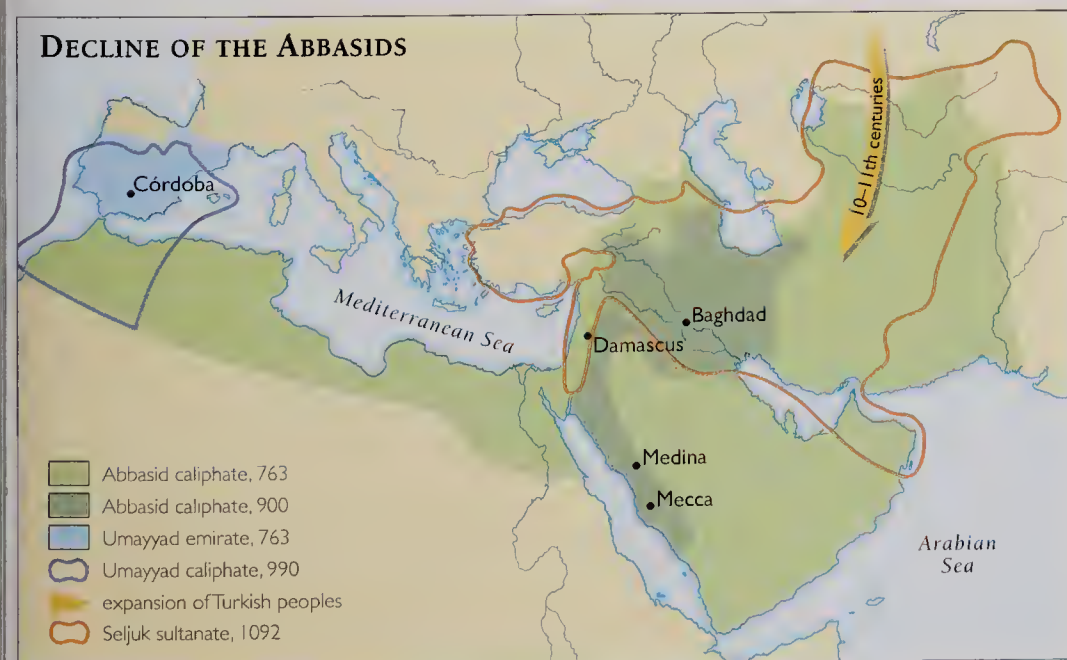
Trade and war continued the spread of Islam. By 1000 it had reached west Africa. During the 12th and 13th centuries Muslims from Afghanistan overran much of the Indian subcontinent. By the 15th century Islam had begun to spread into Southeast Asia. In the west, the Ottoman Turks had expanded into southeast Europe and were poised to destroy the Byzantine empire.

gardening were learned from the Persians. Byzantine and Persian architecture influenced building styles. Literacy and learning were greatly valued at a time when they had almost disappeared from Europe, and Arab scholars preserved and added to the geographic, mathematical, medical, and scientific knowledge of the ancient world.

## TIMETABLE

- 622  
Muhammad flees from Mecca to Medina.  
Known as the *hijra* ("emigration"), it  
marks the first year of the Muslim  
calendar
- 632  
Following Muhammad's death, Abu Bakr  
becomes the first caliph, or successor
- 635–38  
An Arab army defeats the Byzantines at  
the Yarmuk river (modern Jordan) and  
conquers Syria and Palestine
- 637–42  
The Arabs overrun the Persian empire
- 656  
The standardized text of the Koran  
is completed
- 698  
Carthage, the last Byzantine possession  
in North Africa, falls to the Arabs
- 711  
A Muslim army invades Spain
- 750  
The Umayyad caliphate is overthrown by  
the Abbasids
- 786–809  
Abbasid power is at its peak under caliph  
Harun al-Rashid of Baghdad
- c.970  
The Seljuk Turks of central Asia convert  
to Islam
- 1055  
The Seljuks seize power in Baghdad
- 1175–1200  
Northern India is conquered by Muslims  
from northwest Afghanistan
- 1258  
A Mongol army destroys Baghdad and  
executes the last Abbasid caliph
- 1389  
An Ottoman army crushes the Serbs at  
Kosovo in the Balkans
- 1453  
The Ottomans take Constantinople to  
complete their conquest of the  
Byzantine empire

### DECLINE OF THE ABBASIDS





# MEDIEVAL EUROPE

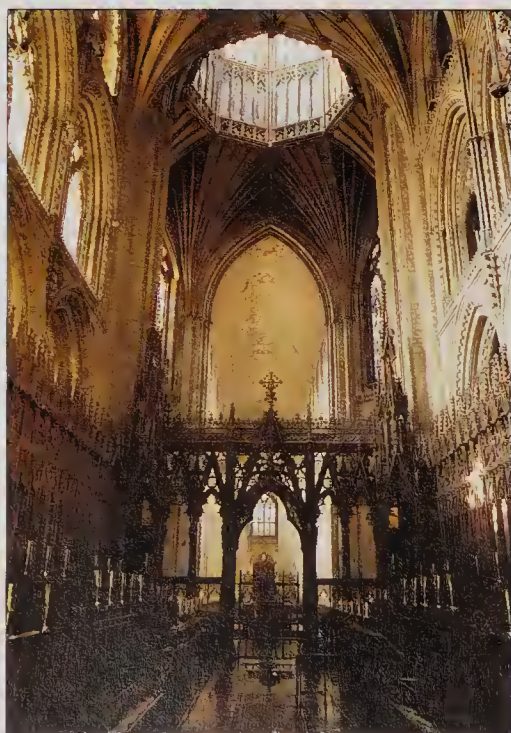
AS THE UNCERTAINTIES OF THE DARK AGES DISAPPEARED, STABILITY AND PROSPERITY RETURNED TO WESTERN EUROPE. FEUDALISM GAVE MEDIEVAL RULERS NEW SOURCES OF AUTHORITY, AND STRONG KINGDOMS AND DUCHIES BEGAN TO EMERGE. AS PEOPLE FOUND RENEWED CONFIDENCE AND OPTIMISM, RELIGION AND INTELLECTUAL LIFE FLOURISHED. THROUGHOUT EUROPE, THE POPULATION BEGAN TO RISE, TRADE REVIVED, AND TOWNS GREW RAPIDLY.



*Left The duke of Austria does homage to his feudal lord, the Holy Roman emperor.*

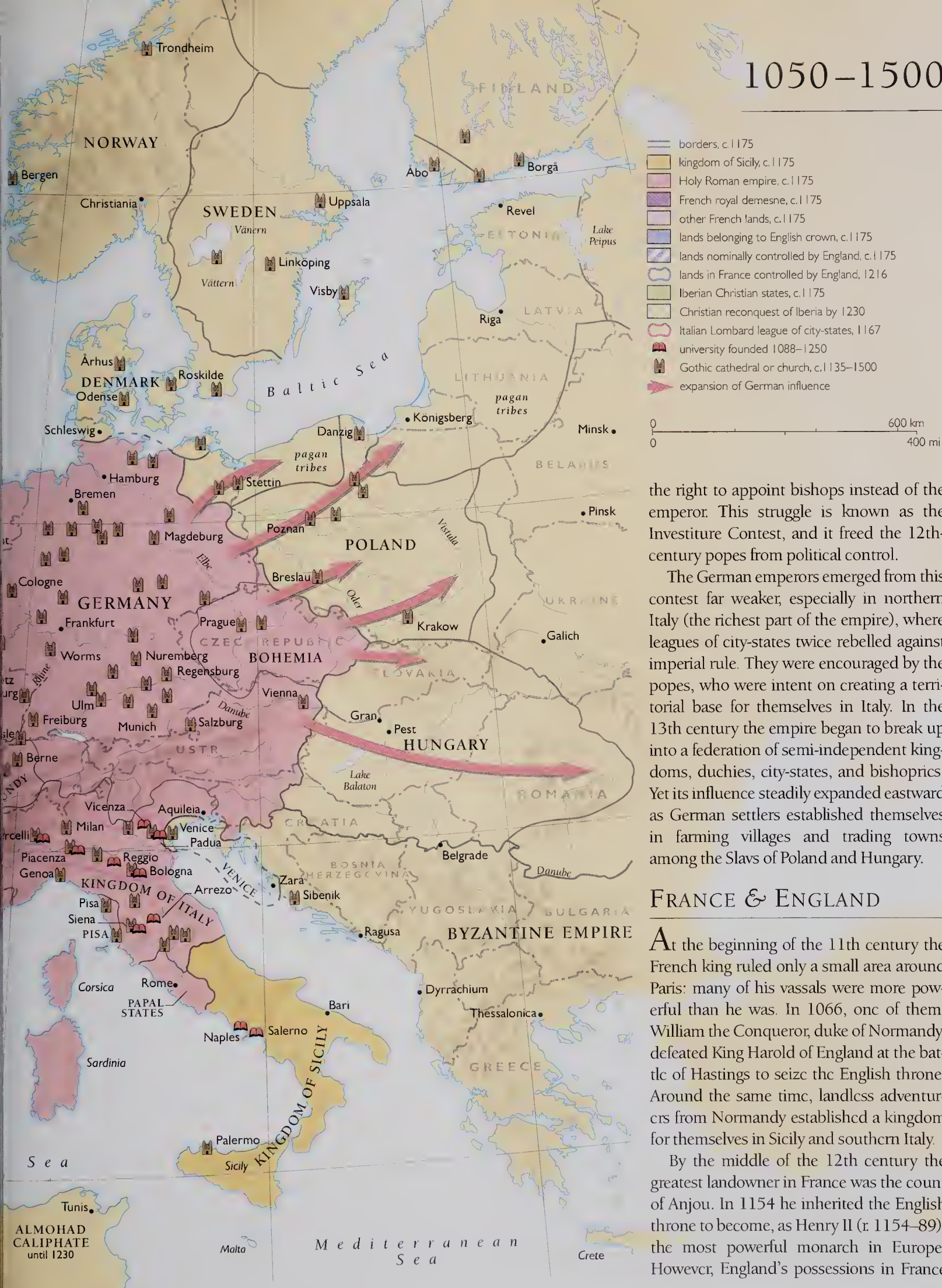
In medieval Europe, most kings were feudal monarchs: they held power by granting lands, known as fiefs, to their nobles. In return, the nobles became the king's vassals by swearing an oath of loyalty. This obliged them to fight for the king when needed, either in person or by supplying armies of knights—mounted soldiers—at their own expense. Nobles in their turn rewarded their followers with small grants of land. Relations between kings, nobles, and knights were governed by a common code of chivalry, based on honor and bravery. The chivalric code also included courtesy to women and a willingness to defend the Christian religion.

Kings often had difficulty controlling their most powerful vassals. This particularly affected the German rulers of the Holy Roman empire. Great families such as the Welfs of Bavaria possessed vast estates and were able to ignore the emperor's wishes when it suited them. The emperors tried to counter the power of the dukes by seeking the support of the bishops, who also held large estates in Germany. However, during the 11th century a reform movement in the church (at first encouraged and led by the German emperors) made the popes in Rome more powerful than before. They demanded, and won,



*Left Medieval abbeys and cathedrals soared upward to heaven. Colored light poured into their lofty interiors through stained-glass windows. The Gothic style of architecture, which originated in France, spread through Europe in the 12th and 13th centuries, a witness to the spiritual energy of the age.*





the right to appoint bishops instead of the emperor. This struggle is known as the Investiture Contest, and it freed the 12th-century popes from political control.

The German emperors emerged from this contest far weaker, especially in northern Italy (the richest part of the empire), where leagues of city-states twice rebelled against imperial rule. They were encouraged by the popes, who were intent on creating a territorial base for themselves in Italy. In the 13th century the empire began to break up into a federation of semi-independent kingdoms, duchies, city-states, and bishoprics. Yet its influence steadily expanded eastward as German settlers established themselves in farming villages and trading towns among the Slavs of Poland and Hungary.

## FRANCE & ENGLAND

At the beginning of the 11th century the French king ruled only a small area around Paris: many of his vassals were more powerful than he was. In 1066, one of them, William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy, defeated King Harold of England at the battle of Hastings to seize the English throne. Around the same time, landless adventurers from Normandy established a kingdom for themselves in Sicily and southern Italy.

By the middle of the 12th century the greatest landowner in France was the count of Anjou. In 1154 he inherited the English throne to become, as Henry II (r. 1154–89), the most powerful monarch in Europe. However, England's possessions in France



*Below* In medieval Europe, the land was mostly farmed by serfs, bound laborers who worked a strip of land on a manor (estate). They paid part of their annual harvest to the lord of the manor as rent; another part went to the church. The lord protected them in war, and acted as a judge in disputes with their neighbors. Conditions were hard, but peasant living standards were rising steadily. The introduction of better plows and a threefold system of crop rotation meant that more food was grown, which they could sell at local markets.

had been lost by 1214, and the defeat of the Holy Roman emperor shortly after at the battle of Bouvines confirmed France as the major power in Europe. English kings never abandoned hope of regaining their French possessions. Meantime, the French kings steadily extended their authority over their vassals in southern and eastern France.

Ireland was invaded by the English in the 12th century, but was not strongly held at this time. Wales was overrun in the 13th century, and Scotland was also invaded. However, under William Wallace (c.1274–1305) and Robert Bruce (r.1306–129), the Scots won back their independence.

## THE AGE OF CRUSADES

In 1096, Pope Urban II appealed to western Christians to recapture the Holy Land from the Muslims (see page 78). The crusades were an outlet for the popular religious enthusiasm of the time, but were also



## THE SPREAD OF THE BLACK DEATH

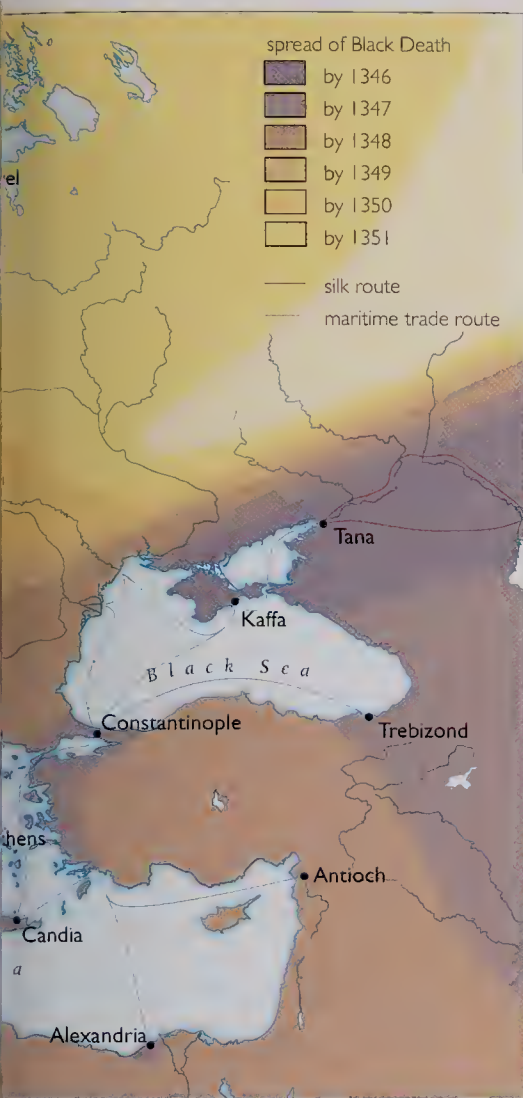


*Left* Hasty burials were an everyday occurrence while the Black Death raged through Europe. The plague was carried by the fleas that live on rats. The earliest outbreaks occurred in east Asia in the 1330s and it spread along the Silk Route to reach the Black Sea port of Kaffa in late 1346. Ships' rats carried it to the ports of Venice, Genoa, and Marseille, and from there it spread rapidly along the main trade routes. Victims suffered terrible swellings and internal bleeding, which turned their skins black.

seen as a chance to win fortune and prestige. The same motives inspired the campaigns against the Muslims in Spain, which led to the gradual reconquest of the Iberian peninsula and the setting up of Christian kingdoms such as Aragon, Castile, and Portugal. The French king and his northern nobles promoted the Albigensian crusade against heretics in the south of France to extend their authority into the region. The Teutonic Knights, a German and Danish crusading order, were active in converting the Slavs and Balts of the eastern Baltic, the last stronghold of paganism in Europe, while creating a trading power base there.

Throughout Europe, rising commerce and trade led to a growth in towns. An important boost to urban prosperity was the right to hold weekly or seasonal fairs. Cathedrals were built as monuments to God and





There was widespread depopulation. In many places labor became so scarce that wages rose and serfs were able to abandon their manors to find paid work, or became tenant farmers. But because there was nobody to sell goods or produce to, prices fell. Landowners therefore limited wages and imposed harsher conditions on their tenants. Popular uprisings such as the English Peasants' Revolt (1381) were the result. Churchmen, who were considered corrupt and greedy, were prime targets for attack. Heretical movements gained support. They were put down, but the church failed to introduce reforms, storing up future trouble.

## THE RENAISSANCE

The independent city-states of northern Italy, such as Florence and Milan, were the richest areas of Europe at this time. Their wealth came from international trade and banking. It was here that the cultural movement known as the Renaissance (meaning "rebirth") began to emerge in the mid 14th century as interest revived in the literature, art, architecture, and science of the ancient Greek and Roman world.

The rulers of the Italian city states competed with each other to employ the leading artists, architects, and musicians of the day. In the 15th century the patronage of the powerful Medici family of bankers made Florence pre-eminent. The new technique of printing, which was developed in Germany in the 1450s, made books more readily available and by the end of the century the new learning and artistic styles of the Renaissance were beginning to spread outside Italy to the rest of Europe.

civic pride. Cathedral schools and universities grew up as centers of learning.

Despite the growth of towns, about 95% of medieval Europeans were farmers. Most peasants were serfs, unable to leave their village without the permission of their lord. Things changed in the mid 14th century when the Black Death, a virulent plague epidemic, swept through Europe, killing a third of the population within four years.

## JOAN OF ARC: THE MAID OF ORLEANS

In the 1420s France's fortunes in the Hundred Years War (1337–1453) with the English were at their lowest point. The English claimed the French crown and their troops occupied much of northern France. It was a teenage peasant girl, Joan of Arc, who changed the course of the war. Joan claimed that the voices of Saints Michael, Catherine, and Margaret spoke to her, urging her to save her homeland. Her simple message breathed new hope and energy into the French forces.

Dressed in armor, she rode at the head of an army to defeat the English at Orleans in 1429. The dauphin Charles was crowned king of France at Reims and by 1453 the English had been driven from nearly all their lands in France. Joan, however, was captured by her enemies, tried as a heretic, and burned at the stake in 1430. She has been a symbol of national pride to the French ever since.

Right A tapestry of Joan arriving at Castle Chinon.



## TIMETABLE

1066

William the Conqueror, duke of Normandy, conquers England

c.1088

The first university in Europe is founded at Bologna, Italy

c.1140

The abbey church of St Denis outside Paris is the first building in the Gothic style

1156

Frederick Barbarossa, the Holy Roman emperor, founds the duchy of Austria to counter Welf power in Bavaria

1209

The pope gives his approval to the order of friars founded by St Francis of Assisi

1212

A Christian victory at Las Navas de Tolosa breaks Muslim power in Spain

1215

King John of England signs the Magna Carta, confirming baronial liberties

1250

Death of the emperor Frederick II marks the end of German power in Italy

1326

Cannon are first used in war in Europe

1455

The first printed book, the Gutenberg Bible, is published in Germany

1492

Fall of Granada, last Muslim stronghold in Spain. Christopher Columbus sails to the New World



# TANG & SUNG CHINA

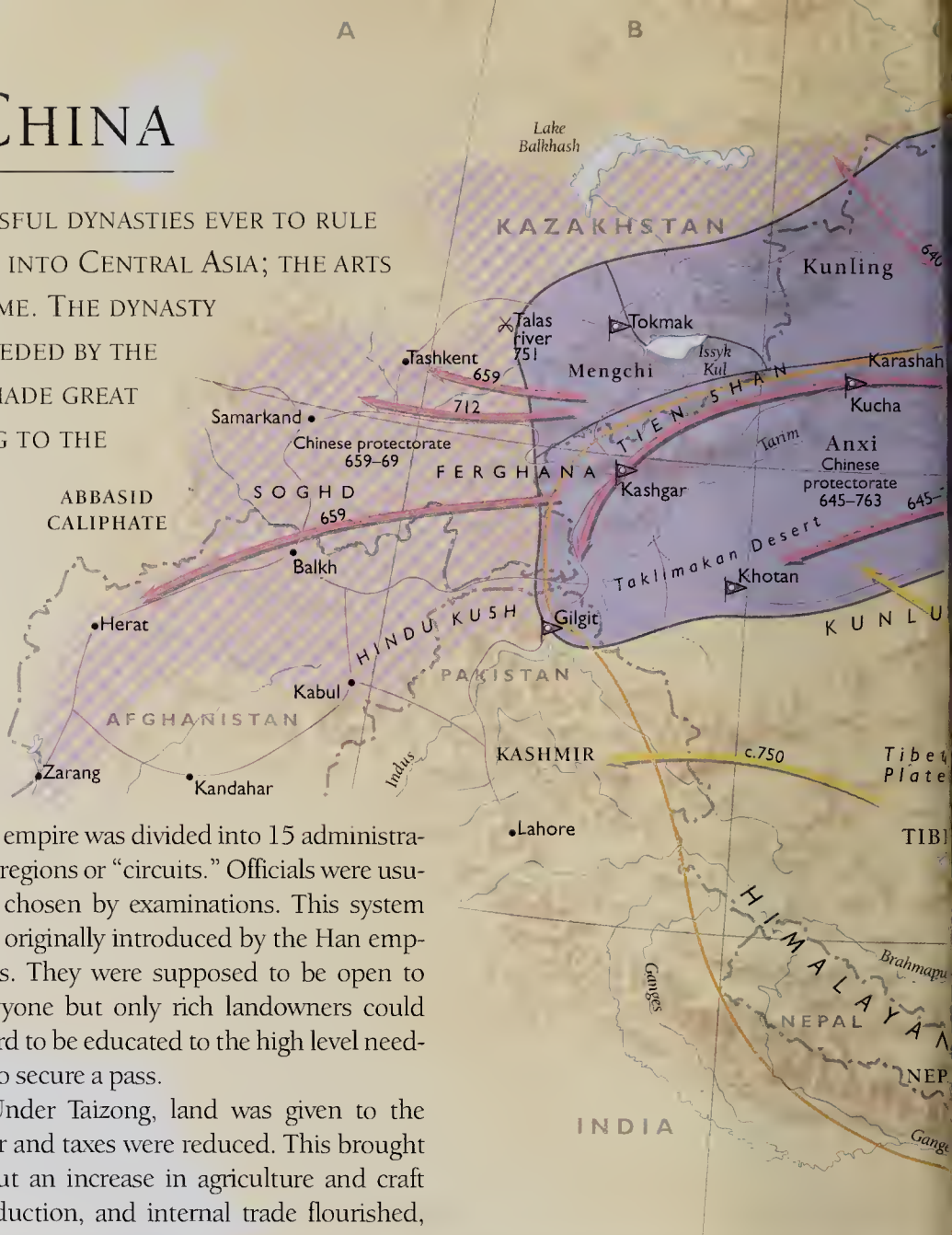
THE TANG WERE ONE OF THE MOST SUCCESSFUL DYNASTIES EVER TO RULE CHINA. THEY EXTENDED CHINESE RULE FAR INTO CENTRAL ASIA; THE ARTS AND TRADE FLOURISHED UNDER THEIR REGIME. THE DYNASTY LATER FELL INTO DISORDER AND WAS SUCCEEDED BY THE SUNG. PROSPERITY WAS HIGH AND CHINA MADE GREAT TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES BEFORE FALLING TO THE ONSLAUGHTS OF THE MONGOLS.

The Tang dynasty (618–907) was founded by a military governor named Li Yuan, who seized power to save the Chinese empire from collapse but was later forced to abdicate by his ambitious son Taizong (r.626–49). Taizong became one of China's most able rulers. At the time he came to power, China had been reunited for only 30 years after nearly four centuries of civil war and division following the end of the Han dynasty (202 BC–AD 220).

Taizong's greatest achievement was to give China a strong system of government. The emperor stood at its head and below him were three departments: the Imperial Secretariat; the Imperial Chancellery; and the Department for State Affairs. The latter was charged with overseeing the ministries responsible for administration, finance, religion, justice, the army, and public works.

The empire was divided into 15 administrative regions or "circuits." Officials were usually chosen by examinations. This system was originally introduced by the Han emperors. They were supposed to be open to everyone but only rich landowners could afford to be educated to the high level needed to secure a pass.

Under Taizong, land was given to the poor and taxes were reduced. This brought about an increase in agriculture and craft production, and internal trade flourished,



## BUDDHISM IN TIBET

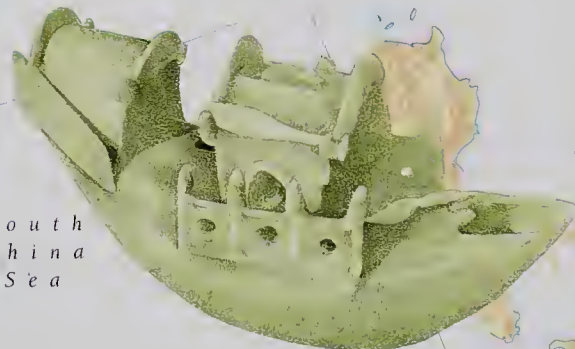
A powerful kingdom first emerged in Tibet under the Buddhist ruler Srongtsan-sgampo (r.608–50). He and his successors established a military empire in Central Asia, where it came into conflict with the territorial ambitions of Tang China before going into decline in the 9th century. The Indian missionary Atisa was responsible for reviving Tibetan Buddhism in the 11th century, and from then on it dominated every aspect of Tibetan life. Numerous sects developed, and there was a great outburst of monastic building and literary activity. The Mongols, who conquered Tibet in 1247, ruled it through a succession of powerful priests, or lamas.

Left Shalu monastery, Tibet, founded c.1040.





Below A model of an early Chinese junk. These high-prowed sailing vessels were developed in the Sung dynasty to make long ocean voyages.



carried on the canals that were built to link the Yellow and Yangtze rivers. Silk and fine pottery were exported. Many new inventions, including porcelain, canal locks, and gunpowder, were made.

The Tang were successful in waging war and established a military protectorate over the nomads on their western border. This brought them into contact with the newly unified kingdom of Tibet, which was also expanding into Central Asia. For a time, Tang authority extended as far as Ferghana and Soghd, on the eastern limits of the Arab empire. However, because of the great distances involved, the Central Asian empire

was difficult to defend. In 751 the Chinese suffered a serious defeat by the Arabs at the Talas river near Samarkand. Forty years later, defeat by the Tibetans at Tingzhou ended their control of the Gansu Corridor and signaled the total collapse of the Chinese Central Asian empire. Tang advances into Korea proved as difficult to hold. Although a protectorate was set up in Koguryo, in the north of the country, from 668–76, the Chinese were defeated and expelled by Silla, the ruling kingdom in the south.

A rebellion led by the general An Lushan from 755–63 contributed to the loss of Central Asia, as garrisons were withdrawn from



the northwest to deal with it. Though the rebellion was put down, Tang authority declined and disorder increased as military governors in the provinces seized power for themselves. In 907 the Tang dynasty was overthrown and China broke up into nearly a dozen rival kingdoms.

## THE SUNG DYNASTY

China was united again by two brothers, Sung Taizu (r.960–76) and Sung Taizong (r.976–97). They met with little serious resistance because the years of Tang rule had given most people the idea that China should be a single state under one emperor. In the intervening years, however, powerful kingdoms had formed to the north and

west. These were strong enough to prevent the Sung from reconquering the border lands that had belonged to the Tang empire.

The Sung dynasty is divided into two periods: Northern Sung (960–1127) and Southern Sung (1127–1279). The Northern Sung capital was at Kaifeng, a large commercial center in the Yellow River plain. In 1127 it was captured by the Jürchen, invaders from Manchuria who conquered northern China to establish an empire of their own under the Jin dynasty. The Sung emperors moved their capital south to the port of Hangzhou. The south was now the richest and most densely populated part of China so the loss of territory was not crippling, and the Sung did not attempt to reconquer the northern provinces.

During the 13th century Mongol warriors, recently unified by Ghengis Khan (see pages 92–95), began campaigning in the

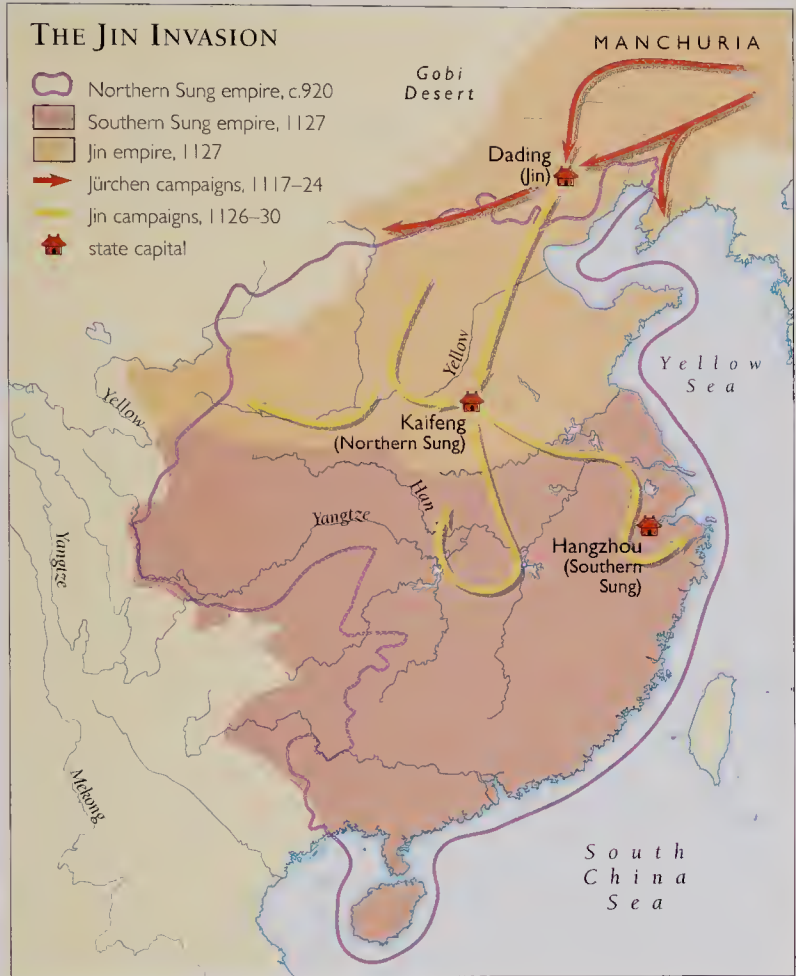


*Below* A Tang painting shows the imperial court fleeing to the mountains from An Lushan's revolt.





Left By the Tang and Sung periods, Buddhism was well-established in China, penetrating every level of society and intermingling with native religious traditions. It was a powerful influence on Chinese art. This lifelike figure represents the Buddhist deity Kuan-yin, associated with compassion and mercy, who was widely revered in China.



east from the steppes of Central Asia. At first the Jin empire acted as a buffer zone between them and the Sung, who even supplied the Mongols with troops. But when Jin fell in 1234, the Sung received the full fury of the Mongol attacks. China was finally conquered in 1279 and remained part of the Mongol empire for nearly a century.

## AN AGE OF INVENTION

Although the Sung empire was the smallest in Chinese history, its achievements were considerable. The Sung rulers were more humane and capable than most, and China prospered under their rule. The population rose rapidly. Fast-growing varieties of rice, introduced from Vietnam, meant that two crops could be harvested a year, nearly doubling the food

Right This elegant ceramic vase was made in China during the years of Mongol rule, an indication that the traditional arts continued to flourish.



supply. In order to finance the increase in trade, banking and the world's first paper money came into use.

The Sung period was one of amazing inventiveness in all sorts of ways. Large junks—high-sterned sail ships with projecting bows—were built with watertight bulkheads that made them capable of withstanding heavy seas. They were navigated using a magnetic compass (unlike those developed later in Europe, the needle pointed south rather than north). Man-powered paddlewheels were used to drive riverboats. In warfare, the invention of gunpowder led to the development of incendiary rockets and the world's first simple guns made from bamboo tubes. Movable type came into use for printing some 200 years before it did in Europe, and watermills were used to power bellows for furnaces and spinning machines. Most of these inventions eventually found their way to Europe, where they contributed to the technological and commercial advances of the late Middle Ages.

## TIMETABLE

- 618  
Li Yuan becomes the first emperor of the Tang dynasty
- 640–59  
The Tang empire expands its borders into Central Asia
- 755–63  
A rebellion led by the general An Lushan permanently weakens Tang government
- 791  
A Tibetan victory at Tingzhou ends Chinese power in Central Asia
- c.850  
Gunpowder first comes into use
- 907–60  
On the fall of the Tang dynasty, China is divided—a period known as the Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms
- 936  
The foundation of the kingdom of Koryo leads to the unification of Korea
- 960–79  
Sung Taizu, founder of the Sung dynasty, reunites China
- 969  
Gunpowder rockets are used for the first time in warfare
- 1090  
A water-driven mechanical clock is built for the Sung court
- 1127  
On the capture of Kaifeng by the Jurchen, the Sung capital moves to Hangzhou
- c.1150  
The magnetic compass is in use with Chinese navigators
- 1234  
The Jin empire is conquered by the Mongols; first Mongol attacks take place on the Sung empire
- 1271  
Khubilai Khan, the Mongol leader, adopts the Chinese dynasty title, Yuan
- 1276  
Hangzhou is captured by the Mongols
- 1279  
The last Sung emperor is drowned following a naval battle off the island of Yaishan. The Mongols rule all China

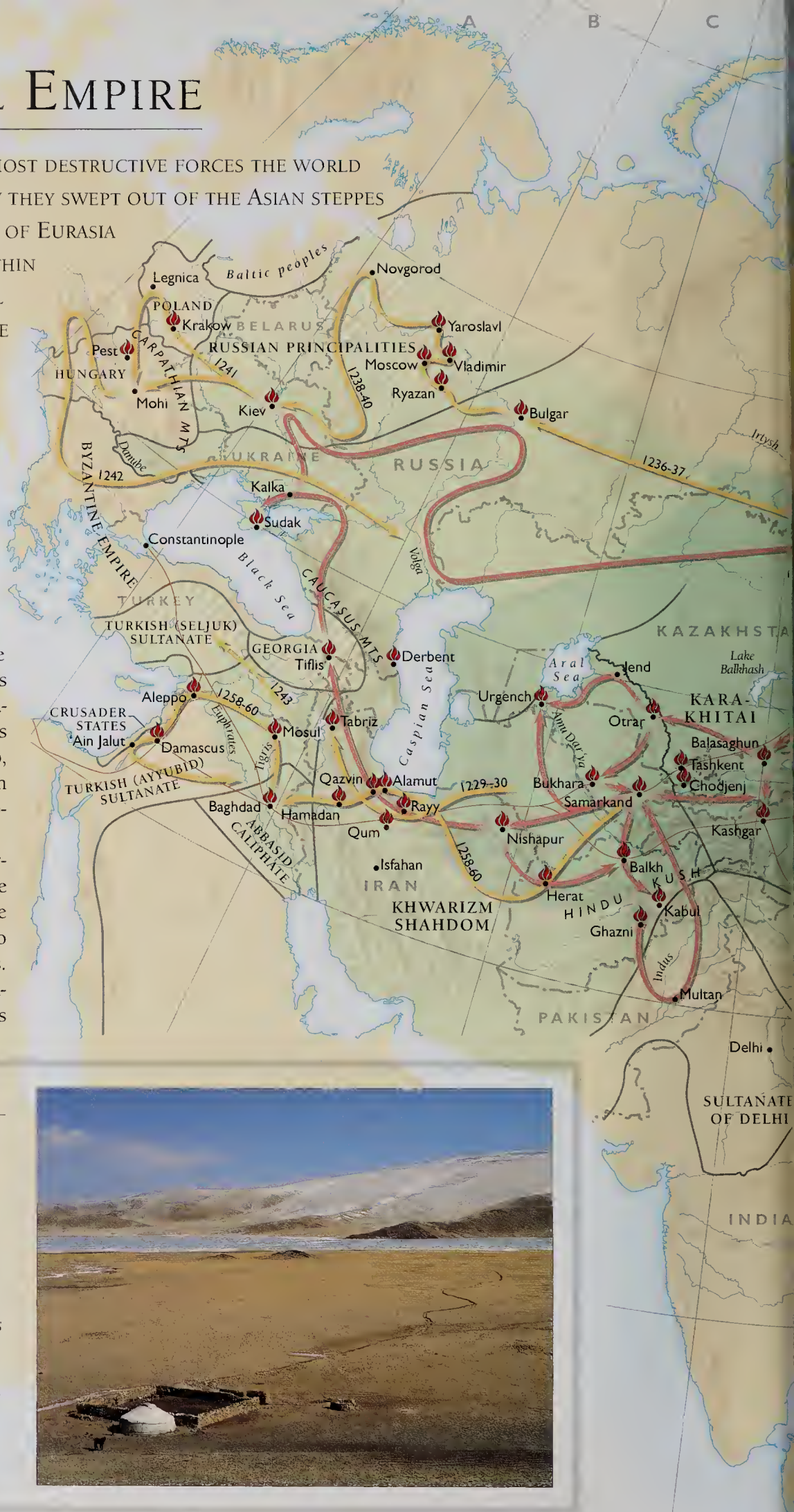


# THE MONGOL EMPIRE

THE MONGOLS WERE ONE OF THE MOST DESTRUCTIVE FORCES THE WORLD HAS KNOWN. IN THE 13TH CENTURY THEY SWEEPED OUT OF THE ASIAN STEPPES TO TERRORIZE THE SETTLED PEOPLES OF EURASIA FROM CHINA TO HUNGARY. YET WITHIN LESS THAN A CENTURY THE MONGOL EMPIRE HAD BEGUN TO DISINTEGRATE INTO A NUMBER OF INDEPENDENT STATES (KHANATES). BY THE END OF THE 15TH CENTURY IT HAD ALL BUT DISAPPEARED FROM HISTORY.

The steppes, vast grasslands similar to the North American prairies, run from the Danube plain of eastern Europe across south Russia and Central Asia to Manchuria in the east, a distance of more than 3,000 miles (5,000 km). The climate is harsh, with bitterly cold winters and arid summers. The steppes were inhabited by tribes of nomadic pastoral farmers who moved their herds of horses, sheep, and cattle vast distances in search of fresh pastures and traded with the settled peoples living around their borders.

From time to time through history, warbands like that of Attila the Hun, whose raids spread terror though Europe in the 5th century AD, burst out of the steppes to attack the peoples living on their borders. They caused widespread fear, but their territorial empires never lasted long. This was



## LIFE ON THE STEPPES

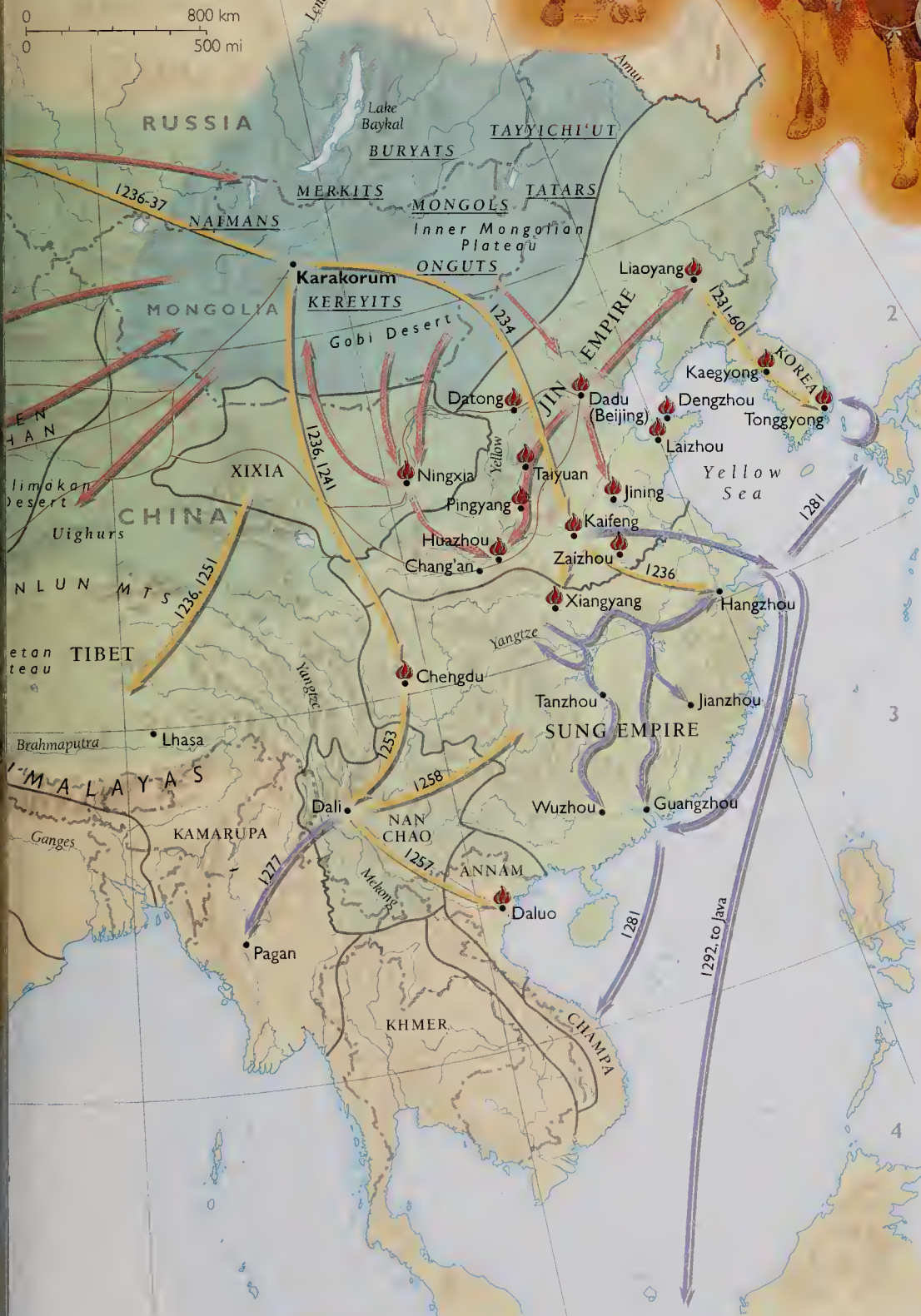
There were no permanent settlements on the steppes: even today nomadic farmers use hide tents called "yurts." Life was hard—anyone too old or sick to travel was simply left to die when it was time to move the herds on. These conditions bred a tough, ruthless people. Interclan warfare was a way of life, especially in times of drought when there was fierce competition for the best grazing lands. Mounted warriors fired bone-tipped arrows from powerful bows. They relied on the speed of their horses to take the enemy by surprise.

Right A nomadic pastoralist's yurt in Mongolia.





- border, c. 1200  
 Mongol lands, c. 1206  
 conquests of Genghis Khan, 1209–27  
 Mongol conquests, 1227–79  
 area of loose Mongol control  
 city sacked by Mongols  
 TATARS Mongol tribe united by Genghis Khan, 1204–06  
 campaigns under Genghis Khan, 1209–27  
 Mongol campaigns, 1228–60  
 campaigns under Kublai Khan, 1268–92  
 silk route



Above Kublai Khan added China to the Mongols' conquests. Dressed in furs and finely booted, he is seen here hunting—a favorite activity of the Mongols when not engaged in war.

because the nomadic steppe tribes lacked political structures to unite their empires; their leaders were effective only as long as they acquired booty to reward their armies.

## THE MONGOL CAMPAIGNS

The most exceptional steppe warrior of all time was Temujin, who is better known to history as Genghis (or Chingis) Khan. He assumed this title, which means "Universal Ruler," in 1206 after he had succeeded in uniting all the Mongol tribes under him. A brilliant war leader, Genghis created what was probably the finest cavalry army ever known. To stay in power he had to keep his warriors continually busy—if the flow of war booty ceased, they would desert him without a qualm. So he led his army on constant raiding campaigns that took him from northern China right across central Asia to India and Iran, and on around the Black Sea to southern Russia, conquering a territorial empire that far exceeded that of Alexander the Great.

No other army could match the battle tactics of the Mongols. Highly skilled horsemen, they could ride away from danger in

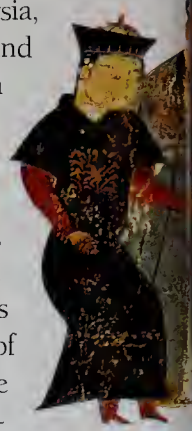




Left A Mongol army takes a fortress by storm.

The Mongols committed horrific atrocities in their wars of conquest: for example, more than 200,000 prisoners were slaughtered when Baghdad was captured in 1251. Their terror tactics cost millions of lives and caused lasting damage to the two most advanced civilizations of the age, those of Islam and China. The devastated ancient trading cities of Central Asia never recovered their former prosperity. Vast areas of northern China, Persia, and Iraq were depopulated, and Russia was left isolated from the mainstream of European cultural development for almost two centuries.

One result of Mongol rule, however, was an increase in trade and cultural contacts between China and the rest of the world. The Mongols were less hostile to Christian Europeans than the Muslims who had previously controlled the trade routes across central Asia. This allowed European merchants such as Marco Polo to travel east for the first time and bring back knowledge of Chinese technology.



## BREAK UP OF THE EMPIRE

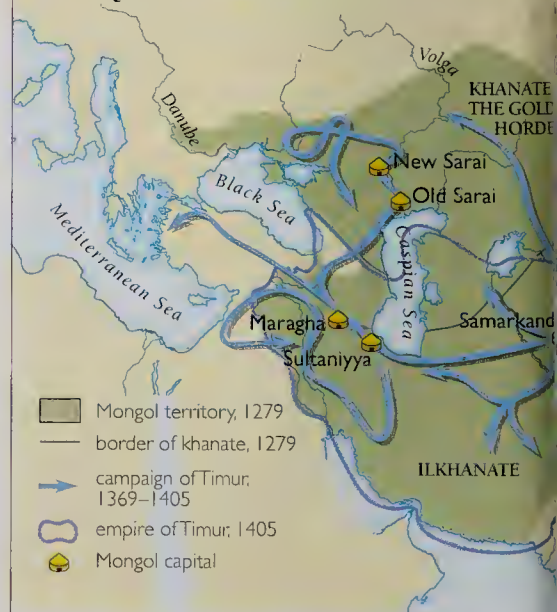
In 1235, the capital of the Mongol empire was established at Karakorum, once Genghis Khan's favorite campsite in Mongolia. But their extensive territories proved too

an instant and shoot their arrows at the gallop to inflict long-range casualties on their enemies. A favorite tactic was to pretend to retreat and then ambush any opponents rash enough to pursue them. They were at their most effective in the open country of the steppes, and could not operate far beyond them as they needed pasture land on which to graze their vast herds of horses.

Genghis was succeeded as Great Khan (ruler) by his son Ogedai (r.1229–41) and

his grandsons Küyük (r.1246–48), Möngke (r.1251–59), and Kublai Khan (r.1260–94). Their armies overran Tibet, Korea, Persia, Iraq, and much of Russia and Hungary. In 1279, after more than a decade of campaigning, Kublai Khan finally conquered Sung China and took the dynastic title of Yuan (see page 91). This was the last great Mongol gain—his campaigns in Southeast Asia brought no lasting successes, and he twice failed to invade Japan (see page 99).

## CONQUESTS OF TIMUR







## GENGHIS KHAN

*Genghis Khan did not seem destined for the role of world conqueror. The son of a minor chieftain, the murder of his father left him without tribal protection.*

*However, his military skill soon won him a band of followers, and through a combination of cunning and murder, he exploited interclan rivalries to claim authority over all the Mongolian tribes. Even as the ruler of a vast empire, he never abandoned the life of a nomad. He was constantly on campaign for more than 20 years. Traveling with a great entourage, he received ambassadors and advisers in his richly decorated yurt.*

*Left* A Persian miniature shows a crowned Genghis Khan holding court in his yurt.

vast to be ruled effectively from one place, so subordinate khanates were created to govern the western conquests: the khanate of the Golden Horde (thought to be named for the color of the first khan's tent) in Russia; the Ilkhanate in Persia; the Chagatai khanate in the central steppes. Their leaders were supposed to be subject to the Great Khan, but they had all broken away from direct rule by the time that Kublai became khan in 1260. The Mongols had no outstanding rulers after Kublai. As their power began to wane, even nominal control of the western khanates slipped out

of their grasp as they broke up into rival clanships and states. The Mongols of the Golden Horde converted to Islam, alienating them from their Christian Russian subjects. In the east, Tibet regained its independence by 1294. China was liberated by a rebel leader of peasant stock, Zhu Yuanzhang, between 1356 and 1368. After taking Beijing, which had been the capital of the Great Khanate since 1266, he proclaimed himself to be the first emperor of the Ming dynasty (1368–1644). The power of the Great Khanate was restricted to the Mongolian heartland of the eastern steppe.



## TIMUR'S CAMPAIGNS

Timur (r.1361–1405), emir of Samarkand in the Chagatai khanate and a notoriously brutal leader, was the last of the Mongol conquerors. Although he was a Muslim and Turkish speaker, he claimed to be descended from Genghis Khan and was a nomad who spent most of his life on campaign in Central Asia and the Middle East. Craftsmen were enslaved and brought to Samarkand to enrich it with several of the Islamic world's finest mosques, but according to folklore he built towers with the skulls of his victims. Timur's empire, like those of his predecessors, died with him. His campaigns left the Islamic world in ruins and fatally weakened the western khanates.

## TIMETABLE

1204–06

Temujin unites the Mongols and is proclaimed Genghis Khan

1211

The Mongols attack the Jin empire of northern China for the first time

1215

A Mongol army captures Beijing

1219–21

Genghis Khan invades Persia

1227

Genghis Khan dies campaigning in Jin

1237–41

The Mongols ravage Russia and eastern Europe

1241

The khanate of the Golden Horde is founded in Russia

1260

The Mongols are defeated by a Mamluke (Muslim) army at 'Ain Jalut (Syria)

1268–79

Kublai Khan conquers the Sung empire of China

1346

The Black Death breaks out in a Mongol army at Kaffa in the Crimea

1361–1405

Reign of Timur, emir of Samarkand

1368

The Mongols are expelled from China by Zhu Yuanzhang, founder of the Ming dynasty

1382

An army of the Golden Horde sacks Moscow

1480

Russians break off payments of tribute to the Golden Horde

1502

Final breakup of the Golden Horde

1517–26

Babur, descendant of Genghis Khan and Timur, invades India and founds the Mughal empire

1697

Mongolia is conquered by the Chinese



# THE RISE OF JAPAN

THE HEREDITARY MONARCHY OF JAPAN WAS FOUNDED BY THE YAMATO KINGS WHO BROUGHT THE WHOLE COUNTRY UNDER THEIR RULE AND ESTABLISHED AN IMPERIAL COURT. CHINESE INFLUENCES WERE STRONG AT FIRST, BUT JAPAN SOON DEVELOPED A RICH COURT CULTURE OF ITS OWN. HOWEVER, REAL POWER CAME TO BE HELD BY RIVAL WARRIOR CLANS. BY 1500 JAPAN HAD BROKEN UP INTO HUNDREDS OF SMALL FEUDAL STATES.

Owing to their geographical isolation, the first Japanese people lived by hunting and gathering long after farming had begun on the Asian mainland. Pottery vessels were made from a very early date (c.8000 BC), but rice farming, iron-working, and textiles were not known until about 300 BC, when they were introduced by immigrants from Asia who settled on Kyushu, the southernmost island. From there, the Yayoi culture, as it is known, spread through Japan except for Hokkaido. This mountainous island in the north, inhabited by hunting-gathering Ainu people, remained apart from the rest of Japan until the 17th century.

## UNIFICATION OF JAPAN

Around AD 300, powerful warrior chiefs living around the Inland Sea of southern Japan began to build themselves massive keyhole-shaped tombs containing quantities of pottery, weapons, armor, jewelry, and other rich objects. Little is known about them, but by the

end of the 4th century the rulers of a kingdom on the Yamato plain of Honshu appear to have had power over a wide area.

By the end of the 6th century the Yamato rulers had extended their rule over most of Japan. For a time they controlled part of the Korean peninsula. Chinese culture was an important influence at this time. Chinese writing and the Chinese calendar were in use, and in 604 Prince Shotoku adopted a constitution that was modeled on that of the Chinese court and gave the emperor total power over the nobility. Shotoku also imported craftsmen from China and promoted Chinese art styles. In 646 all land in Japan was brought under imperial ownership, as it was in China, and in 710 a permanent imperial capital was built at Nara.

Buddhism, which spread to Japan from Korea in around 552, was gradually adopted as the state religion. Buddhist monks gained so much influence in government that they began to erode the power of the

emperor, though Buddhism did not entirely replace belief in the traditional Shinto religion of Japan, with its many gods.

## THE HEIAN COURT

In 794 the emperor Kammu moved the imperial capital from Nara to Heian to escape the influence of the increasingly powerful Buddhist monasteries. Heian (which came to be known as Kyoto from the 11th century) remained the imperial and administrative capital until the 19th century. It was also the cultural and social center of the country. Its way of life was dominated by the court nobles, who made up one-tenth of the population of 100,000. For these leisured aristocrats, court life itself became a kind of art. Fine handwriting, elegant dress, and an ability to compose poetry or music were the keys to success in court politics, for both sexes. Art and literature—written at first in Chinese, later in Japanese—flourished. Many works of literature, including *The Tale of Genji*, claimed by many to be the world's first novel, were written by



Left This 12th-century fan is painted with a scene showing court servants cleaning a temple veranda, overwritten with a passage from a sacred Buddhist text. The fan, with its elegant calligraphy, decorative paper techniques, and delicate color painting, captures the gracious manners of the Heian court.

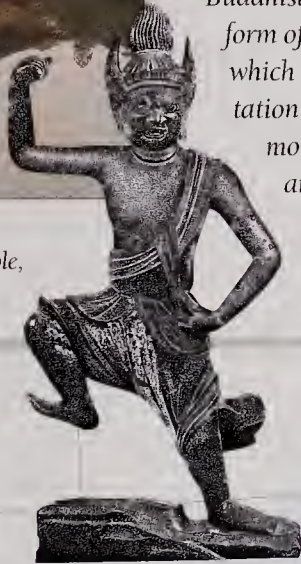


## THE WAY OF THE GODS

Shinto, Japan's traditional religion, had literally countless gods and spirits, called "kami." They were thought to be present not just in all living things but also in objects of the natural world, such as waterfalls, rocks, and trees. The "kami" were not universal gods, but were associated with particular people, ancestral spirits, or places. After the introduction of Buddhism into Japan, the two beliefs intermingled: Shinto gods came to be seen as protective deities and manifestations of Buddhist saints. The most important form of Japanese Buddhism was Zen, which emphasized the need for meditation. To create suitable settings, Zen monks became skilled gardeners and landscape painters.



Above The Golden Pavilion temple, Kyoto, in its Zen-inspired garden.



Left The protective Shinto deity Zao Gongen wards off evil.







women. Practical abilities, such as skill as a warrior, brought little prestige. Elaborate rituals of dress and etiquette set the court elite apart from the common people.

The Heian emperors came increasingly under the influence of aristocratic families like the Fujiwara, who built up a powerful presence at court by marrying their daughters to members of the imperial family. The great families and Buddhist temples persuaded the emperors to grant them tax-free estates called *shoen* as rewards for good service. Government was neglected and there was growing disorder in the provinces. As a result, wealthy landowners and temples began to raise their own armies of warriors, known as *samurai*, for protection. Like the knights of medieval Europe, the *samurai* were a hereditary warrior class, who were granted estates in return for military service. As bands of *samurai* became increasingly independent, long private wars and rivalries disrupted the life of the countryside, sometimes dragging on for years.

## THE SHOGUNS

During the 12th century clans of *samurai* became involved in the politics of the court. The influence of the Fujiwara family came to an end as the Taira and Minamoto clans began a struggle for power. Civil war broke out in 1180–85. Under the generalship of Minamoto Yoritomo (the family name came first in medieval Japan), the Minamoto clan destroyed the Taira at the battle of Dannoura. Yoritomo, who by now was the most powerful man in Japan, was given the title of shogun (“supreme commander”) by the emperor in 1192.

Yoritomo was a highly skilled administrator. His castle at Kamakura in eastern Honshu became an alternative center of government and to strengthen his authority in the provinces, he created the office of *shugo*, or local military governor. The imperial court remained at Heian, but real power was exercised by the shogun: the emperor was reduced to a mere figurehead. Yoritomo





Left A scroll painting showing the Heiji uprising in 1159, which brought the Taira clan to power. Mounted samurai are fighting a pitched battle with a Minamoto army. Their principal weapon is the longbow: The long, curving, deadly “tachi” sword—prized as “the soul of the samurai”—had not yet come into use.



was succeeded as shogun by his two sons in turn, but when the Minamoto line died out in the early 13th century, the office passed into the hands of the Hojo clan. They soon became extremely powerful, intervening in affairs at all levels of society.

The Mongol leader Khubilai Khan (see page 94) twice attempted to invade Japan from Korea, in 1274 and 1281. The Hojo

government took urgent steps to resist him, but on both occasions the Mongol invasion fleet was scattered by typhoons and shipwrecked before a major battle had taken place. The Japanese attributed these near-miraculous escapes to *kamikaze* or “divine wind” and came to regard them as a sign that their country was under the special protection of the gods.

## THE RISE OF THE DAIMYO

In 1338, after a civil war caused by the attempt of the emperor Go-Daigo to take back power, a new succession of shoguns, the Ashikaga, took over from the Hojo. By now the *shugo* had more power in their localities than the shoguns did, and strong government had all but disappeared. Another civil war, the Onin war (1467-77), caused widespread discontent in the provinces, and this allowed a new class of feudal warlords, the *daimyo* (“domain lords”), to seize power for themselves.

The *daimyo* surrounded themselves with large armies of *samurai* vassals and were constantly at war. Their castles, which were strongly fortified, attracted large numbers of merchants and craftsmen. Markets sprang up, leading to a sudden growth in urban development. By 1500 the shoguns were as powerless as the emperors, and Japan had effectively split up into nearly 400 independent warlord states.

## THE WAY OF THE WARRIOR

*Samurai* lived by the code of “*bushido*” (The Way of the Warrior). This prized above all things skill with weapons, especially the sword and the bow, physical fitness, and courage in battle. A *samurai* should live simply, behave honestly, and show kindness and respect to his parents. However, his supreme obligation was to serve his lord loyally and, if necessary, sacrifice his life for him. To flee from battle, or to surrender, was the ultimate disgrace: it was more honorable to commit suicide than be taken captive. But the ideal warrior should not merely be a master of the military arts: he should be skilled in the composition of poetry and sensitive to human emotions.

Left The body armor of a samurai.

## TIMETABLE

c.300 BC
Rice farming and iron-working spread to Japan from Asia
c.AD 300-400
Yamato rule is established
369
According to an 8th-century source, a Japanese army invades Korea
552
Buddhism is introduced to Japan from Korea
593-622
Prince Shotoku creates a centralized Japanese state on Chinese lines
562
The Japanese are expelled from Korea
646
All land comes under imperial control
708
The earliest official coinage is introduced in Japan
794
The imperial court is established at Heian (Kyoto)
858
Fujiwara Yorifusa becomes regent, marking the rise of the Fujiwara clan and the decline of imperial authority
1010
The Tale of Genji is written by Lady Murasaki Shikibu
1156-59
The Taira clan is dominant at court
1185
Minamoto Yoritomo destroys the power of the Taira and becomes shogun
1333-38
Emperor Go-Daigo overthrows the shogun and attempts to rule directly
c.1360
The Japanese school of Noh drama comes into being
1467-77
The Onin war leads to the rise of the daimyos
1573
Fall of the Ashikaga shogunate



# KINGDOMS OF AFRICA

THE FIRST AFRICAN KINGDOMS DEVELOPED IN THE NILE VALLEY IN EGYPT AROUND 3000 BC AND IN NUBIA AROUND 1700 BC, BUT FEW ORGANIZED STATES HAD EMERGED SOUTH OF THE SAHARA BEFORE THE 1ST MILLENNIUM AD. THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRANS-SAHARAN CARAVAN ROUTES AND THE INCREASE IN LONG-DISTANCE TRADE IN THE INDIAN OCEAN HELPED STIMULATE THE GROWTH OF WEALTHY CITIES AND KINGDOMS IN BOTH WEST AND EAST AFRICA BEFORE AD 1000.

For thousands of years the Sahara desert was a near-impassable barrier that divided the peoples of North Africa from those living in the rest of the continent. In the vast expanses south of the Sahara, most people were farmers, nomadic herders, or hunter-gatherers. Around 2000 BC Bantu-speakers began to spread into central and east Africa from their original homeland in southern Nigeria and Cameroon and by AD 500 had reached southern Africa.

Contact with cultures outside Africa was made only by way of the river Nile into Egypt, or with Indian Ocean traders who regularly called at places along the east coast to exchange pottery and other goods for cargoes of gold, ivory, aromatic resins, and slaves. When, before AD 100, camels were introduced into North Africa from Arabia, traders were able to cross the desert more easily, bringing the agricultural societies of sub-Saharan Africa into the orbit of the Mediterranean world for the first time.

## CITIES OF THE SAHEL

The Sahel, the region of dry grasslands that fringes the south and west of the Sahara, had been home to farmers for thousands of years. It was ideally suited to rearing cattle, while areas along rivers and by waterholes and lakes were used for growing crops. As agriculture intensified, the population rose. An early iron-using culture, the Nok, noted for its sophisticated terracotta sculptures, had emerged in northern Nigeria around

*Right This statuette of a king and queen comes from Ife, a kingdom in west Africa famous for its pottery and bronze sculptures.*



500 BC. Local trade in salt (a vital necessity in hot climates), metals, and food gained in importance, leading to the growth of trading centers such as Jenne-jeno in present-day Mali, which had been encircled by a defensive wall by AD 400. Ghana, which was situated some 400 miles (650 km) northwest of the modern state of that name, was one of several early kingdoms that grew up in the western Sahel in the late 1st millennium. Its rulers were buried in great mounds, surrounded by human sacrifices and lavish grave goods.

Islam became widely established in the Sahel after Berber traders from North Africa introduced it about 1000. There was no stone available for building, so enormous beehive-shaped mosques were constructed out of dried mud bricks. At the western and southern ends of the trans-Saharan trade routes, gold, ivory, and slaves, transported there from places deeper in tropical Africa, were exchanged for goods such as salt, glass, and pottery. Horses were especially highly prized, as they could not be bred locally.



*Right The Great Mosque at Jenné, Mali, is the largest mud building in the world.*







The kingdom of Mali (c. 1200–1500) developed as a result of this trade. Its armed horsemen controlled a vast area of the western Sahel. Mali was very wealthy. It had rich farmlands along the Niger river and controlled access to the rich goldfields of west Africa. It was later overtaken by Songhai, while the nomadic Kanem-Bornu dynasty established an empire in the central Sahel.

By 1300 well-organized kingdoms had developed among the rainforest farmers of west Africa. At a number of places such as Oyo, Ife, and Benin in present-day Nigeria, craftsmen made finely carved heads and sculptures in terracotta, iron, and bronze.

## NUBIA & AXUM

Nubia (which was known as Kush to the ancient Egyptians) lay on the upper Nile in the region of modern Sudan. An early state grew up here under the influence of Egypt,

which later conquered it as a source of slaves and gold. In the 8th and 7th centuries BC a Nubian dynasty ruled as pharaohs of Egypt. The kings and queens of Nubia were buried in pyramids, and a hieroglyphic script was employed for official inscriptions. Meroë, its later capital, was a populous city with palaces and temples, but in the 1st century AD Nubia was increasingly cut off from Roman Egypt and went into decline. Meroë was destroyed by raiders from Axum around 350, and Nubia split into three successor states: Nobatia, Makkura, and Alwa.

The kingdom of Axum, on the Red Sea coast, rose to prominence during the 1st century AD. Through the port of Adulis, Axum was in close contact with Sabaea on the opposite shore of the Red Sea. Sabaea—present-day Yemen—was the Sheba of the Bible, and the kings of Axum claimed descent from King Solomon and the Queen of Sheba. Sabaea's wealth was based on the

export of ivory, rhinoceros horn, tortoise-shell, semiprecious stones, and aromatic resins, commodities that were highly valued by the citizens of the Roman empire.

## CHRISTIANS & MUSLIMS

The kingdom of Axum went into decline after 600 and was destroyed by invaders around 975. Carved granite obelisks, the tallest of them 69 feet (21 m) high, are all that remain of its ancient capital today. One records the baptism of a king of Axum around 350, the earliest known Christian convert in sub-Saharan Africa. Monks from Syria and Egypt spread Christianity into Nubia and Axum between the 4th and 6th centuries, but the Arab conquest of Egypt (see pages 80–83) isolated the Christian communities in Africa from the rest of the world. By then a successor state to Axum had arisen in the highlands to the south



## GREAT ZIMBABWE

Great Zimbabwe, with its massive stonewall enclosures, is one of the most visited sites of southern Africa. Built between 1270 and 1450, it appears to have been the capital of a large cattle-owning empire of the Shona people, who controlled the grazing lands between the Zambezi and Limpopo rivers.

The most impressive of the ruins is the "Great Enclosure." This may have been where young men and women were initiated into marriage. Nearby was a sacred enclosure where the king called on the ancestral spirits of the Shona people. The royal palace included special courtyards where the king could display his wealth to visitors. His wives lived in their own enclosure: it has been estimated that he had a total of about 300—an indication of his wealth and high status. Commoners lived in the surrounding town, and the whole complex would have been home to some 18,000 people. Objects found during excavations show that Great Zimbabwe had trading links with the Islamic cities on the east African coast and, through them, with the Middle East and as far away as China.

*Left* The massive walls of the Great Enclosure.



## THE PORTUGUESE TRADERS



**Left** A ship of the type that explored the African coast. It bears the Portuguese coat-of-arms.

## EUROPEAN CONTACT

The Muslim monopoly of trade with India and the far east led European navigators to look for new routes to the Indian Ocean. European sailors had never dared venture far along the west coast of Africa because the prevailing north winds threatened their return journey. However, early in the 15th century the Portuguese discovered that by sailing far out into the Atlantic it was possible to find southerly winds to bring them safely home. Bit by bit they traveled further south, leaving stone columns ("mariners' milestones"), carved with the date, to mark where they had been. In 1487 the first Portuguese ship rounded the Cape of Good Hope into the Indian Ocean. By the 1480s the Portuguese had begun to export slaves from west Africa and had already built a number of trading forts.

## TIMETABLE

**c.AD 1-100**

The kingdom of Axum develops on the Red Sea coast

c.350

## Monks from Syria convert king Ezana of Axum to Christianity

c.400

Defensive walls are built at Jenne-jeno  
in west Africa

c.540

## The Nubians are converted to Christianity

c.700

## The ancient kingdom of Ghana emerges in the western Sahel

738

## First Arab slave raid on west Africa

**c.800**

## Trading towns develop on the east African coast

c.1250

## The kingdom of Benin emerges in equatorial west Africa

c.1250

Mali is the dominant kingdom of west Africa

c.1260-77

Mansa Uli, king of Mali, makes a pilgrimage to Mecca

c.1270

The Great Enclosure is built at Great Zimbabwe

1270

The Solomonid dynasty comes to power in Ethiopia (rules until 1777)

1432

## Portuguese navigators begin to explore the west coast of Africa

1450-1500

## Songhai supplants Mali as the chief power in the western Sahel

1487

## Bartolomeu Dias rounds the Cape of Good Hope and enters the Indian Ocean

1490

In the Congo, Nzinga Nkuwu, a  
chieftain, is converted to Christianity  
by the Portuguese

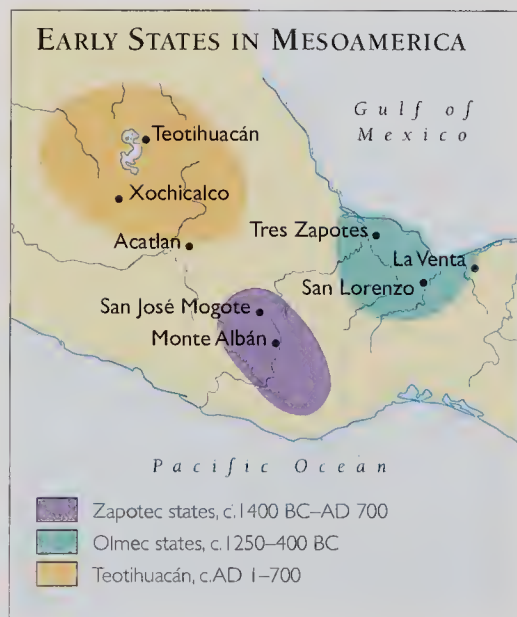
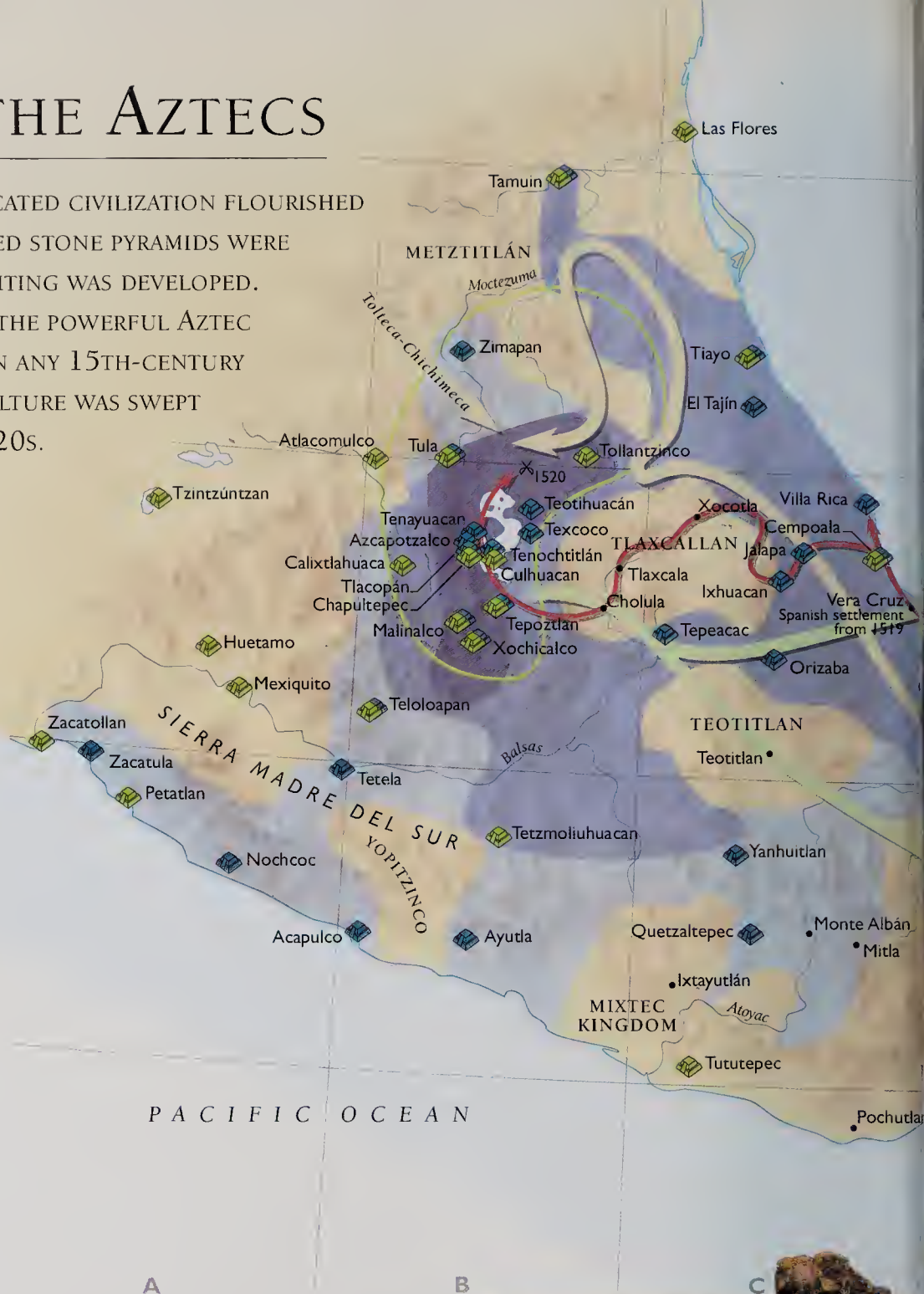


# THE MAYA & THE AZTECS

FOR ALMOST 2,000 YEARS A SOPHISTICATED CIVILIZATION FLOURISHED IN MESOAMERICA. ELABORATELY CARVED STONE PYRAMIDS WERE BUILT FOR RELIGIOUS RITUALS AND WRITING WAS DEVELOPED. TENOCHTITLÁN, THE CAPITAL CITY OF THE POWERFUL AZTEC EMPIRE, WAS LARGER AND RICHER THAN ANY 15TH-CENTURY EUROPEAN CITY. THIS REMARKABLE CULTURE WAS SWEEPED AWAY BY SPANISH INVADERS IN THE 1520s.

The origins of civilization in Mesoamerica lie in the adoption of corn farming around 2700 BC. Reliable rainfall and year-round warmth made it possible for people to grow four crops a year on the fertile river plains of southeastern Mexico. By 1250 BC chiefdoms and small states had emerged among the Olmecs, who built large ceremonial centers with earth pyramid mounds and monumental stone sculpture; they later devised the first astronomical calendars. Complex societies also formed among the Zapotecs peoples of the Oaxaca valley. The earliest writing script in the Americas, using glyphs (picture symbols), developed here around 800 BC. One of their most important centers was at Monte Albán, which flourished between 400 BC and AD 700.

During the 1st century AD a major settlement arose at Teotihuacán in the Valley of Mexico. Covering an area of over 8 square miles (20 sq km), it was larger than ancient Rome, though it was not as densely populated. Designed on a grid pattern, it contained ceremonial centers, palaces, a large

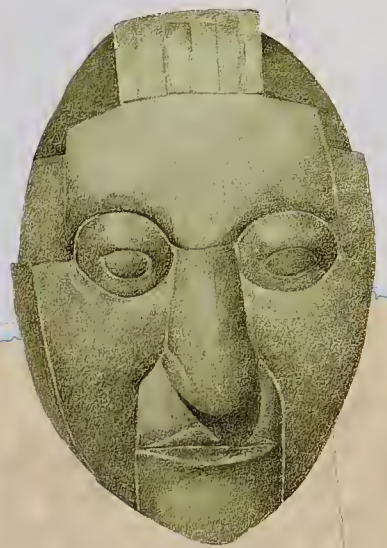


urban settlement, craft workshops, and a quarter for foreign merchants. The Pyramid of the Sun (c. 150) was the largest building in pre-Columbian America. Teotihuacán's influence had been declining for a century when it was sacked by invaders about 750.

The Maya originated in the highlands of Guatemala. Around 1000 BC they began to spread into the lowlands of the Yucatán peninsula, where they dug canals to drain the swamps to grow food. By the 7th century BC they were building monumental temple pyramids, and city-states began to form. Writing, the use of the astronomical calendar, and the sacred ball game were probably adopted from the Olmecs and Zapotecs as long-distance trade developed.







**Left** A bowl on the stomach of this stone warrior at Chichén Itzá would have held sacrificial offerings. Behind is the stone pyramid.

## BLOOD SACRIFICES

Around AD 300 the Maya living in the area of Petén, the central region of lowland forest, began to erect stone monuments, or *stelae*, to record the deeds of royal ancestors and commemorate important events. Many such *stelae* have survived, hidden in the forest vegetation, and

archeologists have been able to decipher their inscriptions, written in an advanced glyph script. They give a picture of more or less continuous conflict between Mayan city-states like Tikal and Palenque.

Warfare was a necessary way of taking captives for human sacrifices. Worship of the gods demanded that these were held on certain dates in the astronomical calendar





*Above* Lady Wak Tun, in a trance, has a vision of a serpent—a scene from a Mayan glyph carving.

or to mark important events, such as royal funerals. Victims were tortured and mutilated before having their hearts cut out. Mayan kings themselves were expected to participate in painful rituals; for example, their tongues were pierced with the spines of stingrays to allow them to communicate with ancestral spirits.

The Maya used a complex and highly accurate calendar, based on precise astronomical observations. They later produced written sacred books of bark, which they illustrated with intricate paintings. These, and their stone carvings, tell us something of their violent cosmos and powerful gods.

Wars and famine brought about by overcultivation of the land may have caused the rapid collapse and desertion of the lowland Mayan cities after 800. Those in the highlands survived longer, but were conquered by the Spanish in the 16th century.

## THE TOLTECS

Early in the 10th century the Toltecs, consisting of two groups of people who migrated into central Mexico during the power vacuum after the fall of Teotihuacán, formed their capital at Tula. From here they extended their influence throughout the Valley of Mexico. Archeologists believe that a band of Toltec adventurers invaded Yucatán around 987 and founded a dynasty that ruled the Mayan city of Chichén Itzá for 200 years—many of its buildings were modeled on those of Tula. In the late 12th century Tula was destroyed and the Toltec people scattered. Great temple pyramids and stone statues of warriors were all that remained of their former presence.

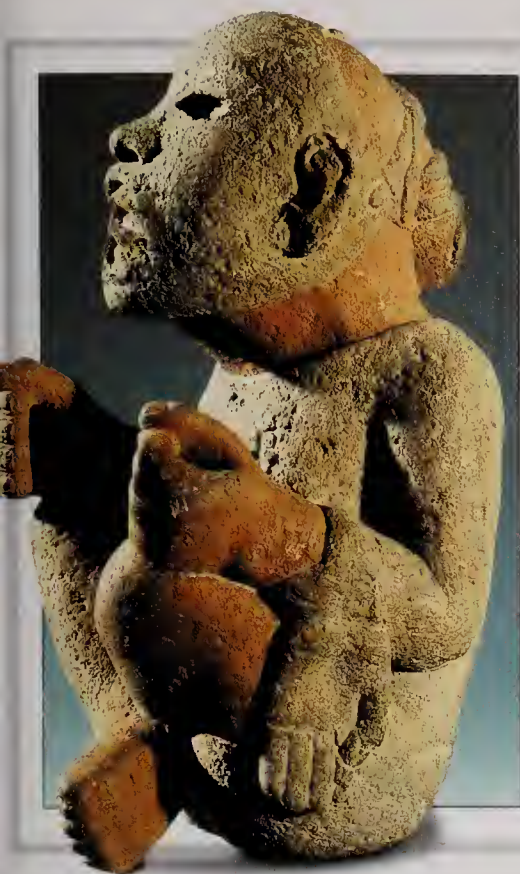
## THE WARLIKE AZTECS

The Aztecs were the last great civilization of central Mexico. They claimed descent from the Toltecs, whom they believed must have been extremely strong and wise superhumans to have built such enormous stone monuments. They took over many aspects of Toltec culture, including the worship of many gods such as Quetzalcoatl, the feathered serpent. In fact, the Aztecs migrated into the Valley of Mexico after the decline of the Toltec empire. In 1325, they settled at Tenochtitlán on an island in Lake Texcoco and served as mercenary soldiers in neighboring states before establishing a military empire in the Valley of Mexico during the reign of king Itzcoatl (r.1427–40). The empire grew under his successors, reaching its peak in the reign of Moctezuma II (r.1502–20). Like the Maya, the Aztecs needed to wage continual war, as their religion required the constant taking of prisoners for human sacrifices. The Aztecs took care not to conquer all their enemies; some states, such as Tlaxcallan, were allowed to survive so that they could be regularly raided for sacrificial victims.

The Aztecs had a very complex and well-defined class system: an individual's status could instantly be known from their hairstyle and other details of dress. At the top was the king, whose official title was “great speaker.” Below him was an elite rank of nobles who all claimed descent from the first Aztec king. Commoners belonged by birth to one of 20 clans, each of which lived







## APPEASING THE GODS

*Human sacrifice lay at the heart of Aztec religion. At the Great Temple of Tenochtitlán, priests performed sacrifices every day, cutting the hearts out of their victims to offer them to the war god Huitzilopochtli. If this was not done, he would lack the strength to battle with the forces of the dark, and the sun would fail to rise the next day. Other gods also demanded terrible sacrifices. To honor Xipe Totec, a god of springtime, captives were killed in mock battles by Aztec warriors. The skins were flayed from their bodies and worn by their victors to invoke the bursting of the corn seed from its husk.*

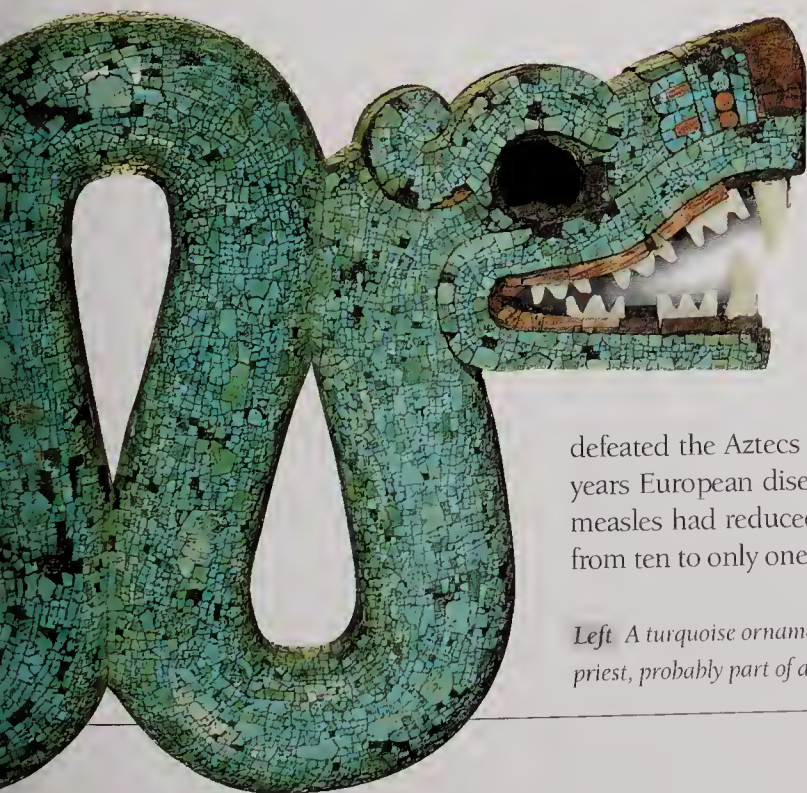
*Left A figure of Xipe Totec wearing the flayed skin of a sacrificial victim.*

in a particular quarter of Tenochtitlán, with its own temples and schools. Members of the clan owned and farmed land in common, while in wartime, the men of the clan fought together. Warriors could win fame and glory by capturing prisoners. No man was considered an adult until he had taken a prisoner in battle. Below the commoners in rank was a class made up of conquered peoples, who worked as tenant farmers and laborers. There were also slaves (prisoners-of-war and criminals) and a class of merchants, who might be very rich but could not display their wealth.

## THE FALL OF THE AZTECS

The Aztecs believed that the god Quetzalcoatl would one day come back in human form from the east. When a Spanish army landed on the east coast of Mexico in 1519 under the leadership of Hernán Cortés, it was rumored that the god—whom the legends described as fairhaired and bearded—had returned. If this was so, the king was obliged to treat him with honor and respect. Moctezuma invited the Spaniard to a meeting in Tenochtitlán, but Cortés, who had made an alliance with Moctezuma's enemies, responded by taking him prisoner. The Aztecs resisted the invaders bravely, but weapons of wood and stone were no match for firearms, armor, swords, and horses. Though only a tiny band, the Spanish conquistadors had defeated the Aztecs by 1521. Within a few years European diseases like smallpox and measles had reduced the Aztec population from ten to only one million.

*Left A turquoise ornament worn by an Aztec high priest, probably part of a treasure sent to Cortés.*



## TIMETABLE

- c. 1400 BC  
The Olmecs begin to farm maize
- 1000–800  
The Maya settle the Yucatán peninsula
- c. 800  
Origins of the Zapotec writing system
- c. AD 36  
The earliest Mayan calendrical inscriptions date from this year
- c. AD 150  
The Pyramid of the Sun is built at Teotihuacán
- 411–57  
Tikal, under king Stormy Sky, is the dominant Mayan city in Petén
- c. 750  
The city of Teotihuacán is destroyed by unknown invaders
- 799–889  
The Mayan cities in the Petén lowlands decline and are abandoned
- c. 900  
The Toltecs establish their capital at Tula
- 987  
A Toltec band conquers Chichén Itzá
- 1168  
Tula is destroyed and the Toltec state collapses
- c. 1200–1300  
Aztecs migrate into the Valley of Mexico
- 1221  
The Toltec dynasty at Chichén Itzá is overthrown by the Mayan Hunuc Ceel
- 1325  
The Aztecs found Tenochtitlán in the Valley of Mexico (now buried under Mexico City)
- 1428–40  
The reign of Itzcoatl marks the beginning of Aztec expansion
- 1502–20  
The Aztec empire is at its greatest under Moctezuma II
- 1519–21  
The Aztecs are invaded and conquered by the Spanish
- 1524–1697  
The Spanish conquer the Mayan highland cities



# THE INCA EMPIRE

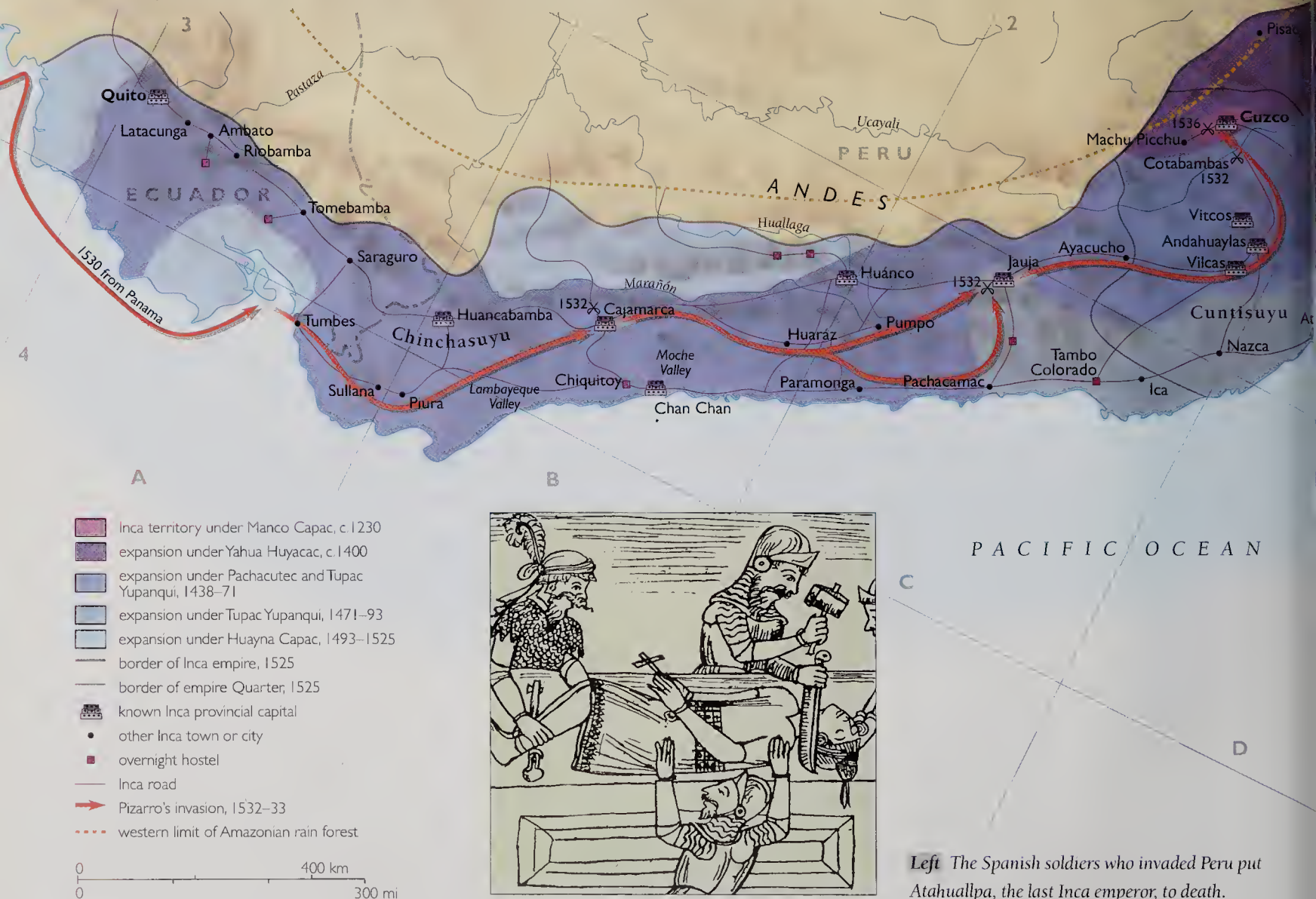
THE INCAS CREATED THE LAST GREAT EMPIRE OF THE ANCIENT AMERICAS. IT EXTENDED FOR SOME 3,000 MILES (4,800 KM) ALONG THE ANDES FROM ECUADOR TO CENTRAL CHILE AND WAS LINKED BY A NETWORK OF ROADS AND ROPE SUSPENSION BRIDGES. DESPITE ITS WEALTH AND SPLENDOR, IT LASTED BARELY A CENTURY BEFORE IT WAS CONQUERED BY THE SPANISH.

The Incas were the heirs of cultural traditions stretching back to the first fishing and farming communities that emerged on the coastal lowlands of Peru around 1800 BC. Archeologists have identified a succession of cultures here, for example the Chavín (c.850–200 BC), whose art, with images of strange animal-gods, is found throughout northern and central Peru. Around 100 BC the Moche began to build a powerful state on the coast. They were ruled by warrior-priests and created marvelous objects in gold, semiprecious stone, pottery, and textiles. They were conquered around AD 600

by the Huari, who overcame other states, such as the Nazca, to build an empire that extended into the Andean highlands. Its presence there blocked the northward expansion of the Andean empire of Tiahuanaco, a city close to Lake Titicaca, which had some 20,000–40,000 inhabitants and contained temples, tombs, and palaces of well-worked stone. Around 1000 both empires collapsed into small local states. The most powerful was Chimú, based in the Moche Valley, which emerged around 1200 and came to control over 600 miles (1,000 km) of the Peruvian coastal plain.

## INCA ORIGINS

Little is known about the early history of the Incas. According to legend, they were led out of mountain caves by Manco Capac to settle in Cuzco, in a fertile valley high in the Andes. We do not know if Manco Capac was a real person; if he was, he probably lived around 1200, at the time that the Chimú state was being formed. Until the time of Pachacutec (r.1438–71) and his son Tupac Yupanqui (r.1471–93), there was little to distinguish the Incas from other early Andean states. Both





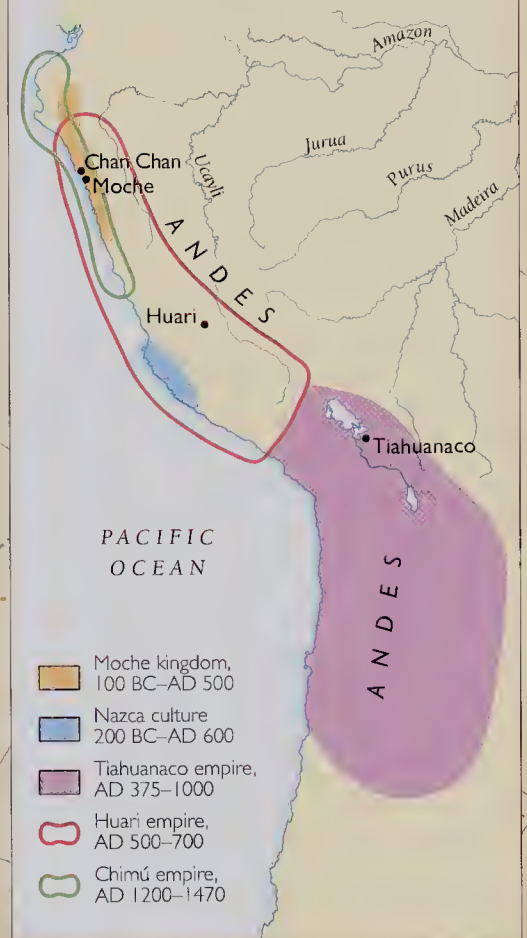
c.1200–1533

BRAZIL



Left The Moche were ruled by powerful warrior-priests who were buried in elaborate graves, clad in suits of gold, silver, and copper. The headdress, long earlobes, and ear disks worn by the figure on this Moche portrait jar show that he was a person of high rank.

#### BEFORE THE INCAS



men were skilled soldiers and campaigned almost constantly to expand the Inca empire. By the time of Tupac Yupanqui's death it had reached its practicable limits, though a few minor conquests were added by Huayna Capac (r.1493–1525). The Inca economy was based on the intensive farming of potatoes and corn, and these could not be grown in the Amazonian rainforest to the east or the Andes of the far south.

#### THE INCA STATE

Inca society was highly organized. The emperor (the Inca) claimed descent from the sun-god Inti and had undisputed powers; his capital, Cuzco, was believed to be the center of the Earth. Ranked below him were the prefects of the "Four Quarters,"

the principal divisions of the empire, followed by several more classes of official down to the rank of foreman, who were responsible for supervising ten families each. Farmlands were divided into three parts: one to support the state, one the gods, and one the people. All Inca men and women paid "taxes" by working on the land allocated to the state and the gods. Healthy men also had to work in





labor drafts known as *mit'a*—they might be required to construct roads and fortresses, terrace steep hillsides for new fields, or build irrigation canals. This system allowed the Incas to keep a large full-time army in the field for long periods, giving them an edge over their opponents. Women had to do craft work such as weaving—fine textiles were highly prized and regarded as more precious than gold. This complex tax system was run without the

use of writing. Records were kept by an elaborate system of knotted strings called a *quipu*. Strings of different color represented different kinds of goods, while the number of knots on each string stood for the quantities owed or issued as rations.

The Incas' network of over 12,500 miles (20,000 km) of roads allowed armies and

messengers to travel quickly to all parts of the empire. Steep gorges were crossed by rope suspension bridges, and short tunnels found a way through rock obstacles. In the absence of the wheel, freight was carried on the backs of llamas and alpacas. Overnight hostels were provided for travelers.

Conquered peoples were forced to adopt Inca ways and speak the Inca language, Quechua, which is still widely spoken in the Andes. Rebels were deported to the heart of the empire, where they could be closely guarded, and their lands resettled by loyal subjects.

The Inca religion centered on worship of the sun-god Inti. His temple in Cuzco was completely covered in

*Right* A gold burial mask of the Chimú, symbolizing power. After their defeat by the Incas, Chimú goldsmiths were taken to work in Cuzco.





*Left Perched on a narrow ridge between two high peaks, the Inca fortress-city of Machu Picchu escaped detection by the Spanish and was not rediscovered until 1911. Its drystone walls and terraces, linked by more than 3,000 steps, reflect the Inca feeling for stone. One Inca myth says that the creator god made men from stone; another relates that the Incas were descended from four brothers and four sisters who emerged through a stone door on an island in Lake Titicaca. Carved sacred stones ("huaca") were venerated by the Inca, and several are found at Machu Picchu.*



*Above The mummified body of an 8-year-old child found on a mountain in Chile.*

gold, the symbol of the sun. Mama Cocha ("Mother Earth"), who was the source of fertility and crops, and Viracocha, who created the world, were also worshiped. There were many religious festivals, when the people took part in feasts.

## THE END OF THE INCAS

After Huayna Capac's death a bloody civil war broke out between his sons Atahualpa and Huáscar. Atahualpa finally defeated his brother in 1532 but the empire had been seriously weakened. Far worse was soon to come. The Spanish conquistador Francisco Pizarro, who had set sail from Panama a year earlier, landed on the coast of Peru. Although he had a force of only 180 men at his disposal, he took Atahualpa captive in a surprise attack. Without the emperor at their head, the Incas could take no important decisions, so Pizarro's action paralyzed the empire. Atahualpa paid a huge sum of gold for his freedom, but Pizarro had him executed all the same. By 1536 Cuzco was in Spanish hands.

Resistance continued for some years in remote mountain areas, but smallpox and other imported diseases wiped out thousands of people, while many others were enslaved. The Spanish looted and destroyed Inca temples, banned their religion, and imposed Christianity. Yet Inca customs survive among the Andean peoples, and Inca gods find a place in Christian rituals today.

## THE CHILD MUMMIES OF THE ANDES

The Spanish claimed that the Incas commonly sacrificed children. They recorded that the most beautiful boys and girls were selected from their villages to go to Cuzco, where they were ritually "married" to the Inca to ensure health and fertility. They were then taken to a sacred mountaintop, made drunk with liquor, and buried alive. Until the mummy of a young girl was uncovered on a mountain in Chile in 1994, these stories were thought to be anti-Inca propaganda to justify the destruction of their religion. The mountain was sacred to the Inca deity who brought rain and good harvests, and she was found at a height of 20,000 feet

(6,000 m), preserved by the dry climate. Her hair was worn in a long braid tied to her belt by a thread of black alpaca wool, and she had a cap of feathers. Leather slippers protected her feet. Her shawl was fastened with silver pins, from which hung a miniature box and two drinking vessels. Two more children were later found on the same mountain, buried with small dolls and tiny silver models of llamas and alpacas. They may have been a boy and girl who were sacrificed together. While we cannot know the full meaning of these sacrificial burials, they may represent the symbolic relationship between the Inca and the Earth, the living and the dead.

## TIMETABLE

**c.100 BC**

The Moche state emerges on the coast of northern Peru

**AD 375–700**

Tiahuanaco is dominant in the southern Andes

**c.850**

The Chimú state comes into being

**c.1200–30**

The Incas establish themselves at Cuzco

**1438**

Pachacutec begins the rapid expansion of the Inca empire

**1470**

The Incas conquer the Chimú empire

**1525**

Death of the Inca, Huayna Capac: the Inca empire is at its height.

**1525–32**

Atahualpa defeats his brother Huáscar in a civil war

**1532**

Francisco Pizarro invades the Inca empire and captures Atahualpa

**1533**

Pizarro executes Atahualpa

**1572**

The last Inca resistance is suppressed by the Spanish





- 1 c.1220–1100 BC The Jewish people settle in the land of Canaan
- 2 c.1000 King David makes Jerusalem the capital of Israel
- 3 c.800 The *Upanishads*, sacred Hindu texts, are written down
- 4 c.630–553 Life of Zoroaster, founder of the Zoroastrian religion of Iran
- 5 c.587 The Jews are deported to Babylon by King Nebuchadnezzar II

- 6 c.551–579 Life of Confucius, Chinese teacher of ethics
- 7 c.528–461 Life of Siddhartha Gautama, founder of Buddhism
- 8 c.260 The first Buddhist missionaries arrive in Ceylon
- 9 c.6 BC–AD 30 Life of Jesus of Nazareth, founder of Christianity
- 10 AD 44–62 St. Paul makes missionary journeys to Asia Minor, Greece, and Rome

- 11 66–74 After a Roman army puts down a Jewish rebellion, the Jews are dispersed through the Mediterranean and Middle East
- 12 c.100 Buddhism reaches China
- 13 c.570–632 Life of the Prophet Muhammad, founder of Islam
- 14 632–750 The Arab conquests spread the Islamic religion from Spain to Persia
- 15 791 Buddhism becomes the state religion of the kingdom of Tibet



# THE WORLD'S RELIGIONS

BY 1500 THE FIVE MAJOR "WORLD RELIGIONS" OF HINDUISM, BUDDHISM, JUDAISM, CHRISTIANITY, AND ISLAM WERE WIDELY SPREAD THROUGH ASIA, EUROPE, AND MUCH OF NORTHERN AFRICA, WHERE THEY OFTEN EXISTED ALONGSIDE, AND INTERMINGLED WITH, EARLIER BELIEFS. BUT MUCH OF THE WORLD STILL LAY OUTSIDE THE REACH OF THEIR INFLUENCE.

Religion has probably been a characteristic of all societies in all parts of the world from the beginning of human history; there is evidence of ritual burial even among some of our early human ancestors such as the Neanderthals. Most traditional societies of hunter-gatherers and tribal farmers have systems of belief that recognize a relationship between the natural and supernatural worlds: the landscape is inhabited by gods or by good and evil spirits, often the souls of ancestors or animals, who have influence over human affairs. They can bring about calamities such as death, sickness, or famine, or ensure good fortune and success. Holy men (more rarely women)—known as shamans, witch doctors, or medicine men—may claim the power to communicate with the spirit world and to influence it through rituals passed down over generations. Sometimes gods or spirits are believed to inhabit a particular site such as a waterfall, tree, or cave. If they are given food or other offerings, they may bring about good results such as the birth of a child or a plentiful harvest. Belief systems of this kind are still found in every part of the world. They vary greatly in their beliefs and practices, and are known as animist or traditional religions.



- 16 1054 Final split takes place between the Catholic and Orthodox churches
- 17 1095 Pope Urban II calls a crusade to expel the Muslims from the Holy Land
- 18 1378–1417 There are rival popes in Avignon, France, and Rome
- 19 1469–1538 Life of Guru Nanak, the founder and first Guru (teacher) of Sikhism
- 20 1492 Granada, the last Muslim state in Spain, is conquered. The Jews are expelled from Spain

Right Many religions, including Hinduism, Christianity, and Islam, encourage pilgrimage: a long or hard journey made to a sacred site or shrine will win the traveler special merit. St. James is shown here as a Christian pilgrim.





As societies developed, religion became more structured. Organized states had the resources to build and maintain central temples or shrines. Rulers often had a special religious function, which was the basis for their power: their performance of certain set rituals ensured the safety of the state and bound the people to them. A great number of gods might be worshiped, some of whom were associated with a particular city or shrine. Religions of this kind had developed in the early agricultural societies of Europe and Asia, and in 1500 could be found among many of the settled farmers of Mesoamerica and the Andes.

## WORLD RELIGIONS

Over time, some religions claimed universal status: they held that their teachings had relevance for all people and sought to win converts from other religions. The societies in which these religions developed were literate, and their beliefs were usually written down in divinely “revealed” sacred books. They define the basic teachings of that religion in a precise form for future generations to interpret and live by. Others spread from their original place of origin because of the uprooting and dispersal of their followers.

By the year 1500 the “world religions,” as they are known, were widely established in Asia and Europe. That did not mean that all earlier beliefs had disappeared. Often local gods or sacred sites became part of the new religion (a process often known as syncretism). There were also many smaller religions like Zoroastrianism, many of whose followers had settled in western India after being expelled from Persia.

## ONE GOD OF ALL

Three world religions—Judaism, Christianity, and Islam—believe in a single creator God, though they do not worship him in the same way. These religions are called monotheistic. The oldest is Judaism, the faith that grew up among the ancient Jewish people. They believed that God had given them the land of Canaan (modern Israel and Lebanon) to live in for ever. Their complex set of laws and beliefs, contained in the Old Testament books of the Bible, set them apart from others and sustained their sense of cultural and ethnic identity after they had



been scattered by conquest and migration. Many Jewish communities were established around the Mediterranean and Middle East, but Jews were often persecuted by other religions, particularly Christians. Persecution increased during the Middle Ages. In 1492 the Inquisition was used against the Jews of Spain, and all those who refused to convert to Christianity were driven from the country; their families had lived in for centuries.

Christianity shares some of the Biblical foundations of Judaism. It is based upon the teachings of Jesus of Nazareth, a Jewish teacher who rebelled against the current

religious practices of the Jews and was put to death. His followers became known as Christians, and after his death Christianity became a missionizing religion that sought to convert people throughout the Mediterranean world. The Romans persecuted the early Christians but after Christianity was made the official religion of the empire in 391, it spread rapidly. By 1500 it was recognized throughout Europe but was split into two: the western Catholic church in Rome and the eastern Orthodox church in Constantinople. The Crusades against the Muslims of Spain and the Middle East, led



## THE EASTERN RELIGIONS

The origins of Hinduism, the main religion of the Indian subcontinent in 1500, stretch back at least 3,000 years, based on the Vedas and other ancient scriptures. A complex system of ideas and rituals, it has no formal beliefs but has at its center the idea of reincarnation, or rebirth in a new form after death. It embraces the worship of numerous gods and spiritual beings, and its devotees often make pilgrimages to holy sites such as the river Ganges. The cultural influence of Hinduism spread outside India to parts of Southeast Asia, but by 1500 it was declining here, except in Bali.

Buddhism, based on the teachings of Siddhartha Gautama, the Buddha, taught that people could attain nirvana, a state free of suffering, by correct living. At one time widespread in India, where it originated in the 5th century BC, it had nearly died out there by 1500. However, missionaries had spread it outside India to all parts of east Asia. By AD 300, Buddhism had divided into two main traditions. Mahayana or Tantric Buddhism, practiced in Tibet, China, Korea, and Japan, believes in the existence of supernatural deities; Theravada Buddhism, followed in southeast Asia, does not.

In China Buddhist ideas were assimilated into Taoism, an indigenous philosophical system. Traditional worship of ancestors also continued, as did the ethical code based on the teachings of Confucius (551–479 BC). Japanese Buddhism blended with Shinto, which recognizes the sacred power of *kami*, gods and spirits that were believed to inhabit rocks, trees, streams, and many other natural sites.

by the popes, were the cause of increasing hostility between Christianity and Islam.

Like Judaism and Christianity, Islam grew up in the Middle East: it also teaches that there is only one God and is based upon a sacred text, the Koran, which contains the divine revelations of the Prophet Muhammad. Conquest and the expansion of trade spread the religion he founded in 7th-century Arabia throughout the Middle East and northern Africa and into central and southeast Asia. By 1500 Islam was the most successful of the world religions, both numerically and by geographical spread.

*Above* Angkor Wat in northern Cambodia was a 12th-century Hindu temple dedicated to the cult of Shiva. Built by a ruler of the Khmer kingdom, it shows the strong Indian cultural influence in southeast Asia at this time. It later became a Buddhist shrine.



*Left* Shiva is the most powerful and terrifying of the Hindu gods. He is contradictory in character: he both saves the world and destroys it. Here he is shown as the Lord of the Dance, depicted within a circle of flames as he tramples the demon of ignorance beneath his feet.







# THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

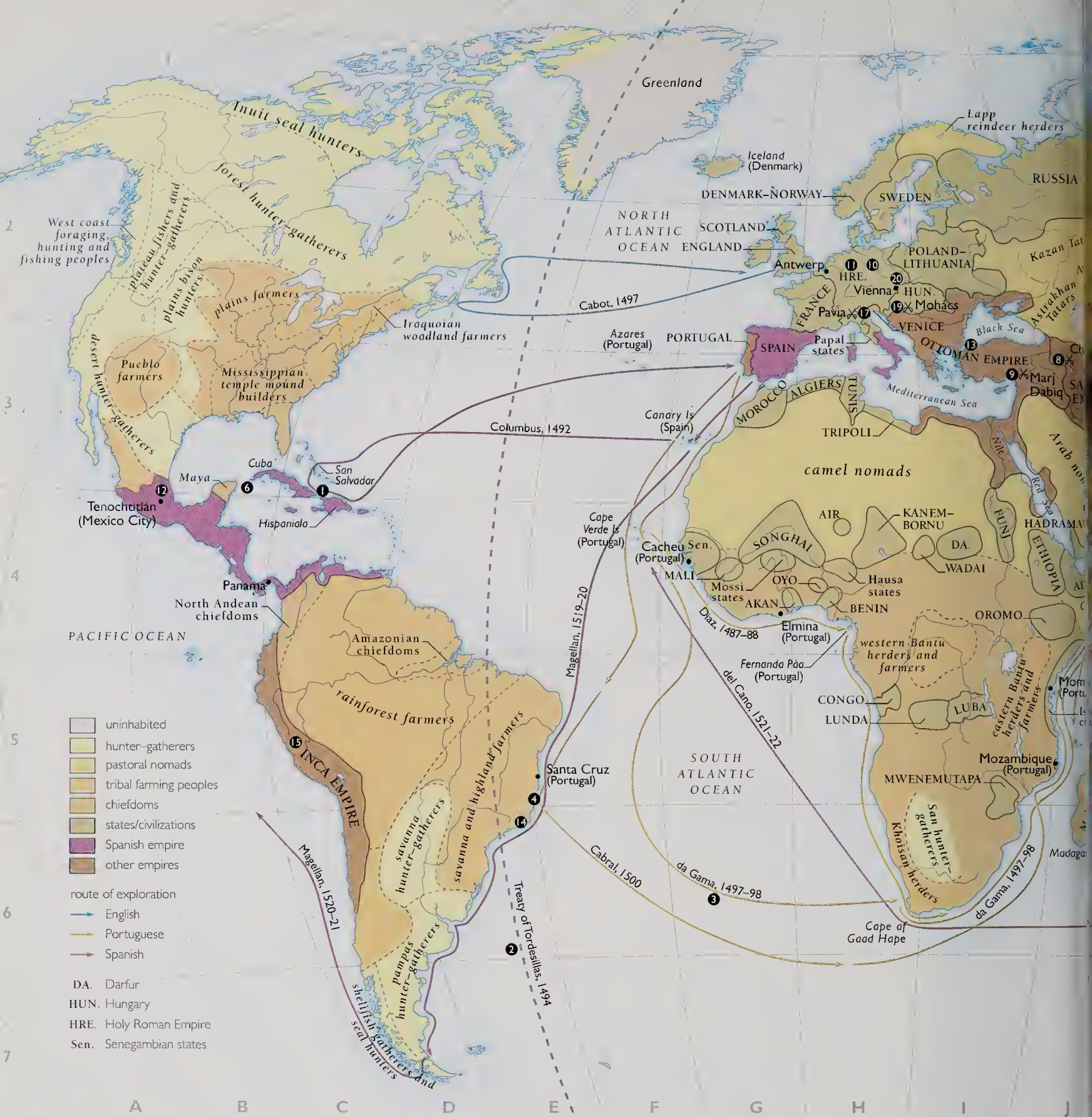
In the three centuries from 1492 to 1815 the world became a smaller place. European navigators and explorers charted the world's oceans and coastlines; by the end of the period all the continents, and most of the major island groups, had been written on to the maps. The period also saw a great shift in global power.

Before the Spanish set foot in the New World, Europe had been overshadowed by the more advanced civilizations of the Middle East and East Asia, who dominated international trade. The quantities of American gold and silver sent back to Europe brought a ready stream of wealth, and the opening of a direct sea route meant that European traders could buy silk and spices directly from Southeast Asia and the Far East. By the end of the 18th century Europeans controlled most of Asia's maritime trade. More shameful was the inhuman trade in slaves they had established between Africa and the Caribbean.

Europe itself underwent great religious and social upheavals between 1492 and 1815. It was split into opposing Catholic and Protestant camps by the Reformation and subsequently divided by frequent political wars, caused in part by rivalry for colonial trade. The French Revolution of 1789 threw Europe into turmoil. Napoleon emerged from the political chaos in France to make himself emperor, but his attempt to create an empire in Europe ended in his defeat in 1815. The French revolutionaries shared many of the ideals of liberty and democracy that inspired the thirteen American colonies to throw off British rule in 1776. By 1815, the young United States had established itself territorially and politically. The colonial empires of Latin America were also moving toward independence.

For all its success, Europe did not dominate the world in 1815. Most people in Asia, Africa, and the Pacific region had never seen or heard of Europeans. The largest empire was China, which controlled many neighboring states in Central and East Asia and had, like Japan, turned its back on contact with Europe. Closer to home, the Ottoman empire was still a challenge to European power, though it was obviously in decline. But western technological and scientific knowledge had seen rapid advances, and large-scale industrial production was just beginning in Britain. The global economy was set to grow as industrialization spread to the rest of Europe and the United States in the coming century.





- 1 1492 Christopher Columbus reaches Hispaniola and Cuba in the Caribbean
- 2 1494 The Treaty of Tordesillas gives all land west of an imaginary line in the Atlantic to Spain, and all land east of it to Portugal
- 3 1497-98 Vasco da Gama makes the first return voyage from Portugal to India
- 4 1500 Pedro Alvarez Cabral discovers Brazil for Portugal, while sailing to India
- 5 1501 The Safavid dynasty is set up in Persia

- 6 1508 Spanish conquest of the Caribbean and Central America begins
- 7 1511 The Portuguese capture Malacca
- 8 1514 The Ottoman Turks defeat the Safavids at the battle of Chaldiran
- 9 1516 The Ottoman Turks defeat the Mamluke rulers of Egypt at the battle of Marj Dabiq
- 10 1517 Martin Luther publishes his 95 Theses in Wittenberg, Germany, an act that leads to the Protestant Reformation

- 11 1519 Charles of Habsburg (king of Spain since 1516) is elected Charles V, Holy Roman emperor, on the death of his grandfather
- 12 1519 The Spanish adventurer Hernán Cortés begins the conquest of the Aztec empire
- 13 1520 Suleiman I becomes the reigning sultan of the Ottoman empire
- 14 1521 The Portuguese begin to colonize Brazil
- 15 1521-25 The Inca empire in Peru reaches its greatest extent

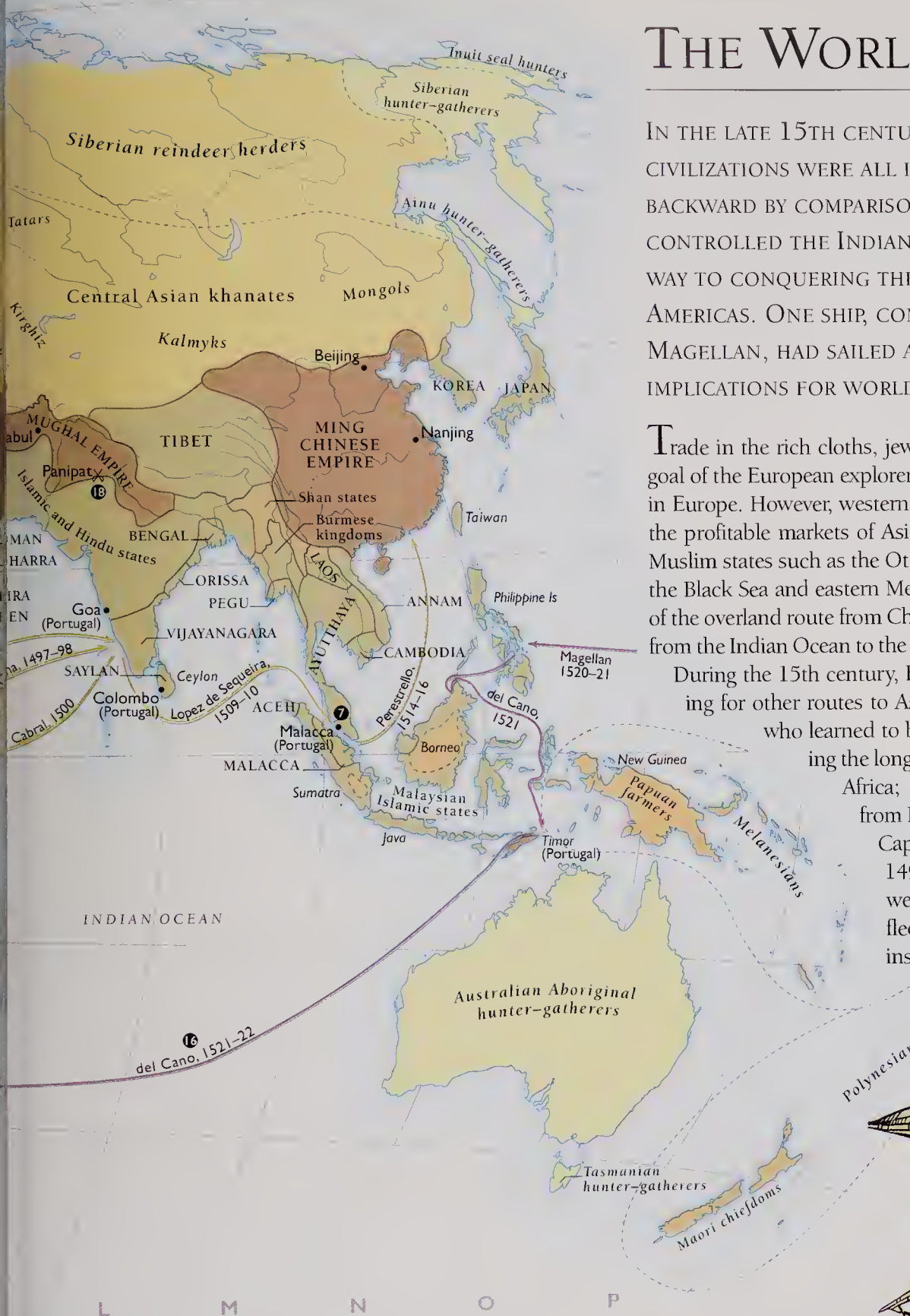


# THE WORLD BY 1530

IN THE LATE 15TH CENTURY, THE WORLD'S GREATEST CIVILIZATIONS WERE ALL IN ASIA; EUROPE WAS BACKWARD BY COMPARISON. YET BY 1530 EUROPEANS CONTROLLED THE INDIAN OCEAN, AND WERE ON THE WAY TO CONQUERING THE GREAT EMPIRES OF THE AMERICAS. ONE SHIP, COMMANDED BY FERDINAND MAGELLAN, HAD SAILED AROUND THE WORLD. THE IMPLICATIONS FOR WORLD HISTORY WERE ENORMOUS.

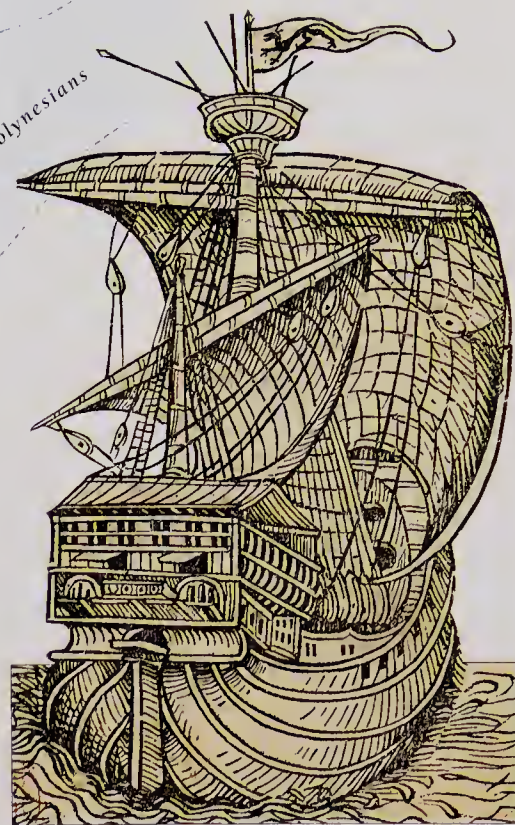
Trade in the rich cloths, jewels, and spices of Asia was the chief goal of the European explorers. Such luxury goods had great value in Europe. However, western traders did not have direct access to the profitable markets of Asia—their way was blocked by hostile Muslim states such as the Ottoman Turks who by 1530 controlled the Black Sea and eastern Mediterranean ports at the western end of the overland route from China and India, as well as the sea route from the Indian Ocean to the Red Sea and Egypt.

During the 15th century, European navigators had begun looking for other routes to Asia. They were led by the Portuguese who learned to build ships that were capable of making the long sea voyage down the Atlantic coast of Africa; in 1497–98 Vasco da Gama sailed from Portugal to India and back around the Cape of Good Hope. More daring still, in 1492 Christopher Columbus ventured west across the Atlantic with a Spanish fleet in an attempt to reach China. But instead of arriving in Asia, he had found



- 16 1522 Magellan's voyage around the world (begun in 1519) is completed by Sebastian del Cano
- 17 1525 Francis I of France is captured by the Spanish at the battle of Pavia in northern Italy
- 18 1526 Babur defeats the sultan of Delhi at the battle of Panipat and conquers northern India
- 19 1526 An Ottoman army defeats the Hungarians at Mohács
- 20 1529 The Ottomans besiege Vienna

Right The "Santa Maria," flagship of the small fleet with which Columbus sailed in 1492, resembled this tiny vessel. The crossing from the Canary Islands to landfall at San Salvador (Bahamas) took almost six weeks.





the way to a new continent, soon to be called America. Other explorers followed and a few years later John Cabot sailed from England to Newfoundland. In 1520 Ferdinand Magellan entered the Pacific Ocean around the tip of South America. Although he died en route, his crew returned to Europe having made the first circumnavigation of the globe.

## EUROPE

By 1530 Spain was the wealthiest kingdom in Europe, profiting from the gold that the Spanish conquerors discovered in the Americas and shipped home in vast quantities. In 1519 the Spanish king became, as Charles V, the Holy Roman emperor. This gave him control of Spain, Germany, the Netherlands, and much of Italy, and created a Habsburg power bloc that would dominate Europe for 200 years. Spain's only political rival was France. Since the start of the century they had been fighting a long war for control of the rich city-states of northern Italy. By 1530 it was clear that Spain would be the eventual winner.

The greatest event in Europe in the first half of the 16th century was the controversy over religious reform. Many Christians felt that the Catholic church, and the popes in particular, had become corrupt. In 1517, a German monk, Martin Luther, launched a movement of protest against church abuses. It fueled religious and political unrest in Germany and led to the Protestant Reformation, which divided Europe into bitterly opposed camps for 150 years. By 1530 the Reformation had spread to Sweden, and would soon reach England and Scotland.

## THE MIDDLE EAST

In 1530 the Ottoman Turks dominated the Middle East. They had begun to expand out of Anatolia (mainland Turkey) into the Balkans in the 13th and 14th centuries; the city of Constantinople (Istanbul) was taken in 1453. In 1514 they seized Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) from the Safavid rulers of Persia, and the invasion of Egypt two years later laid the way open for further expansion in North Africa and Arabia. The Ottomans continued, too, to make inroads into Europe. After the Hungarians were defeated in 1526, an Ottoman army reached Vienna,



one of the leading cities of Europe and the seat of the Habsburg emperors, in 1529. It failed to capture the city, but few believed the threat to Europe was over. In 1530 the sultan Suleiman I ("the Magnificent") was the most powerful man in the world.

## AFRICA

Before the European discovery of America, tropical west Africa had been the main source of gold for Europe and the Middle East. Caravans of camels conveyed it across

the Sahara desert to ports on the North African coast. This trans-Saharan trade was controlled by the kingdom of Songhai, but when the Portuguese set up a string of bases on the west African coast in the late 15th century, they took trade away from the Saharan routes, thus weakening Songhai. Defeat by the neighboring state of Hausa in 1517 hastened its decline.

Portuguese traders were steadily developing their activities in Africa. By 1502 they were sending African slaves to the Americas. They used their warships to attack the





*Left* A Venetian ambassador is received by the Ottomans, in a painting by Giovanni Bellini. Venice had once been the most powerful naval and trading power in the Mediterranean, but its days were numbered. The Ottomans had taken over many of its island fortresses, and with the opening up of the new ocean-going trade routes, Antwerp replaced it as the main European market for the spice trade.

Mongols. The Ming rulers were resistant to outside influences and foreign trade, and as a result, China had begun to lose its technological lead over the rest of the world.

In Central Asia, the growing power of the Ottomans and the Russians was beginning to push the nomadic tribes of the steppes eastward after several centuries of movement in the opposite direction. One nomadic tribal leader, Babur, captured Kabul in Afghanistan in 1504 and went on to invade India. He defeated the sultan of Delhi in 1526 and founded the Mughal dynasty that ruled much of India until the 18th century.

In 1510 the Portuguese founded a trading base at Goa in India. The following year they seized the important Malayan port of Malacca, thereby laying the foundations for what would become a powerful trading empire in the East Indies.

## THE AMERICAS

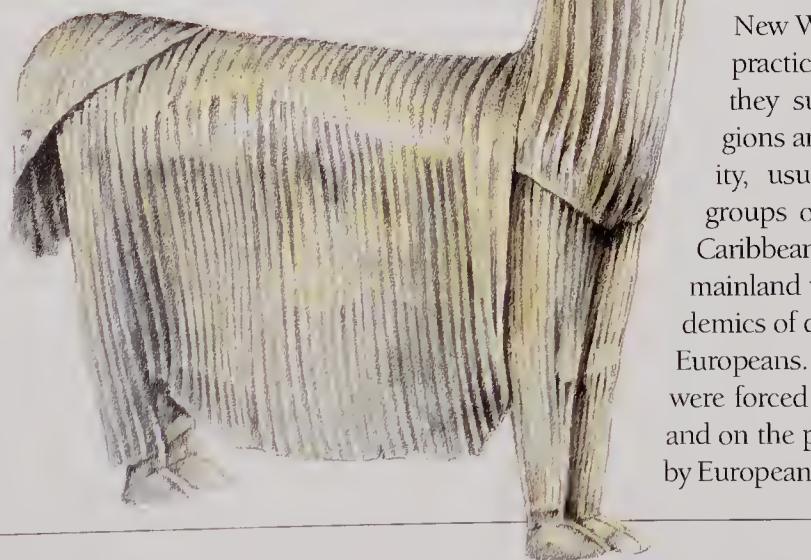
European impact in Central and South America had disastrous consequences for the indigenous peoples. The colonists and adventurers who followed Columbus west were greedy for gold and wasted little time in plundering the wealth of the Aztec empire in Mexico. Virtually all of Central America had been conquered by 1530,

and Francisco Pizarro was preparing to invade the Inca empire from the Spanish colony in Panama. By 1533

it, too, would have fallen to the conquistadors.

The Spanish showed little or no interest in the civilizations they found in the New World. Horrified by the practice of human sacrifice, they suppressed native religions and imposed Christianity, usually by force. Entire groups of Amerindians in the Caribbean islands and on the mainland were destroyed in epidemics of diseases introduced by Europeans. Those who survived were forced to work in the mines and on the plantations established by Europeans.

*Below* This silver alpaca was made as a ritual offering by the Incas. South America had vast natural and mineral wealth before the arrival of the Europeans. Herds of alpacas – which gave thick, soft wool – and llamas, providing food, power, cloth and hides, made the steep Andean mountainsides productive. Peru's vast reserves of gold and silver proved irresistible to European explorers.



Arab traders who had controlled trade in the Indian Ocean for centuries, and Muslim trading ports on the east African coast were brought under their influence. The Portuguese also helped the Christian kingdom of Ethiopia defeat its Muslim neighbor, Adal.

## SOUTH & EAST ASIA

China was the world's largest state in the 16th century. Since 1368 it had been ruled by the Ming dynasty, which had come to power after a century of devastation by the



# THE SPANISH-AMERICAN EMPIRE

IN 1492, THE ITALIAN-BORN NAVIGATOR CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS SAILED WEST ACROSS THE ATLANTIC IN SEARCH OF A SEA ROUTE TO CHINA. SPONSORED BY THE CATHOLIC MONARCHS, FERDINAND AND ISABELLA, HE SAILED UNDER THE FLAG OF SPAIN. HE MADE LANDFALL ON AN ISLAND IN THE CARIBBEAN, THE FIRST EUROPEAN CONTACT WITH THE AMERICAS SINCE THE VIKINGS. AS WORD OF COLUMBUS'S DISCOVERIES IN THE "NEW WORLD" SPREAD, OTHER EUROPEAN EXPLORERS FOLLOWED IN HIS FOOTSTEPS.

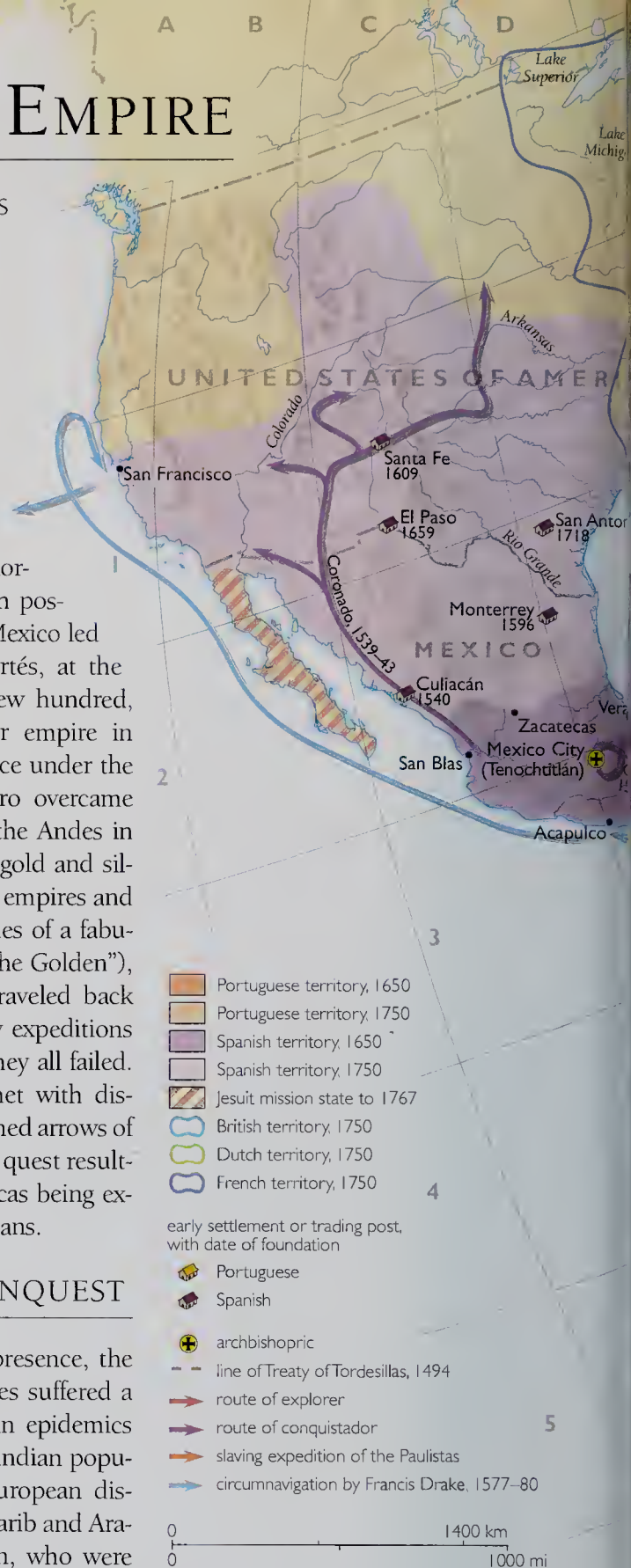
Columbus made four journeys across the Atlantic to the Caribbean. He claimed all the islands he visited for Spain and founded a settlement on Hispaniola. In 1499 a Spanish fleet explored along the coast of South America. One ship was captained by a certain Amerigo Vespucci; an early map-maker ascribed his forename (Americus in Latin) to the new continents, and they have been known as the Americas ever since.

The New World held out unparalleled opportunities for personal enrichment and national conquest. Spanish military adventurers, known as conquistadors, followed

on the heels of the early explorers. Rumors of the vast wealth possessed by the Aztec rulers of Mexico led the conquistador Hernán Cortés, at the head of an army of only a few hundred, to invade and conquer their empire in 1519–24. An even smaller force under the command of Francisco Pizarro overcame the far larger Inca empire of the Andes in 1531–35. Huge quantities of gold and silver were plundered from both empires and shipped back to Europe. Stories of a fabulously rich city, El Dorado ("The Golden"), buried deep in the jungle, traveled back with the treasure ships. Many expeditions were sent to look for it, but they all failed. Instead, the conquistadors met with disease, starvation, and the poisoned arrows of hostile Amerindians. But their quest resulted in large areas of the Americas being explored and mapped by Europeans.

## THE IMPACT OF CONQUEST

As a result of the Spanish presence, the indigenous New World peoples suffered a huge loss of life. More died in epidemics than in war—the native Amerindian population lacked immunity to European diseases such as smallpox. The Carib and Arawak peoples of the Caribbean, who were treated with extreme harshness, were nearly extinct by 1550, while the numbers of Aztecs, Incas, and other South American peoples had more than halved by 1600 and continued to decline throughout the next 100 years. The Spanish imported African slaves to make up for the loss of workers on the sugar plantations they established in the Caribbean. The Amerindians of Central and South America were forced to work in the rich silver mines of Mexico and Peru.



Above A Dominican friar supervises an Inca woman at her loom.



# 1492-1815



mission states in the frontier regions. Spanish gradually replaced native languages.

The whole of Central America was made the Viceroyalty of New Spain. Another viceroyalty was established in Peru shortly after Pizarro's conquest. Both viceroyalties expanded as settlements were founded in California, Texas, and Florida, and east of the Andes, and were later divided into smaller administrative regions.

Above African slaves were sent in large numbers to the New World. This heavily armed "mulatto," the term used for people of mixed African and European descent, was painted by a visitor to Brazil in the 1630s.





Above Colonial life in Brazil and Spanish America reproduced the patterns of life at home. Towns were built in European architectural styles to serve the local neighborhood. In this 17th-century Brazilian town, the main square is the site of the slave market: plantation owners stroll up and down to inspect the most recent consignments. The slave trade was made illegal in the Spanish colonies by the 1820s, but continued in the coffee plantations of Brazil until the late 19th century.

The conquistadors were given parcels of land called *encomienda*. Each *encomendero* (lord) was entitled to collect taxes and use local labor in return for keeping soldiers to defend the empire, in much the same way as the Aztecs and Incas had maintained their empires. In time, the Spanish created large farming estates (*haciendas*). Colonists were always in short supply, the more so as emigration from Spain was restricted in the 17th century to a limit of 2,000 a year to stem falling population levels at home. The Spanish in South America became absentee landlords, staying in the towns, or returning to Europe, for long periods. Amerindians were made to leave the land to become wage laborers, or peons, on the *haciendas*. This system remains in force in many parts of Central and South America.

## EUROPEAN RIVALS

Its American empire turned Spain into the greatest power in Europe. The silver that was shipped back in huge quantities helped to finance its wars, and the flow of precious metal stimulated the whole European economy. Other European countries were eager to grab a share of the New World's riches. The Treaty of Tordesillas between Spain and

## END OF THE SPANISH & PORTUGUESE EMPIRES





Portugal in 1494 had drawn an imaginary line to bisect the Atlantic west of the Cape Verde islands: the Portuguese were free to settle all land to the east of it, the Spanish all land to the west. In effect, this restricted the Portuguese to a small area of coastal Brazil, which they began to settle in large numbers in the 1530s. Portuguese slavers, known as *Paulistas*, frequently raided into the Brazilian jungle, where they attacked the Spanish Jesuit mission states. In the late 17th century, to avoid war with Spain, Portugal cracked down on such raids, banning the enslavement of Native Americans. To provide labor in their mines and plantations they imported black slaves from Angola on the west coast of Africa.

For a long time, other European countries such as the Netherlands, England, and France had to confine their activities in the New World to attacking Spain's ships and coastal ports. Piracy and smuggling were common; so too was privateering, in which the captain of a commercial ship was authorized to carry out piracy on behalf of a hostile government. The English privateer Sir Francis Drake was particularly famous for his daring raids around the Caribbean. But even he failed to capture the heavily guarded treasure fleet that carried quantities of recently mined American silver back to Spain every year. It was seized only once, by the Dutch admiral Piet Heyn in 1628.

## THE CATHOLIC LEGACY

Although it was imposed by force, Roman Catholicism put down deep roots among the native peoples of Latin America. Today, half the world's Catholics live there. Many traditional beliefs and customs were assimilated into Catholicism, giving it a distinctive Amerindian character. In the Andes, sacrifices were made to Christian saints to placate the mountain gods. The figure of Christ was associated with the Sun-god and the Virgin Mary with Mama Cocha, the Inca earth-goddess. In Mexico, belief in the sacredness of ancestors remains alive in the vivid celebrations on the Day of the Dead (November 1st), the Christian remembrance of All Souls.

**Right** Guatemalan villagers celebrate the feast of St. Thomas by carrying his statue through the streets.

## SPANISH DECLINE

In the 17th century, the Spanish-American economy collapsed, partly through labor shortages caused by the dramatic fall in the Amerindian population. The Netherlands, England, and France seized advantage of Spain's weakness to set up small colonies of their own in Central and South America: the English capture of Jamaica in 1655 was a particularly expensive loss. Spanish territory in North America was also threatened by the success of French and English colonies (see pages 126–129). At the end of the Seven Years War (1756–63) Britain gave up Havana (captured in 1762) for Florida, but had lost it again by 1783.

In spite of these losses, the Spanish and Portuguese American empires were mostly intact at the end of the 18th century. However, independence movements were starting to develop, fueled partly by the ideals of the American and French Revolutions. The Napoleonic wars in Europe, when Spain and Portugal were under French occupation (see pages 138–141), provided the catalyst for revolt. The battle for independence started in Mexico in 1810. In 1811 Simón Bolívar (the "Liberator"), an inspired military leader, began the struggle to free South America from Spanish rule. Within 15 years the Spanish empire had broken up, and Brazil was also independent.



## TIMETABLE

1492

Christopher Columbus lands on Hispaniola

1496

The first permanent European settlement in the Americas is founded at Santo Domingo on Hispaniola

1513

Vasco Núñez de Balboa is the first European to sight the Pacific Ocean

1517

The first African slaves arrive in the Americas

1531–35

Francisco Pizarro conquers the Inca empire of Peru

1539–43

Francisco Vázquez de Coronado explores the North American West

1545

The world's richest silver mine is discovered at Potosí in the Andes

1630

The Dutch briefly occupy eastern Brazil

1655

The English capture Jamaica

1697

Tayasal, the last independent Maya state, is conquered by Spain

1708–09

Portugal suppresses the *Paulista* slave raiders

1716

Spain occupies Texas

1762

Britain captures Havana. Spain cedes Florida to get it back

1780–81

Spain recaptures West Florida from Britain during the American Revolution

1810–11

Miguel Hidalgo leads an unsuccessful revolt in Mexico

1817–24

The wars of independence are led by Simón Bolívar and José de San Martín

1823

The United States recognizes the newly independent states of South America



# COLONIAL NORTH AMERICA

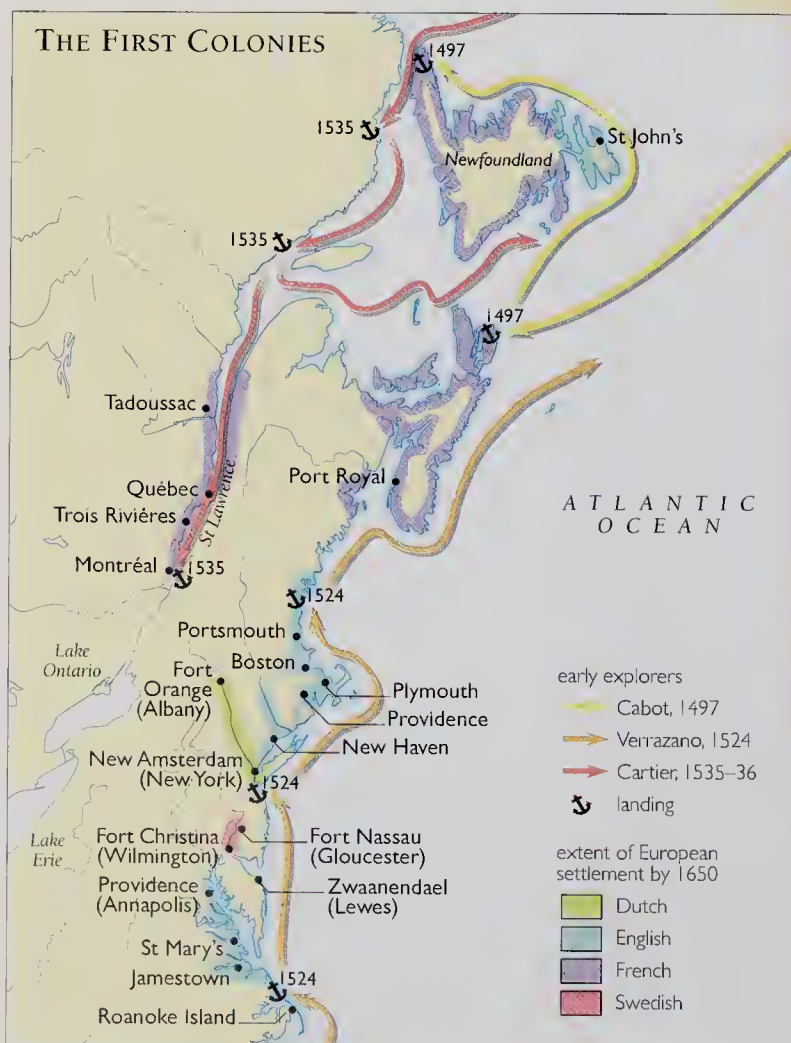
IN 1500 NORTH AMERICA WAS INHABITED BY SCATTERED GROUPS OF NATIVE AMERICAN FARMERS AND HUNTER-GATHERERS. THE FIRST EUROPEANS WHO CAME HERE HAD NO IDEA OF THE CONTINENT'S TRUE SIZE AND DIVERSITY, AND FOUND IT AN ALIEN, ENIGMATIC PLACE. SATISFIED THAT IT HELD NO RESERVES OF GOLD OR SILVER, SPAIN MADE LITTLE ATTEMPT TO COLONIZE IT, AND IT WAS LEFT FOR THE NORTHERN EUROPEAN NATIONS TO DO SO.

In 1497, John Cabot, an Italian-born seafarer sailing under the English flag, set out from Bristol across the Atlantic in the hope of finding a northern sea route to China. He reached Newfoundland, becoming the first European to arrive in North America since the Vikings had made a temporary camp there 500 years earlier. He found the waters were teeming with cod, and English fishing fleets visited the island regularly thereafter, but no permanent settlement was established there until 1610.

Giovanni da Verrazano sailed the length of the Atlantic seaboard in 1524, and the French sailor, Jacques Cartier, explored the St. Lawrence river in 1535-36, searching

for a way through the heart of the northern continent; others tried to sail around it. The sheer scale of North America was beyond any European's ability to imagine.

Early visitors reported that it was covered in forest and inhabited by hostile peoples. The first attempts at colonization ended in failure. Eventually, in 1607, an English settlement took root at Jamestown, Virginia. Quebec was founded a year later by the French, and by 1650 there was a scattering of colonies along the eastern seaboard, Swedish and Dutch among them.



*Above* The artist John White took part in several expeditions to North America and for a time was governor of Sir Walter Raleigh's shortlived colony on Roanoke Island (1587). His paintings are among the earliest pictures of Native American society. The "towne of Pomeiock" depicts a stockaded village of bark longhouses.

## TRADE & COEXISTENCE

The first French settlers in North America were fur trappers. They were soon trading with the local people, exchanging firearms, iron implements, and brandy for animal skins. There was a huge European demand for North American furs; beavers, in particular, were highly valued by the hat trade. French explorers made their way down the St. Lawrence, discovering the Great Lakes. They traveled into the interior, and followed the Mississippi river to the Gulf of Mexico.

The French aside, colonists from north Europe tended to be farmers, who cleared the forests to exploit the rich farmlands of the Atlantic seaboard and quickly developed a European-style agricultural economy. The native peoples welcomed settlers



# 1497-1763





for the trade they brought, but prevented expansion inland; the Appalachian mountains also posed a formidable barrier. The first settlers in New England were mostly Puritans, strict Protestants who had left England to avoid religious persecution, and hoped to create a truly godly society in the New World. Hardworking people, many became prosperous through farming and commerce, and enjoyed a higher standard of living and higher life expectancy than most people in England.

The Virginian settlements of the south were mostly sponsored by English aristocrats as a form of investment. They hoped to establish plantations using the labor of servants, wage laborers, African slaves, and convicted criminals who had chosen emigration to America as an alternative to jail. Virginia's subtropical climate was unfamiliar to the first settlers, and many died from disease or starvation. The cultivation of tobacco, a native American plant, for export to Europe later made Virginia as wealthy as the New England trading ports.

## GROWING CONFLICTS

From the start, women and children had numbered among the colonists beginning new lives in North America. The European settlers on the eastern seaboard soon outnumbered the Native American peoples. As their towns and villages expanded, they took over new areas of land, making conflict inevitable. Relations between the settlers and Native Americans worsened in the course of the 17th century as attacks on European settlements grew. The colonists

responded by driving the Native Americans from their traditional territories. As in Spanish America, the native peoples lost huge numbers to mass epidemics of European diseases, reducing their relatively small and fragmented tribes still further.

## POCAHONTAS

Many legends surround the figure of Pocahontas, a Native American Powhatan who befriended the English settlers at Jamestown and is supposed to have intervened to spare the life of the colony's founder, John Smith. She was later baptized and married an Englishman, John Rolfe. This early portrait shows her in European dress during her stay in England in 1616. Advertised as an Indian princess, she became an instant celebrity, but died there of smallpox.



Europe's wars often spilled over into the North American colonies, leading to armed skirmishes and warfare. New Sweden (Delaware) was captured by the Dutch in 1655, but they lost it to the English in 1664, along with their settlement of New Amsterdam, which became New York.

As English settlement began to extend inland to the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes, tensions built up with the French. From 1686, the French attacked English trading posts on Hudson Bay and, in alliance with the Huron Indians, raided New England. Rivalry was even stronger in the 18th century. In the French and Indian War (1754–63) the British used their navy to blockade France's colonies in North America. After the capture of Quebec (1759) and Montreal (1760) the British took control of all settlement east of the Mississippi river. More than 60,000 French settlers were left under British rule, but were allowed to continue living under French laws.





*Left* The labor of the early settlers transformed the New England landscape to give us the familiar vistas we see today. Forests were cleared and swamps drained for agriculture, creating a close patchwork of small farms and rural communities.

*Below* This 1710 print of an armed, tobacco-smoking frontiersman presents a typical image of Canadian life. French fur trappers relied on native guides and formed closer links with Native Americans than the English colonists did.



## TIMETABLE

1497

John Cabot is the first European to visit North America since the Vikings

1535–36

Jacques Cartier explores the St. Lawrence river

1584–90

Sir Walter Raleigh founds a settlement on Roanoke island, but it fails

1607

The first permanent English colony is established at Jamestown, Virginia

1608

Champlain, "founder of Canada," establishes a settlement at Quebec and explores Lake Champlain

1620

The Pilgrims, an extreme Puritan sect, land at Plymouth, Massachusetts

1622

Native Americans kill 350 colonists at Jamestown after their lands are taken

1626

The Dutch found New Amsterdam

1636

Harvard University is founded

1664

The English capture New Amsterdam and rename it New York

1675–76

King Philip's War is waged between Native Americans and colonists

1681–82

La Salle explores the Mississippi river

1732

Georgia is founded as the 13th British American colony

1754–63

The French and Indian War is fought

1759

The British defeat the French at the Plains of Abraham, leading to the capture of Quebec

1763

The British suffer initial defeats by the Native Americans in Pontiac's War

1763

The Treaty of Paris confirms British control of French America

## A DISTINCT SOCIETY

By 1775 the population of the 13 colonies of British North America was about 2.25 million, more than a quarter of Britain's. In Virginia, slave numbers had increased from 15,000 in 1700 to 190,000 by 1775, almost half the population. Owners, fearful of rebellion, treated them harshly.

The American colonists were still strongly influenced by British culture: the well-off liked to wear the latest London fashion. But there were growing differences. People were more self-reliant, and the lack of an aristocracy made it easier for all classes to succeed. There was no state church to impose uniformity of religion, as was the case in Britain. A large influx of Germans, Scots, and Irish settlers since the 1720s had radically altered the English character of some of the colonies. Along with an American dialect of English, a distinctly American society was emerging.



# THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

GREAT BRITAIN'S VICTORY OVER FRANCE IN 1763 MADE IT THE STRONGEST COLONIAL POWER IN THE WORLD. BUT WITHOUT THE IMMEDIATE THREAT OF FRENCH INVASION, THE THIRTEEN AMERICAN COLONIES HAD LESS REASON FOR REMAINING LOYAL TO BRITAIN. THE IMPOSITION OF TAXES AND RESTRICTIONS ON OVERSEAS TRADE LED TO INCREASING DISSATISFACTION WITH BRITISH RULE. IN 1776 THE THIRTEEN COLONIES DECLARED THEIR INDEPENDENCE FROM BRITAIN. WAR FOLLOWED, AND IN 1783 THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA WAS BORN.

Most people in Britain believed that the main purpose of colonies was to further the interests of trade in the home country by supplying cheap raw materials for manufacturing and providing an export market for goods. During the 17th century laws were passed to prevent the American colonies from trading with countries other than Britain. This had the effect of creating a flourishing illegal trade with the Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies of the Caribbean. During the French and Indian War, merchants in New England began to export goods directly to Europe in their own ships, and once peace was signed the British government increased customs controls in an attempt to halt the trade. This caused great resentment. Plantation owners in the south were also afraid that Britain's increasing opposition to slavery would cause the collapse of their plantation economy.

Yet another cause of resentment was the Proclamation Line of 1763, which forbade colonial settlement west of the Appalachian mountains. The intention was to prevent clashes with the uprooted Native American groups forced inland from their traditional lands by European settlement. But the continued flow of immigrants and overcrowding of the coastal colonies meant that there was relentless pressure to keep pushing the frontier westward, and many colonists simply ignored the law.

Right Benjamin Franklin drew this cartoon to show the dangers of colonial disunity in the French and Indian War. He argued for the same unity against Britain.



Below One of the most famous events in American history: a group of angry colonists, dressed as Native Americans, sneaked aboard a British ship and dumped its cargo of tea in Boston Harbor.

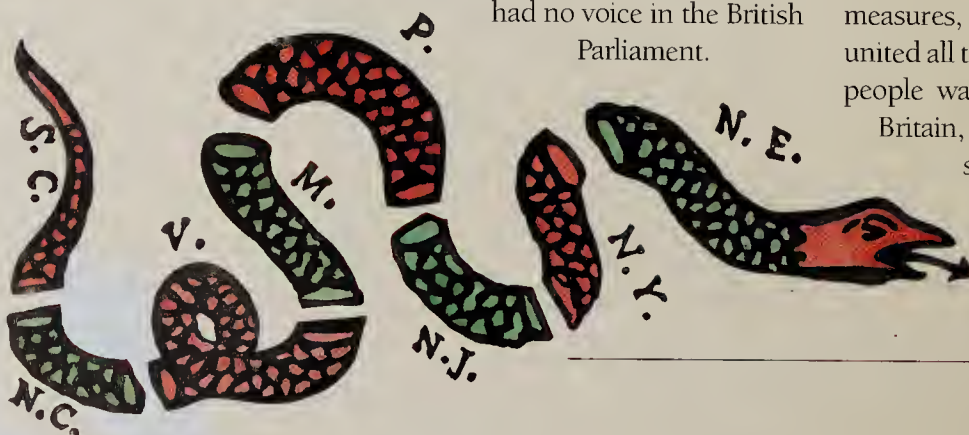
## "NO TAXES!"

The war with France had been expensive, and the British government decided to raise money by taxing the colonists. The Stamp Act, introduced in 1765, imposed a tax on legal documents and newspapers. The colonists, who had never been directly taxed before, were outraged. British goods were boycotted and representatives of all 13 colonies met in a special congress to oppose the move. Taking as their slogan "No taxation without representation," they declared they would not pay the tax because they had no voice in the British Parliament.

The Stamp Act was quickly withdrawn but replaced almost immediately with taxes on tea, glass, lead, paint, and paper. Once again the government backed down in the face of boycotts, and all but the tea tax were withdrawn. Protests mounted and turned violent. In 1770 British soldiers shot dead five people during a riot in Boston, an event that came to be immortalized as the Boston Massacre and heightened popular feeling against the British still further.

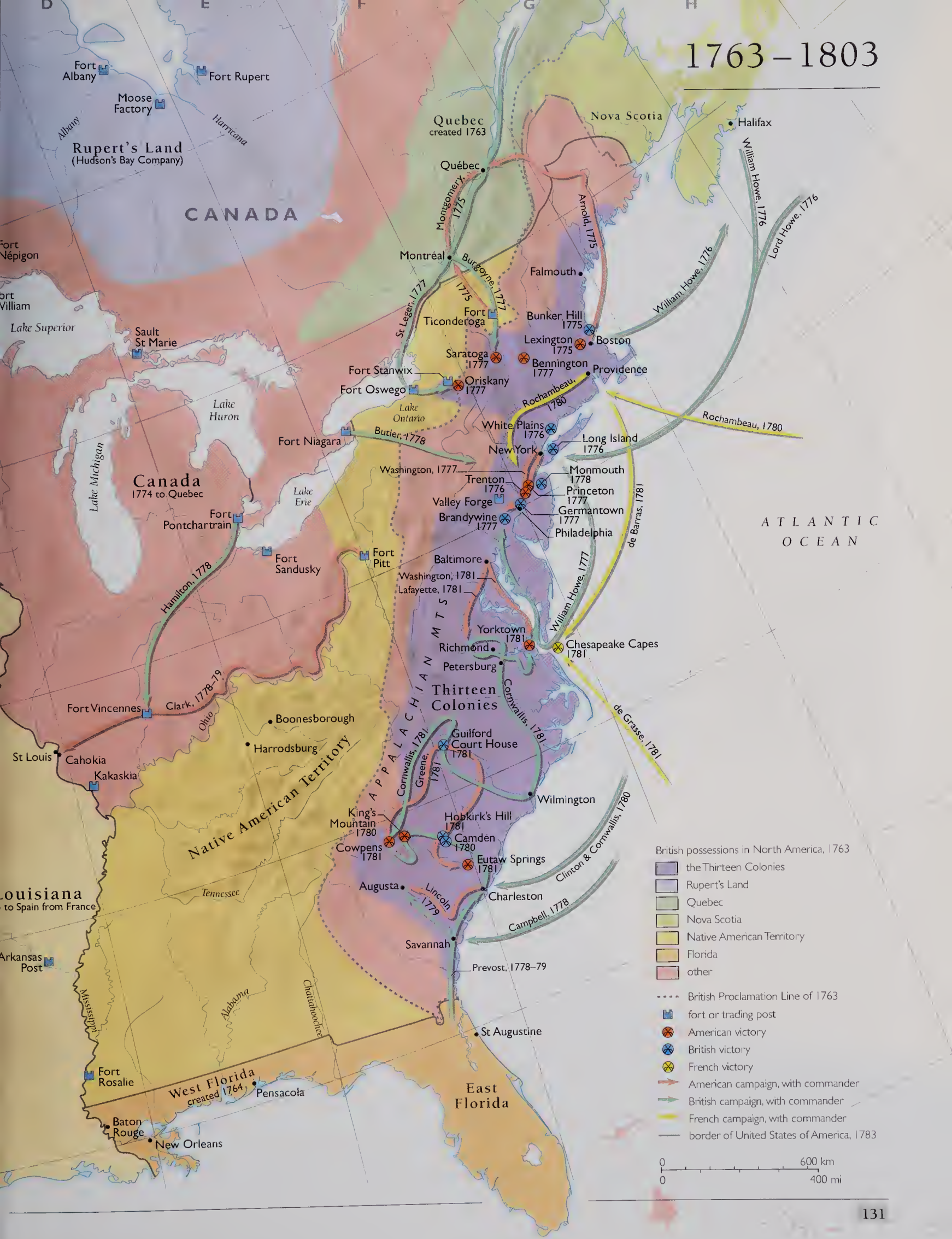
In December 1773, the Boston Tea Party occurred. The British responded to this act of defiance by passing a series of punitive measures, called the Intolerable Acts. They united all the colonies against Britain. Some people wanted an immediate break with Britain, but others argued that this step should be taken as a last resort.

In September 1774 the Continental Congress met in Philadelphia to debate this and other options.





## 1763–1803







Above The Declaration of Independence is signed in Philadelphia, July 4, 1776. Its principal author was Thomas Jefferson, a wealthy planter and slave owner who attended the Congress as the representative for Virginia. He later became president (1801–09) and presided over the Louisiana Purchase.

## WAR WITH THE BRITISH

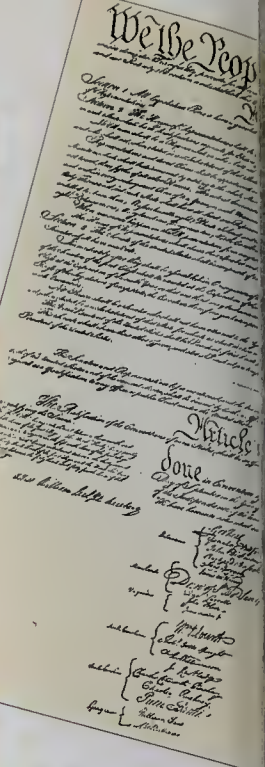
Before the issue had been decided fighting had broken out. Skirmishes between rebel forces and British troops at Lexington and Concord in April 1775 led to a general uprising. On July 4, 1776, the 55 delegates at the Second Continental Congress met to sign the Declaration of Independence.

The British believed that the majority of Americans would remain loyal and that the rebellion would soon be at an end. However, the British generals lacked an effective strategy and failed to make the most of their advantages. The forces the colonists could raise were smaller and vastly more inexperienced, and their morale was often lowered by lack of pay. But the longer the fighting lasted, the more hostile most Americans became to British rule.

In December 1776, Washington led his troops across the frozen Delaware river in a daring raid on the garrison at Trenton. Success began to slip away from the British, who were struggling to supply an army from 3,000 miles away. In 1778 France joined the war against Britain. Their defeat of a British fleet off Chesapeake Capes in 1781 cut off supplies to the British in Yorktown. Its surrender brought the war to an end. At the Treaty of Paris in 1783, Britain recognized the United States of America.

## THE U.S. CONSTITUTION

Once the war was ended, debate started on the way the government of the United States should be organized. In 1786–87 the Constitutional Convention met at Philadelphia to debate these issues. Collectively



Above "We the People"—the U.S. constitution opens by triumphantly proclaiming the principle of popular will. The ideals of the American Revolution directly inspired other libertarian movements, particularly in France.





known as the Framers of the Constitution, the delegates included Benjamin Franklin and George Washington. At the heart of the debate was the question of how much power should be given to the national government, and how much freedom the individual states should have to govern themselves. It was probably the first time in history that the nature and function of government had been so fully discussed.

A system of "checks and balances" was devised that prevented any single part of the government from growing too powerful. There would be an elected executive head of state (the president), who would not have power to make laws—this would be the prerogative of the two Houses of Congress (the legislature), whose representatives would also be elected. The Supreme Court (the judiciary), independent of both the executive and the legislature, would interpret American law.

The American constitution was one of the first written constitutions of the 18th century. Four years after it was ratified, the

first ten amendments, collectively known as the Bill of Rights, were made to the constitution. Some legal scholars consider this to be the most important document in American history as it defines the rights of individual citizens and puts specific limits on government power over the citizen. Today, these issues are once again the subject of debate and controversy as the pressure of social change makes the problems of government more complicated.

## THE UNION GROWS

The new constitution was ratified in 1788, and took effect in 1789, with George Washington as the first president. All 13 colonies had joined the republic by 1790; Rhode Island was the last to do so. Expansion was soon taking place westward along the Ohio river, and Kentucky was incorporated into the Union in 1792, followed by Tennessee and two other states. In 1800 the Mississippi basin was ceded back to France by Spain. In 1803, Napoleon, short of cash to fight his European wars (see pages 146–149), sold the entire territory to the United States. The Louisiana Purchase all but doubled the size of the fledgling republic.



## TIMETABLE

- 1765**  
The Stamp Act imposes direct taxation on the American colonies
- 1770**  
British soldiers kill five Bostonians during a riot
- 1773**  
The Boston Tea Party provokes the Intolerable Acts
- 1774**  
The first Continental Congress meets in Philadelphia
- 1775**  
Fighting breaks out in Lexington and Concord (near Boston)
- July 4, 1776**  
Congress passes the Declaration of Independence
- 1776**  
On Christmas night, Washington crosses the Delaware river to seize Trenton
- 1777**  
The Articles of Confederation are passed to create the United States of America
- October 17, 1777**  
British army of General Burgoyne surrenders at Saratoga
- 1777–78**  
Washington's Continental Army reorganizes at Valley Forge
- 1778**  
France declares war on Britain in support of the Americans
- 1779**  
Spain joins war against Britain and retakes west Florida the next year
- 1781**  
The British army surrenders at Yorktown
- 1783**  
The Treaty of Paris confirms American independence
- 1787**  
The Constitution of the United States is adopted
- 1789**  
George Washington becomes the first president of the United States
- 1800**  
Washington DC is chosen as the capital of the United States



# THE EUROPEAN REFORMATION

BY THE 16TH CENTURY THE CATHOLIC CHURCH, WHICH HAD DOMINATED WESTERN EUROPE FOR A THOUSAND YEARS, HAD BECOME CORRUPT.

INDIVIDUAL VOICES CALLED FOR REFORM, WHILE POWERFUL MONARCHS CHALLENGED ROME'S POLITICAL AUTHORITY. THE RELIGIOUS AND CIVIL CONFLICTS OF THE TIME SET NEIGHBOR AGAINST NEIGHBOR.

Kings in 16th-century Europe were more powerful than their predecessors. The 15th century had been a time of dynastic civil wars, but the rise of an educated class of professional bureaucrats had increased the efficiency of royal governments, while international bankers made it possible for kings to pay for fulltime armies with which to coerce their subjects. European culture was changing as Renaissance humanist thinkers challenged the certainties of medieval theology and questioned the role of rulers.

## ROYAL RIVALS

In an age of fierce competition between monarchs, the most powerful ruler in Europe was Charles V (Charles I of Spain). He

*Right A satirical cartoon showing the head of Martin Luther being used as a bagpipe to play the Devil's tune.*



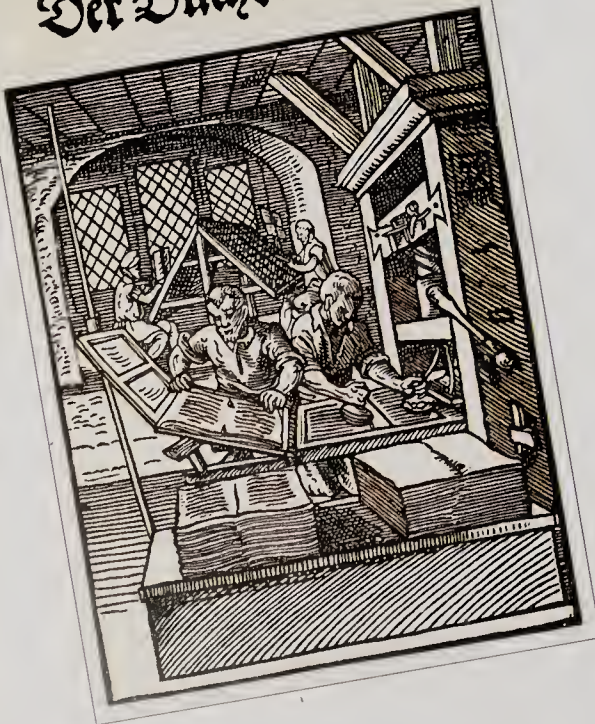
was only 19 years old when he was elected Holy Roman emperor on the death of his grandfather Maximilian I in 1519, and so added to his Spanish possessions those of the Habsburg empire—Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, Burgundy, the Netherlands, and much of Italy. His wealth was made still greater by the steady stream of silver and gold that entered his coffers from the Spanish empire in Mexico and Peru.

Not unnaturally, other European rulers resented his superiority. His greatest rival was the French king Francis I (r.1515–57), whose lands were almost entirely surrounded by Habsburg territories. Francis had unsuccessfully opposed Charles in elections for Holy Roman emperor, and his attempts to extend French influence into northern Italy were fiercely resisted by Charles; their wars threatened to destroy the achievements of the Italian Renaissance. For a year, after the battle of Pavia (1525), Francis was Charles' prisoner. Francis had a highly competitive relationship with Henry VIII of England (r.1509–47). The two came face to face at a meeting called the Field of the Cloth of Gold (1520), when Francis' entourage far outshone Henry's in wealth and splendor. A great Renaissance prince, Francis employed Italian artists and architects, including Leonardo da Vinci, to build and embellish his palaces.

## RELIGIOUS CONFLICT

Charles V's greatest problems lay within his own empire. He was a devout Catholic, but the church, especially in Germany, had become deeply unpopular with many of his subjects. Priests used their positions for

## Der Buchdrucker.



*Above The ideas of the Reformation spread quickly through the new printing presses.*





# 1517–1598



personal gain, and the popes themselves were seen to be more concerned with politics than with spiritual leadership. One of the most detested abuses was the sale of “indulgences,” which allowed the rich to buy forgiveness of their sins. In 1517 a former monk and theologian, Martin Luther

(1483–1546), composed a lengthy protest against these practices, which he nailed to the door of the university church in Wittenberg for everyone to read; they are known as the 95 Theses. It was a courageous act: those disagreeing with the church could be condemned as heretics and burned alive.

Printed copies of the 95 Theses spread quickly, and soon Germany and all Europe was immersed in the religious debate of the Reformation. Luther was outlawed by an imperial court at Worms in 1521, but support for his views continued to grow. Other reformers inside and outside Germany took



his ideas in new directions. The most influential of them was the Frenchman John Calvin (1509–64), founder of Calvinism.

By the 1530s a great number of German princes were Protestants (the name given to members of the reformed churches). This was often more for reasons of politics than religion: it enabled them to declare their independence from the emperor, and made them rich from the seizure of church lands. Charles failed to bring the princes back to the Catholic faith, and at the Peace of Augsburg (1555) conceded their right to decide what faith their subjects should follow. Believing he had failed in his religious duty, he divided his empire in two and retired to a monastery. His son Philip II was given Spain, the Netherlands, Naples, Sicily and Sardinia, his brother Ferdinand II Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia.

## REFORM SPREADS

The weakening of papal authority was evident in the willingness of many European rulers to break with Rome for reasons of state. One of the first to do so was king Gustavus Vasa of Sweden, who took all

church property in his kingdom into his own hands in 1527. In 1534 Henry VIII made himself supreme head of the church in England after the pope had refused to grant him a divorce so that he could marry Anne Boleyn, the second of his six wives.

The Catholic Church had been comparatively slow to meet the challenge of the new reformed ideas, but in 1545 a general council met at Trent in southern Austria to launch the Counter Reformation. Catholic teaching was redefined, Protestant literature banned, and in Catholic countries the medieval Inquisition was revived to track down and interrogate Protestants. The missionary Jesuit order, founded in Spain in 1540, had particular success in bringing people back to the Catholic faith, especially in Bavaria, Austria, and Poland.

Despite this, Protestantism continued to spread. In the 1560s Calvinism, more radical and uncompromising in its beliefs than Lutheranism, gained hold in the Netherlands, Switzerland, Scotland, and much of France (where its followers were known as Huguenots). In England, Puritanism was also influenced by Calvinism. The Counter Reformation needed a new champion.



## WARS OF RELIGION

It found its champion in Philip II of Spain (r.1556–98). A dour, earnest ruler, he was more than ready to take up his father's war against Protestantism. His harsh measures led to rebellion in the Netherlands. By 1566 this had become an outright struggle for Dutch independence, effectively gained in 1609. The Dutch were aided by Elizabeth of



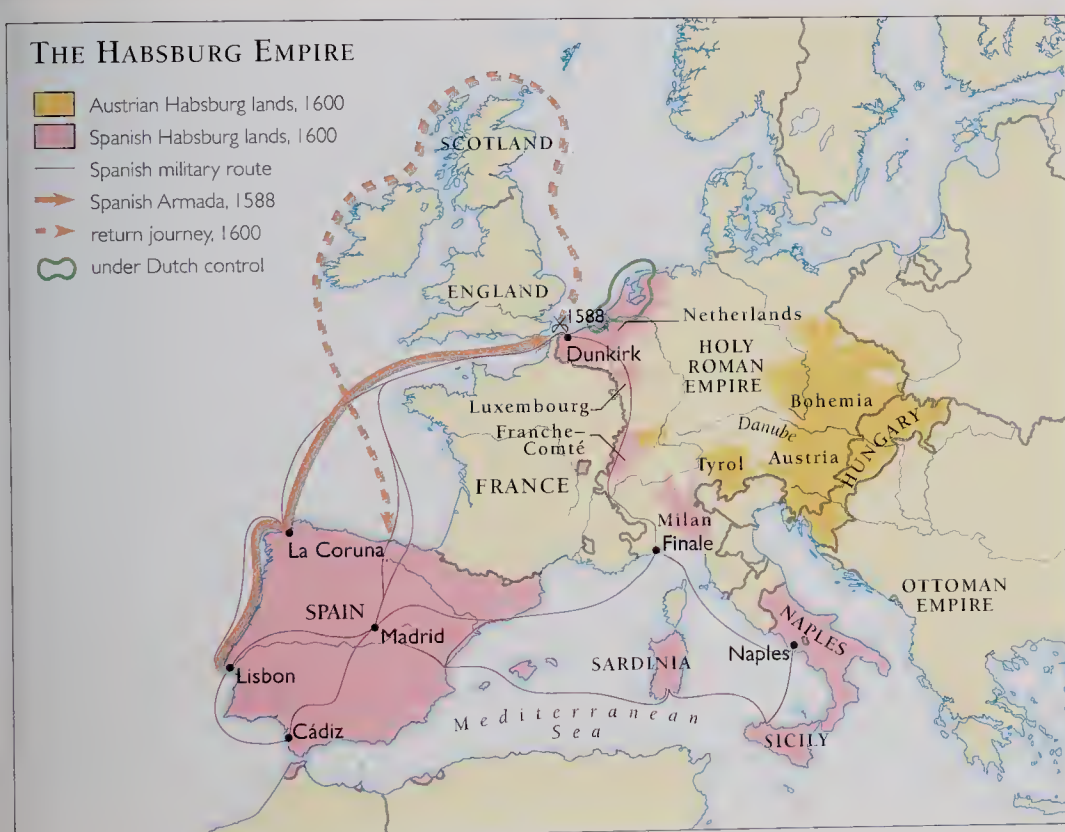


## THE MONSTROUS REGIMENT OF WOMEN

Men in the 16th century were often unwilling to accept women as rulers, believing that God had endowed them with natural authority over women. One of those most opposed to women rulers was the Scottish Calvinist preacher, John Knox (1514–72). In the 1550s three women occupied European thrones—Mary I of Scotland (Mary Queen of Scots), Mary Tudor in England, and Catherine de Medici in France. All three were Catholic monarchs, set on persecuting

Left Elizabeth I of England, painted in 1588.

Protestants in their realms. Knox furiously condemned them in a pamphlet entitled “The First Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women,” but unfortunately for him, its publication coincided with the death of Mary Tudor and the accession of her formidable Protestant sister, Elizabeth. She once famously said “I know I have the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart and stomach of a king.” Incensed by Knox’s misogyny, Elizabeth had him banned from England for life.



England (r.1558–1603), who had restored Protestantism after Mary Tudor’s brief and bloody reimposition of Catholicism (1553–58). In retaliation, Philip sent a huge fleet, the Spanish Armada, to invade England in 1588. It was a complete failure, destroyed more by bad weather than the English navy.

In France, a long civil war broke out after the Huguenots took up arms in 1562. The Catholics, who had the support of the king, Philip II, committed one of the very worst atrocities of the European wars of religion

by killing thousands of Huguenots in the St. Bartholomew’s Day Massacre (1572). In 1598 Henry IV, a Protestant who became Catholic in order to pacify the kingdom, granted Huguenots freedom of conscience through the Edict of Nantes.

The same year Philip died. Spain by now was bankrupt, its supplies of silver exhausted by Philip’s wars. Some 40% of Europe’s population was Protestant. Despite a spectacular naval victory at Lepanto by Philip’s half-brother Don John in 1571, the Turks were still a threat to Europe (see page 154). Tunis was lost three years later, and their attacks continued in eastern Europe.

Left Protestant nobles, in Paris for the wedding of Henry of Navarre, are massacred by Catholics.

## TIMETABLE

- 1517**  
Martin Luther nails his 95 Theses to the door of Wittenberg cathedral
- 1519**  
Charles of Habsburg, king of Spain since 1516, is elected Holy Roman emperor
- 1521**  
Charles V outlaws Luther at a formal church council in Germany called the Diet of Worms
- 1529**  
The Ottoman Turks lay unsuccessful siege to Vienna
- 1534**  
Henry VIII makes himself head of the Church in England
- 1536**  
John Calvin publishes *The Institutes of the Christian Religion*
- 1545–63**  
The Council of Trent launches the Counter Reformation
- 1555**  
The Peace of Augsburg allows German princes to decide the religion of their subjects
- 1559**  
The Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis ends Italian wars between France and Spain
- 1572**  
On St. Bartholomew’s Day, French Catholics massacre Huguenots
- 1576**  
Spanish troops slaughter 7,000 people at the siege of Antwerp
- 1580**  
Philip II becomes king of Portugal
- 1587**  
Mary Queen of Scots is executed on the order of Elizabeth I of England
- 1588**  
Philip II sends the Spanish Armada against England
- 1598**  
The Edict of Nantes grants Huguenots toleration in France
- 1609**  
A 12-year truce is agreed between the Netherlands and Spain



# EUROPE IN CONFLICT

RELIGIOUS CONFLICT CONTINUED TO AGITATE EUROPE IN THE 17TH CENTURY AND WAS THE CAUSE OF THE CATAclysmic THIRTY YEARS WAR (1618–48). BY THE CENTURY'S END, RELIGION WAS LOSING ITS DIVISIVE NATURE. THE FRANCE OF LOUIS XIV WAS NOW THE MAJOR POLITICAL FORCE IN EUROPE, DOMINATING ITS NEIGHBORS BY WAR AND INTIMIDATION.

The split between Roman Catholics and Protestants dominated all other issues in Europe at the start of the 17th century—both sides were resolutely hostile and conspiracies were seen everywhere. The Peace of Augsburg (1555), intended to establish the means of coexistence between Catholic and Protestant rulers in the Holy Roman empire, had failed because neither side trusted the other. The immediate cause of the Thirty Years War was the attempt by the Habsburg rulers of Austria to reimpose Roman Catholicism in their territories in Bohemia in 1618. The war dragged on until 1648 and drew in most of Europe.

In the first stage of fighting (1618–23) the Spanish Habsburgs invaded the Lower Palatinate, the leading Protestant state in Germany, in support of Austria. Then Denmark intervened on the side of the German Protestants until defeated at Lutter (1625–29). Gustavus II Adolphus of Sweden fared

better for a time and briefly carried the war to the heart of Catholic Germany (1630–35). In the war's final phase (1635–48) France, a Catholic country surrounded by Habsburg lands, supported the Swedish-Protestant side. In France's foreign affairs, political differences had more weight than religion, but Huguenots were still disadvantaged at home, despite the Edict of Nantes.

The Thirty Years War had lasting disastrous consequences for Germany. Most soldiers in the war were mercenaries, often left unpaid for long periods. They destroyed vast areas of the countryside, leaving the population to starve—it fell by 7 million.

Spain's days as Europe's leading power were finished. France won some major battles, but domestic rebellions prevented it from exploiting its gains. The only beneficiary of the war was the Netherlands. Spain finally recognized its independence in the Treaty of Westphalia, which ended the war. Dutch ships had taken over Spanish and Portuguese trade routes, and Amsterdam was now the financial center of Europe.

*Below* A military skirmish during the Thirty Years War—the conflict caused tremendous devastation.



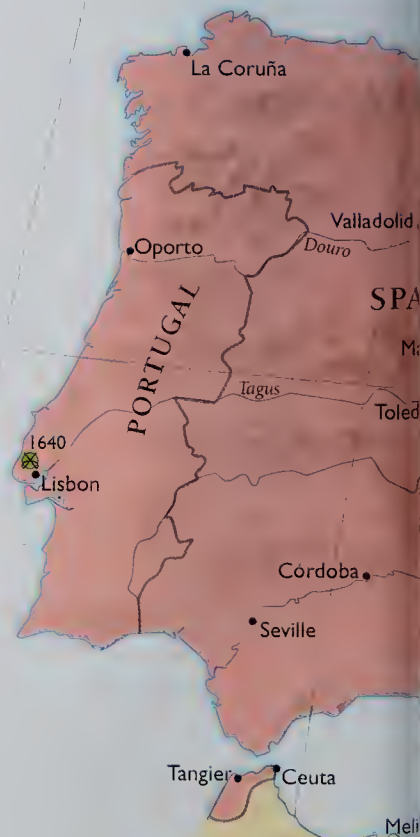
Habsburgs and allies  
 Austrian Habsburg territory, 1618  
 Spanish Habsburg territory, 1618  
 other states, 1618

states hostile to Habsburgs  
 France, 1618  
 German Protestant states  
 United Provinces, 1609  
 Sweden, 1618  
 allied states  
 other Catholic lands  
 other Protestant lands  
 borders, 1648

theater of war  
 Bohemian War, 1618–23  
 Danish War, 1625–29  
 Swedish War, 1630–35  
 Franco-Swedish War, 1635–48  
 Gustavus Adolphus, 1631–32  
 Habsburg and imperialist victory  
 Protestant alliance/French victory

English civil war  
 royalist victory  
 parliamentary victory  
 controlled by parliamentarians, Dec 1645  
 campaign of Oliver Cromwell  
 area granted to veterans of Cromwell's army, 1651

0 400 km  
 0 300 mi





1600-1715







*Left* Oliver Cromwell failed to find an alternative to royal power and finished up almost a king himself.

## ENGLAND'S CIVIL WAR

Although England stayed out of the Thirty Years War, it did not avoid religious and political dispute. Like other European monarchs, Charles I (r.1625–49) believed that kings ruled by divine right. His attempts to govern without Parliament alienated many of his subjects; his religious policies offended English Puritans and Scots Calvinists. The result was civil war. Charles lost, and was executed in 1649. A Commonwealth

was set up under Oliver Cromwell, who later took the title of Lord Protector (1653) and ruled as a military dictator. The monarchy was restored in 1660, two years after his death, but on terms that Parliament dictated to the new king, Charles II.

The Glorious Revolution of 1688–89 set the Dutch king William of Orange (married to James II's daughter Mary) on the English throne and barred Catholics from succeeding. At the same time, the Bill of Rights put further restrictions on royal power. In 1707 the Act of Union formally joined the kingdoms of England and Scotland to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

## IN THE COURT OF THE SUN KING

Louis XIV's title of the "Sun King" owed much to the splendor of the vast palace he built for himself at Versailles, near Paris. The cost of this project, one of the masterpieces of European architecture, accounted for 5% of France's gross annual income—it has been compared to the expense of constructing a modern airport. The palace was embellished by the finest architects and artists of the day. More than 1,400 fountains played in the palace's grounds. Spectacular ballets, lavish concerts, and firework displays added to Versailles' glories.

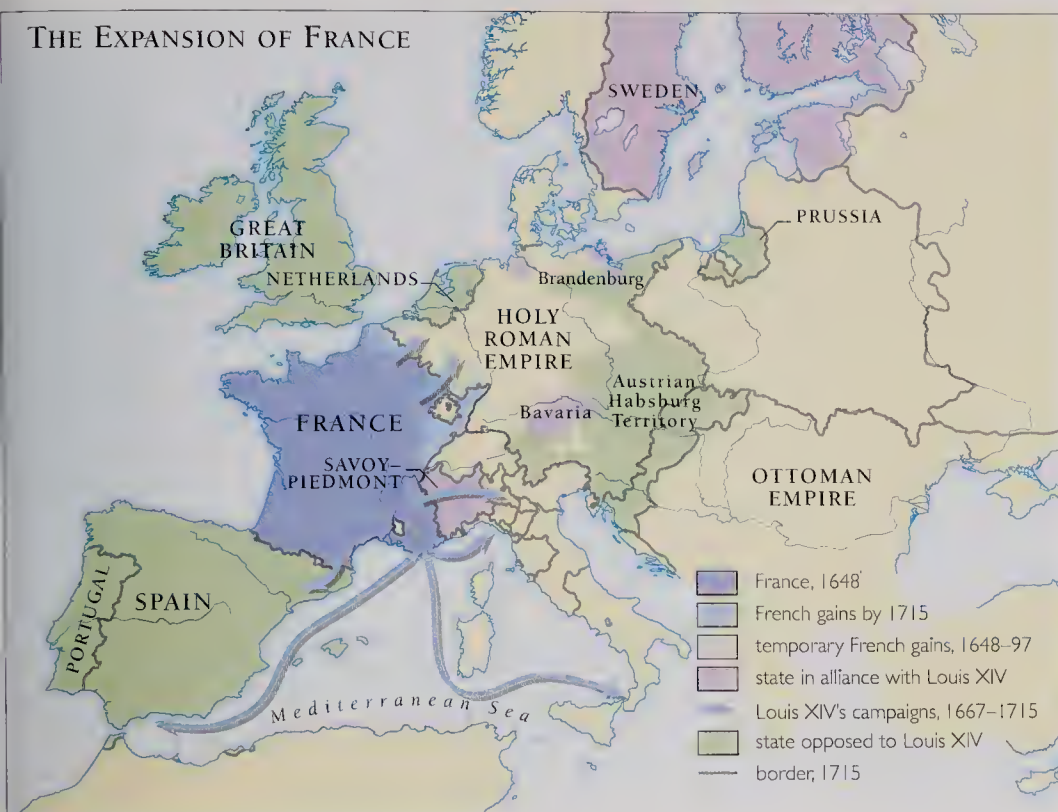
From 1682 Louis lived most of the time at Versailles, and expected his nobles to do so too. The king was continually on display at Versailles, which became the center of the French universe. The great nobles of France scrambled with each other for the privilege of attending the semipublic ritual of his rising in the morning and going to bed at night. To be asked to hold the king's shirt was considered a great honor. This fierce competition for the king's favor enabled Louis to play off rivalries between courtiers and keep even his most powerful subjects firmly in check. Despite Versailles' surface brilliance, however, basic amenities for courtiers were few, and living quarters were notoriously cramped.

*Right* The landscaped gardens at Versailles were one of the glories of the age.





## THE EXPANSION OF FRANCE



## THE RISE OF FRANCE

In contrast to England, the power of the French monarchy grew much stronger during the reign of Louis XIV (1643–1715, the longest in European history). He succeeded to the throne at the age of four, and his early years were made wretched by civil war and intrigue among the French aristocracy. He determined that the crown should exercise absolute authority to prevent this ever happening again.

Louis had ambitions to make France the greatest power in Europe. In 1661 he took the rule of the kingdom into his own hands and, with the help of skilled advisers, set about reforming the government, the army, and the navy. He then successfully attacked Spain and the Netherlands, winning valuable new territories for France.

Other European states were made nervous by Louis' aggression. Any chance he had of forming military alliances with Protestant countries was spoiled when he outlawed the Huguenots in 1685 by revoking the Edict of Nantes. This caused general alarm as no one wanted to see the old religious wars start up once more. Some 200,000 Huguenots fled abroad, to the detriment of the French economy. Most were skilled craftsmen and merchants; a large number of them took their skills and expertise to England and the Dutch Republic.

Louis' subjects were heavily taxed to pay for his wars. Resentment of the king began to grow but, isolated at Versailles and convinced of his divine right to rule, he ignored it. His successors carried on in the same way, adding to the grievances that led to the French Revolution (see pages 142–145).

## THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

Louis' last and most ambitious scheme was in Spain. He managed to persuade the childless Spanish king Charles II to accept Louis' teenage grandson Philip as his heir. When he became king on Charles' death in 1700, Louis refused to exclude him from the succession to the French throne. The fear that France would eventually control Spain, its American empire, the Spanish Netherlands, and much of Italy led almost all Europe, including Britain, to back the Austrian Habsburg candidate in the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–13). Louis suffered a number of military defeats and sought to end the war. The Treaty of Utrecht ended Spain's role as a European power. Philip was confirmed as Spanish king, but had to give up all territories outside Spain to Austria. Louis was forced to promise that the French and Spanish crowns would never be united. Britain took possession of Spanish and French trading bases in the Caribbean, boosting its overseas empire.

## TIMETABLE

- 1610**  
Henry IV of France is assassinated by a fanatic
- 1618**  
The Thirty Years War begins
- 1624**  
Cardinal Richelieu becomes chief minister of France
- 1632**  
Gustavus II Adolphus of Sweden is killed at the battle of Lutzen
- 1648**  
The Treaty of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years War
- 1649**  
Charles I of England is executed by Parliament and a Commonwealth established
- 1660**  
Charles II is restored as king of England
- 1661**  
Louis XIV begins to rule France directly
- 1666**  
Much of the city of London is destroyed in a great fire
- 1669**  
Portugal regains its independence from Spain
- 1672**  
William of Orange floods much of the Dutch Netherlands to save them from French invasion
- 1683**  
A Polish army led by John Sobieski breaks the Turkish siege of Vienna
- 1685**  
Louis XIV revokes the Edict of Nantes, ending toleration of Huguenots
- 1699**  
Austria annexes Hungary from the Turks
- 1707**  
The Act of Union unites Scotland and England as Great Britain
- 1713**  
The Treaty of Utrecht ends the War of Spanish Succession
- 1715**  
Louis XIV dies and is succeeded by his 5-year-old great-grandson, Louis XV



# THE AGE OF ENLIGHTENMENT

POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENTS IN 18TH-CENTURY EUROPE CHANGED THE COURSE OF WORLD HISTORY. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION THREW THE WHOLE CONTINENT INTO POLITICAL CHAOS AND WARFARE FOR OVER 20 YEARS, WHILE THE BEGINNING OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN BRITAIN BROUGHT NOT ONLY MACHINES AND FACTORIES BUT ALSO SOCIAL CHANGES AS PROFOUND AS THOSE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The 18th century is often called the Age of the Enlightenment—the name given to a cultural movement that developed partly in reaction to the religious conflicts of the previous century. The study of science (or natural philosophy as it was called) provided experimental proof of a world governed by physical rather than divine laws and seemed to offer a more rational basis for understanding the world than religious belief. The Royal Society of London (1660) was the first body in Europe to be founded for the study of science. A similar society was soon set up in Paris.

Dynastic wars divided the continent in the 1730s and 40s. Austria began to win territory back from the Ottomans, as did Russia later in the century. The Seven Years War (1756–63) saw France, Austria, and Russia joined against Britain and the rising kingdom of Prussia. Although France lost most of its overseas colonies to Britain, it



Above By the end of the 18th century, the “sans-culottes” (“man without breeches”) had become the symbol of the new revolutionary forces in France.

remained a major power on the continent. It took its revenge by aiding the American colonies in their independence wars against Britain. In eastern Europe, Poland—much reduced in size—ceased to exist as a sovereign state in 1795, having been partitioned between Russia, Prussia, and Austria.

## ABSOLUTIST RULERS

Prussia's rise was engineered by its third king, Frederick the Great (r.1740–86), a talented military strategist who was admired for his achievements and loathed for his excessive ambition. Frederick was passionately interested in art, music (he played the flute) and philosophy, and was the first European ruler to advocate public education and universal religious tolerance. He was typical of his age, however, in his failure to modify Prussia's rigid social structure. Aristocrats, the new middle classes, and the

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

The Industrial Revolution began in the 18th century with the invention of mechanized means of spinning yarn. At about the same time, iron manufacture was transformed by the development of the blast furnace. Industrial centers grew up around coalfields and canals were built to move goods in bulk. The coming of steam power speeded up the pace of change still further. Improvements in agriculture meant fewer people were needed to work the land. These events radically altered the way people lived in Britain and parts of northern Europe as more and more people left the countryside to work in the emerging industrial cities.



Above A cast iron bridge, built in 1779, spans the river Severn, Britain.

La Coruña

Oporto

PORTUGAL

Lisbon

1779

Gibraltar

to Britain

Cádiz

Tangier

Ceuta

to Spain



# 1715–1799





peasantry were firmly fixed in their established places. Most European rulers were absolutists, who supported religious conformism and protected aristocratic privileges. New agricultural techniques (particularly improved methods of crop rotation and livestock breeding) were revolutionizing farming in Britain and the Netherlands but had only limited impact elsewhere; in most of Europe, the labor-intensive institution of serfdom still tied peasants to the land and prevented innovation.

In France the conservative social order, headed by the monarchy and supported by the church, was known as the *ancien régime* (the old regime). The rising middle class, though wealthy and numerous, was excluded from centers of power, which continued to revolve around the court life of Versailles. Increasingly, the narrow, aristocratic values of the *ancien régime* were challenged by the leaders of the Enlightenment, which had its roots among the French middle class. Leading intellectuals such as the great French philosopher-essayist Voltaire attacked the repressive nature of the Catholic church, and tried to persuade rulers to introduce progressive reforms such as the abolition of serfdom and the use of torture.

A passionate belief in the dignity of people—not as the subjects of kings, but as individuals—was one of the touchstones of the Enlightenment, and was strengthened by the success of the American Revolution, which the French had supported. These ideas found their fullest expression in the political and philosophical writings of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–78). His ideas on education profoundly influenced parental attitudes to childcare, and his political treatises, the *Social Contract* (1762) in particular, with its emphasis on individual liberty, helped shape the intellectual background to the debates of the French revolutionaries. Rousseau's attitudes to nature pointed the way ahead to the Romanticism of the early 19th century.

## REVOLUTION IN FRANCE

The cost of France's participation in the American Revolution was a high one. It bankrupted the government, and soaring prices and food shortages caused hardship and panic, giving rise to demands for political reform. The Estates-General, France's

representative assembly, had not been summoned since 1614, but in 1789 Louis XVI called it to approve his plans to raise taxes. The Estates-General was made up of three estates, or assemblies: that of the clergy, the nobles, and the commoners. Following an argument about the voting power of each of the estates, the entire Third Estate withdrew and set up a rival National Assembly in Paris to institute reforms.



**Right** The execution of Marie Antoinette, queen of France, in October 1793. Born into the Habsburg dynasty of Austria, she lived in splendor and isolation from her French subjects, who resented both her nationality and her extravagant lifestyle. Her secret negotiations with Austria against the revolutionaries were the chief factor that led to her execution and that of the indecisive King Louis XVI.

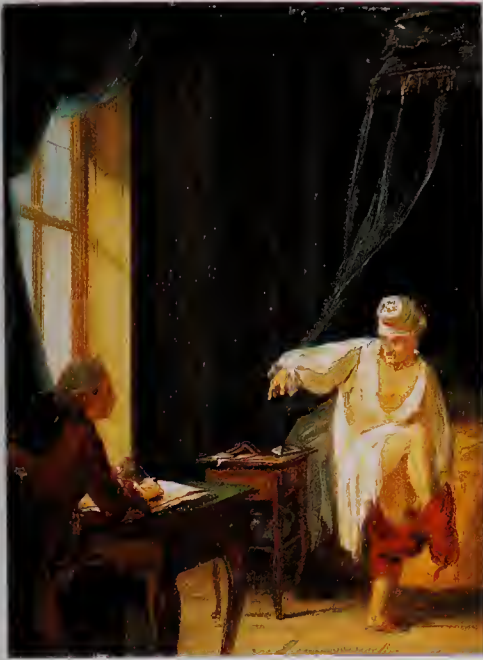
The assembly received widespread popular support. On July 14, 1789, as rumors spread that the king's army was planning to attack it, an angry crowd gathered to storm the fortress of the Bastille, a hated symbol of royal tyranny. It was taken easily and found to hold only a few prisoners, but it proved a rallying point for popular rebellion.

Under the slogan of *Liberté, Égalité, Fraternité* ("Liberty, Equality, Fraternity") the revolution spread rapidly. Widespread famine and unemployment in the countryside helped foment panic, leading to the "Great Fear" (July 20–August 6, 1789) when armed peasants destroyed aristocratic property in a frenzy of hatred. In Paris, the National Assembly proclaimed the Declaration of the Rights of Man, promising freedom of conscience, property, and speech. Serfdom was outlawed, church property confiscated, and hereditary titles abolished.

At first the National Assembly tried to work with the king, but he proved to be an unwilling partner. In 1791 he tried to flee the country with his wife, the even more unpopular Marie Antoinette, but they were stopped and brought back to Paris. Exiled French aristocrats persuaded Prussia and the Austrian empire to invade France. The king and







Above Voltaire dictates a letter as he dresses.

## VOLTAIRE & THE ENLIGHTENMENT

Voltaire, real name François-Marie Arouet (1694–1788), was the embodiment of the Enlightenment. One of France's greatest writers, he devoted his life to criticizing tyranny, intolerance, and injustice. His sharp wit got him into trouble; he was imprisoned in the Bastille twice, and spent nearly 30 years in exile from Paris, part of it in England, which he admired for its freedom of thought. In the 1750s, Frederick the Great of Prussia sheltered him in his palace at Sans Souci, and he also corresponded with Catherine the Great of Russia. From 1754 he lived in Switzerland. After the Revolution his remains were reinterred in the Panthéon.

queen were accused of plotting to betray France and were imprisoned. Moderates within the National Assembly tried to spare them the death sentence, but radical sentiment was too strong. Both were guillotined, along with hundreds of aristocrats.

Royalist revolts broke out in the west and parts of southern France. They were quickly suppressed, whereupon the revolutionaries

turned on each other in fierce political feuding. As many as 200,000 people may have died during the Terror of 1793 and 1794, most of them in the civil wars, others on the guillotine or in prison. Two prominent victims of the Terror were Georges Danton and Maximilien de Robespierre, leaders of the extreme Jacobin faction, both of whom had been active in setting it up.

## THE REVOLUTION ABROAD

Fear of French agents fomenting popular uprisings abroad hardened European opposition to revolutionary France, and Britain, the Netherlands, and Spain joined Prussia and Austria in a military alliance against the new republic (the Revolutionary Wars, 1792–1802). In spite of its internal chaos, France held out against its enemies, first of all repelling the invasion attempt to restore the monarchy in 1792, and then going on to the offensive itself. A series of victories in 1794–95 culminated in the successful invasion of the Netherlands (ruled by France as the Batavian Republic until 1806). Prussia and Spain made peace, leaving Britain and Austria to carry on the war. Britain maintained its naval supremacy with a series of victories over France, but by 1797 the general Napoleon Bonaparte (see pages 146–149) had emerged as the greatest of the French commanders after brilliant campaigns in Italy and Austria.



## TIMETABLE

1712

Thomas Newcomen designs a steam pump for use in mines

1721

Robert Walpole is the first British prime minister (to 1742)

1733–35

The War of the Polish Succession leads to Austrian and Russian domination of Poland

1740

Frederick the Great of Prussia introduces religious and economic reform

1740–48

The War of the Austrian Succession; Prussia gains Silesia from Austria

1751

Publication begins in France of the *Encyclopédie*, one of the chief works of the Enlightenment

1756–63

France supports Austria, Spain, and Russia against Britain and Prussia in the Seven Years War

1758

Voltaire publishes *Candide*, a satirical novel, his best-known work

1769

Richard Arkwright patents a water-powered spinning frame and opens the first textile factories in Britain

1781

Joseph II abolishes serfdom throughout the Austrian empire

1789

The storming of the Bastille begins the French Revolution

1791

The composer Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (b.1756) dies in Vienna

1793

Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette are executed in Paris

1798

France backs an unsuccessful revolt by the United Irishmen against British rule

1799

Napoleon Bonaparte becomes First Consul of France



# EUROPE UNDER NAPOLEON

A NATIONAL HERO IN FRANCE, NAPOLEON BONAPARTE WAS SEEN BY SOME AS AN IDEALIST AND REFORMER, BY OTHERS AS A RUTHLESS TYRANT. HIS MILITARY GENIUS BROUGHT FRENCH POWER TO ITS PEAK BUT HIS HUGE AMBITION SUCCEEDED IN UNITING EUROPE'S MAJOR POWERS AGAINST HIM. AFTER 15 YEARS OF WAR, NAPOLEON WAS DEFEATED AND SENT INTO EXILE.

AT THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA (1815) THE VICTORIOUS ALLIES REDREW THE BOUNDARIES OF EUROPE IN THEIR OWN FAVOR AND STRIPPED FRANCE OF ITS OVERSEAS COLONIES.

Napoleon was born on the Mediterranean island of Corsica in 1769, the year that it became part of France. After graduating from the Paris military academy, he joined an artillery regiment in the French army. The French Revolution provided an opportunity for the brilliant young officer to rise. He aligned himself with the more radical revolutionaries and came to notice at the siege of Toulon (1793) when, commanding the artillery, he forced the withdrawal of an Anglo-Spanish fleet. Three promotions in four months made him a brigadier general at age 24, but the fall of the radical leader Robespierre led to Napoleon's arrest and brief imprisonment the next year.

In October 1795 Napoleon suppressed a royalist rebellion in Paris and was rewarded with the command of an army in the continuing war against France's enemies. Leading campaigns in northern Italy and Austria (1796–97), his military and strategic skills were displayed to the full as he took on and defeated Austria's forces. Britain now stood alone as France's most implacable enemy. The government urged Napoleon to launch an invasion across the Channel, but instead he led an expedition to Egypt, from where he planned to strike at Britain's most valuable colony, India. He won a decisive battle over the Mamluke rulers of Egypt, but the defeat of his fleet at the battle of the Nile (1798) by the British admiral Nelson cut off supplies to the French army, forcing it to surrender. Despite this debacle, Napoleon's prestige stood higher than ever in France, where there was great public enthusiasm for all things Egyptian. Austria, Russia, and Turkey, encouraged by the defeat, were led to resume the war against France.



Left "Bonaparte crossing the Alps," a painting by Jacques Louis David, Napoleon's official artist, that glorifies his successful invasion of Italy in 1796–97.

## CONSUL & EMPEROR

The foundations of the French republic were extremely shaky. The Directory, the committee that had governed since 1795, was weak and unpopular, and in November 1799 Napoleon conspired with others to overthrow it and replace it with a three-man consulate. He justified this by claiming that only a firm hand could hold France together after the chaos of the revolutionary years. As First Consul, Napoleon was in effect the military dictator of France. The nature of his power was only partly concealed by a new constitution, which was approved by popular vote in 1800.

Further campaigns in Europe, culminating in the defeat of Austria at Marengo (1800), brought the Revolutionary Wars to an end. With all its allies in Europe defeated, Britain was compelled to sign the Treaty





## 1799–1815







*Left* Moscow burns in 1812, set on fire by its citizens to deprive Napoleon of booty and supplies.

*Below* Delegates to the Congress of Vienna (1814–15) were entertained at night with lavish balls. In this French satire, Russia, Prussia, and Austria dance to the bidding of Castlereagh, the British delegate (in red).



of Amiens (1802). Napoleon appointed himself consul for life. In 1804 he went a step further and assumed the hereditary title of emperor, securing the succession in the event of his death.

## TYRANT OR REFORMER?

Napoleon had fought for the revolution, but he had a low opinion of the masses. He ignored the slogans “liberty, equality, fraternity” and “the rights of man.” However, as First Consul and then emperor, he introduced a program of reforms that still influence France today: local government and the university system were restructured, a national bank founded, and the tax system made more equitable. The reform of French law, begun by the National Convention in 1790, was completed. The Code Napoleon of 1804 built on some of the old revolutionary ideals—a secular state, individual liberty, freedom of conscience—but it also maintained traditional property rights and offered little protection to workers. Women were granted few rights, though they had been active participants in the revolution.

## THE NAPOLEONIC SYSTEM

No sooner had the Revolutionary Wars ended than Napoleon began to increase French influence in the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Italy. He also tried to extend the French empire overseas and attempted to restrict British trade rights. These expansionist policies caused Britain to declare war again in 1803. Austria, Sweden, and Russia followed suit in 1805 but were rapidly defeated. Napoleon proceeded to occupy most of Germany and abolished what was left of the Holy Roman Empire. Prussia joined the war in 1806 but was also beaten. Napoleon now placed his brothers on royal thrones throughout Europe—an action that was much resented and helped to create nationalist resistance. In 1810 Napoleon divorced the childless Josephine in order to marry the 18-year-old archduchess Marie-Louise, daughter of Francis I of Austria, who duly gave birth to a son, the king of Rome (nicknamed *L'Aiglon*, or the Eaglet).

By 1807 Britain was on its own. British control of the sea left Napoleon unable to attack Britain directly, so he tried to prevent

the rest of Europe from trading with it. His efforts proved by and large ineffectual; illicit trade continued and Britain retaliated by blockading European ports. When Portugal refused to comply with the French ban, Napoleon ordered his army to invade. This sparked off revolt in Spain, and a British army commanded by Wellington landed in





## THE DIVISION OF EUROPE, 1815



for his army, Napoleon was forced to retreat as winter set in. Only 40,000 of his army survived the journey back.

## DEFEAT & EXILE

Napoleon had been welcomed into many parts of Europe because he was seen as a liberator, spreading the ideals of the French Revolution. But his treatment of the territories he conquered, which were systematically drained of taxes, supplies, and conscripts for the French army, turned the popular mood against him. The catastrophe in Russia persuaded Prussia, Austria, Sweden, and Spain back into the war. As the allies approached Paris, Napoleon abdicated and was exiled to the Italian island of Elba. The French monarchy was restored while the victorious allies met in Vienna to redistribute Napoleon's conquests. Russia eventually emerged with the biggest prize, in the shape of Poland, but Prussia and Austria also made substantial gains.

In March 1815, before the Congress had completed its sessions, Napoleon escaped and returned to France, where he seized power once more. A little more than three months later he was defeated by the British and Prussians at the battle of Waterloo. This time he was exiled to St. Helena in the southern Atlantic, too remote for escape or intrigue, where he died in 1821.

## TIMETABLE

1793

Napoleon wins Toulon from the royalists and is made brigadier general

1796–97

Napoleon's victories in Italy and Austria win him glory and prestige

1799

Napoleon overthrows the Directory and becomes First Consul

1802

Napoleon becomes consul for life

1803

Britain resumes the war against France. Napoleon threatens to invade Britain

1804

Napoleon crowns himself emperor of France in the presence of the pope

1805

Nelson's victory at Trafalgar deprives the French of a fleet. Napoleon beats Austria and Russia at Austerlitz

1806

Napoleon dissolves the Holy Roman Empire and replaces it with the Confederation of the Rhine

1807

The Continental System is introduced

1808

Joseph Bonaparte, elder brother of Napoleon, is crowned king of Spain

1809

Napoleon enters Vienna and defeats the Austrians at Wagram

1810

Napoleon marries Marie-Louise of Austria

1812

Napoleon retreats from Russia

1813

Napoleon is defeated at Leipzig and leads his army back to France

1814

Napoleon abdicates and is exiled to Elba

1814–15

The Congress of Vienna meets to reorganize post-Napoleonic Europe

1815

After defeat at Waterloo, Napoleon is exiled to St. Helena

the peninsula to support the rebels. His campaigns succeeded in tying down a large part of the French army. When Russia also ignored the ban Napoleon invaded the country at the head of an army of 600,000 men. He narrowly escaped defeat at Borodino, and went on to capture Moscow, but found it deserted. Unable to find supplies

## THE DISASTERS OF WAR

When Napoleon put his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne in 1808, Madrid rebelled. For the next six years, locally organized militia groups fought the French in a series of skirmishes and raids. The term "guerrilla war" (little war) was invented in this conflict, which was often brutal, with vicious reprisals on both sides. The great Spanish painter Francisco Goya (1746–1828) expressed his feelings of horror in a series of engravings, "The Disasters of War" (1810–14).

Left "There is no way out," by Francisco Goya.



# THE EXPANSION OF RUSSIA

FOR 250 YEARS, FROM ABOUT 1240 TO 1480, THE RUSSIAN PRINCIPALITIES WERE SUBJECT TO THE MONGOLIAN TATARS. INDEPENDENCE CAME IN THE REIGN OF IVAN III, GRAND PRINCE OF MOSCOW FROM 1462–1505. HE UNITED THE OTHER PRINCIPALITIES UNDER HIS LEADERSHIP AND BEGAN EXPANDING RUSSIA'S FRONTIERS. BUT RUSSIA REMAINED WEAK AND BACKWARD BY COMPARISON WITH WESTERN EUROPE. MODERN RUSSIA WAS CREATED BY PETER THE GREAT LATE IN THE 17TH CENTURY.

During the centuries of Tatar rule, Moscow looked east, to Persia and central Asia. But the Russians' Orthodox faith linked them to the Byzantine empire. After Byzantium fell to the Ottomans in 1453, Moscow came to be seen as the Third Rome in succession to Constantinople. When Ivan III, grand prince of Moscow, married Zoe, niece of the last Byzantine emperor, he took the double-headed eagle of the Byzantine empire as his own symbol.

The association was made even more explicit by Ivan IV (r.1533–84), who had himself crowned czar (caesar, or emperor) of Russia in 1547. Russia nearly doubled in size during his reign. The Tatars were conquered and Russian control extended into Siberia. However, Ivan's attempts to expand west to the Baltic were resisted by Sweden and Poland. Ivan reduced the power of the nobility (the *boyars*) and took over their estates. During a reign of terror, thousands were killed by his personal bodyguards. This earned him the nickname of "Ivan the Terrible," though "Awe-inspiring" is a more accurate translation of the Russian.

The "Time of Troubles" (1604–13) saw much of western Russia devastated by a civil war, which was ended by the accession of the first Romanov czar (the dynasty that ruled Russia until 1917). Settlement continued to spread eastward down the rivers of Siberia, and Russians had reached the Pacific by 1637. Trading posts were set up and furs became Russia's most valuable export. However, Russia's vast size was not to its advantage; though rich in natural resources, there were enormous problems of communication and transportation, and labor was short. To meet this, serfdom was introduced; peasants lost their traditional right to change employers once a year and were bound for life to one owner or estate

under conditions little different from slavery. Russian nobles were virtually the serfs of the czars. Trade and cultural contact with Europe rose during the 16th century, and there was a flourishing community of westerners—merchants, craftsmen, artists, clergy, and intellectuals—living in Moscow. But, in economic and political terms, Russia still lagged far behind its European neighbors.

## PETER THE GREAT

The reign of Peter the Great (1682–1725) proved a turning point in Russian history. Although he was not the first czar to introduce westernizing measures (his three predecessors had each done so in a small measure) Peter was the first to attempt to turn Russia into a modern European power, and had the energy and ruthlessness to realize his ambition. In 1697–98 he made a tour



Above Peter the Great ordered the nobles to shave.





# 1480-1815





of Prussia, the Netherlands, England, and Austria to teach himself about the technology of the west, particularly shipbuilding (he even worked as a shipwright in England and Holland). On returning home, he set about reorganizing the Russian army and in 1700 went to war with Sweden to win an outlet on the Baltic, where he founded his new capital of St. Petersburg. English and Dutch shipwrights were imported to supervise the building of a modern navy, while Italian architects introduced the fashionable baroque style to Russia. State-run copper and ironworks were founded in the Urals to exploit the region's rich mineral deposits. Peter even transformed the way Russians looked—he ordered his courtiers to wear western clothes, and nobles to shave off their traditional Russian beards. Anyone who refused had to pay a tax.

Peter's programs were aimed at making Russia competitive with the west. He did not attempt to reform Russia's deeply conservative society, and introduced repressive measures of control such as censorship of the press. Serfs were subjected to new restrictions, taxed heavily to pay for Peter's schemes, and forced to work on the construction of St. Petersburg; thousands died in terrible conditions. Serfdom was even extended to industrial workers in Peter's newly built factories.

## MIGHTY RUSSIA

During the 18th century, Russia's frontiers expanded slowly. The Ottoman Turks were driven from the Crimea and southern Ukraine, and with the fall of Sevastopol in 1783 the Black Sea was opened to Russian

trade. Russian fur traders crossed the Bering Sea to North America and founded the first permanent European settlements in Alaska in 1784. But the most significant gain was on its western frontier, where Russia benefited from Poland's weakness to share with Austria and Prussia in the partition of the kingdom between 1772 and 1795. After the Napoleonic wars (see pages 146–149), the Congress of Vienna (1815) ceded the rest of Poland to Russia.

Many of these territorial gains were made in the reign of the German-born empress Catherine the Great (1762–96), who came to the throne upon the death of her highly unpopular husband, Peter III, grandson of Peter the Great. Catherine was suspected by many of being implicated in his murder, and she has won great notoriety for her love affairs. However, she ruled Russia firmly

## SAINT PETERSBURG

*Peter the Great chose a marshy site on the Neva river, at the head of the Gulf of Finland, to be his "window on Europe." He laid the foundations for the Peter-Paul Fortress in May 1703, and in 1712 the city became his capital. A wave of building followed, all according to an elegant plan centered on Peter's vast Admiralty building and shipyards. Later rulers added to its splendors with new buildings in a variety of baroque and neoclassical styles, among them the magnificent Winter Palace (now the Hermitage). Known as Leningrad during the period of Soviet rule, the city's original name was restored in 1991.*



Above A map of St. Petersburg in 1728.

Right View from the river about the same time.





and well. An autocrat, she was also keenly interested in the cultural movements of the day in art, music, and architecture. Her collection of paintings forms the core of the great national collection now in the Hermitage Museum in St. Petersburg. At her invitation, many Germans settled in Russia, particularly in the newly conquered areas north of the Black Sea, where they introduced efficient agriculture.

In common with her fellow European monarchs, Catherine was alarmed by the outbreak of the French revolution in 1789. As the revolutionaries tried to spread their ideas across Europe, Russia joined Austria, Spain, Prussia, and Britain in the struggle



against France (see pages 146–149). Catherine was succeeded by her son Paul in 1796, but his erratic policies (he sent a Cossack army to conquer India) led to his murder in 1801. His son Alexander I seized Finland from Sweden (1808). Napoleon invaded Russia in 1812 but was defeated by its unmanageable size. As the French retreated, Alexander placed himself at the head of the pursuing Russian army, entering Paris with the allies in 1814. Russia was now established as one of the great powers of Europe.

*Above Catherine the Great, whose expansionist foreign policy brought new gains to Russia.*



## TIMETABLE

1480

Ivan III, grand prince of Moscow, wins independence from the Tatars

1547

Ivan IV (the Terrible) is crowned as the first czar of Russia

1564

Ivan IV retires to a monastery and begins a reign of terror against his nobles

1604–13

The civil wars of the “the Time of Troubles” end with the accession of Mikhail I, the first Romanov czar

1637

Russian explorers reach the Pacific coast of Siberia

1670

Stenka Razin leads a peasant and Cossack rebellion but is defeated

1697–98

Peter the Great tours Europe in search of new ideas and technology

1709

Peter defeats the Swedes at Poltava to gain a foothold on the Baltic

1712

The capital is transferred from Moscow to St. Petersburg

1725–27

On Peter’s death, the army puts his widow on the throne as Catherine I

1730–40

The empress Anna, Peter the Great’s niece, abolishes the Council and rules as an autocrat

1762

Catherine II (the Great) becomes empress after the murder of her husband, czar Peter III

1783

Russia annexes the Crimea and establishes a port on the Black Sea

1801

Czar Paul is murdered in a palace revolution and replaced with his son Alexander I

1812

Napoleon’s invasion of Russia fails with heavy losses



# THE MUSLIM WORLD

BETWEEN 1500 AND 1800, ASIA WAS DOMINATED BY THREE GREAT ISLAMIC STATES: THE OTTOMAN IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND THE BALKANS, THE SAFAVID IN PERSIA, AND THE MUGHAL IN INDIA. ALL THREE HAD AMBITIONS TO ESTABLISH AN ISLAMIC WORLD EMPIRE AND WERE CONTINUALLY PUSHING TO EXPAND THEIR BOUNDARIES OUTWARDS. AT THE SAME TIME, THEY ARGUED AMONG THEMSELVES OVER CLAIMS TO GOVERN THE MUSLIM WORLD.



*Left Ottoman sea power struck at the heart of Venice's maritime empire. The defeat of the Ottoman navy at the battle of Lepanto (1571) marked a revival in European fortunes, but the eastern Mediterranean remained a closed Ottoman lake for another century.*



The Balkan parts of the empire were crucially important to its success. The sultan's Christian subjects had to send a tribute of children to Constantinople each year (the

*devshirme*). Here, they were brought up as Muslims and educated to serve in the government or fight in the highly trained elite corps of Janissaries, the sultan's personal guard. Although slaves, the Janissaries were well treated and could rise to high positions of wealth and authority in the empire. Constantinople at this time was a more cosmopolitan and tolerant city than most European capitals; many of its citizens were Greek Christians and Jews.

Selim I (r.1512–20) was the most successful of the Ottoman sultans; during his reign, Syria and Kurdistan were conquered from the Safavids and the holy city of Mecca taken into Ottoman control. His successor,

Suleiman the Magnificent (r.1520–66), added Hungary, Iraq, and the North African coast. Expansion started to slow from then on: long supply lines hindered military campaigns. The authority of the sultans began to weaken, and the Janissaries, who had developed into a hereditary privileged class that meddled in politics, ceased to be a powerful fighting force.

The Muslim empires no longer dominated trade with India and the Far East. The British and Dutch controlled the Indian Ocean trade, while the opening up of Siberia had created a land route to China that bypassed Ottoman and Safavid territories. The Ottomans were in economic and military decline. In 1683 a last great campaign in Europe ended in crushing defeat at the gates of Vienna. Hungary was won back by Austria in 1699. Further losses followed, and by 1800 the draining away of territory in the Balkans, and in North Africa, had become a steady and irreversible process.

At the beginning of the 16th century the Ottomans were the most powerful Muslim dynasty. In the 14th century, as the Byzantine empire declined, they had expanded from their base in Anatolia (Turkey) to conquer Bulgaria, Greece, and Serbia. Edirne (formerly Adrianople), 140 miles northwest of the Byzantine capital, was their center of government until Constantinople itself fell to the armies of Mehmet II in 1453. The ancient capital of the eastern Roman empire and the seat of the Orthodox patriarch now became the capital of the Ottoman sultans and the administrative center of their highly organized empire. The church of St. Sophia was converted to a mosque.

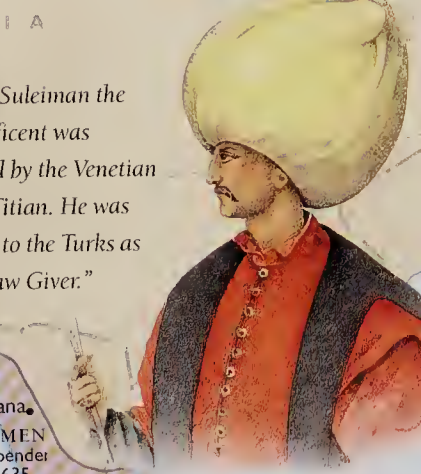


Safavid Persia, on the Ottoman empire's eastern border, was established by Shah Ismail I (r.1501–24) who expanded from a power base in Azerbaijan to occupy the area between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf. This growth was abruptly halted when his army was defeated by the Ottomans at the battle of Chaldiran in 1514. The Ottomans continued to make inroads into Safavid territory until Shah Abbas the Great (r.1588–1629) revived the Safavid fortunes. After strengthening the army by replacing the old military elite with a slave caste of Muslim converts similar to the Ottoman corps of Janissaries, he won back most of the land in western Persia lost to the Ottomans and captured Kandahar (Afghanistan) from the Mughals

ind

ODIA

ight Suleiman the  
agnificent was  
ainted by the Venetian  
rtist Titian. He was  
nown to the Turks as  
the "Law Giver."



Sana.  
YEMEN  
independence  
1635

Aden

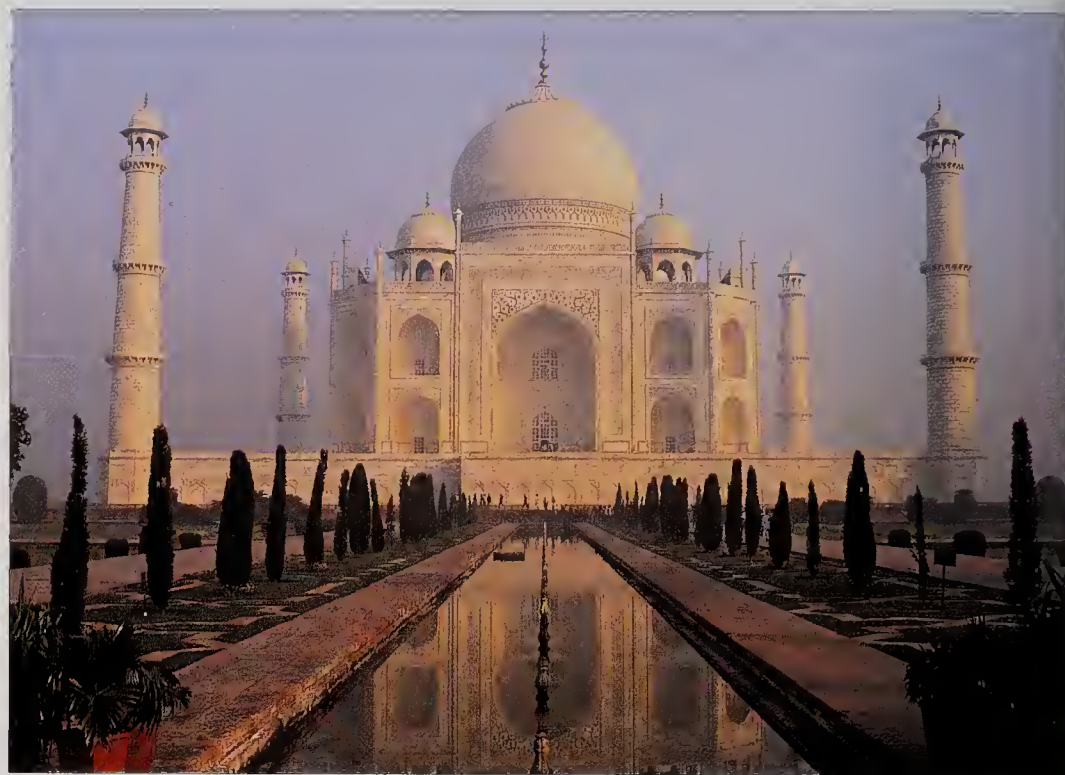


of northern India. Abbas made Isfahan the Persian capital in 1587, which he adorned with many mosques. Persian poetry, painting, and architecture flourished under his rule. He was followed by a succession of mediocre rulers, but the Safavid empire survived until 1722 when it was overrun by Afghan raiders. Persia briefly revived during the reign of Nadir Shah (1736–47), a bandit turned general who conquered Afghanistan and raided Delhi in 1739.

## THE MUGHALS

Muslim invaders from Afghanistan had established the first Islamic state in India in the 11th century. By the 14th century the sultanate of Delhi ruled most of northern India and had extended its control far into central India (the Deccan), but it was in decline when the Mughals—a central Asian dynasty claiming descent from the Mongols—invaded India under Babur (r.1501–30) in 1519. After defeating the sultanate of Delhi at the first battle of Panipat (1526), he went on to conquer most of northern India. Rebellions broke out after his death but his grandson Akbar (r.1556–1605) took Mughal rule into the Deccan.

Akbar was a competent and wise ruler. Although a devout Muslim, he encouraged religious toleration among his Hindu subjects for the sake of stability. His empire was prosperous. Its grain harvests were larger



*Above* The Taj Mahal, the garden tomb built by the Mughal Shah Jahan for his favorite wife, 1632–54.

than all of Europe's together; it possessed the world's largest textile industry, and produced high-quality steel and cannon. The weapons employed by the Mughals' professional army of a million soldiers were the equal of any used in the west at that time.

The Mughal empire was at its greatest under Aurangzeb (r.1658–1707), who conquered all but the far south of India. By now, Mughal rule had become less tolerant, and Aurangzeb asserted his Islamic faith by destroying Hindu temples and holy places.

From the mid 17th century resistance to Mughal rule was headed by the Marathas, a military Hindu state based in the western Deccan. Mughal power declined after Aurangzeb's death, and the Marathas were able to drive them from the Deccan and attack the north. Meanwhile, Nadir Shah of Persia took advantage of their weakness to sack Delhi in 1739. In a humiliating gesture, he took away the Peacock Throne of the Mughal emperors. Provincial governors began to rule like independent princes.

The opening up of trade with the west had led a number of European nations to establish trading bases on the Indian coast. The Mughals had welcomed the influx of European money to pay for their exports of spices, silk, cotton, and dyes, but the European trading companies now took advantage of Mughal weakness to increase their influence. Wars in Europe spilled over into colonial possessions. The Seven Years War (1756–63) greatly strengthened the position of the British East India Company. It possessed its own army and heavily armed ships and was able to intimidate and neutralize Indian opposition through a network of favorable alliances. By 1765 the British had won control of the rich Bengal cotton trade; by 1815 they dominated India and the Mughal emperor was a mere puppet.

*Below* The Persian general Nadir Shah (r.1736–47) invaded the declining Mughal empire in 1739.





## THE ART OF MUGHAL INDIA

Mughal emperors were rich patrons of the arts, and they encouraged artists from Safavid Persia to their court, where they set up royal workshops. Persian artists excelled in creating books lavishly illustrated with miniature drawings and paintings in a formal, highly decorated style, which made brilliant use of color. Indian artists, Hindu and Muslim, were trained in the Mughal studios, and while they continued to work in the Persian style, they added to it a distinctly Indian view of life. Mughal art is especially noted for its delicate portraiture and its natural history paintings—two subjects largely ignored by the Safavids.

Under the patronage of the emperor Jahangir (r.1605–27), Mughal painting

reached its richest expression. He prized individuality above all things, and rewarded one exceptional artist, the nature specialist Abu'l Hasan, with the title “Wonder of the Age.”

Architecture and landscaping were also highly prized by the Mughals. The first emperor, Babur, was an avid maker of gardens—an interest he brought to India from Central Asia. The emperor who has left the greatest architectural legacy is Shah Jahan (r.1628–66). He oversaw the construction of the Peacock Throne, rebuilt Lahore and Agra, laid out a new capital at Delhi, and built the Taj Mahal as a tomb for his favorite wife.

Below Shah Jahan on the Peacock Throne.



## TIMETABLE

1512

Selim I becomes sultan of the Ottoman empire

1514

The Ottomans defeat the Safavids at Chaldiran

1517

The sharif of Mecca surrenders to Selim

1526

Babur founds the Mughal empire in India. The Ottomans defeat Hungary at the battle of Mohács

1536

Suleiman the Magnificent forms an alliance with Francis I of France

1566

Suleiman dies campaigning in Hungary

1571

A European fleet defeats the Ottoman navy at Lepanto (Greece)

1598

The Mughals establish a new capital in Agra

1603–23

Abbas the Great regains Safavid territories from the Ottomans

1639

The Ottoman tribute of Christian children (*devshirme*) is abolished

1669

The Ottomans capture Crete from the Venetians after a 25-year war

1683

The Ottoman siege of Vienna is defeated

1707

The Mughal empire begins to disintegrate on the death of Aurangzeb

1720s

The Marathas begin to expand into northern India

1722

The Afghans overthrow the Safavid dynasty in Persia

1818

British defeat of the Marathas establishes their supremacy in India

1805

Egypt becomes independent of the Ottoman empire



# IMPERIAL CHINA

CHINA HAS ALWAYS BEEN OPEN TO INVASION FROM THE NORTH. THE MING DYNASTY, WHO EXPELLED THE MONGOLS AND RULED CHINA FROM 1368–1644, BUILT THE 2,000-MILE-LONG GREAT WALL TO PROTECT THIS VULNERABLE FRONTIER. BUT IT PROVED A FAILURE. DURING A CIVIL WAR IN 1644, MANCHU TRIBESMEN FROM THE NORTH WERE ABLE TO INVADE THE EMPIRE AND CAPTURE BEIJING. AS THE QING DYNASTY, THEY WERE TO BE THE LAST RULERS OF IMPERIAL CHINA.

Under the Ming emperors, China began a period of stable government. Chinese rule extended farther than ever before, into Vietnam and Burma in the south and Mongolia and Korea in the north. But Ming China was inward looking. Early in the 15th century, the admiral Zheng He sailed as far as east Africa, but maritime expeditions ended with his death in 1433. The decision to move the capital back to Beijing from the thriving ports of the south reflected the lack of enthusiasm for overseas trade. A Portuguese trading base was founded at Macau in 1557, and a Dutch settlement on Taiwan in 1622, but Ming relations with European merchants remained distant.

## THE MANCHUS IN POWER

By the early 17th century Ming authority had begun to crumble. Liaodong, the Chinese enclave north of the Wall, was protected by a wooden defensework with gate towers (the Willow Palisade) but this did not prevent it being seized by a new rival power, the Manchus, Jürchen tribesmen from the north. When civil war broke out in China, the Manchus stepped in. Dorgun (r.1628–50) won control of Beijing in 1644 and acted as regent to his nephew who was installed as the first Qing emperor. It took several years to bring southern China under control: Manchu rule was never popular

Below A vase of the Ming period. At this time, the secret of making porcelain was unknown in Europe, where there was a huge demand for quality items such as this. Many articles were produced in China especially for the export market.





**1644–1796**

**RUSSIAN EMPIRE**

**Manchuria**

**Inner Mongolia**

**Outer Mongolia**

**China**

**Japan**

**Korea**

**Laos**

**Siamese Kingdom**

**Annam**

**Cochin China**

**Thailand**

**Cambodia**

**Yunnan**

**Szechwan**

**Shanxi**

**Shandong**

**Henan**

**Hubei**

**Hunan**

**Guizhou**

**Guangdong**

**Guangxi**

**Fujian**

**Zhejiang**

**Jiangsu**

**Shanghai**

**Nanjing**

**Beijing**

**Tianjin**

**Harbin**

**Qinghai**

**Gansu**

**Ningxia**

**Shaanxi**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang**

**Chongqing**

**Chengdu**

**Yunnan**

**Dali**

**Guiyang**

**Guilin**

**Guangzhou**

**Canton**

**Macau**

**Fort Zeelandia**

**Xi'an**

**Wuchang</**

[illegible]



there. Once firmly established in power, the Qing set about the conquest of Mongolia, Turkestan, and Tibet. Qing expansionism made China a greater territorial power in east Asia than at any previous period in its history. Neighboring states such as Ladakh, Nepal, Bhutan, Laos, Burma, and Annam (Vietnam) were forced to make regular payments of tribute. Military protectorates in the northeast ended Russian expansion into Central Asia.

## STABILITY & GROWTH

After a five-year uprising was put down in 1681, China enjoyed more than a century of peace and stability under Qing rule. The most obvious change they introduced was the custom of wearing the hair in a queue, or single braid, in the traditional Manchu style; they showed their authority by making their Chinese (Han) subjects wear the same. Manchus were not allowed to marry Chinese. The only occupations open to them were the army and civil service.

The Manchus brought new efficiency to Chinese military and political life, but did not attempt to reform the thousand-year-old system of administration. In all but



the most senior posts, civil servants and soldiers continued to be drawn from the landowning class, who were recruited for their knowledge of ancient Chinese classics rather than their demonstration of practical skills. Peasant revolts during the late Ming period had virtually ended serfdom, but millions of tenant farmers lived at subsistence level.

They could not afford the education to enter the imperial bureaucracy, but carried most of the tax burden.

Between 1650 and 1800 the population rose from 100 million to 300 million. The agricultural heartlands of the Yangtze basin and southeast were by now overpopulated, and this forced large numbers of peasants to migrate. The Qing forbade Han Chinese to settle in the Manchu homelands north of the Great Wall, so movement was principally to the less crowded western provinces.

## WIDER CONTACTS

While the Qing pursued their expansionist policies in Asia, they showed as little interest in trading on equal terms with Europe as their Ming predecessors had. As long as the Chinese economy was self-

*Left* The emperor Qianlong (r.1735–96) had the longest reign in Chinese history. Highly educated and a patron of the arts, he regarded China as the only powerful and civilized country in the world. He declined the innovations of the west, while appreciating its technical skills.

*Right* A Chinese 17th-century lacquer screen decorated with pictures of Portuguese ships and sailors. All Europeans were known as “foreign devils” because they wore trousers. This form of apparel was traditionally worn by the actors playing demons in the Chinese theater, but was otherwise unknown.



## BEIJING: NORTHERN CAPITAL

Beijing had been a frontier town for centuries before the Mongol leader, Kublai Khan, founder of the Yuan dynasty, made it his capital in 1267 and gave it its present name, which means “northern capital.” It has remained China’s capital ever since, with two brief interruptions when Nanjing was used: from 1368–1421 by the Ming; and from 1929–49 by the nationalist Kuomintang government.

The buildings seen today were mostly constructed under the Ming and Qing. As the capital grew under the Ming, they built

*Left* A lion guards the Forbidden City, Beijing.





a new wall to enclose Kublai Khan's original walled city. Imposing gates marked the entrance at each wall. The new outer city became Beijing's thriving commercial and residential district, while the old inner city of the Mongols became the Imperial City, the heart of the Chinese bureaucracy. Within the Imperial City, behind yet another wall, lay the Forbidden City, the compound of private palaces and gardens where the imperial family lived. Beijing escaped destruction in the wars of the early 20th century, and today the Forbidden City, which is not used by the Communist government, is open to the public as a museum.

sufficient and bolstered by the payment of tribute from its weaker neighbors, it had little incentive to trade abroad. China was the world's most advanced civilization; westerners were regarded as barbarians who had nothing to offer by way of material goods or technological knowledge, though there was a thriving trade in furs from Russia through the Mongolian trading city of Kyakhta.

Seventeenth-century Europe saw a growing fashion for all things Chinese, particularly porcelain, cotton, silks, and tea. As European traders had nothing the Chinese wanted to buy, they paid for their exports with New World silver, which proved very expensive. All European trade was restricted to the port of Guangzhou (Canton) in the south. Jesuit priests were also active in China during the 17th century. They were tolerated for their knowledge of physics and astronomy—though these were considered amusing trifles—but won few converts. Christianity was later banned because it conflicted with ancestor worship.

## CHINA'S SWIFT DECLINE

In 1793, the emperor Qianlong (r.1735–96) snubbed a British trade delegation. Its leader, Lord Macartney, had refused to prostrate himself in the traditional kowtow, or deferential bow, to the emperor, but this was probably just a pretext for breaking off relations. Notes taken by the delegation of Chinese methods of silk and tea production were passed to the British East India Company, which quickly set up in competition to the Chinese. At the end of Qianlong's reign there were obvious signs of Chinese decline. The civil service had become corrupt, and tax increases provoked a new wave of peasant rebellions. European technological superiority was becoming obvious even to the Qing court, but it was too conservative to contemplate modernization. By the mid 19th century, as China came closer to collapse, the west was able to impose its own terms for trade.

**Right** Fishermen using cormorants for catching fish on the Yangtze river.



## TIMETABLE

1421

The Ming capital is transferred from Nanjing to Beijing

1556

The worst earthquake in Chinese history kills over 850,000 people

1557

A permanent Portuguese trading base is established at Macau

1644

The Ming dynasty is overthrown in a civil war; the Manchus capture Beijing

1674–81

The Qing suppress a rebellion in south China

1689

The Russians withdraw from the northern province of Amur in exchange for trading rights in China

1697

Mongolia is occupied by Chinese troops

1723

Christianity is banned in China

1751

Chinese invade Tibet and establish control over the succession of the Dalai Lama

1757

Foreign traders are restricted to the port of Guangzhou

1793

The emperor Qianlong snubs a British trade mission led by Lord Macartney

1796

Peasant rebellions break out on the death of Qianlong



# THE EMERGENCE OF AFRICA

ALTHOUGH THE ARRIVAL OF EUROPEAN TRADERS HAD GROWING CONSEQUENCES FOR AFRICAN SOCIETIES AND CULTURE IN THE CENTURIES AFTER 1500, THEIR INFLUENCE DID NOT EXTEND EVERYWHERE IN THE CONTINENT AND SEVERAL IMPORTANT INDIGENOUS AFRICAN STATES EMERGED DURING THIS PERIOD. ELSEWHERE, THE MASS TRANSPORTATION OF AFRICANS TO THE AMERICAS, IN CONDITIONS OF GREAT CRUELTY, HAD DEVASTATING IMPACT. BY THE TIME THE SLAVE TRADE WAS ABOLISHED IN THE 1800s, SOME 10–15 MILLION PEOPLE HAD BEEN SHIPPED FROM AFRICA TO PLANTATIONS IN THE NEW WORLD.

Trade in gold and ivory, rather than conquest, was the aim of the Portuguese who first began to build fortified bases around the African coast in the late 15th century. Soon slaves were also being traded from Africa and exported as forced labor to the plantations of Brazil and the Caribbean (see pages 122–125). Dutch, French, and English traders founded bases alongside the Portuguese, attracted by the profitable trade in human lives. Their arrival had considerable impact in some areas, disrupting existing patterns of trade and cultural exchange. The creation of new coastal networks for trade in west Africa drew commerce away from the wealthy trading kingdoms of the upper Niger. The powerful Songhai empire, which controlled the trade routes across the western Sahara, began to decline in the 16th century and was overthrown by a Moroccan army in 1591, which established a governorship in the region. The successor states of Segou and Kaarta were never able to match Songhai's former influence.

A number of small states, such as the Mossi, Oyo, and Benin, emerged in equatorial west Africa during the 16th and 17th centuries. Asante and Dahomey, dominating the coast, had become powerful and well-organized centralized kingdoms by the late 18th century, partly as a result of their involvement in the slave trade.

South of the Equator, Portuguese traders exploited rivalry between the kingdoms of Congo and Ndongo to establish a colony at Luanda (Angola) by 1575. Njinga, queen of the Ndongo (r.1624–63), fought a long war to stop Portuguese slavers from extending their activities, but was forced to submit.

The Portuguese founded a string of bases on the east coast of Africa to dominate the

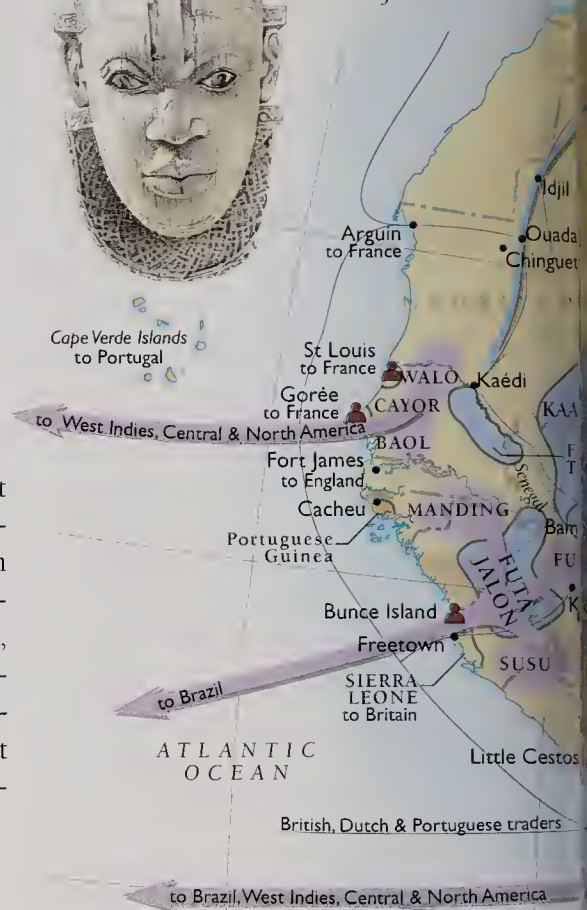
Indian Ocean trade. Their presence upset the existing balance of power. Mwenemutapa, the most powerful state of southern Africa in the 16th century, asked the Portuguese for help in suppressing a rebellion, but found itself unable to resist their extortionate demands for trade and mining privileges. By the 1630s it had become a puppet state, and was later eclipsed by the neighboring kingdom of Rozwi.

## ISLAMIC STATES

Many parts of Africa were unaffected by the presence of European traders, and several important African states emerged at this time that owed nothing to their influence. Kanem-Bornu, on the southern edge of the Sahara, was the leading Islamic state in Africa and built up its power by importing firearms from the Ottomans. Farther to



Left An ivory mask from the west African state of Benin.



Below A camel caravan crosses the western Sahara from Morocco. By the 16th century this route was declining in importance.





# 1508–1807





the east, Islam and Christianity came into direct conflict, mainly because of the survival of the ancient Christian kingdom of Ethiopia. Adal, an alliance of Islamic states in neighboring Somalia, attempted to conquer Ethiopia in 1527 under the leadership of Ahmed Gran, an *imam*, who declared the campaign a *jihad* (holy war). Fighting lasted until 1543, when a small Portuguese force came to Ethiopia's aid. The invasion was repelled, and Gran was killed in battle.

## RISE & FALL OF SLAVERY

In the early 1500s only about 2,000 slaves were annually exported out of Africa, but by 1680 this figure had risen to 10,000. At the peak of the trade, in the second half of the 18th century, as many as 100,000 men, women, and children were shipped to the Americas in a single year. By this time, British shipping and commercial interests controlled the slave trade into the Caribbean

(slaves for Brazil were supplied by the Portuguese from Angola). Ships voyaged to west Africa from Bristol, Liverpool, and London to exchange firearms, textiles, liquor, and other goods for slaves before sailing on to the Caribbean. Here the slaves were sold for rum and molasses for the return

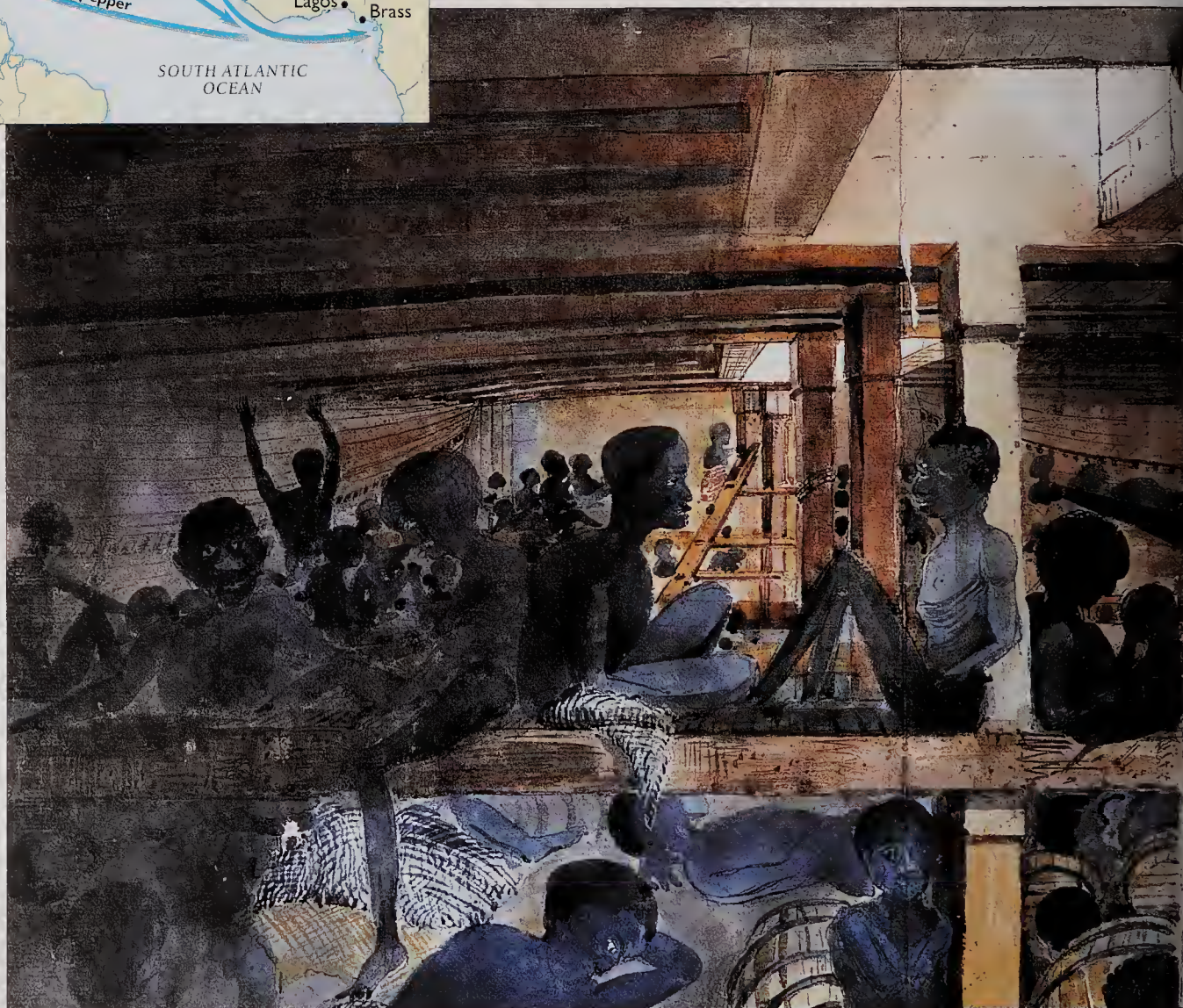
journey, or shipped on to North America, where they were exchanged for cargoes of tobacco, timber, and other raw materials. The entire round trip became known as the "Triangular Trade." The second stage, in which the human cargo from Africa was shipped across the Atlantic, was simply called the "Middle Passage."

The transatlantic slave trade, carried out in conditions of the utmost inhumanity, inflicted appalling human misery. It caused enormous social disruption in the worst exploited areas of west and central Africa. Europeans did not take part in slave raids themselves but bought them from African traders. A kingdom could become wealthy through slavery but could only meet the demand for ever more slaves by constant attacks on its neighbors. Sometimes rulers even sold some of their own people, such as criminals, into slavery.

Some people, such as the Quakers, were always opposed to slavery. During the 18th-century, opinion against it spread further



**Right** Conditions on the Middle Passage were appalling. The slaves were chained and crammed in their hundreds below decks with barely enough room for them to lie down. Food and water were in short supply, and sanitation nonexistent; many slaves died of disease before reaching the Americas. Most who survived could expect only brutal treatment and a short life on the plantations. This picture of captives on board a slaver was painted by an officer of a British anti-slavery patrol that intercepted the ship in 1840.







Above Benin plaque of a Portuguese soldier.

## THE ROYAL BRONZES OF BENIN

The forest societies around the Niger delta developed the technique of bronze casting between the late 12th and 14th centuries. The raw materials were bars of copper alloy imported from the interior. When the Portuguese came to the area in the 1480s, they brought brass bracelets as trade goods, which were melted down and recast. One of the most prolific centers of bronze casting was the court of Benin. Unique to Benin are highly crafted decorative plaques, which are thought to be imitations of illustrations in Portuguese books. They were fixed to the pillars of ceremonial buildings: a 17th-century Dutch traveler to the kingdom of Benin described the king's palace as having "wooden pillars encased in copper, where their victories are depicted."



with the development of libertarian ideals, but abolitionists faced enormous resistance from commercial interests. Participation in the slave trade was outlawed by Britain in 1807 and the United States in 1808. However, slave-owning was allowed in British colonies until 1833, French colonies until 1848, and in the United States until 1865. The Portuguese did not ban the slave trade in their colonies until the 1880s.

In 1787 British philanthropists bought an area of land on the west coast of Africa to found a settlement for freed and runaway slaves, which became the colony of Sierra Leone. In 1816 Liberia was founded in an region to the south as a colony for former slaves from the southern United States.

## THE FIRST COLONY

The largest concentration of Europeans in Africa, numbering some 15,000 by 1800, was at Cape Colony, in south Africa, founded in 1652 by the Dutch East India Company as a stopping point for its ships on the long voyage to the East Indies. It had a Mediterranean climate and good land, and soon grew into a thriving colony. As well as Dutch settlers, it attracted large numbers of French Huguenots. In 1814 it was ceded permanently to Britain by the Dutch.

## TIMETABLE

1529

Songhai empire dominates west Africa

1531–32

The Portuguese build fortresses at Sena and Tete on the Zambezi River

1543

Portuguese help the Ethiopians defeat a Muslim invasion by Ahmed Gran of Adal

1570

Idris III Aloma establishes Kanem-Bornu as the greatest power between the Nile and the Niger

1575

The Portuguese settlement of Angola begins at Luanda

1591

A Moroccan army overthrows the empire of Songhai

1633

Uprising by empire of Mwenemutapa against the Portuguese is suppressed

1652

Cape Town is founded by Dutchman Jan van Riebeeck

1698

The sultan of Oman establishes a sultanate at Zanzibar to dominate east African coastal trade

1713

British slave trade to Spanish America begins

1724

Dahomey grows in power as a partner of European slave traders

1780

Transatlantic slave trade at its peak

1787

British settle 400 freed slaves in Sierra Leone

1795

Great Britain seizes Cape Town from the Netherlands

1808

The United States bans further shipments of slaves from Africa

1816

The American Colonization Society begins the "Liberia Project" to provide a home for freed slaves





1 1557 The Portuguese establish a trading base at Macau, China

2 1596 The first Dutch trading expedition reaches the East Indies

3 1603 The Tokugawa shogunate is established in Japan with its capital at Edo (Tokyo)

4 1615 The Manchus begin the conquest of the ailing Ming empire

5 1620 The Pilgrims land at Cape Cod, Massachusetts

6 1626 The Dutch found the colony of New Amsterdam (New York)

7 1632 Shah Jahan begins the Mughal conquest of the Deccan (central India)

8 1638 Birth of Louis XIV of France; he succeeds to the throne in 1643, at the age 5

9 1638 The Japanese close their ports to foreign traders

10 1649 King Charles I of England is found guilty of high treason and executed

11 1652 Dutch settlers found a colony at the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa

12 1683 An army led by John Sobieski, king of Poland, defeats the Ottomans outside Vienna

13 1698 The Omanis drive the Portuguese from Mombasa and set up the Zanzibar sultanate

14 1713 Britain takes over control of the African slave trade to the Caribbean from the Spanish

15 1784 Russian fur traders found a settlement in Alaska



# THE WORLD BY 1815

BY 1815 THE EUROPEAN AGE OF DISCOVERY WAS COMING TO AN END. EXPLORATION OF THE PACIFIC HAD ADDED AUSTRALIA AND ANTARCTICA TO THE KNOWN WORLD. HOWEVER, WHILE EUROPEAN COLONIZATION HAD HAD GREAT IMPACT IN SOME PLACES, MUCH OF THE WORLD WAS STILL UNAWARE OF OR UNAFFECTED BY EUROPE. CHINA, THE WORLD'S LARGEST EMPIRE, HAD DISTANCED ITSELF FROM CONTACT WITH THE WEST.

In 1492, the year that Columbus landed in the New World, Europe had occupied a fairly inconsequential position on the world stage. China was far advanced in technological skills, and it was reaching heights of prosperity and stability under the Ming. Asia's Islamic empires controlled international trade. Europe was unable to match the military and naval strength of the Ottoman empire. Over the next three hundred years, the European pursuit of wealth and territory had established colonies in every continent of the world. Their empire-building had had enormous impact on indigenous populations: in the Americas, thousands had been killed by war and disease, or displaced from their traditional lands. Millions of Africans had been enslaved and shipped across the Atlantic to provide labor on European plantations.

However, in 1815, European power was by no means global. Colonial settlement in Australia and Africa was limited to small coastal areas; their vast interiors remained unexplored. Through its control of trade in east Africa, the sultanate of Oman had greater territorial influence in Africa than the combined



- 16 1776 The American colonies declare their independence from Britain
- 17 1788 Britain founds a penal colony at Port Jackson (now Sydney), Australia
- 18 1789 The French Revolution begins
- 19 1796 The emperor Qianlong abdicates in China in order not to rule longer than his grandfather
- 20 1815 Napoleon is defeated at Waterloo; the Congress of Vienna redraws the map of Europe

Right A 19th-century European's impression of a Tasmanian Aborigine. Australia was the last frontier of European colonization.





presence of European traders. The Chinese empire, the most populous in the world, was greater in size than at any previous time in history and had extended its influence far into southeast Asia. Although the military strength of the Ottoman empire was in decline, it was still a major territorial power in the Middle East and southern Europe.

By 1815, however, Europeans controlled the sea routes that acted as arteries for trade between the continents. Western traders were no longer reliant on overland caravan routes and Islamic middlemen. Until the 19th century, European goods had little allure for Indian and Chinese merchants, so silver and gold from the New World was used to buy the spices, cottons, silks, and porcelain that were so highly valued in the west. To facilitate this trade, European traders—especially Portuguese, Dutch, and British—had established permanent bases in Asia. In time, in southeast Asia and India, native traders were forced out of business and the European trading companies became territorial powers in their own right. A new global economy had come into being, from which the nations of the west derived almost exclusive benefits.

## EUROPE

Rivalry between the colonizing European nations was fierce, and by the end of the 18th century, dynastic and trade wars had come to replace the religious conflicts that had divided post-Reformation Europe. The

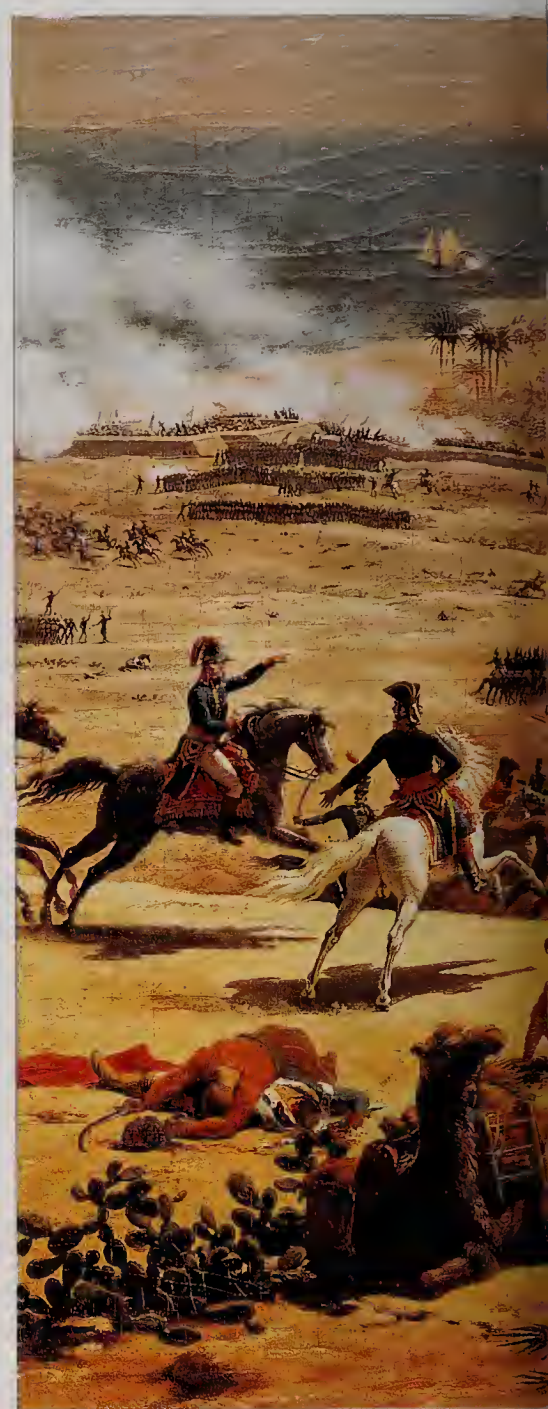
18th century saw a series of conflicts in Europe that spilled over into the colonies, especially North America. The French Revolution (1789) had plunged the continent into war, but Napoleon's defeat in 1815 saw a new balance of power emerging. The kingdom of Prussia was set to dominate European politics in the coming century. Russia, which had begun to modernize its feudal society in the early 18th century, continued to advance its borders in Asia and eastern Europe. Britain's naval strength and technical advances had made it the world's greatest manufacturing and trading power.

## THE AMERICAS

The rising power in the Americas was the United States. Since winning its independence from Britain in 1783 it had doubled in size with the purchase of Louisiana from France (1803). The War of 1812, fought over British restrictions on U.S. shipping, had heightened national pride and identity. As European settlers in the United States spread into the interior, Native Americans were pushed farther west into unsettled territory. In Central and South America, growing demands for independence, inspired by the American revolution and by Napoleon's occupation of Spain, had seen revolts break out against Spanish rule in Mexico (1810), Paraguay (1811), and Venezuela (1810–12). Haiti was the only island in the Caribbean to have won its independence, from France, after a slave revolt (1804).

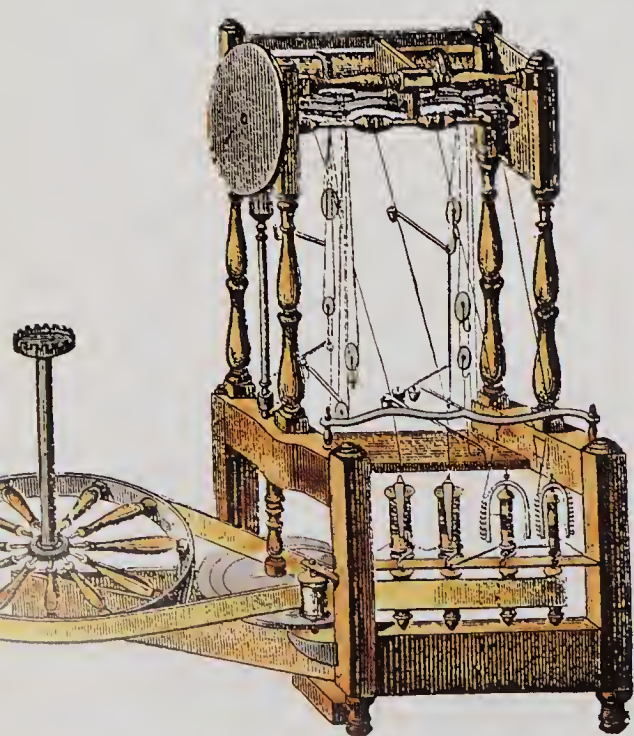
## THE MIDDLE EAST

During the 18th century Ottoman power weakened in the Middle East and North Africa, with outlying states such as Tunis, Tripoli, Qatar, and Oman (which controlled trade with east Africa) declaring their independence. In Egypt, Mehmet Ali, an Albanian, succeeded in making himself viceroy in 1805. A dynamic, modernizing ruler, he helped to expel the fanatical Wahhabi sect from its control of the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, but became increasingly independent of the sultan. Despite signs of decline, however, the Ottoman empire was to survive for another century: it still controlled the Balkans from Greece to Romania, and Turkey, Syria, and Mesopotamia. Since the conquests of Nadir Shah's reign



*Left* Britain's early lead in the textile industry propelled it to a commanding position in the global economy. Mechanized production began to replace traditional hand-crafting and Britain sought a larger market overseas for its manufactured goods. Seen here is Arkwright's spinning frame (1769).

*Above* With the establishment of overseas empires, wars between European powers took on a global aspect. In 1798 Napoleon invaded Egypt to try to cut off Britain's sea route to India, fast becoming its most important colony. His plan failed when the French fleet was defeated by the British in 1798 and its army was beaten in 1801.







(1736–47) Persia had become a cultural backwater and would find itself squeezed between the territorial ambitions of Russia in central Asia and British power in India.

## EAST & SOUTH ASIA

Under the Qing dynasty, China had made great territorial gains during the 18th century. The emperor Qianlong (r.1736–96) had shunned the technical innovations of the west and successfully forced restrictions on foreign merchants, but his successors were unable to match his skills. Japan had deliberately closed its doors to European trade since the 17th century, and the mainland states of southeast Asia such as Burma and

Siam (Thailand) also resisted the incursions of the west. The Dutch had established a commercial empire in the spice islands of southeast Asia (the Dutch East Indies) in the 17th century, but by 1815 had lost their monopolies in the face of strong competition from British, French, American, and Chinese trade. The British had taken advantage of the decline of the Mughal empire in India to become the ruling power there.

## THE SOUTH PACIFIC

Parts of the Australian and New Zealand coastlines were first charted in the 17th century by Dutch mariners from the East Indies, but no attempt was made to settle

there until late in the 18th century, after Captain Cook, on his first Pacific voyage (1769–71), had claimed both for the British crown. The British government decided to found a convict colony in Australia: the first shiploads arrived in 1788. The Aboriginal population, which had inhabited Australia for at least 40,000 years, probably numbered around 300,000. European contact had catastrophic consequences. As many as 20,000 Aborigines may have been killed in early conflicts with settlers; others died in epidemics. As white settlement expanded, those living along the coasts were dispossessed of their lands and driven into the interior, where fierce intertribal conflicts developed. Their culture was destroyed.







# THE MODERN WORLD

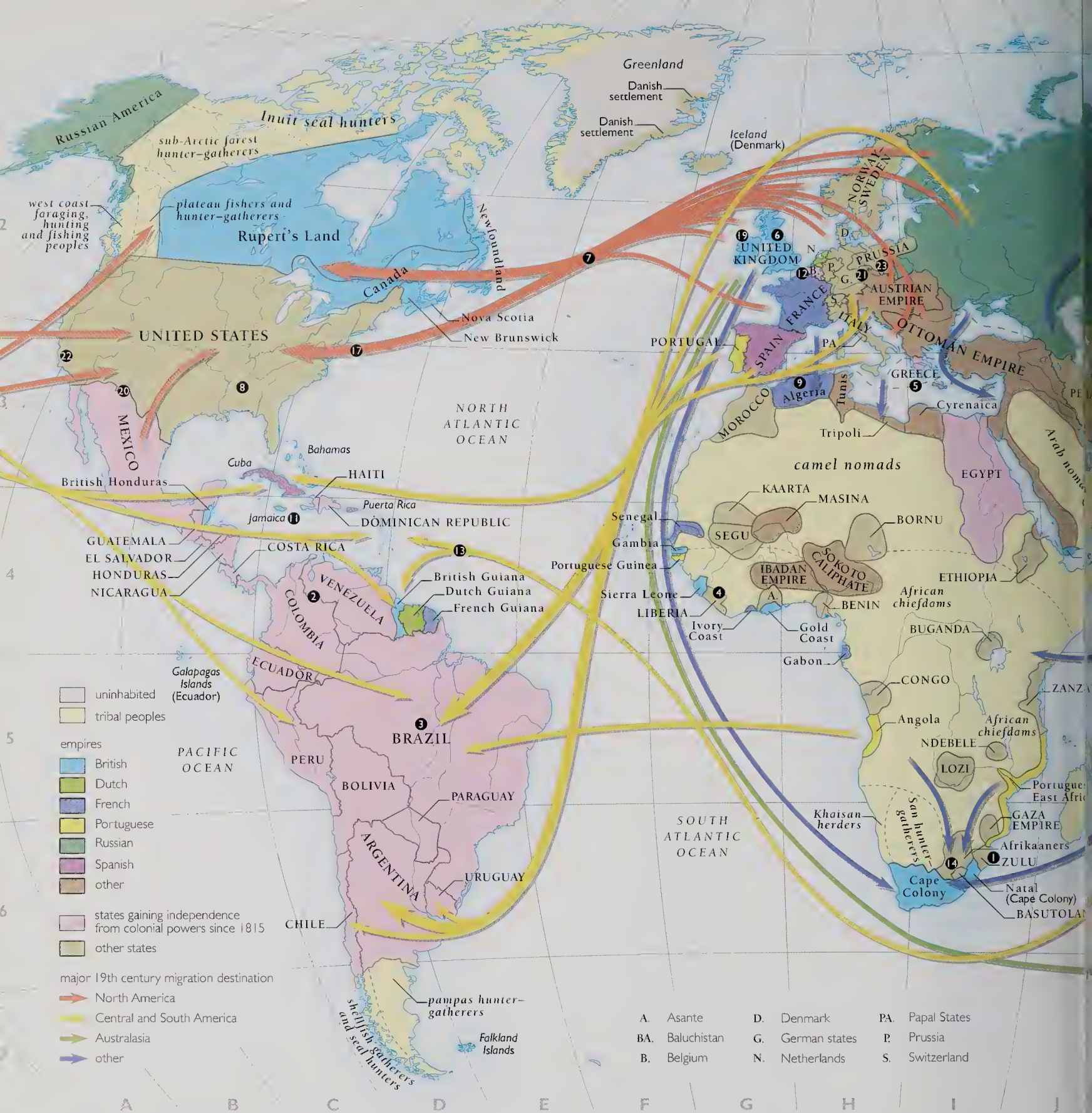
The 19th and 20th centuries have seen unprecedented global change. In 1815, it would have taken several months for a message to travel from St. Petersburg to Washington or from London to Sydney, Australia. By 1900, the telegraph and radio had reduced this interval to minutes; today we have instant access via the internet to information anywhere on Earth. Improvements in communications began in the 19th century with the coming of steamships and locomotives. In the same period, European rule extended over much of the globe. In 1914 the British empire covered one-fifth of the world's land surface and ruled one-quarter of its people.

European and U.S. financial investment extended into Russia, China, and Japan, and throughout Latin America. The creation of a truly global economy, industrial labor markets, and cheap modes of travel gave rise to some of the largest migrations of people in world history. Between 1815 and 1914, in excess of 40 million people left Europe to settle in the United States, South America, Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand. Millions of Asians also migrated around the globe in search of work.

The 20th century has seen more conflict than any other in history. Two world wars, revolutions, independence wars, border conflicts, and civil wars have cost millions of lives. Millions more have been killed or injured by the oppressive actions of their own governments, for example in Stalinist Russia, Nazi Germany, by Communist regimes in East Asia, and military dictators in Africa and Latin America. In the second half of the century, the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union, in which both sides built up huge arsenals of nuclear weapons, dominated global affairs. This came to end in 1991, following the collapse of Communism and the break up of the Soviet Union.

Huge technological and medical advances saw standards of living rise for most people in North America, Western Europe, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, and the countries of the Pacific rim. But the gap between the rich and poor regions of the world grew ever wider as developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America struggled with problems of debt, starvation, and environmental degradation. In the course of the 20th century the human population increased from about 1.5 billion to almost 6 billion. Industrial pollution, overcrowded cities, and increasing demands on natural resources raised environmental issues of urgent concern.





- 1 1816 Shaka, king of the Zulu nation, begins to expand the Zulu empire in southern Africa
- 2 1819 Simón Bolívar founds Republic of Gran Colombia (present-day Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, and Panama; disintegrates in 1830)
- 3 1822 Brazil wins independence from Portugal
- 4 1822 The colony of Liberia is founded for freed slaves from the United States
- 5 1824–26 Greece wins independence from the Ottoman empire

- 6 1825 The world's first public railroad opens in the industrial northeast of England
- 7 1827 First steam-assisted crossing of the Atlantic (it took 29 days, most of it under sail)
- 8 1830 Native Americans forced west on the "Trail of Tears"
- 9 1830 France begins conquest of Algeria, not completed till 1847
- 10 1830 Australian Aborigines slaughtered by colonists on Van Diemen's Land

- 11 1833 Slavery is abolished throughout the British colonies
- 12 1830–33 Belgium becomes a sovereign state after fighting for freedom from Dutch rule
- 13 1834 First Indian indentured laborers arrive in the Caribbean
- 14 1835–37 Afrikaners begin the "Great Trek" from the Cape into the interior
- 15 1839–42 First Opium War fought between Britain and China



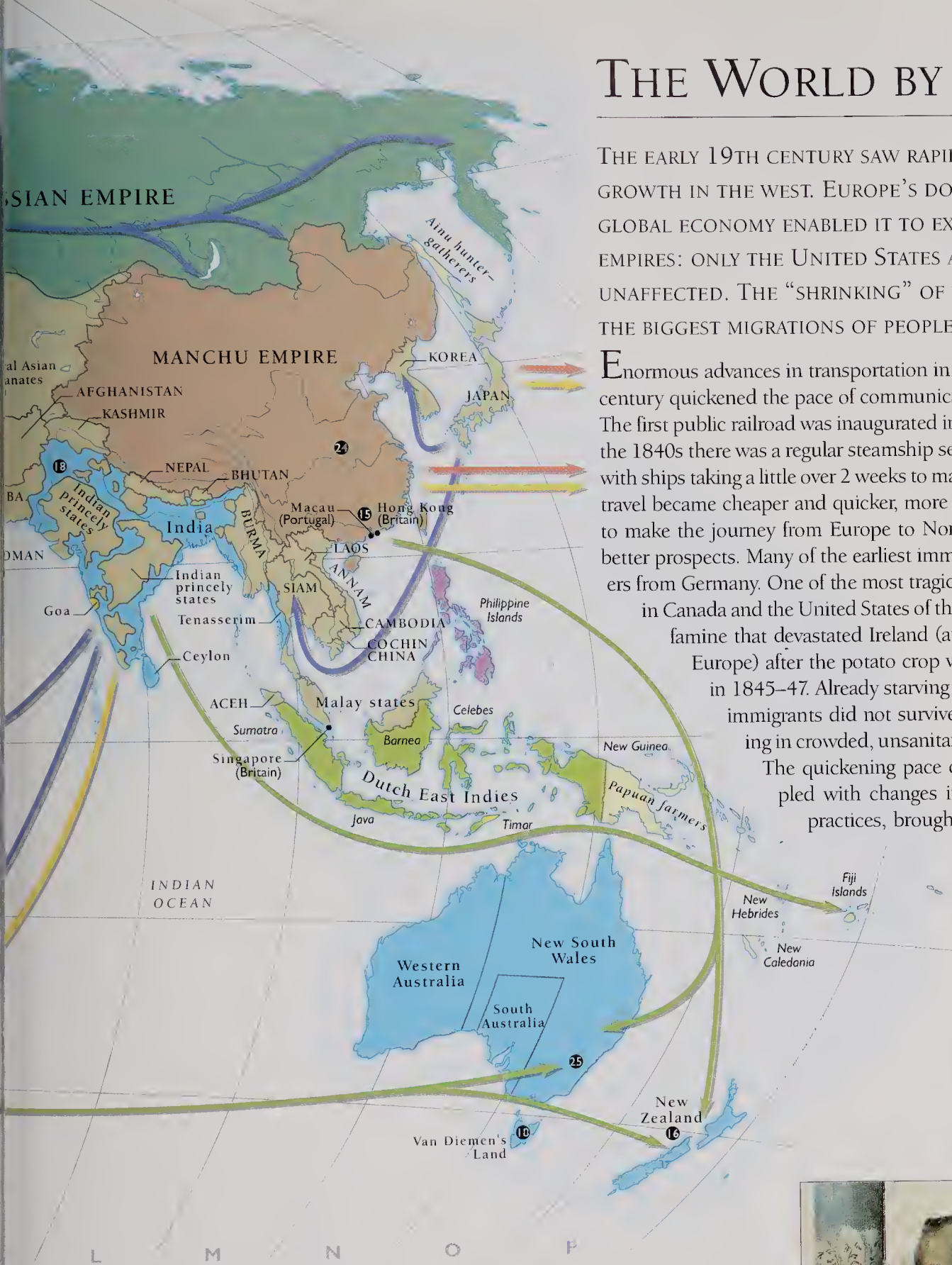
# THE WORLD BY 1850

THE EARLY 19TH CENTURY SAW RAPID INDUSTRIAL GROWTH IN THE WEST. EUROPE'S DOMINATION OF THE GLOBAL ECONOMY ENABLED IT TO EXPAND ITS COLONIAL EMPIRES: ONLY THE UNITED STATES AND JAPAN WERE UNAFFECTED. THE "SHRINKING" OF THE WORLD LED TO THE BIGGEST MIGRATIONS OF PEOPLE EVER RECORDED.

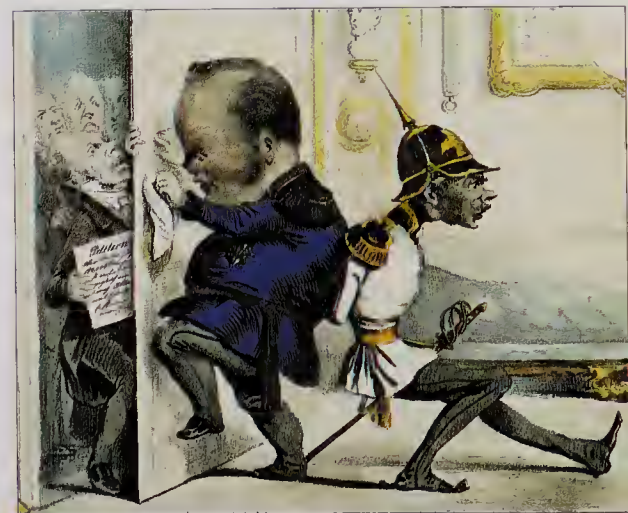
Enormous advances in transportation in the first half of the 19th century quickened the pace of communications around the globe. The first public railroad was inaugurated in Britain in 1825, and by the 1840s there was a regular steamship service across the Atlantic, with ships taking a little over 2 weeks to make the journey. As ocean travel became cheaper and quicker, more and more settlers began to make the journey from Europe to North America in search of better prospects. Many of the earliest immigrants were small farmers from Germany. One of the most tragic episodes was the arrival in Canada and the United States of thousands of victims of the famine that devastated Ireland (and large areas of eastern Europe) after the potato crop was destroyed by disease in 1845–47. Already starving and ill, very many of the immigrants did not survive the long Atlantic crossing in crowded, unsanitary ships.

The quickening pace of industrialization, coupled with changes in land use and farming practices, brought vast social upheaval to

*Below A contemporary cartoon shows King Frederick William IV of Prussia and his army commander shutting out liberal petitioners in 1849. Monarchs throughout Europe used force to suppress their subjects' growing calls for reform.*



- 16 1840 Maoris cede sovereignty of New Zealand to Britain in Treaty of Waitangi
- 17 1840–50 First wave of mass immigration to the United States
- 18 1843–49 Britain annexes the provinces of Sind and the Punjab in India
- 19 1845–47 1 million perish in the Irish Potato Famine; a million more emigrate
- 20 1846–48 War between the United States and Mexico; much of the southwest is won
- 21 1848 Liberal and nationalist revolutions sweep across Europe
- 22 1849 California Gold Rush attracts settlers
- 23 1849 Frederick William IV of Prussia rejects offer of German imperial crown from Frankfurt National Assembly
- 24 1850 Taiping Rebellion begins in China against the Qing dynasty
- 25 1851 Discovery of gold in New South Wales boosts immigration to Australia





Europe in the early 19th century. Rural poverty and unemployment drew large numbers from the land to the factories. Great cities grew up around the new manufacturing centers, with overcrowded, squalid, and insanitary housing. Conditions of work were dangerous; wages low. Protesters were summarily dealt with; a revolt of weavers in Silesia, Germany, was brutally smashed by Prussian troops in 1844. Economic hardship forced growing numbers of people to seek a new life overseas, and the trickle of emigrants to North America became a flood. By the end of the century, most were from southern and eastern Europe. Immigrants from China and (later) Japan were drawn to the west coast by the lure of the Californian goldfields and construction of the transcontinental railroads.

## EUROPEAN UNREST

Fear of political repression at home also led large numbers of people to flee Europe in the years before 1850. At the end of the Napoleonic wars, liberals and nationalists had hoped for the introduction of democratic systems of government, but the Congress of Vienna (1815) reinforced conservative rule by restoring monarchy throughout Europe. New crowns were created when Greece secured its independence from the moribund Ottoman empire (1824–26) and Belgium was proclaimed a sovereign state after rebelling against Dutch rule (1833).

European civil unrest peaked in 1848. A number of nationalist uprisings saw liberal administrations briefly installed in several countries, but within a year conservative forces had once again stamped their authority on Europe, with much bloodshed.

## NEW NATIONS

As a result of the Napoleonic wars, Spain and Portugal lost their hold on their possessions in South America. The campaigns of Simón Bolívar (in the north) and José de San Martín (in the south) had seen most of the modern states of South America come into being. In Brazil, change came less violently, as the country proclaimed its independence in 1822 under the liberal emperor Pedro I, son of the king of Portugal. The United States was a

beneficiary of the collapse of Spain's American empire. In 1823, the Monroe Doctrine proclaimed the Americas a U.S. sphere of influence, warning off the European powers from interfering there.

Bolívar's vision of unity for the continent was never realized; tensions caused by debt and social inequality soon caused rifts within, and between, the new nations, many of which fell under the control of military dictators (*caudillos*). From the 1830s on, there was increasing immigration to South America from southern Europe. Over 3 million had settled in Brazil and 4.5 million (mostly Italians) in Argentina by the century's end.

## THE RISE OF IMPERIALISM

Europe's colonial powers, Britain in particular, exploited their economic and technological advantage to extend their imperial interests throughout the world, especially Asia. In India, what had begun as a trading venture developed into full-fledged colonial rule ("Raj") as the British East India Company formed alliances with local rulers and introduced administrative and educational reforms in areas under their jurisdiction. To secure India's borders, the British began a series of invasions of Burma in 1824–25.

Insistent pressure by European traders in China to open up new markets prompted the Qing rulers to take renewed measures against foreigners. Yet this only made their crumbling empire prey to further incursions. Britain won control of Hong Kong in the First Opium War (1839–42) and forced five other "treaty ports" to be opened to foreign ships. By 1844, several more western nations had imposed humiliating "unequal treaties" on China, weakening the dynasty.



Above The California Gold Rush of 1848–49 attracted many new settlers to the American West. Later discoveries of gold in Australia and South Africa stimulated emigration there.

Below Burying victims of the Irish famine. The failure of the potato crop, the staple food of the poor, caused terrible starvation and resulted in mass emigration from Ireland.







Britain's establishment of a free port on the southeast Asian island of Singapore in 1819 allowed it to compete on equal terms with the Dutch for access to the region's rich resources. It soon became the leading commercial center of southeast Asia.

## COLONIAL MIGRATION

By 1833 Britain had ended slavery in all its colonial possessions. As a result, new sources of labor were needed for sugar plantations in the Caribbean. This was met by importing indentured laborers from India: migrants were sent overseas for a fixed period for the price of their fare. They could rarely afford the ticket home at the end of the expiration of their contract, and worked for low wages in conditions little better than slavery. Later in the century, the system was extended to Fiji and east Africa.

Although Australia was originally founded as a penal settlement, by the 1840s large

numbers of people were emigrating there from Britain's industrial cities. The flow rose sharply after the discovery of gold in New South Wales in 1851. The influx of settlers led to the decline of the Aboriginal population, already decimated by European diseases and the genocidal policies of the colonists, who considered the country *terra nullius*, or virgin land to be exploited at will. Tribes resisting European settlement were massacred or deported: "ethnic cleansing" of the Aboriginal population of Tasmania (then known as Van Diemen's Land) had brought about its almost total eradication by 1835. Land settlement schemes encouraged a steady flow of emigrants from Britain to New Zealand in the 1830s. The Treaty of Waitangi (1840), establishing British sovereignty over the islands, recognized native Maori land rights. However, its terms were ignored and violated by the white settlers from the outset, and there was sporadic warfare for the next 40 years.

## CHANGES IN AFRICA

The French invasion of Algeria (1830) was a sign of growing European interest in the continent, but Islam remained the main influence north of the Equator, with powerful states like the Sokoto caliphate and Ibadan empire emerging south of the Sahara.

Despite international moves to ban it, the slave trade had not yet vanished from Africa. Arab traders were active all along the east coast, and the Portuguese were shipping slaves from Angola to the lucrative Brazilian market until late in the century.

In 1835, Dutch-origin settlers (Boers, or Afrikaners) left Cape Colony, under British rule since 1814, in protest at Britain's ban on slavery and journeyed northeast on the "Great Trek." As they moved inland, they met with fierce resistance from the Ndebele and Zulu nations but eventually succeeded in founding two republics, Transvaal and the Orange Free State.







# THE WORLD BY 1914

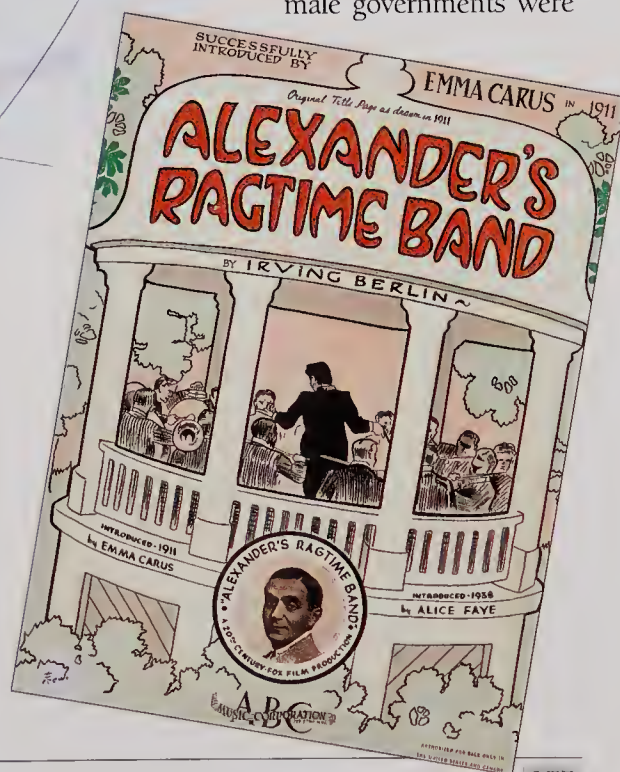
RUSSIAN EMPIRE



BY THE END OF THE 19TH CENTURY, A HUGE EXPANSION OF INDUSTRY AND WORLD TRADE HAD TAKEN PLACE. KEEN ECONOMIC COMPETITION AMONG INDUSTRIALIZED NATIONS FUELED THEIR POLITICAL AND MILITARY RIVALRY. IMPERIALISM REACHED ITS ZENITH AS AFRICA CAME UNDER EUROPEAN DOMINATION. THE DANGEROUS GLOBAL RACE FOR PRESTIGE LED TO THE OUTBREAK OF WORLD WAR IN 1914.

Industrialization grew rapidly in the second half of the 19th century throughout most of Europe and the United States. The introduction of mechanized methods of production greatly improved the efficiency of heavy industries such as iron and steel making. The spread of railroad networks and steamship routes reduced the time and cost of obtaining raw materials and distributing manufactured goods. The development of new technologies, especially electrical power, the internal combustion engine, and the manufacturing of petroleum-based chemicals, meant that a second Industrial Revolution was underway by the start of the 20th century.

No less revolutionary was the shift that occurred in people's attitudes to the institutions that governed their lives. Factory workers began to demand better working conditions and an extension of the right to vote, leading to the rise of the trade union movement and socialist parties. Although reforms were won in most western countries, the majority of the world's populace would be without a political voice until well into the 20th century. Women began the long struggle to win political rights. Most male governments were



Right The opening decades of the 20th century saw the rise of popular mass culture. This trend was strong in the United States, where ragtime music accompanied the birth of cinema.

- 16 1904 Britain and France agree upon the Entente Cordiale, an informal alliance
- 17 1904-05 Russo-Japanese war: Japan wins major sea and land victories
- 18 1911 Revolution overthrows the Chinese Qing dynasty: republic set up in 1912
- 19 1914 Panama canal opens, linking the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans
- 20 1914 Assassination of archduke Franz Ferdinand in Sarajevo sparks World War I



reluctant to allow women to vote. The first country to do so was New Zealand in 1893, but elsewhere women faced a hard, sometimes violent struggle, and many were imprisoned for their political activism. The outbreak of war in 1914 brought a temporary halt to the suffragist movement.

## WORLD TRADE

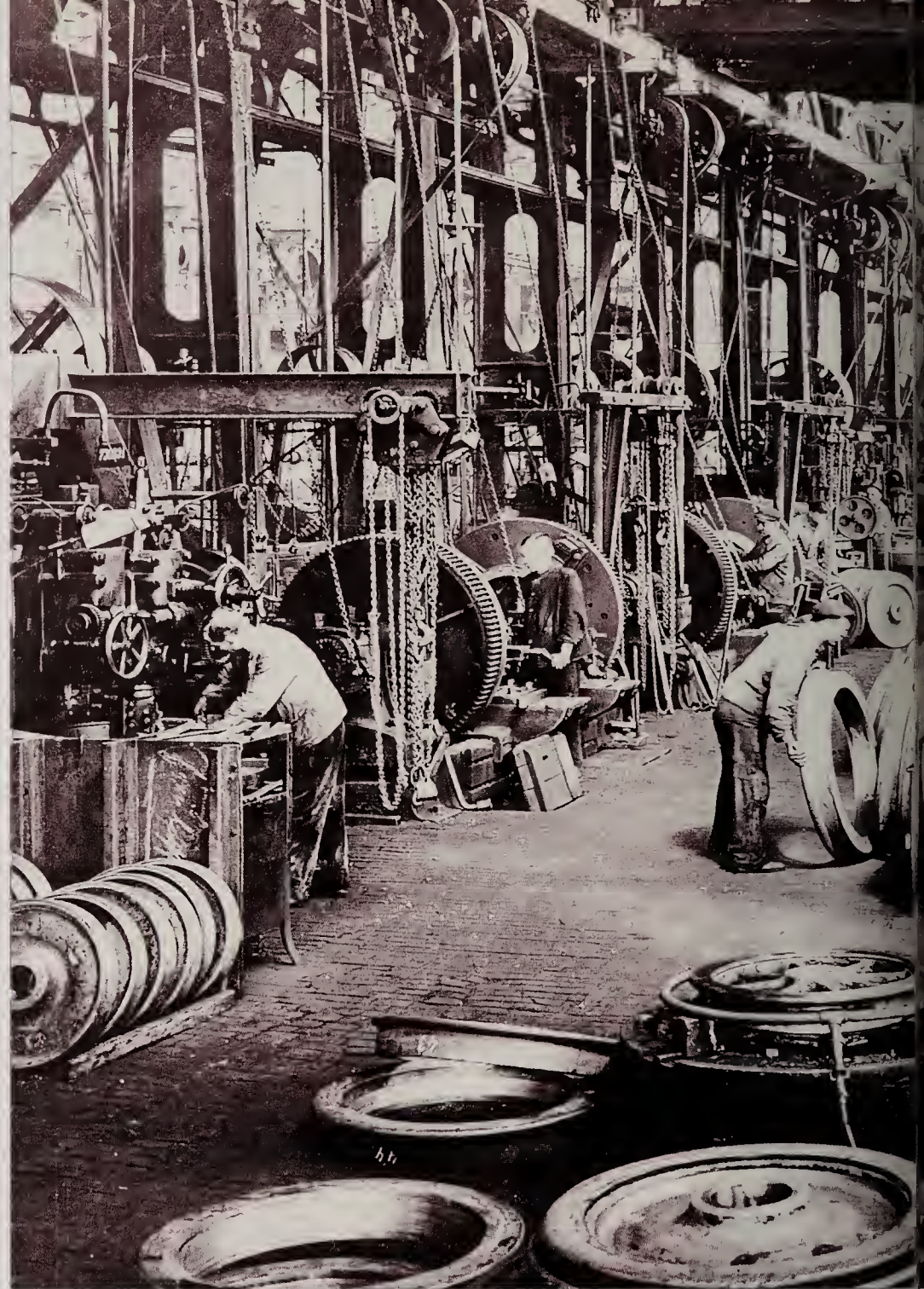
The boom in international trade in the second half of the 19th century was largely based on the systematic exploitation by the industrial nations of their colonies, often with long-term harmful results. Plantation farming of crops such as rubber, bananas, or coffee for export to the colonizing country disrupted traditional rural economies. India's thriving local handicraft industries were destroyed by the construction of the railroad network, which flooded the market with cheap imported manufactured goods.

The imperial powers built major new port facilities to handle their growing commerce. Long sea passages around Africa and South America became a thing of the past with the opening of the Suez (1869) and Panama (1914) canals. Advances in steam power and ship design meant that bulk cargoes could be carried faster; the world's first purpose-built oil tanker was launched in the 1880s. With the invention of refrigerated holds, cargoes of meat could be exported from Australia, New Zealand, and Argentina. The total tonnage of merchant shipping rose fourfold between 1850 and 1914.

To regulate global trade, the gold standard was created in the 1870s, enabling assets in different currencies to be converted into gold on demand. This system was promoted by the major gold strikes in California, Australia, South Africa, and Canada.

## CONQUEST & WAR

Worldwide, technology helped imperial interests impose their will on native peoples. British rule in India, shaken by a mutiny of native troops in 1857, was reinforced by the coming of the railroads: soldiers could now be transported quickly around the country to quell disturbances. By 1870, telegraph and railroad networks spanned North America; the last pockets of native resistance had been overcome by 1890. Construction of the Trans-Siberian railroad,



begun in 1891, strengthened Russia's hold on the Muslim khanates of Central Asia and the Far East. In Africa, the deployment of rapid-fire Maxim guns and artillery helped impose European rule in the frantic race for colonies. Western military strength forced China and Japan to accept foreign trade.

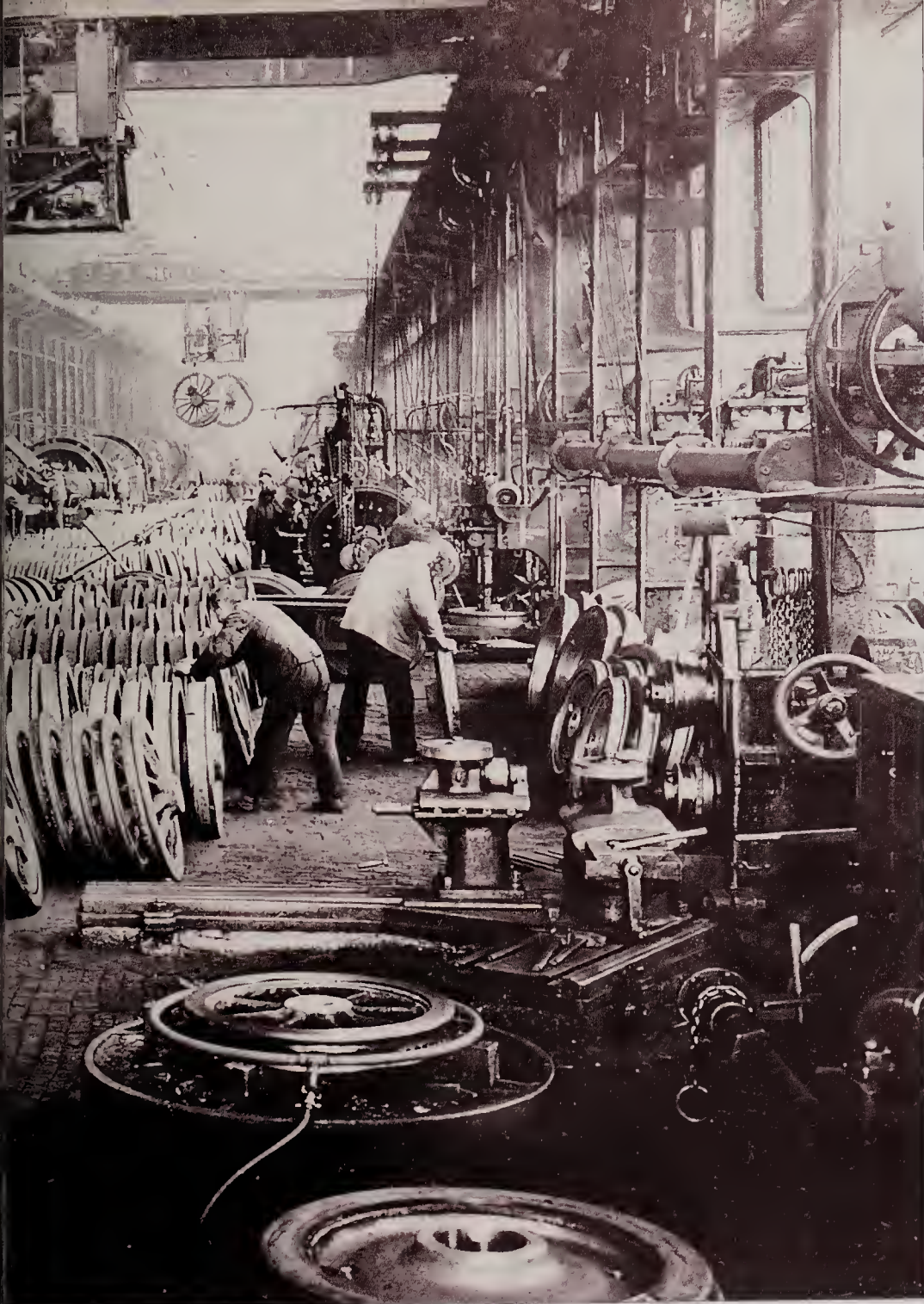
Warfare became mechanized. Tactics and medical care lagged behind new, terrifyingly efficient means of killing, and battle fatalities soared in number. A Swiss humanitarian, Jean-Henri Dunant, was so horrified by the carnage he saw at the battle of Solferino (1859) that he founded the International Red Cross. More Americans died in the Civil War, the first conflict to employ mass-produced munitions and mobilization by

train, than in all the country's other wars. More than 300,000 Paraguayans died in the War of the Triple Alliance (1864–70), the bloodiest conflict in South America's history. These costly wars were a foretaste of the mass slaughter of the World War I trenches.

## GERMAN AMBITIONS

Competition was fierce between Europe's industrializing states. One event above all sent shockwaves through the continent: the formation of the Second German Empire in 1871. The militaristic state of Prussia dominated the new Germany. The empire had abundant reserves of coal and iron ore, and built a dynamic economy around its heavy





took place, as Germany tried, without success, to outdo Britain in building more and better battleships and cruisers.

## GREAT POWER RIVALRY

The climate of growing suspicion and fear gave rise to international crises, many of which were played out in Africa. In 1898, French and British forces confronted one another over the control of Sudan at Fashoda on the White Nile. German challenges to French rule in Morocco (1905 and 1911) also aroused widespread alarm.

The period was characterized by shifting political and military alliances. On the eve of World War I, Europe was divided into two major groups: the Central powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman empire) and the Allies (Britain, France, Russia).

By far the most dangerous flashpoint for great power rivalry remained the Balkans—Serbia, Bulgaria, and Romania—which had long been the scene of hostility between Russia and Turkey. Control of the Balkans started to slip from the grasp of the ailing Ottoman empire after 1878, and by 1913 Russia and the Austro-Hungarian empire were making aggressive attempts to extend their influence there. The spark that finally ignited world war was the murder of the heir to the Austrian throne by a Serbian nationalist at Sarajevo in 1914.



industry. By 1914, it had far outstripped Britain in the production of iron and steel. Germany's most powerful magnate was the industrialist Alfred Krupp, who began by manufacturing railroad wheels and rails but then turned to armaments. Krupp's cannon and armor helped Prussia achieve military supremacy over its neighbors in 1864–71; at the outbreak of World War I, over 40 countries were equipped with his products.

Germany's ambition to expand within Europe and overseas brought it into conflict with the established powers. In particular, Germany longed to possess a strong fleet to match its victorious army, guard its new colonies, and challenge the superiority of the British navy. An expensive "Naval Race"

*Above* Industrial production in the Krupp works at Essen, Germany. The "Cannon King" Alfred Krupp amassed a vast fortune from exporting his armaments and transportation technology worldwide. Among all the major powers, industrial might went hand in hand with military expansion.

*Right* In June 1914, the heir to the Austro-Hungarian imperial crown, archduke Franz Ferdinand, was shot dead by an extremist in Sarajevo, Bosnia. Within weeks, the whole of Europe was at war.



# RISE OF THE UNITED STATES

WITHIN 70 YEARS OF GAINING INDEPENDENCE, THE UNITED STATES REACHED TO THE PACIFIC OCEAN. CANADA ALSO UNDERWENT RAPID WESTWARD EXPANSION. THE VAST TERRITORIES BEYOND THE EASTERN SEABOARD ALLOWED THESE COUNTRIES TO ABSORB MILLIONS OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRANTS, WHO CAME IN SEARCH OF A BETTER LIFE. TO MAKE WAY FOR WHITE SETTLEMENT, EXISTING POPULATIONS OF NATIVE AMERICANS WERE DISPOSSESSED, DEPORTED, OR KILLED.



**Left** Buffalo grazing on the Great Plains. Native Americans relied on the buffalo for food, shelter, and clothing, but the vast herds were brutally slaughtered by white settlers, who then plowed the prairies for farming.

The territorial expansion of the United States began with the purchase of Florida from Spain in 1819. Texas joined the Union in 1845 after freeing itself from Mexico, and the rest of the southwest, including California, was won from Mexico in the war of 1846–48 or gained through the Gadsden Purchase (1853). The fixing of the border with Canada at the 49th Parallel in 1846 added Oregon Country, and Alaska was bought from Russia for over \$7 million in 1867. That same year the Dominion of Canada came into being through the union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario. Manitoba and British Columbia also joined soon after, completing the coast-to-coast union of Canada.

## THE NATIVE TRAGEDY

White Americans believed it was their “manifest destiny” to spread across the continent. To make way for the settlers, Native Americans were cleared from their lands. In

1830 the U.S. government passed the Indian Removal Act. This forced the Cherokee, Chickasaw, Creek, Choctaw, and Seminole nations to move out of the southeast to “Indian Territory” west of the Mississippi. Thousands died on the long journey, which became known as the “Trail of Tears.”

As more homesteaders came to farm and set up ranches on the prairies, seminomadic peoples such as the Sioux and the mixed-race Métis of Manitoba, Canada, were displaced. The advent of railroads hastened the spread of settler culture. Even the “reservations”—land set aside exclusively for Indian use by government decree—were not respected. Parts of the Indian Territory were opened up to settlers as early as 1834. In 1874, the arrival of gold miners in the Black Hills reservation of the Sioux in Dakota was fiercely resisted, and the U.S. cavalry unit sent to protect the prospectors was wiped out by the Sioux and Cheyenne at the battle of Little Bighorn. The Sioux leaders Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse were hunted down

- expansion of the United States
- United States territory in 1815
  - territory ceded by Britain, 1818 and 1842
  - Florida (purchased from Spain), 1819
  - Texas (annexed 1845)
  - Oregon Country (assigned by treaty), 1846
  - territory ceded by Mexico, 1848
  - Gadsden Purchase from Mexico, 1853
  - Alaska (purchased from Russia), 1867
- expansion of Canada
- Canadian provinces, 1867
  - territory added 1870
  - province added by 1873
  - territory added 1880
  - territory added 1949
- 1787 date of admission as a state to United States, or of achieving provincial status within Canada
- Native American reservation, 1875
  - massacre of Native Americans
  - Métis rebellion under Louis Riel
  - goldfield
  - railroad
  - borders, 1949

0 900 km  
0 600 mi





A map of Cuba with Havana marked by a black dot. Text on the map indicates 'CUBA' and '1898 independent from Spain' and '1908-09 United States occupation'.

IFIC  
EAN

A map of the Caribbean Sea and surrounding regions. The text 'Bahamas to Britain' is at the top left. A black dot marks the location of Nassau, with the label 'Nassau' next to it. The map shows the outlines of the Americas, the Caribbean Sea, and parts of Europe and Africa.



**THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR**

Canada to Britain

Maine

New Hampshire

Vermont

New York

Massachusetts

Rhode Island

Connecticut

New Jersey

Pennsylvania

Ohio

Indiana

Michigan

Wisconsin

Minnesota

Iowa

Missouri

Illinois

Kentucky

Virginia

North Carolina

South Carolina

Georgia

Alabama

Florida

Texas

Arkansas

Indian Territory

Mississippi

Louisiana

Florida

Gulf of Mexico

Pea Ridge 1862

Memphis 1862

Corinth 1862

Vicksburg 1863

New Orleans 1862-63

Mobile Bay 1864

Nashville 1864

Shiloh 1862

Stone's River 1862-63

Chickamauga 1863

Atlanta 1864

Savannah

Charleston

Ft Sumter

Wilmington

Bentonville 1865

Hampton Roads 1862

Petersburg 1864

Appomattox 1865

Richmond 1862

Fredericksburg 1862

Wilderness 1863/64

Bull Run 1861/62

Antietam 1862

Gettysburg 1863

Washington 1862

Cold Harbor 1862/64

Delaware

Maryland

St Lawrence

Legend:

- Mason-Dixon line
- borders, 1861
- Confederate state, 1861
- slave state loyal to the Union
- Union state, 1861
- Confederate campaign
- Union campaign
- Confederate victory
- Union victory
- cotton growing area, 1860

Hampshire

A detailed illustration of a Revolutionary War soldier, likely a member of the Hampshire Militia, standing on a small patch of ground. He is wearing a blue uniform with yellow buttons and a blue cap. He holds a large American flag with stars and stripes, which is attached to a pole with a decorative eagle finial. The soldier is holding the pole with both hands, and the flag is flying. The background is white, and the word "Hampshire" is written in the top left corner.

Despair at the destruction of their way of life led many Native Americans to join the Ghost Dance cult, which promised salvation from white rule. The most infamous act in the Native American tragedy occurred at Wounded Knee, South Dakota, when U.S. troops massacred over 200 Sioux dancers. That same year, 1890, the western frontier was officially declared to exist no more; the West was “won,” but at high human cost.

The authors of the American Constitution had envisioned the end of slavery in the United States, but were forced to bow to pressure from the “planter aristocracy” of

In 1861, civil war broke out over the issue. The southern Confederacy won early victories, but the war began to turn in favor of the Union army of the north after the battles of Gettysburg and Vicksburg in 1863.

The North emerged from the war with its industry and commerce strong, poised to begin an era of great economic expansion. In contrast, the rural economy of the South was ruined, and it took many decades to recover from the devastations of the war. In 1868 former male slaves won U.S. citizenship and, a year later, the right to vote, but African Americans were still persecuted, especially in the South. Many migrated to the cities of the north in search of work.



## THE BOOM YEARS

A major factor in the economic expansion of North America was the railroad. It linked farms to commercial centers, allowed mineral deposits to be exploited, and speeded distribution of manufactured goods. The first transcontinental line was completed in 1869. The Canadian Pacific Railway (1885) had a vital role in unifying that country; British Columbia agreed to join the Dominion of Canada in 1871 on condition that it was built. As in the United States, Canada's westward expansion was stimulated by gold rushes.

Immigrants to the United States were attracted by the prospect of freedom from persecution, steady work, and free education. The first wave of immigrants came from Ireland, Britain, and Germany in the

mid 19th century; later they were joined by people from Scandinavia, Italy, eastern Europe and east Asia. A great number traveled west to escape chronic overcrowding in the large industrial cities, but many more experienced squalor and poverty as they struggled to make a living. Conditions of work were hard, and labor disputes culminated in the Great Strike of 1877. By 1910, the United States had over 90 million inhabitants, fifty times more than in 1776, and was the world's foremost industrial power.

Global political power accompanied the economic rise of the United States, which in 1898 enforced the Monroe Doctrine by helping Cuba to liberate itself from Spain. In gaining control over Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the former Spanish territory of the Philippines, the United States joined the ranks of the modern imperial nations.

## THE GREAT TYCOONS

In the economic boom of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, several U.S. entrepreneurs built up vast commercial empires.

J. Pierpont Morgan made his fortune in railroad speculation, Andrew Carnegie in iron and steel, and John D. Rockefeller in oil. One of the most famous of the American magnates was the automobile manufacturer Henry Ford

(below left). The son of an Irish immigrant farmer, Ford founded his

own company to produce a cheap and reliable motor car for the mass market. Assembly-line production, in which each worker performed a limited task, increased output and kept costs low. Ford motivated his labor force by offering a high minimum wage of \$5 per day. His Model T was a huge success, with 15 million sold worldwide.

*Below* Henry Ford's Model T assembly line.



## TIMETABLE

1812

The United States declares war on Britain and invades Canada

1819

Spain cedes Florida to the United States

1840

Canadian unification begins with the merging of Upper and Lower Canada

1846-48

Mexican-American War; the United States wins territory in the southwest

1848

Oregon County is divided between the United States and Canada

1849

California gold rush attracts 100,000 settlers

1860

Lincoln becomes U.S. President

1861

Southern slave states secede from the Union; Confederate attack on Fort Sumter begins civil war

1863

Union victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg turn the course of the war against the Confederacy

1865

Confederacy surrenders and slavery is abolished. Lincoln is assassinated

1869

First transcontinental railroad completed

1876

Sioux defeat Custer at the battle of Little Bighorn

1885

Canadian Pacific Railway opens

1890

Massacre at Wounded Knee ends the Indian wars

1896

Klondike gold rush in Yukon Territory, Canada

1898

The Spanish-American War; the United States becomes an imperial power with the annexation of the Philippines

1908

Henry Ford launches the Model T car



# EUROPE IN THE 19TH CENTURY

THE 19TH CENTURY SAW NATIONALISM EMERGING AS A POLITICAL FORCE IN EUROPE. UNIFIED NATIONS WERE CREATED, IN VERY DIFFERENT CIRCUMSTANCES, IN ITALY AND GERMANY. AS AUSTRIA DECLINED, GERMANY BECAME THE DOMINANT POWER IN CENTRAL EUROPE. RAPID INDUSTRIALIZATION INCREASED MILITARY POWER, AND IN THE LAST YEARS OF THE CENTURY A WEAPONS RACE DEVELOPED BETWEEN EUROPE'S MAJOR NATIONS.



In the early years of the 19th century, the ideas of the Romantic movement became influential throughout Europe. An intellectual and cultural movement, Romanticism rejected the rationalism of the 18th century and embraced revolutionary ideals. Emphasis was laid on individual self-expression, promoting the rise of nationalism and self-determination as political aims. Many of those who shared a common language and culture but were divided among a number of small states (for example, Germans and Italians) wanted to be united within a single, representative system of government, while other ethnic groups, such as Hungarians and Czechs in the Austrian empire or Serbs and Greeks in the Ottoman empire, longed to go their separate ways.

The victorious allies who met at the Congress of Vienna in 1814–15 to dispose of Napoleon's empire saw things differently.

Led by Austria's archconservative foreign minister, Klemens Metternich, Austria, Britain, Russia, and Prussia formed a pact, the "Holy Alliance," dedicated to the restoration of monarchy and suppression of radical ideas. Popular rule was to be avoided at all costs. The Holy Alliance intervened in Spain by sending French forces to quell a popular uprising in 1820–23, and Austrian troops helped the king of Naples crush a rebellion in 1821.

Elsewhere, national uprisings met with greater success: Greece won its war of independence against the declining Ottoman empire (1821–29), and Belgium broke away from the United Kingdom of the Netherlands in 1830–33. Constitutional monarchies were established in both countries with the support of the Great Powers. In France, Louis-Philippe (called the "Citizen King") gained power through a revolt in

1830, but he was no revolutionary. His support came from the new, prosperous middle class that was developing in France, as in many other European countries.

## REVOLUTIONS OF 1848

The greatest challenge to Europe's conservative monarchies came in 1848, the "Year of Revolutions." In France, Louis-Philippe was removed from power by a popular uprising and Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, elected president (in 1852 he styled himself Emperor Napoleon III in emulation of his uncle). Revolutions broke out in Austria, Hungary, Croatia, and the Czech lands, threatening the Habsburg empire. After nearly 40 years in power, Metternich was driven from



Left The 19th century was a time of rapid industrial advance and technical innovation. London's Great Exhibition of 1851, held in the Crystal Palace, a specially built hall of iron and glass, was the first international trade exposition, bringing together 13,000 exhibitors from around the world. Crowds flocked to see the latest advances in manufacturing.







*Right* A meeting of the leaders of the Italian unification. Victor Emmanuel II (on the white horse) greets Napoleon III, while (to the left) Garibaldi raises his hat in triumph. The leaders were never as united as this romanticized image suggests; Victor Emmanuel's and Napoleon III's troops twice stopped Garibaldi from advancing on Rome to seize it from the pope.



office to find refuge abroad. Republics were established in Italy, and a parliament met in Frankfurt with the aim of uniting Germany. The revolutionaries were disorganized, however, and all the new administrations, aside from that in France, were soon overthrown by conservative-led armies.

## ITALIAN UNIFICATION

The advance of nationalism, however, was not easily halted. It was to have its first success in Italy, a land of many small kingdoms that had been occupied for over 200 years by a succession of foreign powers. Attempts to create a single Italian nation after the collapse of Napoleon's empire had failed. But the campaign for unification (called the *Risorgimento*, or "resurrection") acquired new energy under the leadership of Victor Emmanuel II, king of Sardinia-Piedmont. With the support of his prime minister Camillo di Cavour, Victor Emmanuel transformed Piedmont, in northern Italy, into a modern industrial state and gave it a liberal constitution. In 1859 he turned to Napoleon III of France for help in freeing the rest of northern Italy from Austrian rule.

At the same time, a charismatic adventurer called Giuseppe Garibaldi, a veteran of revolts in Italy and South America, invaded Sicily in support of a republican uprising. At the head of a force of only 1,000 soldiers, who were known as "Red Shirts" from their distinctive uniform, Garibaldi won control

of much of southern Italy. The Piedmontese reformers feared Garibaldi's popularity and revolutionary aims, but he handed his conquests over to Victor Emmanuel, who was crowned king of Italy in 1861. Austria still had control of the area around Venice in the northeast of Italy, but gave it up in 1866 after the Italians sided with Prussia in the Seven Weeks War. Unification of the entire Italian peninsula was completed in 1870 with the handing over of the papal states, and Rome was made the national capital.

## THE RISE OF GERMANY

In the first half of the 19th century Prussia acquired political and economic control of the German Confederation, the alliance of German-speaking states established at the Congress of Vienna. The short-lived, liberal Frankfurt National Assembly offered the German imperial crown to Prussia in 1849, but Frederick William IV was no friend of reform and refused it. Germany would be united on Prussia's own terms.



*Above* An advertiser's image of the new woman.

## A CHANGING WORLD FOR WOMEN

The industrial age brought into being a new urbanized middle class that had money and time to spend on consumer articles and leisure activities such as tennis, bicycling, and golf. Men and women shared many of these pursuits, helping to break down the formal barriers that existed between the sexes. By the end of the century some colleges and professions had begun to open their doors to women. Only a tiny minority, however, was able to take advantage of these new freedoms. Divorce was rare, and married women had almost no legal or property rights of their own. In factories and mills, female employees—many of them young girls—labored long hours for extremely low wages.



Prussia had access to huge seams of coal and iron ore in the Ruhr and Upper Silesia, and rapid industrial development allowed it to build up its military strength. William I (r.1861–88) undertook major army reforms with the help of his prime minister, Otto von Bismarck. Violently opposed to liberal reform, Bismarck pursued Prussian dominance through “iron and blood.” He seized the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein from Denmark in 1864, and in 1866 defeated Austria after a lightning invasion.

Prussia now controlled almost all northern Germany. The existence of this powerful neighbor caused tension with France, and in 1870 Bismarck maneuvered Napoleon III into declaring war, leading the states of southern Germany to unite with Prussia against the common enemy. The Prussian army invaded France from the Rhineland, decisively defeated the French army at the battle of Sedan, and besieged the capital. People had to eat the animals in the city’s zoo, so desperate were conditions in Paris during the siege. Paris fell in January 1870, and William I was proclaimed emperor of a united Germany in the palace of Versailles. France was forced to give up two territories east of the Rhine: Alsace, and the vital iron ore region of Lorraine.

Bismarck combined social reform with repressive policing to quell internal dissent in the German empire. A brilliant diplomat,

he secured peace in Europe by playing off Austria against Russia and France against Britain, and gave Germany a colonial empire in Africa and the Pacific.

## PRELUDE TO WAR

Bismarck’s careful work was undone by William II (r.1888–1918), who forced his resignation as chancellor. Pursuing aggressive policies against his neighbors, William antagonized Britain, by trying to match its naval strength, and Russia, by encouraging the expansion of Austria-Hungary in the Balkans. His use of “gunboat diplomacy” in Africa was a threat to Britain and France. In 1907 they formed the Triple Entente with Russia, balancing the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.

Industrial might and technical innovation had equipped Europe’s military powers with fearsome weapons: machine guns, high explosive shells, battleships, and submarines. Armies could be moved easily and quickly by mechanized transportation; the Germans had a strategic plan to invade Russia and France by railroad. Most European countries had conscripted armies, creating huge reserves of trained soldiers. By 1914 both France and Germany could mobilize a million men in days. Aggressive patriotism, the dark face of nationalism, prevailed as the European powers edged closer to war.



## TIMETABLE

1815

The Congress of Vienna sets the future of Europe

1821–29

The Greeks fight to win their independence from the Ottoman empire

1830

Louis-Philippe comes to power in France in the July Revolution

1848–49

Widespread liberal and national revolutions take place in Europe

1852

Louis Napoleon becomes emperor Napoleon III of France

1859–70

The Risorgimento leads to a single Italy

1862

Otto von Bismarck is appointed Prussian prime minister

1864

Prussia and Austria invade Denmark in the Schleswig-Holstein war

1866

Swift victory for Prussia in the Seven Weeks War against Austria

1870–71

Franco-Prussian War: Paris is besieged, and the German Empire established

1873

Three Emperors’ League set up between Germany, Russia, and Austria-Hungary

1882

The Triple Alliance is concluded between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy

1894

France and Russia agree non-aggression pact (“Reinsurance Treaty”)

1904

The Entente Cordiale is signed between Britain and France

1906

The British battleship HMS Dreadnought revolutionizes warship design

1907

Russia joins Britain and France to form the Triple Entente

1908

Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia-Herzegovina from Turkey



# WORLD WAR I

IN LATE 1914, MORE THAN 20 YEARS OF MOUNTING TENSION IN EUROPE FINALLY EXPLODED INTO WAR. THE MEN WHO RUSHED TO ENLIST IN THEIR COUNTRIES' ARMIES WERE IN HIGH SPIRITS AND CONFIDENTLY EXPECTED THE FIGHTING TO BE OVER BY CHRISTMAS. BUT THE WAR WAS TO LAST FOR 4 YEARS, DEVASTATING THE CONTINENT, COSTING MILLIONS OF LIVES, AND CHANGING THE FACE OF EUROPE FOREVER.

Germany's ambition and insecurity—a product of its recent coming to nationhood—lay at the root of World War I. After unification in 1871, the country had industrialized faster than any other; by 1914 it led the world in manufacturing. It had become a world power by building an overseas empire and maintaining a strong army and navy. Germany's central location in Europe, which was a great economic asset in peacetime, made it vulnerable to joint attack from Russia and France. Germany's generals devised the Schlieffen Plan to neutralize this threat: in case of war, a surprise attack on France would prevent it from taking any further part in the conflict, freeing troops to be sent east to fight Russia.

On July 28, 1914, four weeks after the heir to the Austrian-Hungarian throne had been killed by a Serbian nationalist (see page 179), the Central Powers of Austria and Germany declared war on Serbia. The European alliance system escalated the conflict. Russia came to the defense of Serbia, its ally, whereupon Germany at once attacked Russia and France. To outflank French defenses, the German army first invaded neutral Belgium. This brought Britain, which was pledged to defend Belgian neutrality, into the conflict. Japan, Britain's ally, also joined the war against Germany, and the Ottoman empire entered on the side of the Central Powers in October. Italy wavered before joining the Allies in April 1915.

## WAR ON TWO FRONTS

The German invasion force raced swiftly through Belgium and into northern France toward Paris. The French army was quickly mobilized—Parisian taxicabs were used to

take soldiers to the front—and halted the German advance 50 miles (80 km) short of the capital (the battle of Marne, September 1914). The strategy of the Schlieffen Plan had failed: France had not been neutralized, and the Germans now faced a long war on two fronts.

On the Western Front, extending from the coast of Belgium all the way to the border of neutral Switzerland, both sides dug defensive trenches lined by barbed wire.

All attempts to force the other side to retreat met with the same result. Before an assault the trenches of the opposing line were bombarded with shell fire. Defenders found shelter in underground bunkers; when the shells had ceased falling, they turned their machine guns against the attacking side's infantry as it advanced across No Man's Land, the wilderness between the two front lines. Even if trenches were captured, they could not be held, because heavy gunfire









turned the battlefield into a sea of deep mud, bogging down reinforcements.

Poor military strategy and massive firepower led to an appalling level of mortality. Over 300,000 French soldiers and nearly as many Germans were killed at the battle of Verdun (February–July 1916). Over 20,000 British and Commonwealth soldiers died on the first day of the battle of the Somme (July 1, 1916). New weapons such as poison gas (first used by the Germans in 1915) and tanks (introduced by the British the next year) failed to break the stalemate and added to the horrors of the trenches.

On the Eastern Front, the Russians suffered huge early losses to the Germans, but made equally heavy gains against Austria. Casualties were as high as they were in the west. Troops had to be moved huge distances along the front, which ran from the Baltic to the Black Sea. An Allied attempt to secure a sea route to Russia through the Dardanelles ended in failure at the unsuccessful Gallipoli landings (April 1915).

## THE HOME FRONT

For the first time in the history of modern warfare, women played a major active role, both at the battlefield and behind the lines. Thousands volunteered for service as nurses and ambulance drivers. Others worked

in munitions factories and other vital industries to keep the war economies of the combatant nations running. The war saw the first use of aerial bombing against civilian populations by airplanes and Zeppelin airships. Few people were killed in these raids, but they heralded the mass destruction of cities that would take place in World War II.

## THE WAR AT SEA

To prevent munitions and other essential supplies reaching Britain from the United States and Canada, the Germans used submarines (“U-boats”) to torpedo merchant ships. In May 1915 the liner *Lusitania* was sunk without warning, and 128 U.S. citizens were among the 1,200 lost. As popular feeling turned in favor of the Allies, it was only Germany’s promise to halt unrestricted U-boat attacks that kept the U.S. government from declaring war. The British navy had blockaded German ports since the start of the war. The German fleet failed to break the blockade at the battle of Jutland, the only major naval battle of the war (May, 1916). Germany, desperately short of supplies, resumed its U-boat attacks, and the United States joined the war in April 1917. The boost to Allied morale was considerable, but U.S. troops did not reach the front line until spring 1918.




*Above* Senior generals on both sides have been accused of prolonging the war through inept leadership. Britain’s General Haig (left) and France’s General Joffre (center) confer with British prime minister David Lloyd George.

*Below* British troops “go over the top” to attack the Germans. For infantrymen, long periods of boredom in waterlogged, disease-ridden trenches were only broken by such terrifying charges into “No Man’s Land.”









## POSTWAR EUROPE

— border, 1921  
 German gains, 1935–39  
**ITALY** Axis power

type of government, 1939

 Communist  
 fascist dictatorship  
 royal or other dictatorship  
 democracy



## REVOLUTION & DEFEAT

In Russia, the hardships of war put an unbearable strain on the population. The army had suffered enormous casualties, the economy was in ruins, and there was widespread famine. Resentment of the country's incompetent government led to revolution in 1917, and the czar was overthrown (see page 204). The new Bolshevik government promptly surrendered to Germany at the treaty of Brest-Litovsk (December, 1917) and immediately withdrew from vast territories in Ukraine and southern Russia.

Germany was now free to concentrate its war energies in the west, against Britain, France, and the United States. In March 1918 it launched a massive offensive that broke through the Allied lines and threatened Paris. Once again, French defense at the Marne was vital in halting the advance. The Allies regrouped and counterattacked, employing their artillery and tanks to devastating effect. The Germans were driven back, and by September were in full retreat.

In the east, the Ottoman empire was collapsing under the weight of the renewed Allied assault, and the Austrian-Hungarian empire was beginning to disintegrate as nationalists demanded independence. The effects of the long blockade were starting to tell in Germany, with chronic food and fuel

shortages. Riots and revolutions broke out, and sailors mutinied when their officers ordered them to engage in one last, suicidal battle with the British fleet. On November 11, 1918, William II abdicated and fled the country, and Germany signed an armistice with the Allies.

## AFTER THE WAR

With hostilities at an end, Germany sued for peace on the basis of the "Fourteen Points" proposed by President Woodrow Wilson. The terms eventually imposed by the Allies in the Treaty of Versailles (1919) were much harsher than these. Germany's colonies were shared among the victors and territories ceded to Poland, Denmark, and France. It also had to disarm and pay reparations (compensation) for war damage.

With the break up of the Central Powers, new democratic nation-states were created in central Europe. But popular resentment against the terms of the Versailles settlement, together with rampant inflation and high unemployment, led to dictatorships taking hold in the 1920s and 1930s. In Germany, the Nazi Party under Adolf Hitler set about rebuilding the army and expanding Germany's borders. Neighboring territories were overrun, bringing the world to the brink of war once more.

## TIMETABLE

**July 28, 1914**

Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia

**August, 1914**

Germany declares war on Russia and France; Britain, France, and Russia on Germany and Austria-Hungary

**August, 1914**

Germans launch the Schlieffen Plan. The Russian invasion of Germany is smashed at Tannenberg

**September, 1914**

Failure of the Schlieffen Plan, as the French halt the German advance at the battle of the Marne

**April, 1915**

The Allies land troops at Gallipoli in a bid to seize Constantinople, but they are held down by Turkish fire

**February–December, 1916**

The French resist German offensives at Verdun

**May, 1916**

British and German fleets clash off Jutland, Denmark

**July–November, 1916**

A major British offensive on the Somme fails to break through German lines

**March, 1917**

Revolution in Russia forces the abdication of czar Nicholas II

**April, 1917**

United States declares war on Germany

**November, 1917**

The Bolsheviks seize power in Russia and make peace with Germany

**November–December, 1917**

The British use mass tank formations at the battle of Cambrai in France

**March–July, 1918**

The final German (Ludendorff) offensive is defeated

**August, 1918**

The Allies break through German lines

**November 11, 1918**

Kaiser William II abdicates and Germany signs an armistice

**1919**

The Treaty of Versailles shapes postwar Europe



# THE SCRAMBLE FOR AFRICA

AS LATE AS 1870 EUROPEAN SETTLEMENT IN AFRICA HARDLY EXTENDED BEYOND THE COASTS, BUT WITHIN 30 YEARS ALMOST THE ENTIRE CONTINENT WAS UNDER COLONIAL RULE. THE GREAT ATTRACTION WAS AFRICA'S MINERAL WEALTH, ESPECIALLY COPPER, GOLD, AND DIAMONDS. THE BUILDING OF RAILROADS HELPED OPEN UP THE INTERIOR. IN THE SOUTH, CONFLICT BETWEEN BRITAIN'S IMPERIAL AMBITIONS AND DUTCH-ORIGIN SETTLERS RESULTED IN WAR.

In the 17th and 18th century Africa was, for European traders, primarily a source of slaves. After the abolition of the slave trade in the 19th century, the emphasis shifted to other commodities such as palm oil, timber, gum, gold, beeswax, ivory, and hides. Britain paid compensation to some west African states whose livelihood was threatened by the ban on slavery. The British government managed to persuade the sultan of Zanzibar to stop the shipment of African slaves to the Middle East and Asia in 1873, but Portugal did not end the slave trade from its territories until the 1880s: slaves were exported in great numbers from Madagascar and Angola to Brazil. Before abolition in 1865, many were illegally shipped from there to the United States.

The activities of Muslim traders (Arabs, Swahilis, Egyptians, and Sudanese) in central Africa stimulated the development of a number of commercial empires, who competed with each other with rifles for control of the trade in slaves and ivory. Africans and Europeans frequently clashed over trade and access to raw materials, but until effective drugs were found against tropical diseases, Europeans were reluctant to travel far into the interior. Before 1870, the only sizable European colonies in Africa were the French in Algeria and the Dutch and British in Cape Colony. The only Europeans to venture far inland were Christian missionaries and explorers. The Scot, David Livingstone, made many journeys in southern and central Africa between 1840–73. He

was the first European to see the Victoria Falls and was later sent by the Royal Geographical Society on an expedition to try to find the sources of the Nile. But the chief motive for his travels was his desire to end the activities of Portuguese and African slave traders and found a missionary settlement.

## MINERAL WEALTH

The discovery of diamonds at Kimberley, South Africa, in 1871 opened a new chapter in the history of European exploitation of Africa's resources. By now, drugs had been developed against malaria and yellow fever, so territorial expansion became a practical possibility. A "scramble for Africa" took place, with European colonizers rushing to stake out claims to vast areas of land and seize control of the continent's enormous untapped mineral wealth.

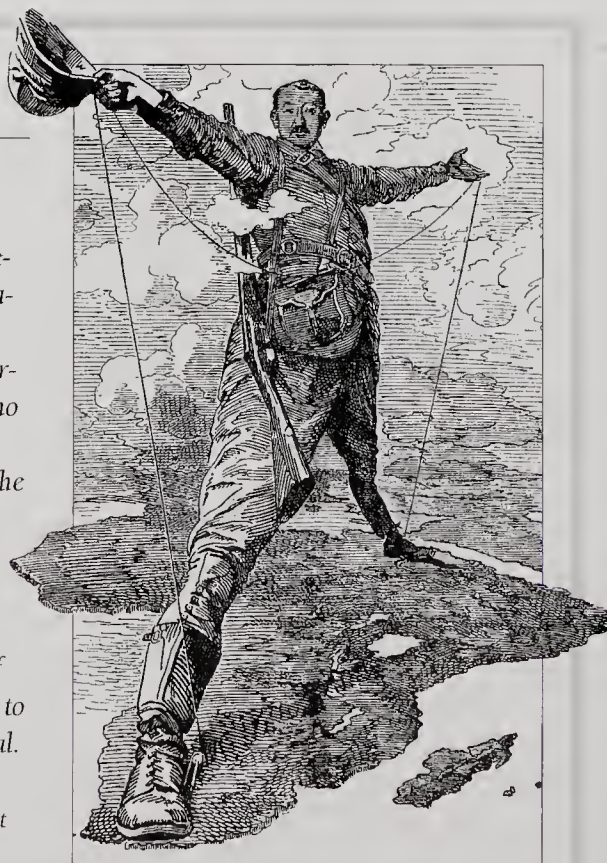
Amid growing rivalry and friction, representatives of the major European powers met in Berlin in 1884–85 to settle their competing claims. The French had pushed east across the Sahara from their territories in north and west Africa, while the British had recently secured control over independent Egypt and the Suez Canal, adding to their extensive interests in west and south Africa. The Germans, latecomers to imperial conquest, were eager to become a world

Left A carved wooden model from Nigeria of a European missionary and his attendants.



## CECIL RHODES: EMPIRE BUILDER

Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902) was the most ambitious empire builder of the 19th century. An English-born entrepreneur, he made an early fortune from diamond and gold mining in South Africa before turning to politics. A man of enormous energy, he was also a visionary who dreamed of building a railroad to run from Cairo to the Cape. With this aim, he brought huge territories to the north of Transvaal under British rule in the 1880s; the area around the Zambezi river came to be named Rhodesia in his honor. He resigned as prime minister of the Cape in 1896 after a failed attempt to overthrow the Boer republic of Transvaal.



Right A cartoon shows Rhodes measuring out the distance between Cairo and the Cape.



[illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible]

**1815-1914**

**Legend:**

- Mahdist state, 1881-98
- territory controlled by European powers
  - Belgian, 1914
  - British, 1881
  - British, 1914
  - French, 1881
  - French, 1914
  - German, 1914
  - Italian, 1914
  - Portuguese, 1881
  - Portuguese, 1914
  - Spanish, 1881
  - Spanish, 1914
- exploration by David Livingstone, 1840-73
- French expeditionary force, 1896-98
- diamonds
- gold
- copper
- coal
- railroads by 1914
- borders, 1914

**Geographical Features and Cities:**

- North Africa:** Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia, Saudi Arabia, Arabia, Yemen, Oman, Bahrain, Qatar, Muscat, Trucial Oman, Mecca, Medina, Riyadh, Kuwait, Suez, Cairo, Alexandria, Derna, Tobruk, Benghazi, Tripoli, Fezzan, Merzuq, Ghat, In Salah, Agadez, Bilma, Chad, Niger, Mali, Upper Volta, Nigeria, Cameroon, Congo (DRC), Angola, Namibia, South Africa, Union of South Africa, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Cape of Good Hope, Swaziland, Basutoland, Durban, Johannesburg, Kimberley, Windhoek, Lüderitz, Benguela, Luanda, Brazzaville, Libreville, Douala, Kano, Sokoto, Say, Porto Novo, Lagos, Lokoja, Accra, Takoradi, Kumasi, Gold Coast, Spanish Guinea, Príncipe, São Tomé, Annabán, Cabinda to Angola, Fernando Pó, Douala, Libreville, Brazzaville, Leopoldville, Congo, Ubangi, Shari, Ubangi, Fashoda, Omdurman, Khartoum, Khartoum 1898, Adowa 1896, Massawa, Suakin, Dongola, Eritrea, Addis Ababa, Mogadishu, Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland, Djibouti, Aden, West Aden Protectorate, Sana, Yemen, Hadramaut, Socotro, Seychelles, Comoros Islands, Mauritius, Réunion, Fort Dauphin, Tananarive, Madagascar.
- Central Africa:** French West Africa, French Equatorial Africa, Central African Republic, Belgian Congo (Congo Free State), Congo (DRC), Angola, Namibia, South Africa, Union of South Africa, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Cape of Good Hope, Swaziland, Basutoland, Durban, Johannesburg, Kimberley, Windhoek, Lüderitz, Benguela, Luanda, Brazzaville, Libreville, Douala, Kano, Sokoto, Say, Porto Novo, Lagos, Lokoja, Accra, Takoradi, Kumasi, Gold Coast, Spanish Guinea, Príncipe, São Tomé, Annabán, Cabinda to Angola, Fernando Pó, Douala, Libreville, Brazzaville, Leopoldville, Congo, Ubangi, Shari, Ubangi, Fashoda, Omdurman, Khartoum, Khartoum 1898, Adowa 1896, Massawa, Suakin, Dongola, Eritrea, Addis Ababa, Mogadishu, Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland, Djibouti, Aden, West Aden Protectorate, Sana, Yemen, Hadramaut, Socotro, Seychelles, Comoros Islands, Mauritius, Réunion, Fort Dauphin, Tananarive, Madagascar.
- East Africa:** British East Africa, Kenya, Tanzania, Mozambique, Zanzibar, Kilwa Kisiwani, Kitopi, Dar es Salaam, Tanga, Pembo, Mombasa, Kisumu, Entebbe, Uganda, Lake Victoria, Lake Tanganyika, Lake Malawi, Lake Nyasa, Mozambique, Beira, Quelimane, Lourenço Marques, Swaziland, Rourke's Drift 1879, Durban, Basutoland, Johannesburg, Kimberley, Windhoek, Lüderitz, Benguela, Luanda, Brazzaville, Libreville, Douala, Kano, Sokoto, Say, Porto Novo, Lagos, Lokoja, Accra, Takoradi, Kumasi, Gold Coast, Spanish Guinea, Príncipe, São Tomé, Annabán, Cabinda to Angola, Fernando Pó, Douala, Libreville, Brazzaville, Leopoldville, Congo, Ubangi, Shari, Ubangi, Fashoda, Omdurman, Khartoum, Khartoum 1898, Adowa 1896, Massawa, Suakin, Dongola, Eritrea, Addis Ababa, Mogadishu, Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland, Djibouti, Aden, West Aden Protectorate, Sana, Yemen, Hadramaut, Socotro, Seychelles, Comoros Islands, Mauritius, Réunion, Fort Dauphin, Tananarive, Madagascar.

**Scale:** 0 to 1000 km, 0 to 800 mi.

[illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible][illegible]



power. Leopold II, king of the Belgians, claimed an enormous area of central Africa (the Congo Free State) as his personal possession and amassed a vast fortune from its ivory, rubber plantations, and copper.

Europeans believed themselves racially superior to Africans and assumed they had the right to impose their rule throughout the continent. African resistance was often fierce and courageous but was unable to make a lasting defense against European machine guns and rifles. In 1879 the Zulu king Cetshwayo disobeyed British demands to disband his huge army, estimated at between 40,000 and 60,000 soldiers, and fought a six-month war before being forced to submit. A religious leader, Al-Mahdi ("the divinely guided one"), created an Islamic state in the Sudan, then a dependency of Egypt, itself a British puppet state. He died in 1885, soon after defeating a British army at Khartoum, but his empire lasted until 1898. It was ended by a British-Egyptian army at the battle of Omdurman, in which 11,000 Mahdist soldiers were

slaughtered. The most successful resistance to European imperialism came in Ethiopia, when an Italian invasion army was defeated and routed at the battle of Adowa in 1896. By 1914, however, virtually the whole continent was under European imperial control.

## IMPERIALISM IN ACTION

For Africa's peoples, European rule had enormous and far-reaching consequences. The continent was carved up into colonies whose frontiers took no account of existing tribal boundaries: they often cut across natural linguistic areas or networks of trade, and colonial governments frequently ruled by exploiting rivalries between different tribes and ethnic groups. Christianity, European languages, and European systems of law and administration were imposed without regard for traditional cultures. Objects such as funeral masks, coronation regalia, or gold and bronze sculptures were looted and dispatched to western museums or private collectors.

## SOUTH AFRICA'S ANGLO-BOER WARS

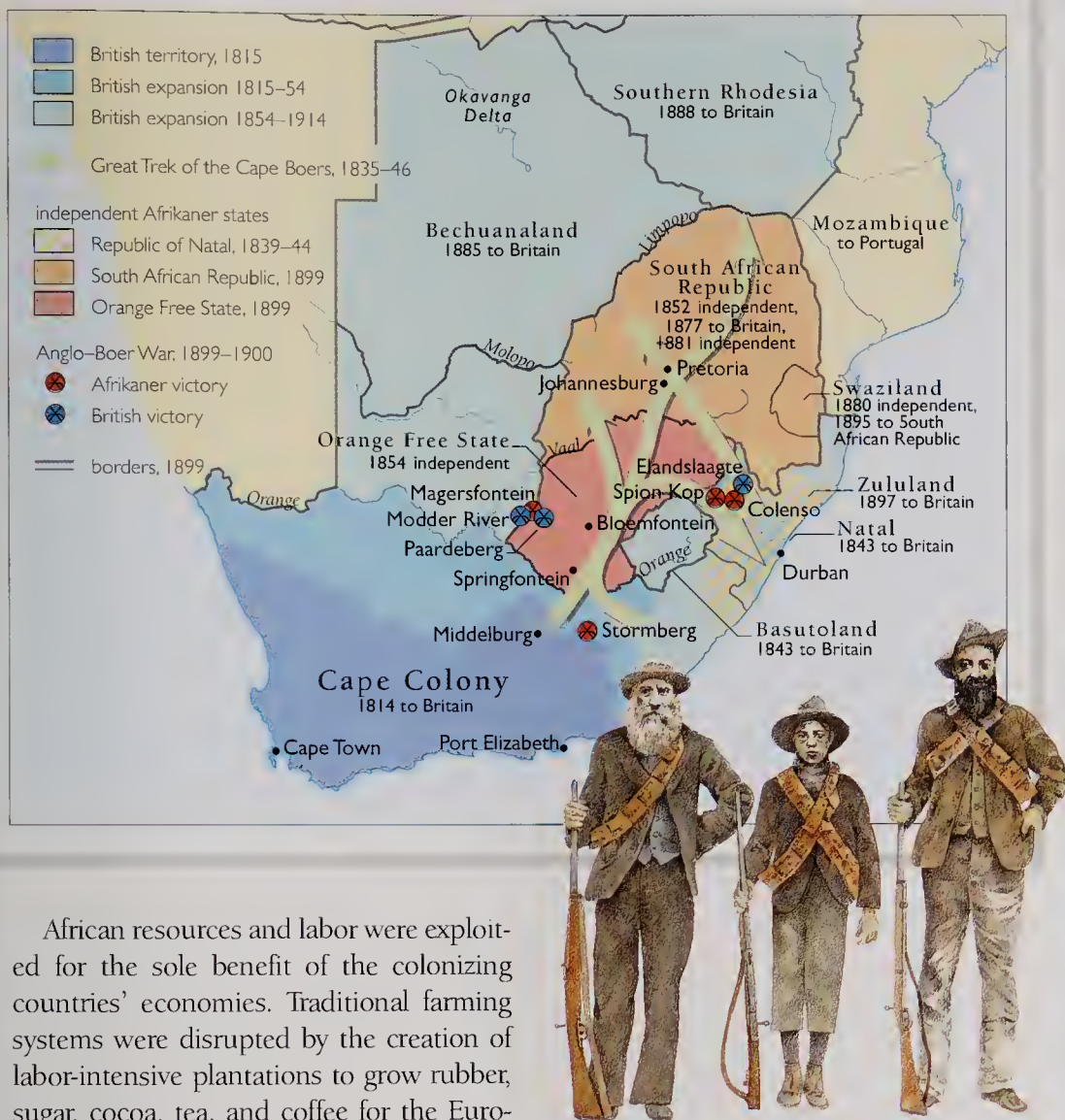
In the 1830s, a group of Afrikaner (Dutch-origin) settlers, dissatisfied with British rule, left Cape Colony and journeyed northeast into uncharted country to found the republics of Transvaal and the Orange Free State (the "Great Trek"). They were known as Boers ("farmers"). The discovery of gold in the Transvaal brought a huge influx of British settlers to the region in the 1880s, and tensions rose high. The Boers refused to give these settlers political rights, and a bitter war broke out in 1899. The Boers used guerrilla tactics in defense of their homelands. The British burned their farms and interned women and children in camps, forcing the Boers to surrender in 1902.

*Far right* Three generations of Boers prepare to resist the British.



*Left* The opening up of Africa caught the world's imagination, largely due to the exploits of journalist and explorer Henry Morton Stanley. He first made the headlines in 1871 when the New York Herald sent him to find David Livingstone, who had not been heard of for five years. Stanley later helped create a private empire in the Congo for the Belgian king Leopold II and traced the course of the river Congo. This children's board game represents his final expedition in 1887–88, when he set out to rescue the Egyptian governor of Sudan from Mahdist rebels.





African resources and labor were exploited for the sole benefit of the colonizing countries' economies. Traditional farming systems were disrupted by the creation of labor-intensive plantations to grow rubber, sugar, cocoa, tea, and coffee for the European market. The confiscation of land and introduction of money taxes meant that thousands of African men had to leave their communities and travel long distances to find work as migrant laborers in mines and industrial cities.

The treatment of Africans by the colonial powers varied considerably. Leopold II's regime in the Congo was so brutal that half the population was worked or starved to death within 15 years. In 1908, international outrage forced the Belgian government to take over the colony from their king. Other colonizing powers introduced elementary education and medical services, often run by missionaries. In Britain's colonies, a system of "indirect" rule (a very limited form of self-rule) was allowed. However, imperial rule generally left deep, often insuperable, problems for Africa's new states when they achieved their independence in the decades after World War II (see page 219), particularly in the form of bitter ethnic divisions and chronically weak economies.

## A WHITE STATE IN AFRICA

In 1910 the Boer republics (see box) were united with Cape Colony and Natal to form the self-governing Union of South Africa within the British empire. To accommodate minority white rule, African peoples were deprived of their lands. A large Asian community also existed, originally imported as indentured laborers to work on sugar plantations in Natal in the 1860s. The Indian nationalist leader Mohandas Gandhi (see page 210) was one of the original founders of the African National Congress (ANC), created in 1912 in order to fight discrimination. In 1948, the official racist policy of *apartheid* forced South Africa's black and colored citizens to live in townships and barren homelands, banned interracial marriage, and reserved the best land, jobs, and education for whites. Black majority rule was finally achieved in 1994, when Nelson Mandela was elected as first president.

## TIMETABLE

1816

Shaka creates the Zulu nation in south-east Africa and begins a period of Zulu expansion (the *mfecane*)

1830

The French conquest of Algeria begins

1835-36

Afrikaners begin the "Great Trek" out of Cape Colony

1858

John Speke is the first European to reach Lake Victoria, which he identifies as the source of the Nile

1871

Stanley tells the world he has met Livingstone at Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika (Tanzania)

1874

In west Africa, the British defeat the Asante empire and found the colony of the Gold Coast

1879

The Zulu war ends in Britain's conquest of the Zulu kingdom

1881-1900

The French rapidly expand their territories in west Africa

1882

Britain establishes a protectorate over Egypt

1884-85

The Berlin conference agrees on the European carve-up of Africa

1885

British general Charles Gordon is killed when Mahdist forces take Khartoum

1898

War almost breaks out between Britain and France after their forces meet at Fashoda on the White Nile

1899-1902

The Anglo-Boer War: Britain conquers Transvaal and Orange Free State

1910

The Union of South Africa is formed as a Dominion of the British Empire

1914-18

German colonies in Africa are captured by the Allies during World War I



# THE RISE OF JAPAN IN ASIA

THE BALANCE OF POWER IN THE FAR EAST CHANGED RADICALLY DURING THE LATE 19TH AND EARLY 20TH CENTURIES. CHINA ENTERED A PERIOD OF LONG DECLINE UNDER THE QING DYNASTY, WHILE JAPAN EMERGED FROM TWO CENTURIES OF ISOLATION TO BECOME THE FOREMOST INDUSTRIAL POWER IN ASIA. TO SUPPORT ITS RAPID MODERNIZATION, IT BUILT A MILITARY EMPIRE ON THE ASIAN MAINLAND AND WENT TO WAR WITH CHINA AND RUSSIA. JAPAN'S CONTINUED EXPANSION IN THE PACIFIC THREATENED U.S. INTERESTS AND OPENED UP A NEW THEATER OF CONFLICT IN WORLD WAR II.

During the 19th century the weak Qing dynasty of China maintained an isolationist policy toward the west but could not prevent European traders from increasing their commercial interests. Britain, whose main import to China was opium grown in India, gained the island of Hong Kong as a trading colony and the opening of five "treaty ports" to foreign trade as the result of fighting two "Opium Wars" (1839–42; 1856–60). China also lost its dominance in Central and Southeast Asia: Russia seized territories in Siberia; Britain took control of Burma (Myanmar); France of Indochina.

Far from the Qing court, official corruption and crippling taxes caused severe hardship. Local uprisings were frequent. Most serious was the Taiping rebellion (1850–64), which threatened the survival of the Qing and was put down with heavy loss of life. Measures to build an industrial base and reform the army achieved too little, too late. Dissent made itself felt in violent feeling against foreigners. In 1900–01, "Boxer" rebels (so called because they belonged to the secret society of the "League of Righteous Harmonious Fists") attacked foreign embassies and trade legations and murdered Chinese Christians. The west sent troops to put down the uprising; many ringleaders were publicly beheaded. China was made to pay huge sums in compensation, foreign troops and gunboats were stationed there, and the economy was put in the hands of western bankers.

As Qing authority disintegrated, the nationalist Kuomintang ("Revolutionary Alliance") seized power in 1911, forcing the child-emperor Pu Yi, last of the Qing dynasty, to abdicate. A republic was founded, and Tibet and Mongolia threw off Chinese rule. But the Kuomintang leader Sun Yixian

(Sun Yat-sen) was soon ousted. Total anarchy followed as China fell under the sway of local warlords. In 1917, the Kuomintang regained control of southern China, but in 1927 a civil war broke out between them and the Chinese Communist party. The situation worsened when Japan occupied Manchuria in 1931.

## JAPANESE EXPANSION

Since the expulsion of Portuguese traders and missionaries in the 17th century, Japan had had limited contact with the outside world, shunning all foreign influences and technological advances. The arrival of a fleet of U.S. warships in 1853–54 persuaded the shogun, Japan's military ruler, to change his mind, and two ports were opened to foreign trade. Treaties with other western powers soon followed, but the introduction of outside influences undermined the power



*Below A Japanese print shows the arrival of US Commodore Matthew Perry's fleet of "black ships" in Edo (Tokyo) Bay in 1853. He returned the next year with a squadron of warships and 4,000 marines, forcing Japan to end its isolation.*







Above Boxer rebels attack a foreigner in Beijing: an illustration in a contemporary European magazine.





of the shogunate. For centuries the emperor had been a remote, divine figurehead, while the shogun exercised absolute power, but a brief civil war in 1868 brought a return to full imperial rule (the Meiji Restoration). Japan began to modernize rapidly, using western machinery and technical expertise; the first railroad was opened in 1872, and a modern army and navy were developed.

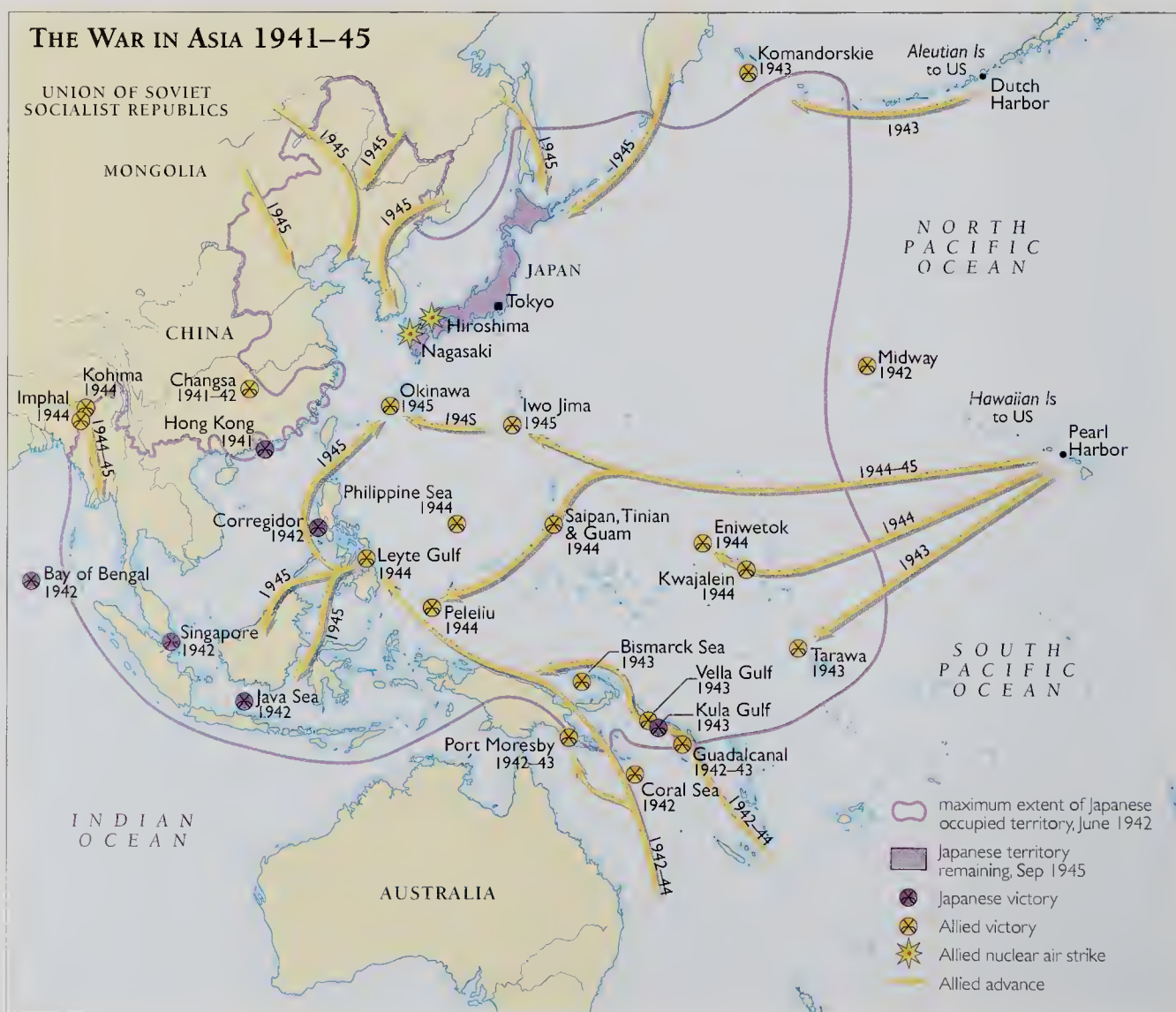
Japan, which had limited resources for expansion, set out to acquire an overseas empire. It gained the Kuril and Ryukyu islands and then, in 1894, went to war with China in support of a Korean bid for independence. Japan's warships destroyed the Chinese navy at the battle of the Yellow Sea, and the island of Taiwan was won. In 1904, conflict with Russia over influence in Korea and Manchuria, the rich industrial northeastern province of China, exploded into war. After the Japanese sank Russia's Pacific fleet in a surprise attack on Port Arthur, Russia sent its aging Baltic fleet halfway around the world to the Pacific, but the Japanese

navy destroyed it at the battle of Tsushima Straits in May 1905. Victories on land confirmed Japan's superiority, and five years later it took over the direct rule of Korea.

Japan sided with the Allies during World War I, and was rewarded with former German possessions in China and the Pacific. But its territorial ambitions were not yet satisfied. In 1931, it took advantage of China's civil war to occupy Manchuria, setting up a puppet state there with Pu Yi at its head. This action was widely condemned, and as a result Japan left the League of Nations; in 1936 it allied itself to the fascist dictatorships of Italy and Germany (see page 200). In 1937, Japan began a full-scale war against China. The Kuomintang and Chinese Communist Party made an uneasy alliance, but their forces were powerless to prevent Japan from overrunning most of northern China. Bombing and indiscriminate slaughter were used to subdue the Chinese populace; in one atrocity, 200,000 citizens of Nanjing were massacred.



Above U.S. forces on the Japanese island of Iwo Jima in February 1945. The battle to take Iwo Jima was one of the fiercest of the war in the Pacific; 25,000 Japanese defended it to the death, causing 26,000 American casualties. Military experts predicted that more than 1 million U.S. soldiers would die in an invasion of the Japanese home islands. Accordingly, President Harry Truman assented to the use of the world's first atomic weapons against Japan.







## HIROSHIMA, 1945

On August 6, 1945, a U.S. aircraft dropped the world's first nuclear weapon—a uranium-based bomb nicknamed “Little Boy”—on the industrial city of Hiroshima, which lies in the south of the main Japanese island of Honshu. The intense heat of the blast, which was equivalent to 13,000 tons of TNT, destroyed the city and killed 80,000 of its inhabitants in an instant. In some places, all that remained of people were their shadows, seared against walls and sidewalks by the flash of the explosion. Within a year 150,000 had died and, for decades after, radiation sickness and leukemia claimed the lives of thousands more victims.

When he realized the destructive power of the atomic bomb, its designer, J. Robert Oppenheimer, quoted an ancient Indian sacred text: “I am become Death, the destroyer of worlds.”

**Right** A scorched watch records the exact time of the Hiroshima explosion.



## THE PACIFIC WAR

Japan needed raw materials such as rubber and oil to continue the war against China. After 1939, it saw an opportunity to obtain them by invading Southeast Asia while the French, Dutch, and British colonial powers were preoccupied with the war in Europe. To forestall U.S. intervention, its airplanes attacked the naval dockyard at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii in December 1941.

By mid 1942, Japanese troops occupied French Indochina, the Dutch East Indies, the Philippines, Malaya, and Burma. Many atrocities were committed against civilians and Allied prisoners of war (surrender was considered a disgrace by the Japanese). The turning point came with Japan's failure to seize Port Moresby on New Guinea and its defeat at the battle of Midway (June 1942). American forces began slowly to retake the Pacific islands. The Japanese resisted fiercely, using suicide pilots (*kamikazes*) and piloted bombs to crash on Allied warships. The use of atomic weapons against Japan hastened the end of the war, and emperor Hirohito surrendered unconditionally on September 7, 1945.

## TIMETABLE

1816

The Qing expel a British trade mission from China

1839–42

The First Opium War opens up “treaty ports” to foreign trade

1850

The Taiping (“Heavenly kingdom”) rebellion breaks out. It is crushed in 1864, and costs 20 million lives

1853–54

U.S. naval expeditions under Commodore Perry open Japan to foreign trade

1856–60

The Second Opium War ends when an Anglo–French force burns the imperial palace at Beijing

1868

The shogunate is overthrown in the Meiji Restoration: Tokyo becomes imperial capital of Japan

1894–95

War between Japan and China brings Chinese influence in Korea to an end

1900

The Boxer rebellion targets foreign influences in China

1904–05

Japan defeats Russia on land and sea

1910

Japan takes over rule in Korea

1911–12

The Qing dynasty is overthrown; China becomes a republic

1927

Civil war breaks out in China between nationalist Kuomintang and Communists

1931

Japan sets up a puppet state in Manchuria

1937

Japan invades China

1941

Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor brings United States into World War II

1945

Atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki brings World War II to an end



# WORLD WAR II IN EUROPE

THE IMMEDIATE CAUSE OF WORLD WAR II WAS THE GERMAN INVASION OF POLAND IN SEPTEMBER 1939, BUT THE ROOTS OF THE CONFLICT LAY IN THE POST-WORLD WAR I SETTLEMENT OF EUROPE AND ECONOMIC DEPRESSION, WHICH NOURISHED THE RISE OF FASCISM. AFTER SIX YEARS OF INTENSE FIGHTING, EUROPE WAS LEFT DEVASTATED IN 1945.

The peace treaties at the end of World War I failed to create a lasting political settlement in Europe. The League of Nations was set up to resolve any disputes that might arise, but had little political weight as the United States refused to join. The Wall Street Crash of 1929 led to the withdrawal of U.S. loans and created a worldwide economic depression. These conditions sowed the seeds of instability in Europe and helped to spread the popularity of rightwing extremist movements like the fascists in Italy, led by Benito Mussolini, who promised a return to civil order and full employment.

The National Socialist German Workers' (Nazi) party founded by Adolf Hitler shared similar goals. The payment of large sums of money to the Allies for war damages, which helped to produce soaring inflation, was a cause of deep popular grievance, exploited by the Nazis. As soon as he became chancellor of Germany in 1933, Hitler assumed dictatorial powers. Nazi propaganda was spread by mass political rallies that glorified the role of the *führer* (leader) and reinforced by brutal secret police tactics targeted at minority groups such as Jews. Determined that Germany would never again be defeated in war, Hitler rearmed, and in 1935 he reoccupied the Rhineland.

In 1936 Hitler and Mussolini made a mutual pact,

known as the Rome–Berlin Axis. The same year, civil war broke out in Spain when an alliance of the right, led by General Franco, attempted to overthrow an elected republican government. In the three years' conflict that followed, Soviet Russia (see pages 204–207) aided the republicans, while the Axis powers helped Franco secure victory.

## THE ROAD TO WAR

At the center of Hitler's program was the foundation of a "Third Reich" (empire) of German-speaking peoples. In 1938 he united Austria with Germany, in defiance of the treaty of Versailles, and then took over the Sudetenland, the German-speaking part of Czechoslovakia. Now he showed he wanted nothing less than the conquest of eastern Europe as *Lebensraum* ("living space") for German settlers. He seized the rest of Czechoslovakia and turned to Poland, having first made sure of Soviet Russia's cooperation by promising it a share of the spoils.

Up until now, Britain and France had tried to appease Hitler by giving in to his demands, but the invasion of Poland led to war in September 1939. The German army took less than four weeks to defeat Poland. The following spring, it occupied Denmark



Left Mass rallies of "stormtroopers" were staged in the 1930s to mobilize support for the Nazi party.









## THE FINAL SOLUTION

According to Nazi racial theories, Jews, Slavs, Gypsies and others were inferior peoples. Jews especially were unfairly blamed for all Germany's troubles; persecution began with boycotts of Jewish businesses, beatings by Nazi stormtroopers, and attacks on synagogues. Later, Jews were expelled from most professions, deprived of German citizenship, and forbidden to marry non-Jews. Many were driven to emigrate. When Germany's armies overran neighboring states, Jews were forced to wear a distinctive badge, made to live in segregated ghettos, or murdered in mass shootings.



In 1941, the Nazis formulated a plan for the "final solution of the Jewish question." So began the Holocaust, the systematic extermination of Jews throughout Europe. Whole communities were rounded up and transported to concentration camps in the east, such as Auschwitz and Treblinka. Here thousands

were killed daily in gas chambers and crematoria. Able-bodied men and women were put to work as slave labor in camp factories until they died of exhaustion and malnutrition. By the end of the war, over six million Jews out of a total of eight million living in countries occupied by the Nazis had been murdered—the most barbarous genocide in recorded history.

Left A grandmother and children in Auschwitz.

and Norway and then swept on through the Netherlands and Belgium to invade France, which surrendered six weeks later. German troops occupied the north of the country, while a French collaborationist government based at Vichy ran the south.

Britain was now the only opponent left in Europe against Nazi Germany. Hitler planned to invade, but was thwarted by the defeat of the German air force in the Battle of Britain (August–September 1940). Britain concentrated its war efforts on fighting Germany's ally Italy in North Africa, on protecting vital Atlantic shipping lanes against U-boats, and on building bomber planes to strike at German industries and cities. Hitler intensified bombing raids against British cities, but his main ambition was to extend Germany's frontiers in eastern Europe.

"Operation Barbarossa," the invasion of the Soviet Union, began in June 1941. After early successes, the coming of winter halted the German advance outside Moscow. The

following spring, Nazi forces launched new offensives to take the valuable oilfields of the Caucasus, but by now the German supply lines were dangerously overstretched.

## THE TIDE TURNS

In December 1941, the Allied cause gained a powerful boost when the United States entered the war after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor (see page 199). By the end of 1942, the Allies had greater reserves of military equipment, munitions, and manpower than the Axis powers. The British defeated the Italians and Germans in North Africa at El Alamein (October 1942) and, with the United States, invaded Sicily and the Italian mainland in 1943. But the decisive theater of the war was the Russian front. Leningrad was besieged, and one-third of its inhabitants died of cold or starvation. Yet, in spite of such appalling losses, the Soviets were able to draw on massive reserves, as Joseph





Stalin, the Soviet leader, ordered its heavy industries to relocate east of the Ural mountains when the Germans invaded. During the battle of Stalingrad (September 1942–February 1943) as many as 100,000 German soldiers were killed and 90,000 taken prisoner in savage house-to-house fighting. The Soviet Red Army gradually forced the exhausted, poorly supplied German army to retreat. In July 1943, at Kursk, south of Moscow, the greatest clash of armor ever seen resulted in the complete destruction of a huge German tank force by Russian tanks and planes. Russian armies were now able to begin the advance across eastern Europe all the way to Berlin.

Germany's main ally, Italy, collapsed and fierce fighting left most of the peninsula in Allied hands by mid-1944; Mussolini (soon to be hanged by partisans) controlled only a puppet state in the north. On June 6, 1944 ("D-Day"), an Allied invasion force landed in Normandy, on the north coast of France and began slowly to advance toward the Rhine. Paris was liberated at the end of August. U.S. and British bombers pounded German cities to rubble. In one mass raid, the city of Dresden was razed to the ground and 60,000 of its citizens were killed. When the Red Army entered Berlin in April 1945, Hitler committed suicide. On May 7, Germany surrendered.



Among the 60 million who died between 1939–45 were 20 million Russians, 6 million Poles, and 6 million Germans. Millions of Slavs and others were deported to provide slave labor in German factories. At the end of the war, Europe swarmed with refugees trying to return east or west. The Allies, horrified by the evidence of the Jewish extermination camps, executed the Nazi leaders after finding them guilty of war crimes at Nuremberg. Germany itself was split up into four occupation zones under Soviet, U.S., British, and French administration.



*Above* A Soviet poster celebrates the defenders of Moscow. Like Napoleon before him, Hitler was defeated by a harsh winter and the resilience of the Russian people.

*Left* Aerial bombing caused enormous destruction and killed millions of civilians. In July–August 1943, Allied planes attacked the German port of Hamburg. Their bombs started a firestorm, in which up to 42,000 people perished.

## TIMETABLE

**1933**

Adolf Hitler is elected Chancellor of Germany

**1936–39**

Nationalists overthrow the elected Republican government in the Spanish Civil War

**1938**

Munich Agreement: Britain accepts Germany's takeover of the Sudetenland

**September 1939**

Germany invades Poland. Britain and France declare war on Germany

**April–June 1940**

Germany conquers Denmark, Norway, the Low Countries, and France. Italy joins the war on the German side

**August–September 1940**

The battle of Britain is fought in the air over southern England

**1940–43**

German U-boats attack British convoys in the battle of the Atlantic

**June 1941**

Germany invades the Soviet Union

**July 1941**

The Soviet Union and Britain sign a pact of mutual assistance

**December 1941**

Germany declares war on the U.S.

**August 1942**

U.S. bombing raids begin over Europe

**October–November 1942**

Italy and Germany are defeated in North Africa

**July 1943**

Soviets defeat German offensive in a massive tank battle at Kursk

**September 1943**

Italy surrenders to the Allies and declares war on Germany (October)

**June 1944**

D-Day: Allied forces land in Normandy

**December 1944–January 1945**

Final desperate German offensive fails in the battle of the Bulge (Belgium)

**April–May 1945**

Berlin falls to the Red Army, Germany surrenders



# RUSSIA IN THE 20TH CENTURY

REVOLUTION IN RUSSIA ENDED CZARIST RULE IN 1917 AND BROUGHT THE WORLD'S FIRST COMMUNIST REGIME, THE SOVIET UNION, INTO BEING. CENTRALIZED PLANNING FAILED TO SOLVE RUSSIA'S PROBLEMS AND IMPOSED GREAT HARDSHIP ON ITS PEOPLE. THE SOVIET UNION HELPED TO DEFEAT NAZISM IN WORLD WAR II, BUT AFTERWARD USED ITS MILITARY STRENGTH TO TAKE CONTROL OF EASTERN EUROPE. RISING NATIONALIST FEELING BROUGHT ITS DOWNFALL IN 1991.

At the end of the 19th century, the Russian empire extended from the Baltic Sea to the Pacific, from the Arctic to the Black Sea, and contained around a hundred different nationalities. Within this vast domain, the majority of people were poor and uneducated, communications inadequate, and huge natural resources largely unexploited. The czars believed they had a God-given right to rule and refused to answer calls for political reform and change. Russians were denied representative government and terrorized by the secret police.

## THE END OF THE CZARS

In 1904–05, Russia was defeated by Japan (see page 198). The news caused unrest at home, which grew still greater after a peaceful demonstration was fired upon by troops in St. Petersburg. Czar Nicholas II (r. 1895–1917) was forced to legalize political parties and set up an elected national assembly (the *duma*), but did not give up real power. The military disasters of World War I were



*Left* This 1929 Soviet propaganda photograph shows peasants voting to set up a collective farm. In reality, the policy of collectivization was bitterly opposed and Stalin took savage reprisals against the peasantry—some 14.5 million were executed or starved to death.

therefore attributed directly to the czar, and he was forced to abdicate in March 1917. A liberal provisional government was set up by the *duma* but its decision to continue the war was very unpopular. Growing unrest among peasant farmers, mass desertions in the army, and the establishment of soviets (councils of workers, soldiers, and sailors) undermined its authority. In October 1917, a second revolution ousted the provisional government and put the Bolshevik ("majority") party in charge. The Bolsheviks were

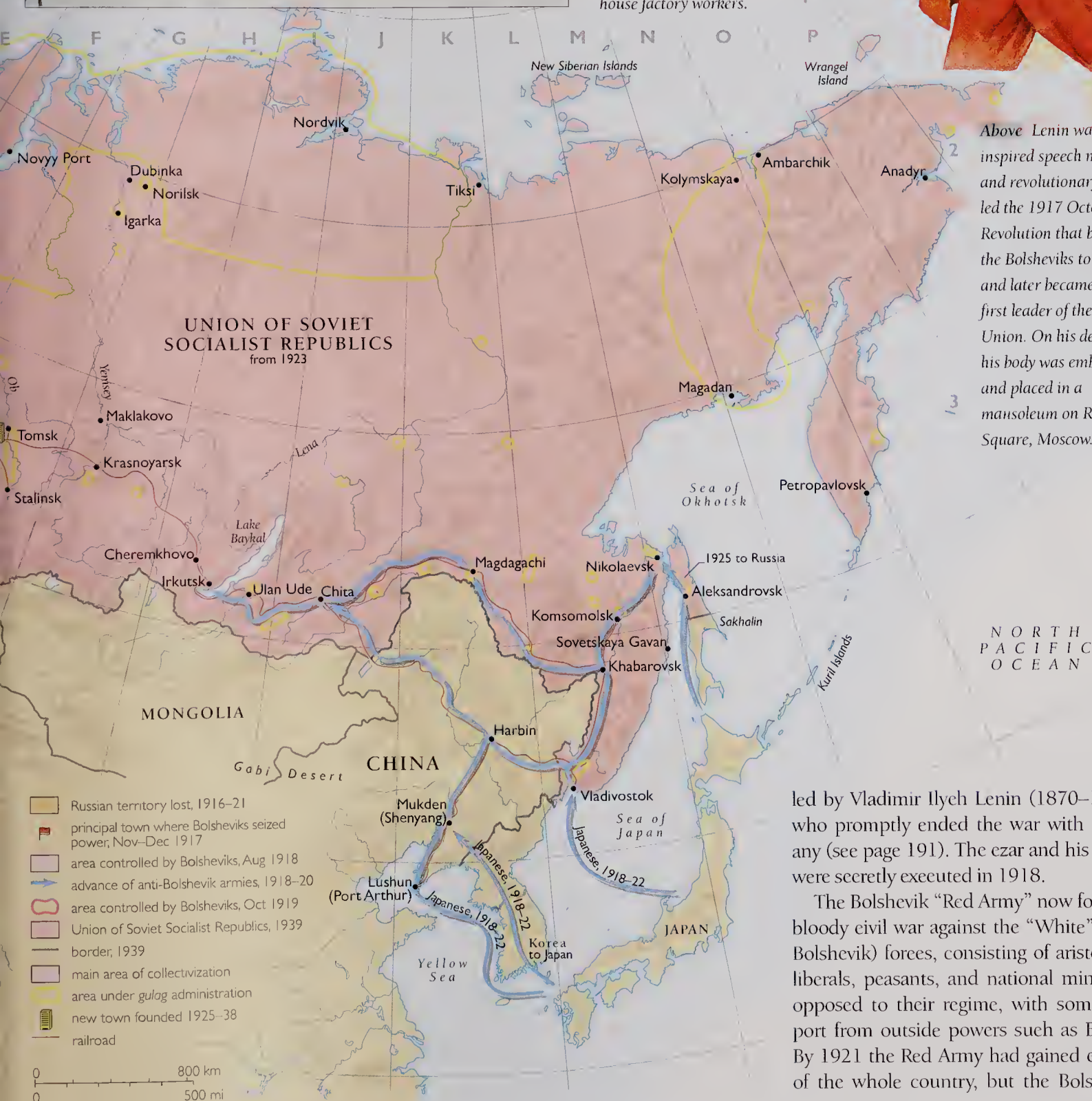




Left Soviet Russia industrialized rapidly under Stalin, and grim apartment buildings like these were built to house factory workers.



Above Lenin was an inspired speech maker and revolutionary who led the 1917 October Revolution that brought the Bolsheviks to power and later became the first leader of the Soviet Union. On his death, his body was embalmed and placed in a mausoleum on Red Square, Moscow.



led by Vladimir Ilyeh Lenin (1870–1924), who promptly ended the war with Germany (see page 191). The czar and his family were secretly executed in 1918.

The Bolshevik “Red Army” now fought a bloody civil war against the “White” (anti-Bolshevik) forces, consisting of aristocrats, liberals, peasants, and national minorities opposed to their regime, with some support from outside powers such as Britain. By 1921 the Red Army had gained control of the whole country, but the Bolsheviks





Left A May Day parade in Red Square, Moscow. In great public spectacles such as this, the Soviet Union gave the appearance of a strong, confident superpower. But despite its formidable military machine, the Soviet system was crippled by corruption, economic incompetence, internal tensions, and the massive cost of the arms race.

were forced to concede independence to Poland, Finland, and the Baltic states (Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia). In 1923, Russia was renamed the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR); at the same time, the Bolshevik party was renamed the Communist party. During the civil war the Bolsheviks had requisitioned food for the army and cities from peasant farmers, causing widespread revolts and a famine that killed 5 million people in the Volga region. To rectify this, Lenin adopted the “new economic policy,” which allowed limited free trade and private agriculture.

## THE STALINIST ERA

Lenin died in 1924 and was succeeded by Joseph Stalin, a ruthless Bolshevik who had played a leading role in the revolution. His first step was to “collectivize” farming. Peasant farmers were forced to give up their land, which was merged into large state-run farms. Those who resisted were deported to *gulags* (forced labor camps) in Siberia.

A series of “Five-Year Plans” was set up to boost industrial output. Production of coal, iron and steel, and armaments all rose, but still fell short of impossible targets. Stalin looked for scapegoats. In 1934 he began

purges to eradicate “subversives”—anyone who was felt to be a potential threat. Public show trials of supposed enemies of the state were held, on falsified charges. Thousands of officials were secretly tortured and killed, or sent to labor camps. People were encouraged to denounce their neighbors. Millions died during the “Great Terror,” from which Stalin emerged with absolute power.

The rise of Nazism alarmed Stalin, who signed a non-aggression pact with Hitler in 1939, while building up the Soviet Union’s armaments. The German invasion in 1941 took the Red Army by surprise. The Russian people endured terrible losses and hardship, but its huge supply of human labor and military-industrial capacity enabled it to halt and then push back the Germans.

## ART, DISSENT, & THE SOVIET STATE

In the early years after the Russian Revolution, experimental writing and avant-garde art, architecture, and music were welcomed as representing the progressive spirit of Communism. Stalin, however, saw things differently. He had conventional taste in art and literature, and modernism and experimentation were condemned as “anti-Soviet.” Instead, artists were told to celebrate the Soviet Union’s heroic achievements and

goals in an approved style known as “Socialist Realism.” Those who refused to do so were punished; their works were

suppressed and many died in forced labor camps. Persecution and censorship continued into the Brezhnev era. Dissident writers circulated their works secretly in the form of typed “samizdat” that passed from person to person.



Left Anna Akhmatova’s poems were banned by Stalin.



By 1942, it was turning out more and better tanks and planes than Germany. The Soviets played a crucial role, at heavy cost, in World War II (see pages 200–204), a conflict they called “the Great Patriotic War.”

## SOVIET POWER POLITICS

After the defeat of Germany in 1945, the Red Army occupied the countries of eastern Europe it had freed from Nazi rule, including the eastern half of Germany itself. Communist governments were imposed in one after another, to form a power bloc of Soviet-dominated states. As relations with the west worsened, an “Iron Curtain” separated Communist from capitalist Europe (see page 218). In 1949 the Soviet Union successfully tested the atom bomb to become the world’s second nuclear power.

Stalin died in 1953, regretted by few. The new Soviet head Nikita Khrushchev relaxed his repressive measures and released many political prisoners. Great efforts were made to increase agricultural yields and produce more consumer goods. But poor harvests continued and living standards remained low. The Soviets dominated the eastern bloc (Warsaw Pact) countries and used extreme measures to suppress revolts in East Germany (1953) and Hungary (1956). Khrushchev began a “space race” with the United States, launching the first artificial satellite (*Sputnik*) in 1957. The arms race with the United States also intensified, and the effort

to build a stockpile of weapons put severe strain on the Soviet economy and threatened world peace. In 1962, the Cuban missile crisis came close to triggering world war (see page 218). Khrushchev was forced to back down, and was replaced as leader by Leonid Brezhnev.

The Brezhnev era (1964–82) was marked by a gradual, slight easing in relations with the west, though the build-up of nuclear arms continued unabated. Khrushchev had allowed greater freedom of expression to writers and other artists but now there was a return to the earlier stifling of dissent. In 1968 Czechoslovakia attempted to liberalize, but was crushed by Warsaw Pact tanks, and the Soviet army became bogged down in a long war in Afghanistan from 1979–89.

## FALL OF COMMUNISM

Mikhail Gorbachev, who became leader in 1985, reduced nuclear arms spending and started reforms to liberalize political and economic life in the Soviet Union. As the new freedoms brought old grievances to the surface, nationalist demands for independence grew in the Baltic, Caucasus, and Central Asian republics. In 1991, hardline Communists staged a coup to try to halt the reform program. They failed, and the Soviet Union broke up. All the newly independent states faced severe difficulties as they made the switch to a free-market economy, and many were divided by ethnic violence.

## TIMETABLE

- 1905**  
Popular uprisings after Russia’s defeat by Japan lead to limited political reforms
- March 1917**  
Czar Nicholas II abdicates and a provisional government is set up
- November 1917**  
The Bolsheviks seize power in the “October Revolution”
- 1918–21**  
Civil war between “Whites” and “Reds”
- 1922–23**  
Formation of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)
- 1928**  
Stalin announces the first Five-Year Plan
- 1929**  
The collectivization of agriculture begins
- 1934**  
The start of Stalin’s “Great Terror”
- 1939**  
Stalin signs Nazi–Soviet pact with Hitler. Soviet Union occupies eastern Poland
- 1941**  
Germany invades the Soviet Union
- 1945–48**  
Soviet dominance is established in eastern Europe
- 1956**  
Khrushchev denounces Stalin
- 1961**  
Cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin is the first man in space
- 1972**  
Richard M. Nixon is the first U.S. president to visit the Soviet Union
- 1985**  
Mikhail Gorbachev becomes Soviet leader
- 1988**  
Nationalist protests intensify in the Baltic and Central Asian republics
- 1989**  
The Soviet Union withdraws from the war in Afghanistan
- 1991**  
Gorbachev resigns after an attempted coup. The Soviet Union is dissolved

### BREAK UP OF THE SOVIET UNION





# ASIA SINCE 1945

ASIA SAW DRAMATIC CHANGES AFTER WORLD WAR II AS NATIONALIST MOVEMENTS LED TO THE INDEPENDENCE OF FORMER EUROPEAN COLONIES. SOME OF THEM BECAME COMMUNIST, ALARMING THE UNITED STATES, WHICH INTERVENED BUT FAILED TO STOP COMMUNISM IN CHINA, NORTH KOREA, VIETNAM, CAMBODIA, AND LAOS. JAPAN RECOVERED FROM THE WAR TO BECOME ASIA'S ECONOMIC POWERHOUSE, STIMULATING RAPID GROWTH ACROSS MOST OF THE REGION.

When Europe's colonial powers tried to resume control in Asia at the end of World War II they found that strong nationalist movements had developed during Japanese occupation, and were forced to withdraw, often after lengthy independence wars. The two superpowers, the Soviet Union and the United States, started to compete for regional influence. The United States was anxious to limit the spread of Communism. The "domino theory" argued that if one country turned Communist, its neighbors would follow; it lay behind U.S. intervention in civil wars in Korea (1950–53) and Vietnam (1965–75), and its support for corrupt regimes such as that of Ferdinand Marcos (1966–89) in the Philippines. In 1955 the Philippines and Thailand formed, with the United States, Britain, and France, the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), a counterpart to NATO, to defend the region against Communism. Other Asian nations joined the nonalignment movement, which tried to avoid siding with either superpower.

## RISE OF A NEW CHINA

After Japan's surrender in 1945, the civil war began again in China (see pages 196–199). When the Communists took Manchuria, the United States withdrew support for the nationalist Kuomintang. In 1949 the last nationalist strongholds fell and Communist Party chairman Mao Zedong proclaimed the People's Republic of China. The nationalists established a state on Taiwan. Under U.S. protection, it occupied China's seat in the UN until the 1970s.

Mao reasserted Chinese power, invading Tibet in 1950 and intervening in the Korean War (1950–53) on the side of Communist

North Korea. Though Mao accepted Soviet aid at first, he refused to become a satellite state. Relations with the Soviets collapsed after 1960, and China urgently developed its own atomic bomb (1964). Mao's greatest problem was how to relieve China's poverty. He drew up a Soviet-style plan to modernize industry and increase agricultural productivity by setting up collective farms. The experiment failed: incompetent planning combined with bad weather to cause terrible famine, which killed millions.

In 1966, Mao launched the "Cultural Revolution" to bring about change, recruiting cadres of young people (Red Guards) to denounce "enemies of socialism" in education, industry, and even the Communist Party itself. Foreign influences and classical culture were attacked, and educated Chinese were humiliated, tortured, sent to labor



Left Mao Zedong glorified himself as the "Great Helmsman" and was idolized by Chinese Communists for over 30 years. His personality cult allowed no criticism until after his death in 1976.







# 1945 – TODAY

Below A student sits by the Goddess of Democracy, built by protesters in 1989 in Beijing. The protest was swiftly crushed, making clear China's refusal to consider political reform.







*Left As Saigon, the capital of South Vietnam, fell to North Vietnam in 1975, remaining American personnel and their South Vietnamese associates were evacuated by the U.S. military. The long, bitter war left millions of Vietnamese homeless and the devastated country even poorer than it had been as a French colony. Unified Vietnam began rebuilding with the help of the Soviet Union, but refugees—"boat people"—attempted to escape by sea to Hong Kong in the late 1980s, causing deep friction in the British colony's relations with China.*

camps, or executed. Confusion and chaos followed, and by 1968 Mao had to call in the army to restore order.

After Mao's death in 1976, his successor, Deng Xiaoping, moved slowly toward free-market reform, inviting foreign investment. The coastal cities were given wide economic freedoms and headed China's transformation. Living standards began to rise, but unemployment, official corruption, and inequalities of income caused unrest to grow. In 1989 hundreds of students were killed when the authorities used tanks to clear a pro-democracy protest in Beijing's Tiananmen Square. The British colony of Hong Kong, with its thriving capitalist economy, was returned to China in 1997.

## JAPAN & KOREA

Japan was so devastated at the conclusion of World War II that it was unable to feed its people. The United States saw Japan as a buttress against Communism and helped to reconstruct its economy. In return for aid, Japan was forbidden to rearm and its

emperor became a constitutional monarch. Shielded from the chaos on the Asian mainland, Japan recovered fast. By 1970 it dominated electronics technology and was the world's second largest economy.

In 1945, Korea was divided into Soviet and American spheres, which became two

separate states. North Korea invaded South Korea in 1950 but was pushed back to a treaty line by a U.S.-led United Nations' force. North Korea's Communist ruler Kim Il Sung (1948–94), who encouraged a personality cult, pushed through a program of massive industrialization. The government remained totalitarian after his death. Its failure to bring about economic reform led to severe food shortages in the late 1990s.

Anti-Communist South Korea was a one-party state under military rule until 1987, when its first free elections were held. It underwent political reform to transform itself into one of the fastest growing economies of the Pacific rim, but was badly affected by the slowdown of the late 1990s.

## INDONESIA & VIETNAM

The Dutch East Indies became independent as Indonesia in 1949 after a long war against the Netherlands. It later seized control of western New Guinea (1963) and of East Timor (1975). Suharto, military dictator from 1967, resigned in 1998 after mass protests against his rule.

One of the longest wars of the 20th century was fought against the French in Indochina. Nationalist resistance was led by the Communist Vietminh movement under Ho Chi Minh, and by 1954 the French were forced to withdraw, leaving Vietnam divided between the Communist north and a weak republic in the south, backed by the United States. The north used guerrilla warfare against the south. From the 1960s, the

## FOUNDERS OF MODERN INDIA

*India's path to independence from British rule began with civil disobedience in the 1920s, organized by the Congress Party of Mohandas K. Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru. Gandhi, known as Mahatma ("great soul"), developed a policy of nonviolent resistance to oppression while working in South Africa, where all nonwhites were treated as second-class citizens. On returning to India, he galvanized the ineffectual Congress Party and won the support of educated Indians such as the Nehrus, a family of*





## THE PARTITION OF INDIA



U.S. poured equipment and troops into the conflict, but could not defeat North Vietnam, which unified the country in 1975.

The war destabilized neighboring Cambodia. From 1975–79 it was ruled by the dictator Pol Pot, leader of the Khmer Rouge. Millions of people were executed or worked

to death in labor camps simply for speaking English or French, or even for wearing glasses, held to be a symbol of western technology. Vietnam and the Soviet Union drove out the Khmer Rouge, which was backed by China, who then invaded Vietnam. Only Thailand remained stable in this period.

## INDEPENDENT INDIA

By the 1930s the British had realized that India would become ungovernable if it was not given self-rule. Because Indian Muslims demanded their own state, India was partitioned into two states, India and Pakistan, in 1947. In the resulting chaos, 12 million people became refugees. India and Pakistan went to war in 1948 and 1965 over Kashmir, which remains contested. Indian prime minister Indira Gandhi (Nehru's daughter) was assassinated in 1984, as was her son Rajiv in 1991, but India remains the largest democracy in the world. Pakistan has had several periods under military rule. In 1971 the eastern half of the country broke away to become the state of Bangladesh.

lawyers. While Congress supporters went on mass boycotts and strikes, Gandhi and other Congress leaders served time in jail. To secure cooperation in World War II, the British promised early independence.

A deeply religious Hindu, Gandhi responded to ethnic violence with fasting, which often shamed the factions into a truce. He was murdered by a Hindu extremist during the riots of 1947. Nehru became India's first prime minister.

*Left* Nehru (left) and Gandhi in 1946, a year before India won its independence.

## TIMETABLE

<b>1945</b>
Japan's surrender ends World War II
<b>1946</b>
The Philippines become independent of the United States
<b>1947</b>
India and Pakistan become independent
<b>1949</b>
Communists win the civil war and found the People's Republic of China
<b>1950</b>
North Korea invades South Korea starting the Korean war (ends 1953). China conquers Tibet
<b>1952</b>
United States' occupation of Japan ends
<b>1954</b>
France is defeated at Dien Bien Phu and withdraws from Vietnam
<b>1958–60</b>
Mao's "Great Leap Forward" attempts to modernize China; it fails
<b>1965</b>
U.S. ground troops are sent to Vietnam
<b>1968</b>
Japan becomes the world's second largest economy
<b>1971</b>
Bangladesh becomes independent following Pakistani civil war
<b>1973</b>
American troops are withdrawn from Vietnam
<b>1975</b>
Saigon, the South Vietnam capital, falls and Vietnam is unified. Khmer Rouge come to power in Cambodia
<b>1978</b>
Deng Xiaoping begins reform of the Chinese economy
<b>1988</b>
Military coup in Myanmar (Burma)
<b>1989</b>
Pro-democracy demonstrators massacred in Tiananmen Square, Beijing
<b>1997</b>
Britain returns Hong Kong, its last significant colony, to Chinese rule



# THE MIDDLE EAST SINCE 1948

THE MIDDLE EAST HAS BEEN A BYWORD FOR STRIFE IN THE LATE 20TH CENTURY. ARAB NATIONALISM, BORN OF OPPOSITION TO OTTOMAN RULE AND, AFTER 1918, BRITISH AND FRENCH COLONIALISM, WAS GIVEN FRESH IMPETUS BY THE FOUNDATION OF ISRAEL IN 1948, WHICH CREATED MANY THOUSANDS OF PALESTINIAN REFUGEES. THE CONTROL OF OIL WEALTH, AND DEBATE ABOUT THE ROLE OF ISLAM IN MODERN ARAB SOCIETY, ADD TO REGIONAL TENSIONS.

France and to a greater extent Britain were given protectorate rule over the Middle Eastern territories of the former Ottoman empire after World War I. Although most Middle Eastern countries had nominal independence by 1945, Britain still tried to control the region's valuable assets, but withdrew when Iran nationalized its oil industry (1951) and Egypt the Suez Canal (1956). The superpowers at once moved in fill to the resulting power vacuum. The United States forged close ties to conservative, oil-rich monarchies in Iran and Saudi Arabia, the Soviet Union to Arab socialist dictatorships in Syria and Iraq.

Arab nationalist discontent with western influences grew, helping to bring about an Islamic revival. Among many Arab Muslims this was expressed by a renewed sense of cultural unity, though Islamic tradition was



*Above* European Jewish refugees arrive at a resettlement center near Haifa in 1945.

Israel was founded as a homeland for survivors of the Nazi Holocaust.

*Below* Sacred to Jews, Muslims, and Christians, Jerusalem remains at the heart of the bitter territorial dispute between Palestinians and Israelis.

*Mediterranean  
Sea*

often at odds with the programs of modern governments. Since 1948, opposition to Israel has united Arabs, but deep rivalries exist: between Sunni and Shiite Muslims; rich and poor; progressive and conservative states; Arabs and ethnic minorities.

## THE FOUNDING OF ISRAEL

Jewish emigration to Palestine began in the 1900s when the first Zionists, European Jewish settler-activists seeking the Promised Land of the Bible, began to arrive there. They were resented by the local Arabs, who had lived there for centuries. As the trickle of Jewish immigrants became a flood in the 1920s, Britain, which now controlled Palestine, advocated separate Jewish and Arab states, but this was rejected by the Arabs. After 1945, the conflict in Palestine became so fierce that Britain handed it over to the United Nations to administer. The state of Israel was created in May 1948 on the wave of international sympathy for the Jews after the Holocaust (see page 202). Expecting an easy victory, Egypt, Jordan, Syria, and Iraq invaded, but their defeat led to the displacement of a million Palestinians. Some fled abroad, others to Gaza and the West Bank of the Jordan, which included Jerusalem.

Israel overcame further Arab invasions in 1967 and 1973 and took over Jerusalem, the Golan Heights, and the Sinai peninsula. The newly formed Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) began a terrorist campaign against Israeli occupation, and Arab oil exporters struck back at the west's support for Israel by raising oil prices in 1973.

The huge influx of Palestinian refugees destabilized Jordan and Lebanon. The PLO, expelled by Jordan in 1970, moved to Lebanon, using it as a base for raids on Israel. This helped to bring about civil war in 1975





# 1948–TODAY



**SYRIA**  
1958–61 united with Egypt as United Arab Republic



**Right** A demonstrator waves the Palestinian flag, banned by a hard-line Israeli government. The 1987 outbreak of the Intifada (uprising) expressed the deep frustrations of Palestinian nationalists.

between the politically dominant Christian minority and the Muslim majority in Lebanon. Israel backed the Christians, Syria the Muslims, and war continued until 1989.

## THE PEACE PROCESS

In 1977, Egypt's president Anwar Sadat offered to recognize Israel in exchange for return of the Sinai peninsula and the establishment of a Palestinian state. The Camp David Accords, mediated by U.S. president Jimmy Carter, appeared to have secured peace between Egypt and Israel in 1979. Sadat and Israeli prime minister Menachem Begin shared the Nobel Peace prize. But international rejoicing was premature: Sadat was assassinated in 1981, and although Israel returned the Sinai, it took no steps to permit Palestinian autonomy. Jewish settlers continued to move into the occupied West Bank, and the Israeli army moved in to protect them from angry, dispossessed Palestinians. Israel also invaded Lebanon to clear out the PLO and its Syrian supporters. Israel was widely condemned for this.

In 1987, Palestinian frustration burst out in the *Intifada* (uprising). Bombs in Jerusalem and Tel Aviv killed Israeli civilians; almost daily, crowds of young Palestinians threw rocks at Israeli soldiers, who panicked and opened fire. Israel imposed military curfews, detention, and expulsions.



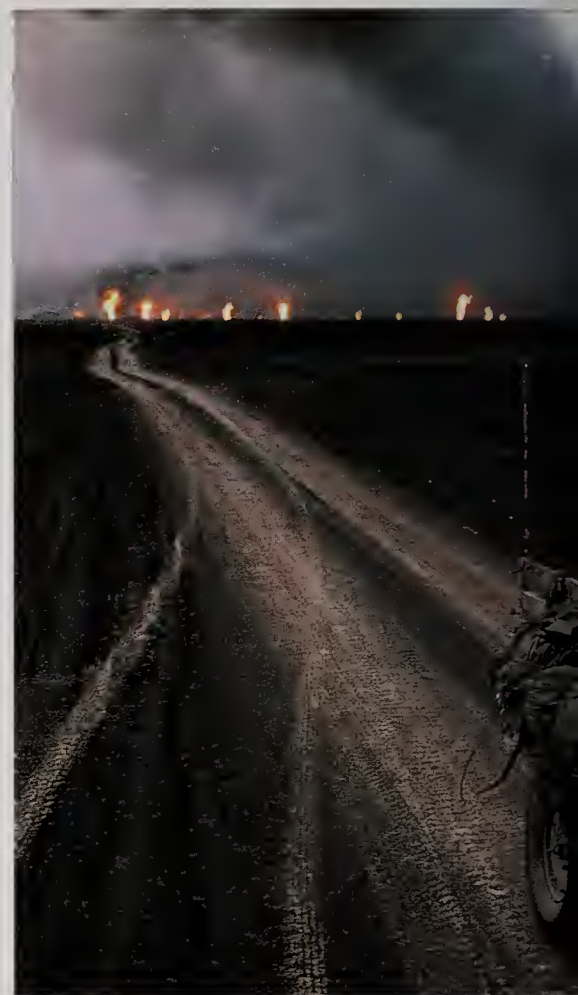
The PLO chairman Yasser Arafat—now in exile in Tunisia—renounced terrorism in 1988 and emerged as the leader of the Palestinian cause, but the government of Yitzhak Shamir, Begin's successor, refused to negotiate with the PLO and declared its opposition to a Palestinian state. Arafat's public sympathy with Iraq in the Gulf War of 1990–91 cost him the financial support of his patrons in the Arab world, significantly weakening the PLO's position.

Secret negotiations between Israel and the PLO yielded a new agreement in 1993. In return for Palestinian self-rule, to start in Gaza and Jericho, the PLO recognized the state of Israel. But the details had not been fully ironed out, and Israel delayed relinquishing control, citing concern over the PLO's ability to maintain security.

Extremists held prime minister Yitzhak Rabin, who signed the 1993 accords, to be a traitor and he was assassinated. At the same time, Arafat and the PLO lost credibility with Palestinians. Many thought that the negotiations were one-sided and that Arafat was chiefly interested in improving his own position. His new Palestinian administration was accused of corruption, cronyism, and incompetence. In this atmosphere of distrust, Israel continued to encourage Jewish settlement of the West Bank.

## WAR IN THE GULF

In 1979, an Islamic revolution overthrew the unpopular U.S.-backed government of Iran. The country's new leaders backed a militant form of Shiite Islam, opening a rift



## THE IRANIAN REVOLUTION

Iran's postwar ruler, the Shah, alienated many of his subjects and their religious leaders with pro-western modernizing programs. Popular discontent built up, leading to demonstrations in the 1970s. In 1979 the government collapsed and the Shah fled to the United States. Iran came under the control of a radical Islamic cleric, the Ayatollah Khomeini, at the head of a Revolutionary Council. Strict Islamic laws were introduced controlling women's dress and banning popular music and other western influences.

When the United States refused to extradite the Shah, the U.S. Embassy in Tehran was attacked and 52 employees held hostage for over a year. In 1989 the Ayatollah issued a death sentence against Salman Rushdie, a British writer whose work had offended Muslims. Khomeini's death the same year led to mass mourning, but Iran's new leaders have proved more conciliatory to other countries.

*Below* Armed, veiled Iranian women marching in front of the U.S. Embassy in Tehran, 1979.



with its Sunni neighbor Iraq, which has a significant Shiite minority. The Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein invaded Iran in 1980, citing the need to protect its access from the Euphrates to the Persian Gulf. The United States, Soviet Union, and oil-rich, conservative Gulf states were all nervous about the Iranian revolution continuing and tacitly backed Iraq. Syria (and, secretly, Israel) backed Iran. The fighting dragged on until 1988 and ended in stalemate. There was massive bombing of cities on both sides, and more than 2 million people were killed.

Iraq was bankrupted by the war, but when Kuwait demanded repayment of outstanding debts in 1990, Saddam invaded the tiny state. To stop him from taking over Kuwait's oil supplies, a U.S.-led coalition of western and Arab states, using Saudi Arabia as its base, attacked and defeated Saddam. Punishing sanctions imposed on Iraq's oil exports impoverished the country. Saddam crushed several domestic uprisings, notably by the Kurds, whom he attacked with poison gas, and continued to provoke diplomatic crises as he blocked UN inspection of Iraqi nuclear plants, suspected of being used to construct nuclear weapons.





Left U.S. troops drive through the wasteland of Kuwait in 1991. In the background are oil wells set on fire by retreating Iraqi forces at the end of the Gulf War. The Iraqi leader Saddam Hussein enjoyed covert support from the United States and many Arab states during his war with Iran, and he was surprised when a coalition led by the United States and Saudi Arabia quickly took up arms to liberate Kuwait from Iraqi occupation.

## TIMETABLE

- 1948**  
Israel founded, Arab countries invade and lose, Palestinians flee
- 1956**  
Egypt nationalizes the Suez canal. Britain, France, and Israel invade
- 1964**  
The Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) is founded in Jerusalem
- 1967**  
Six-Day War. Israel controls the Sinai, West Bank, and Golan Heights. More Palestinians flee to Jordan and Lebanon
- 1970**  
The PLO is expelled from Jordan
- 1973**  
Israel defeats Egypt and Syria in the Yom Kippur War
- 1974**  
A summit of Arab countries accepts the leadership of Arafat and the PLO
- 1975–89**  
Civil war in Lebanon, involving both Syria and Israel
- 1978**  
The Camp David Agreement. Israel withdraws from the Sinai peninsula
- 1979**  
Iranian revolution. The Shah is deposed; Ayatollah Khomeini takes power
- 1981**  
Egyptian president Sadat is assassinated
- 1980–88**  
War between Iraq and Iran
- 1982**  
Israel invades Lebanon to stamp out PLO
- 1987**  
Beginning of Palestinian *intifada* (uprising) to protest the delay of self-rule
- 1988**  
Arafat and the PLO renounce terrorism
- 1990–91**  
Iraq occupies Kuwait but is defeated by a United States-led coalition
- 1993**  
The Oslo Declaration: Israel and the PLO agree to found a Palestinian state
- 1995**  
Israeli prime minister Rabin is shot dead by a Jewish student







- 1 1945 The United Nations is founded
- 2 1947 Independent states of India and Pakistan are founded amid widespread violence
- 3 1948-49 Berlin airlift breaks Soviet blockade
- 4 1949 The People's Republic of China is declared after Communists win civil war
- 5 1949 Soviet Union tests its first atomic bomb
- 6 1949 Germany divided into Federal Republic (West) and Democratic Republic (East)

- 7 1950 Korean War begins as Communist troops invade the south; UN forces resist
- 8 1954 Algerian war of independence starts
- 9 1954 The French leave Indochina after losing battle of Dien Bien Phu to the nationalists
- 10 1956 Soviet tanks crush Hungarian revolt
- 11 1956 Egypt nationalizes the Suez Canal; Anglo-French invasion fails
- 12 1959 Fidel Castro seizes power in Cuba

- 13 1960 15 new states are created in Africa as the French decolonize
- 14 1961 The Berlin Wall is built
- 15 1962 Cuban missile crisis
- 16 1963 (August 28) More than 200,000 people join civil rights march in Washington
- 17 1963 (November 23) U.S. president John F. Kennedy is assassinated in Dallas, Texas
- 18 1965 U.S. sends soldiers to South Vietnam



# THE WORLD BY 1975



In 1945, the UNITED NATIONS WAS FOUNDED, REFLECTING INTERNATIONAL DETERMINATION NEVER TO LET ANOTHER WORLD WAR OCCUR. BUT AN ARMS RACE BEGAN WITH THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COLD WAR, AS THE WORLD'S TWO SUPERPOWERS COMPETED TO BRING OTHER STATES INTO THEIR SPHERE OF INFLUENCE. BY 1975, NEARLY ALL THE FORMER COLONIES OF AFRICA, THE CARIBBEAN, AND ASIA WERE INDEPENDENT.

In 1945, the United States, the only nation in possession of nuclear weapons, stood unchallenged as the world's only superpower. Having led the alliance to restore democracy in Europe and Asia, its prestige was high. Its economic strength helped war-damaged countries rebuild their shattered industries. A great deal of assistance (nearly \$13 billion from 1948–52) was given through the Marshall Plan, which was set up with the long-term strategic aim of buttressing Europe against Communism, but aid was also offered to the countries of eastern Europe, which Stalin rejected. Within 20 years the Japanese and German economies had become the world's strongest, second only to the United States. The Soviet

Union had suffered greater war losses than any other country, and was determined to create a buffer zone against future invasion from the west. It used its military strength to impose one-party Communist rule across eastern Europe. Stalin tolerated no dissent, and closed the borders with the west to prevent emigration (the "Iron Curtain").

The United Nations (UN) was founded in 1945 to promote international cooperation and maintain peace. Its membership

- 19 1967 Biafran civil war begins in Nigeria
- 20 1967 Israel defeats Arab nations in Six-Day War
- 21 1968 "Prague Spring" reforms in Czechoslovakia are crushed by Warsaw Pact forces
- 22 1973 United States-backed coup overthrows elected Marxist government in Chile
- 23 1975 Helsinki conference on Security and Cooperation confirms human rights
- 24 1975 Portugal gives up its African colonies

Right In the 1960s, a peace movement arose in western democracies, calling for nuclear disarmament and protesting against U.S. intervention in Vietnam. Many young people were attracted to this cause.





had risen from 52 to nearly 150 countries by 1975. Despite its good intentions, the UN could not prevent the Cold War developing between the world's superpowers.

## THE COLD WAR

At the end of the war, Germany was divided into four zones of occupation under separate Soviet, U.S., French, and British control, a pattern that was repeated in the capital, Berlin. In 1948 the Soviets tried to force the other occupying forces out of West Berlin by blockading their sectors. Only a huge airlift of supplies from the west saved West Berlin from starvation. In 1949, Germany was divided into two separate countries.

In 1949, also, the Soviet Union developed its own atomic bomb to challenge the United States. To build up its own sphere of influence, it began to give financial and military backing to the new states and independence movements that were created as former colonies shook off their imperial past. United States' foreign and domestic policy was aimed at resisting Soviet domination. It stationed large forces in Germany, and in 1949 joined with Canada and 10 western European countries (becoming 14 later) to form a defensive alliance, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). After West Germany joined NATO in 1955, the Soviet Union set up the Warsaw Pact military bloc with its eastern European allies.

Fear of Communism caused the United States to sponsor coups against democratically elected left-wing governments in Guatemala (1954) and Chile (1973). In the Bay of Pigs invasion (1961), it failed to overthrow the Communist government of Fidel Castro in Cuba, its close neighbor. Massive intervention by the United States in Vietnam (1965–73) did not prevent the victory of Communism there (see page 211).

The superpowers stockpiled more and more nuclear weapons. By the 1960s, each had enough to annihilate the other ("mutual assured destruction," or MAD). A space race also developed after the Soviet Union launched the first space satellite in 1957. In 1969 the United States succeeded in landing the first astronaut on the moon.

The Cold War came closest to turning hot in 1962 after the Soviet Union installed ballistic missiles on Cuba. A U.S. naval blockade forced the Soviets to back down.

This incident frightened both sides enough to begin the process of "détente" with the aim of reducing international tension. Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT) began in 1969. At the Helsinki Conference (1975), the Soviet Union promised to respect human rights in return for western recognition of postwar boundaries in eastern Europe.

## NEW STATES

Europe's colonial powers had increasing difficulty in running their overseas empires. Lack of funds and the strength of the nationalist movement persuaded Britain to give

up its imperial role in India, and in 1947 two independent states, India and Pakistan, were created, though with heavy cost of life. In 1956 a joint British–French–Israeli invasion failed to prevent Egypt from nationalizing the Suez Canal and won international condemnation. It was now clear to most people in Britain that its colonial days were past; 34 colonies in Africa, the Caribbean, and the Pacific islands became independent between 1957 and 1975.

This transition was, with some exceptions, mainly peaceful, but other transfers of power were not. The Dutch reoccupation of its southeast Asian colonies after the war





was strongly resisted by Indonesian nationalists, who won independence in 1949. A terrible civil war broke out in the Congo after Belgium withdrew in 1960. France became caught up in a bitter 8-year struggle against a popular liberation movement before pulling out of Algeria, its oldest African colony, in 1962. Long independence wars were fought in Portugal's African colonies. A coup in 1974 brought a change of government in Portugal. It at once gave up all its colonies, but civil war broke out in Angola, in which the Marxist government, opposed by U.S.- and South African-backed rebels, called in Cuban military assistance.

Colonialism left a legacy of poverty and underinvestment. Many African states also had to struggle with problems of huge ethnic diversity: Zaire (the Belgian Congo) had 150 ethnic groups speaking more than 50 languages. An attempt by the Ibo people of eastern Nigeria to set up a state of their own (Biafra) resulted in bitter civil war (1967–70). Strong leadership was needed to hold many newly independent countries together, and one-party rule was often the result.

In 1955, at Bandung in Indonesia, the Nonaligned Movement was founded by 29 nations, including India, China, and Yugoslavia, with the aim of resisting superpower



*Right* A civil rights march in Danville, Virginia. Under the leadership of Martin Luther King Jr., African Americans demanded equality in education, voting, and jobs.



*Left* At the end of World War II, Berlin lay deep within the Soviet-occupied zone of Germany, but was jointly run by all the Allied powers. As more and more refugees fled Communism by crossing from the Soviet to the western sectors, the East German government built the Berlin Wall to keep their citizens in. Many were killed trying to escape; this deadly "No Man's Land" in the heart of the city was sown with mines, patrolled by guard dogs, and raked by machine guns.

domination and ending colonialism; many newly independent states joined, raising its membership to around 100 by the 1970s. Another power center emerged in the early 1970s around the Arab oil-producing nations. A sharp rise in oil prices to punish the west for supporting Israel caused an economic crisis, which increased the debt burden of the developing nations.

## POPULAR MOVEMENTS

Despite the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948, people around the world still struggled for freedom. In the 1950s and 1960s the civil rights movement in the United States, led by Martin Luther King Jr., used nonviolent tactics to end race discrimination against African Americans. King's assassination in 1968 shocked the world almost as much as president John F. Kennedy's had five years earlier. The protest movement against the U.S. role in Vietnam marked a shift to the left in U.S. politics.

Popular revolts in Hungary (1956) and Czechoslovakia (1968) against Soviet domination were put down by Warsaw Pact tanks. The slaughter of Israeli athletes by Palestinian gunmen at the Munich Olympic Games of 1972 was part of a growing trend toward international terrorism.





- 1 1978 White rule ends in Rhodesia, which is renamed Zimbabwe
- 2 1978 Camp David Peace Accords lead to peace treaty between Israel and Egypt (1979)
- 3 1979 Islamic Revolution in Iran topples the Shah; Ayatollah Khomeini becomes president of a theocratic state
- 4 1979 Soviet troops invade Afghanistan
- 5 1979 Vietnamese invasion of Cambodia; Khmer Rouge regime of Pol Pot ousted

- 6 1980 In Poland, the Solidarity trade union under Lech Walesa becomes focus for national protests against Communism
- 7 1980 Iran-Iraq war begins
- 8 1982 Falklands War between Britain and Argentina
- 9 1982 Israeli troops intervene in the civil war in Lebanon; massacre of Palestinian refugees
- 10 1984 Chemical factory at Bhopal, India, explodes, killing 2,000 people

- 11 1985 Mikhail Gorbachev comes to power in the Soviet Union
- 12 1986 Nuclear catastrophe at Chernobyl spreads radiation over western Europe
- 13 1986 Corrupt Marcos regime in the Philippines overthrown by "people power"
- 14 1989 Student protest for democratic reform in China is crushed in Tienanmen Square, Beijing
- 15 1989 Popular revolutions overthrow the Communist regimes of eastern Europe



# THE WORLD TODAY

DRAMATIC CHANGES ALTERED WORLD POLITICS AND ECONOMICS IN THE LAST 25 YEARS OF THE 20TH CENTURY. EUROPEAN COMMUNISM COLLAPSED AS THE SOVIET UNION BROKE UP, ENDING THE COLD WAR. RICH NATIONS EXPERIENCED CYCLES OF “BOOM AND BUST” WHILE POOR NATIONS BECAME POORER. THE DRIVE FOR ECONOMIC GROWTH CONTINUED IN SPITE OF GROWING CONCERN ABOUT ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES.

In 1975 nobody expected significant changes in the world order that had existed since 1945. The superpowers kept their stockpiles of nuclear and conventional weapons, though détente was underway, improving relations between them (and with China).

However, the Soviet Union was in steep decline. Its government was conservative and unimaginative, its industry and agriculture inefficient. Its rich natural resources were in remote areas and remained underdeveloped. Heavy spending on defense (twice as much as most other industrialized nations) and on trying to match the technological advances of the west prevented any improvement

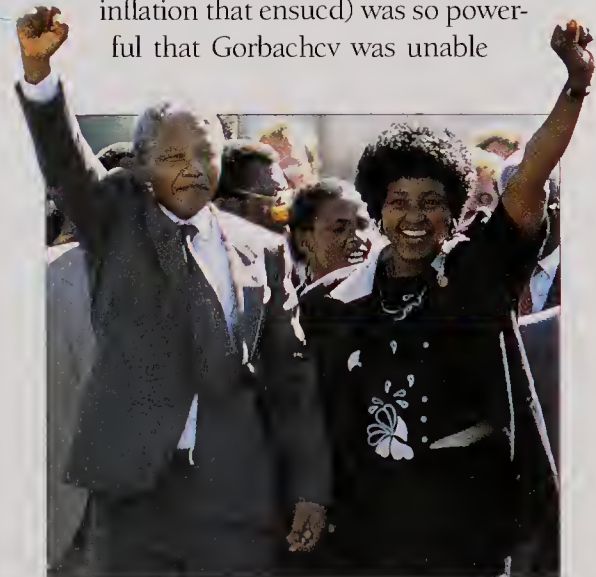
in standards of living. Strict censorship and suppression of political opinion continued in eastern Europe as well as the Soviet Union itself. International relations were set back when the Soviets invaded Afghanistan in 1979 and became locked into a long, bitter war with Muslim guerrilla fighters.

The reformer Mikhail Gorbachev came to power in 1985 after the death of two old guard leaders. He started negotiations at once with the United States to limit nuclear weapons, liberalized political and economic life, and undertook to withdraw the Red Army from Afghanistan by 1989. Popular support for these moves (in spite of the steep inflation that ensued) was so powerful that Gorbachev was unable



- 16 1990 Germany reunified after 40 years
- 17 1990–91 Gulf War; international force led by the United States drives Iraq from Kuwait
- 18 1991 The Soviet Union breaks up following a failed military coup
- 19 1992 Civil war in Bosnia–Herzegovina follows break up of former Yugoslavia
- 20 1994 First multiracial elections in South Africa
- 21 1998 “Tiger economies” of SE Asia in crisis

Right South African civil rights campaigner Nelson Mandela was released in 1990 after 24 years in prison. In 1994 Mandela was elected president of South Africa’s first black majority government.





to control it. In late 1989 the Communist regimes of eastern Europe were toppled, one after the other, by popular revolutions. After months of demonstrations, East Germany opened its borders and the Berlin Wall was torn down. A year later the two Germanies were reunited after 40 years. Nationalist protests in the Soviet Union fed growing demands from the non-Russian republics for independence, and in 1991 it fell apart, to be replaced by a loose Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).

## THE NEW WORLD ORDER

When the Soviet Union collapsed, its former empire was destabilized. Many of the new independent states were divided by ethnic tensions or had border disputes with their neighbors. Moldova, Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, and Georgia all suffered civil wars or terrorism in the 1990s. There was savage fighting in 1994–96 when the Muslim people of Chechnya tried to break away from the Russian Federation.

In eastern Europe, the end of strong one-party rule caused the break-up of Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia. In Czechoslovakia this happened peacefully, but the disintegration of Yugoslavia brought the worst bloodshed in Europe since World War II. The new republic of Bosnia–Herzegovina was ravaged from 1992–95 by civil war between its majority Muslim population, Serbs who wanted to be part of a “Greater Serbia,” and Croats who wanted to join Croatia. Atrocities were committed on all sides; however, the Serbs were guilty of genocide by carrying out a policy of “ethnic cleansing.” This involved the forcible removal, internment, or massacre of all non-Serbs. The United Nations sent troops but could not stop the slaughter.

The Soviet collapse ended the Cold War between the two world superpowers and both sides proceeded to disarm. The cessation of Soviet support for Ethiopia allowed Eritrean rebels to win their long war for independence in 1993. The economy of Cuba, the Soviet Union’s ally in the Americas, was crippled when Russian aid dried up. The United States withdrew support for the white racist regime in South Africa, which it had backed as a defense against Communism, and in 1994 the first black majority government was elected.



## THE RISE OF TERRORISM

The increasing availability of sophisticated weapons on the world market allowed small extremist groups to use campaigns of terror to publicize their agendas. Terrorist groups in many countries, including Israel, Spain, Northern Ireland, Italy, France, Germany, Peru, Egypt, and Japan, opposed the established regimes of their own governments. Attacks did not always end even after peace agreements were established.

International terrorism was sponsored by Muslim extremists, backed at different times by Libya and Iran. In 1986 the United States bombed Libyan leader Qaddafi’s headquarters in Tripoli in retaliation for his alleged complicity in terrorist activities against U.S.

personnel in Europe. Libya sheltered the alleged organizers of the bombing of a flight in 1988. The fear of terrorism increased after Islamic militants planted a bomb inside New York’s World Trade Center in 1993—the first terrorist attack within the United States. When another bomb exploded in a federal building in Oklahoma City, suspicion fell first on Muslims, but the culprits were found to be two antifederal protestors. In 1998 the disaffected Saudi Arabian billionaire Osama bin Laden, who was exiled in Afghanistan, declared “total war on the United States and all its citizens” to force it to end its support for the repressive Saudi monarchy. He was believed to be responsible for two bomb attacks in Kenya and Tanzania that killed mostly African civilians.





*Left* The continent of Antarctica is the last great wilderness on Earth. An international treaty preserves its status as a place for free and nonmilitary scientific investigation. However, a number of countries also have national territorial claims. This has raised fears that Antarctica may be explored for oil and mineral resources as supplies run out elsewhere in the world.

*Below right* A branch of the highly successful U.S. fast-food chain McDonald's in Beijing, China. In the 1980s, China undertook liberal economic reforms; it presented a huge potential market for foreign investors by the late 1990s.

## THE WORLD AT RISK

In the 1980s, ecologists began to warn that economic growth was seriously damaging the environment. Industrial pollution, marine oil spillages, and the spread of urbanization had wiped out many animal and plant species. Unregulated industry and military activity in the Soviet Union and eastern Europe had caused major ecological disasters: nuclear testing had spread radiation over parts of Kazakhstan, while huge irrigation schemes for growing cotton had dried up the Aral Sea, turning it into a desert.

In many cities, air pollution from auto exhausts and the burning of fossil fuels for electricity and industry was reaching unacceptable levels. The clearing and burning of rainforests added to atmospheric pollution and resulted in soil erosion and landslides. Increased carbon emissions were found to be a major cause of global warming and climate change. Fears mounted that sea levels would rise as the polar ice caps melted, causing widespread flooding.

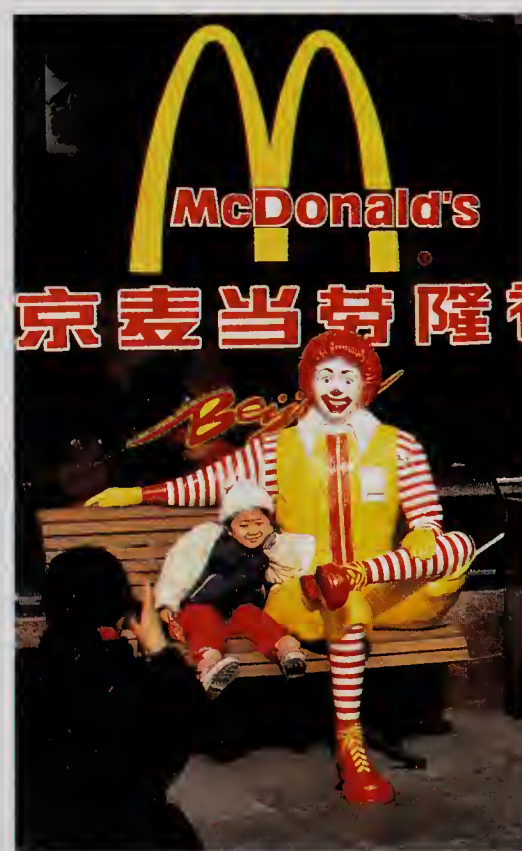
The Earth Summit in Brazil (1992) was the largest conference yet held to discuss environmental issues. But it proved difficult to agree on international targets for change. Many developing countries felt the richer nations were unwilling to pay a fair proportion of the costs of putting things right.

## ECONOMIC CHANGES

In the industrialized nations of the west, the economic crisis caused by the raising of oil prices caused unemployment and stagnation. Growth returned in the 1980s but wavered in the 1990s, and unemployment remained endemic. Developing countries entered a spiral of debt and high inflation as they took out larger foreign loans, which rising interest rates made it impossible to repay. Many loans were later rescheduled or cancelled in return for moves toward multi-party elections, but much of Africa and Latin America remained desperately poor. Sub-Saharan Africa saw a series of terrible famines from the late 1970s, made worse by civil wars in Somalia and Sudan.

In the former Soviet Union, the transition from planned economies to a free-market system proved extremely difficult. In Russia, a few people grew wealthy as a thriving "black market" emerged, but the government was bankrupt by the late 1990s. State salaries were left unpaid for months and standards of living plummeted amid continuing political uncertainty.

Japan's meteoric rise to global economic dominance in the postwar period stimulated huge growth in other Pacific Rim countries. South Korea, Taiwan, Malaysia, Thailand, and Singapore had all become major industrial nations by the 1990s. In 1997–98 the collapse of these "tiger economies" sent unemployment spiraling. Even Japan felt the effects of the economic recession.





# GLOSSARY

**Abbasid** The ARAB dynasty of CALIPHS who ruled most of the world of ISLAM from 750–1258.

**abolitionist** A campaigner against slavery or the international slave trade.

**Aborigines** The earliest inhabitants of Australia, so called by Europeans because they had been there *ab origine*, “from the beginning.”

**absolutism** A political system in which unrestricted power is exercised by a single ruler. It was practiced by many European monarchs in the 17th and 18th centuries. See also DIVINE RIGHT.

**African National Congress** (ANC) The black nationalist party of South Africa, banned under APARTHEID. It became the ruling party in 1994 when its leader, Nelson Mandela, was elected president.

**Afrikaner** White Afrikaans-speaking descendants of the BOERS of South Africa, who retain a distinct culture based on their language and Dutch Reformed religion.

**Albigensians** A HERETICAL sect in southwest France in the 12th and 13th centuries. Also known as Cathars, they held that the universe is ruled by two powers, one good, one evil. A papal CRUSADE was launched against them, supported by the French king and the northern nobles.

**Allied Powers** Great Britain, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union—the principal members of the alliance that defeated the AXIS POWERS in World War II.

**Amerindian** One of any of the peoples who were in the Americas before the arrival of Europeans; a Native American.

**Anatolia** The large peninsula of Turkey, also known as Asia Minor, that lies between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. It was an early center of farming and iron-working.

**ancien régime** Meaning “old regime,” the political and social system of France before the outbreak of the FRENCH REVOLUTION in 1789. More generally, it describes the ABSOLUTIST monarchies of 18th-century Europe.

**Anglo-Saxons** The Germanic peoples (Angles, Saxons, and Jutes) who migrated to Britain from Germany and Denmark around 450. The period of English history before the NORMAN conquest in 1066 is commonly called Anglo-Saxon.

**anthropologist** A person who studies the origins, physical characteristics, social organization, and customs of humans.

**apartheid** Meaning “apartness,” the official policy of racism in South Africa. The series of laws passed from 1948 segregated nonwhites (defined as mixed-race or coloreds; Asians; and blacks) from whites and denied them economic

and political equality. It was abolished in 1993.

**appeasement** The policy of giving in to another state's demands in order to prevent war.

**Arabs** The nomadic tribes of the Arabian peninsula who conquered the Middle East and North Africa after converting to ISLAM in the 7th century.

**archeologist** A person who finds out how people used to live by uncovering and examining the material remains (dwelling sites, burials, ARTIFACTS, monuments, etc.) of past societies.

**Arianism** A HERESY propounded by Arius, an Alexandrian priest of the 4th century, who held that Christ was not fully divine.

**aristocracy** A hereditary, privileged class of society; a noble elite.

**arms race** Competition between two or more states to build up a larger arsenal of weapons. It refers especially to the stockpiling of nuclear weapons by the United States and Soviet Union in the COLD WAR.

**artifact** Any object made by humans.

**Aryans** Nomadic pastoralists from Central Asia who migrated into the Indian subcontinent around 1500 BC.

**Assyrians** A powerful people of the Middle East named for the city of Ashur in northern MESOPOTAMIA (northern Iraq). The greatest period of Assyrian power lasted from about 1000–600 BC.

**astronomical calendar** The method of measuring the seasons, months, and days by accurate observations of the Moon, Sun, and planets.

**autocrat** A ruler who has unlimited authority. See ABSOLUTISM.

**Axis Powers** Refers to the Berlin–Rome Axis agreement of cooperation between FASCIST Germany and Italy (October 1936); Japan joined a month later. The Axis (which became a Tripartite Pact in 1940) later included all those countries that supported Germany in World War II.

**Aztec** An AMERINDIAN empire that controlled Mexico and parts of central America before the Spanish conquest of 1519.

**Babylonians** The people of the city of Babylon in southern MESOPOTAMIA. The first Babylonian empire, which arose around 1800 BC, was destroyed by the HITTITES in 1600 BC. After Assyria declined in 600 BC, Babylonia briefly enjoyed power once again.

**Bantu** The largest family of African languages, spoken in much of east, central, and southern Africa.

**baptism** The rite of admittance into the CHRISTIAN church by symbolic cleansing with water.

**baroque style** The art, architecture,

and music of Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries. In architecture, it is marked by extravagant, flamboyant decoration and a dramatic sense of movement and contrast, and is found in ROMAN CATHOLIC churches in contrast to the severe interiors favored by PROTESTANTISM. See also COUNTER REFORMATION.

**Bastille** A medieval fortress in Paris that was used as a prison in the 18th century. It was stormed by a mob in July 1789, beginning the FRENCH REVOLUTION.

**Biafra** A republic set up in eastern Nigeria from 1967–70, causing a civil war in which a million people died.

**bishop** A senior clergyman who has authority over priests and laymen.

**Black Death** The common name for the epidemic of bubonic plague that swept through Asia and Europe in the 14th century.

**Boers** White South African farmers (mostly of Dutch origin). They established an independent state in the mid 19th century, which was annexed by Britain after the Anglo-Boer war (1899–1902).

**Bolsheviks** The radical wing of the Russian Social Democratic Party, which broke away to form a separate party in 1910. They seized power in Russia during the October Revolution (1917) and set up a COMMUNIST state.

**Bronze Age** The period of Asian and European prehistory, lasting from about 4000 BC–1200 BC, when most tools and weapons were made of bronze. Bronze is an alloy of copper with arsenic and tin. It is harder than copper alone and provides a sharper cutting edge.

**Buddhism** A major Asian religion founded by the Indian mystic Siddhartha Gautama (“the Buddha”) in the 5th century BC, which spread from India to Southeast Asia, Tibet, China, and Japan. It teaches that a moral life can free the individual from suffering.

**Bulgars** A TURKIC people from Central Asia who migrated into Europe in the 4th century AD. One branch eventually settled in the eastern Balkans in the 7th century and gave their name to modern Bulgaria.

**Byzantine empire** The name given to the eastern Roman empire from 610 until its fall to the OTTOMANS in 1453. It is derived from Byzantium, the Greek port that was the site of the empire's capital, Constantinople.

**caliph** The title used by the political and spiritual leaders of ISLAM after the death of Muhammad in 632.

**Calvinism** A PROTESTANT doctrine founded by the French theologian John Calvin (1509–64) during the REFORMATION. It stresses the doctrine of predestination—that from eternity God predestines the salvation of a chosen elect.

**capitalism** An economic system in which the means of production are privately owned, and in which the market is run to maximize profit for owners and investors.

**Carthaginians** The inhabitants of Carthage, a major port and trading city in North Africa founded by the PHOENICIANS in 814 BC.

**cathedral** A church that is the official seat of a BISHOP, from the Latin word *cathedra* (chair).

**chiefdom** A HIERARCHICAL SOCIETY ruled by a leader or CLAN-based elite.

**chivalry** An ideal code of behavior defining the duties of KNIGHTS in MEDIEVAL Europe. They were required to fight bravely in battle, show courtesy to women, and protect the Christian church.

**Christianity** The religion founded by Jesus Christ in the 1st century AD, which regards the Bible as sacred scripture. In the Middle Ages it was divided into two main churches, the ROMAN CATHOLIC and the ORTHODOX.

**citizen** In ancient Greece, a land-owning member of a CITY-STATE. Citizenship was inherited; outsiders, women, and slaves were excluded. Roman citizenship was more inclusive, and could be granted to conquered peoples and ex-slaves.

**city-state** An independent city that controlled a surrounding territory, large or small.

**civil rights** The rights other than political rights extended to a citizen, such as the right to move about freely and other forms of personal liberty.

**civilization** An advanced form of human society, with complex social structures and cultural achievements such as writing, mathematics, technology, and monumental architecture.

**clan** A group of people related by common ancestry or marriage.

**Code Napoleon** The law code compiled during the reign of the emperor Napoleon. It forms the basis of modern French law.

**Cold War** The long ideological conflict between the United States and its allies and the Soviet Union and its allies. It began when occupied Germany was divided into Allied and Soviet spheres in 1945 and lasted until the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. The buildup of political tension between the two SUPERPOWERS led to a nuclear ARMS RACE.

**collectivization** In state-run economies, the merging of small farms or factories to make large agricultural and industrial cooperatives under centralized control.

**colonialization** The occupation of foreign territory by a state for settlement and economic exploitation.

**colony** A group of people who found a



new community in a distant territory but retain ties with their parent state.

**Communism** A political system in which the ideal is communal living and common ownership of property, eliminating poverty and inequality. The theory was developed by Karl Marx and Frederick Engels in the 19th century in reaction to the social problems of the INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION. In practice it led to totalitarian regimes in which a single party controlled all aspects of political, economic, and cultural life, as in the Soviet Union.

**concentration camp** A large prison camp. The most notorious camps were built by the NAZIS for Jews, Communists, gypsies, and other "undesirables."

**Confederation of Independent States (CIS)** The loose political association of the former Soviet republics after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991.

**Confucianism** The social and moral philosophy based on the teaching of the Chinese scholar Confucius (c. 551–479 BC), which emphasizes ethical values and respect for elders. It remains at the heart of Chinese society and CULTURE.

**Congress of Vienna** An international conference held in Vienna in 1814–15 to restore the balance of power in Europe after the defeat of Napoleon.

**conquistadors** The name given to the Spanish conquerors of the NEW WORLD, especially in Mexico and Peru.

**Constitution of the United States** The document embodying the fundamental principles upon which the law and federal system of government of the United States are based. It was drawn up at a convention of 55 delegates (the Constitutional Convention) who met at Philadelphia in 1787, and was ratified by the required number of states (nine) on June 21, 1788.

**Consul** A title (originally used in ancient Rome) adopted by Napoleon from 1799, when he became head of the French government, until 1804 when he made himself emperor.

**containment** The policy of the United States during the COLD WAR, aimed at preventing the spread of COMMUNISM around the world.

**Cossacks** From the Turkic word *kazak*, meaning "adventurer" or "free man," peasants who fled from serfdom in Poland, Lithuania, and Russia to settle north of the Black Sea, where they enjoyed semi-independence. In the 17th and 18th centuries they came increasingly under Russian rule and revolted several times. They provided the elite cavalry regiments of the Russian army from the 18th to early 20th centuries.

**Counter Reformation** A movement of the ROMAN CATHOLIC church to halt the spread of the REFORMATION among PROTESTANTS in Europe and redefine the teachings of the church. To foster a new

spirit of religious revival, orders such as the JESUITS were founded and new churches built in ornate BAROQUE STYLE. Missionaries were sent to win converts in Asia and the NEW WORLD.

**coup d'état** "Seizure of the state": a military takeover or other rebellion that overthrows a government.

**crime against humanity** A type of WAR CRIME in which a civilian population is subjected to extreme political, racial, or religious persecution. An example is GENOCIDE.

**Crusades** A series of military expeditions (usually counted as eight) made by CHRISTIAN armies from Europe against the MUSLIMS of Palestine and Egypt from the 11th to 13th centuries. Crusades also took place against the Muslims in Spain.

**Cultural Revolution** A period of chaos (1966–76) in China when Mao Zedong authorized the persecution of moderates in the Communist Party and all Chinese society in order to consolidate his power.

**culture** The shared ideas, beliefs, values, and knowledge of a particular society; the material goods (ARTIFACTS) that are produced by that society.

**cuneiform** The "wedge-shaped" writing used in MESOPOTAMIA from the 3rd to the late 1st millennium BC.

**czar** The title of the ruler of Russia, derived from the ancient Roman imperial title of *caesar*. It was adopted by Ivan IV, grand prince of Moscow, in 1547 and used by his successors until the monarchy was abolished in 1917.

**Dark Ages** The name commonly given to the period of European history that followed the ending of the Roman empire (476), when there was a decline in all forms of culture. It lasted until about 1000.

**democracy** In ancient Greece, the direct government of a CITY-STATE by the CITIZEN body.

**depression** A severe or prolonged decline in economic activity that brings high unemployment.

**détente** The relaxing of tension between states, used in a phase of the COLD WAR (1969–79) when the SUPER-POWERS sought ways to avoid escalating conflict.

**divine right** The idea that monarchs are granted their power by God, so that disobedience to the king may be regarded as disobedience to the will of God. It was central to ABSOLUTISM.

**domestication** The adaptation of wild plants or animals through selective breeding to make them useful for humans.

**duchy** Part of a kingdom that was entrusted to a duke by a king to be ruled on his behalf. In MEDIEVAL Europe, many dukes ruled their duchies as independent states.

**Dutch Republic** Known also as the United Provinces of the Netherlands, it consisted of the seven northern PROTESTANT provinces of the Netherlands that became independent of Spain (1558–1609). It became a major trading empire in the 17th century.

**dynasty** A ruling family or other group that holds power for several generations.

**East India Company** A company set up for the purpose of trading with east Asia. The Netherlands, England, and France all had national East India companies in the 16th and 17th centuries. They had their own armies for protection against European rivals and local resistance.

**Edict of Nantes** A proclamation of tolerance issued to French HUGUENOTS by Henry IV in 1598, ending the religious wars in France. It was revoked by Louis XIV in 1685, after which most Huguenots fled abroad.

**Enlightenment** An intellectual movement of 18th-century Europe that emphasized science and reason over religion and superstition.

**Estates-General** The French national assembly from the 14th to the late 18th centuries. It was organized on class lines: clergy (First Estate), nobility (Second Estate), and property-owning commoners (Third Estate). No assemblies were summoned between 1614 and 1789.

**ethnic cleansing** A political euphemism for GENOCIDE, practiced by the Serbian government against non-Serbian minorities in the 1990s.

**Etruscans** A people of north-central Italy, of unknown origin, who developed a distinctive culture in the 8th century BC. They were conquered by the Romans in the 4th century BC.

**excommunication** Exclusion from membership of the church, and especially from receiving the sacraments. The POPES used it as a way of bringing uncooperative monarchs into line.

**fascism** A political system that glorifies the state and its leader, seeks military expansion, and is fiercely anti-Communist. The ideology was first developed by the Italian prewar dictator Benito Mussolini.

**Fertile Crescent** A region of good soil stretching in an arc from modern Israel through Lebanon, Syria, southern ANATOLIA, and Iraq to the Persian Gulf. It was here that settled farming began 10,000 years ago.

**feudalism** The system of social and political organization that pertained in most of MEDIEVAL Europe, based on the relationship between a lord (emperor, king, or nobleman) and his VASSALS. Land and offices were given to vassals in return for an oath of loyalty and the promise to fight for him at any time.

**fief** The estate or office granted by a

lord to a VASSAL.

**"Final Solution"** Hitler's plan to eliminate by GENOCIDE the entire Jewish population of Europe during World War II.

**Five-Year Plan** A list of goals for agricultural and industrial production in a Communist state-run economy.

**Forbidden City** The residence of the Chinese emperor in Beijing.

**fossil** The remains of any animal or plant that have been preserved in sedimentary mud or rock.

**fossil fuels** Fuels such as coal, oil, peat, and natural gas, which are formed in the Earth from animal or plant remains. They give off carbon gases when burned.

**Fourteen Points** The peace plan proposed after World War I by President Woodrow Wilson.

**Franks** A Germanic people who settled in the Low Countries east of the Rhine. From the 6th to the 9th century their empire was the greatest power in western Europe.

**free-market economy** An economy in which private individuals and companies enter into transactions with very little interference or supervision by the government. See also CAPITALISM.

**French and Indian War** A war fought in North America between France and Britain (1754–63), which resulted in France conceding all its territories in North America to Britain.

**French Revolution** The movement that saw the end of the ANCIEN RÉGIME in 1789 and convulsed France until 1799, when Napoleon overthrew the Revolutionary government.

**Gaza Strip** A small area on the Mediterranean coast between Israel and Egypt, occupied by Israel in the Six-Day War of 1967. It became one of the first self-governing Palestinian territories in 1994.

**genocide** The deliberate mass killing of an entire racial or cultural group.

**global warming** The increase in the average temperature of the Earth, which is widely believed to be caused by the GREENHOUSE EFFECT.

**glyphs** Picture symbols used by the Maya, Aztecs, and other peoples of Mesoamerica as a form of writing.

**gold standard** A system for keeping national currencies and international exchange rates stable by basing the value of currency on the price of gold.

**Gothic** A style of architecture that was widely used in western European churches, cathedrals, and palaces from about 1150 to 1500. Its chief feature was the use of tall, narrow columns and pointed arches to support high, vaulted ceilings.



**greenhouse effect** Gases such as carbon dioxide and methane in the atmosphere absorb solar heat thrown back from the Earth and prevent it from escaping into space. This keeps the Earth warm enough to support living things, but it is believed that the levels of these gases are rising as a result of the excess burning of FOSSIL FUELS, causing GLOBAL WARMING.

**guerrilla warfare** "Little war": a strategy of limited fast attacks rather than pitched battles, which allows a small, irregular force to fight a much bigger or better-equipped enemy.

**guillotine** A device for beheading people that became notorious in the FRENCH REVOLUTION, consisting of a weighted blade set between two upright posts.

**gulag** The former Soviet penal system of labor camps for political dissidents.

**Habsburgs** A German dynasty who became counts of Austria in 1273, which they ruled without interruption, as archdukes and emperors, until 1918. In 1452 they acquired the title of Holy Roman emperor and retained it until the empire's dissolution in 1806. At the peak of Habsburg power in the 16th century, Charles V ruled the HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE, Spain, southern Italy, Burgundy, the Netherlands, Mexico, and Peru.

**hacienda** A large estate in the Spanish empire.

**Han** The ruling dynasty of China from 206 BC–AD 220. It is also the name of the ethnic majority of Chinese people.

**Hellenistic period** The period of Greek and Middle Eastern history from the death of Alexander the Great in 323 BC to the Roman conquest of Egypt in 30 BC, marked by an increase in Greek cultural influence abroad.

**heresy** Any religious belief that did not conform to the teachings of the church.

**hierarchical society** A society in which some people enjoy higher rank and therefore more privileges than others.

**hieroglyphic** A system of writing that uses pictures to symbolize words. Hieroglyphics were used in ancient Egypt, Mexico, and other places.

**Hinduism** The dominant religion and CULTURE of India since ancient times. A complex system of beliefs and customs, it includes the worship of many gods (POLYTHEISM) and a belief in reincarnation (rebirth).

**Hittites** A people, probably from south-east Europe, who migrated into ANATOLIA about 2000 BC. They established an empire that extended into Syria and lasted until c. 1200 BC.

**Holocaust** The systematic GENOCIDE of European Jews by the NAZIS during World War II.

**Holy Roman empire** The empire founded by the German king Otto I in 962, based on his claim to be the legitimate successor of the western Roman emperors and the guardian of western

CHRISTIANITY. It controlled most of central Europe and northern Italy in the Middle Ages but slowly declined to become a loose confederation of semi-independent states. It was finally abolished by Napoleon in 1806.

**hominid** Any of the Hominidae family of primates (apes) to which modern humans and their immediate ancestors and related forms belong. They are distinguished by their ability to walk upright on two feet.

**Homo erectus** Meaning "upright man," the species name for a human ancestor that lived from 1.9 million years ago to +400,000 years ago.

**Homo habilis** "Handy man," the scientific name for a species of human ancestor that lived 2.4–1.9 million years ago. It was the first hominid that could make tools.

**Homo sapiens** Meaning "wise man," the species name for modern humans, who came into existence 400,000 years ago.

**Huguenot** A French PROTESTANT of the 16th and 17th centuries.

**humanism** An intellectual movement of the RENAISSANCE that emphasized humanity's free will, superiority to nature, and relationship to God. It is summed up in the saying "Man (humanity) is the measure of all things." The leading proponent of humanism was the Dutch scholar Erasmus.

**human rights** The most fundamental rights, to which every person is entitled. They include the right to be free from execution, torture, and unfair imprisonment.

**Huns** A group of nomadic TURKIC peoples who migrated from Central Asia to eastern Europe around 370. Legendary for their violence, they disappeared from history after the death of their leader, Attila, in 453.

**hunter-gatherers** People who follow a way of life based on hunting wild animals, fishing, and gathering wild food plants.

**Hyksos** A people from the Middle East who invaded northern Egypt from 1640–1532 BC and established a capital at Avaris in the Delta.

**Ice Age** A period of global cooling that lasted from one million years ago to 10,000 years ago. Ice covered large areas of land and sea levels were considerably lower.

**icon** A holy picture that is used as a focus for prayer and devotion, especially in the ORTHODOX church.

**imperialism** The process by which one country forces its rule on another.

**Inca** An AMERINDIAN group that controlled an empire in the Andes and on the west coast of South America in the 15th century. It was conquered by Spain in 1535.

**indulgence** In ROMAN CATHOLICISM,

the remission, or cancellation, of part or all of the eternal punishment due for sins that have been pardoned by an act of penance. The practice of selling indulgences without exacting penance was one of the church abuses that led to the REFORMATION.

**Industrial Revolution** The development of modern industry and factory production, with accompanying economic and social changes, that began in Britain in the 18th century and spread to the rest of Europe and North America.

**inflation** A sustained rise in prices that results from an increase in the volume of money and credit relative to the availability of goods.

**Inquisition** An organization of the ROMAN CATHOLIC church charged with identifying and punishing HERESY. It was most active in Spain.

**intifada** "Uprising": The Palestinian protest against Israeli occupation and the long delay in implementing the 1979 peace agreement.

**Iron Age** The period of prehistory following the BRONZE AGE when iron became widely used for making weapons and tools. Iron SMELTING began between 1400 and 1200 BC in ANATOLIA and spread from there into the Middle East, Europe, Asia, and Africa. Iron was not introduced into the Americas until the arrival of Europeans.

**Iron Curtain** A term describing the ideological division between Communist eastern Europe and democratic western Europe, first used by British politician Winston Churchill in 1947.

**irrigation** The watering of crops by artificial means. In the ancient world, canals were built to carry water from rivers or wells to the fields.

**Islam** The religion founded by the Prophet Muhammad in Arabia around AD 610. The ARAB conquests helped to spread it rapidly through the Middle East and North Africa. Islam means "submission to God's will."

**Jacobins** A radical political group that engaged in terrorist activities during the FRENCH REVOLUTION.

**Janissary** A member of a corps of slave-soldiers in the OTTOMAN empire, made up of Christian youths from the Balkan provinces. They converted to Islam on being drafted into the Ottoman service. The Janissaries gradually became an elite hereditary class with great political influence.

**Jesuit** A member of the Society of Jesus, a ROMAN CATHOLIC order founded by Ignatius Loyola in 1534. It was principally involved in missionary and education work.

**Jin** A dynasty founded by the Jürchen, invaders who conquered the northern half of the SUNG empire in China. They ruled from 1127–1234 until conquered by the MONGOLS.

**Judaism** The religion and cultural prac-

tices of the Jews, which center on the belief in one god (MONOTHEISM).

**khanate** In Central Asia, the area under the authority of a khan, a local chieftain or leader.

**knight** A mounted soldier in the service of a lord. According to the code of CHIVALRY, knights were inducted into their rank after service as a page and squire.

**Koran** The holy book of ISLAM, which records the teachings of Muhammad.

**Kuomintang** The Chinese Nationalist Party. After losing the civil war to the Communists, it set up a government on Taiwan in 1949.

**Kushans** Nomads from Central Asia who invaded Afghanistan and India in the 1st century AD. They founded a large empire that fell around 380.

**Latin** The language spoken by the Romans. Modern Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Romanian are descended from it.

**libertarian** A believer in freedom of expression and thought.

**Louisiana Purchase** An area of 828,000 square miles (2,144,520 sq km) lying between the Mississippi river and the Rocky Mountains, which was purchased for less than 3 cents an acre from France in 1803, doubling the size of the United States.

**Lutheranism** The branch of PROTESTANTISM that follows the principles of the German theologian Martin Luther (1483–1546).

**Macedon** A powerful kingdom of northern Greece. Its king Alexander the Great conquered the PERSIAN empire from 334–326 BC.

**Mamluke** A dynasty of slave-soldiers, similar to the JANISSARIES, that ruled Egypt from 1250 to 1811.

**Manchu** A people from Manchuria in northeast Asia who invaded and conquered China in 1644, founding the QING dynasty, which ruled until 1911.

**Mandate of Heaven** A doctrine used by all Chinese rulers until 1911 to justify their power. It stated that rulers were appointed by the gods.

**Marathas** A Hindu people of west central India (the present state of Maharashtra) who created a warrior state in the 17th and 18th centuries.

**Marshall Plan** A massive five-year aid package provided by the United States to help the war-damaged countries of western Europe rebuild their economies after World War II.

**Marxism** The political system derived from the writings of Karl Marx, who interpreted politics as a struggle between economic classes (see also COMMUNISM).

**Mauryan** A powerful dynasty that ruled most of India from 381–185 BC.

**Medes** A NOMADIC people from Central



Asia who settled in northern Iran during the 9th century BC. Their kingdom of Media was conquered by the PERSIANS in 550 BC.

**medieval** From the Latin for "middle age," the term used for the period of European history between the collapse of Rome (AD 476) and the discovery of the New World (1492), lying between the ancient and modern ages.

**megalithic** Describes any structure built of large stones. The term is used particularly of the NEOLITHIC tombs and stone circles of western Europe such as Stonehenge in England. Many pre-Columbian structures in America are megalithic.

**Meiji Restoration** The ending of rule by the SHOGUNS and the return of the Japanese emperor in 1868, which marks the beginning of modern Japan.

**Mesoamerica** The area of Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, Belize, and El Salvador that was occupied by the Olmec, Maya, and Aztec civilizations in pre-Columbian times.

**Mesopotamia** Meaning in Greek "the land between the rivers," it is the name given by historians to the dry but fertile region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in modern Iraq where the world's first cities developed about 4000 BC.

**Ming** The ruling dynasty of China from 1368 to 1644. It was overthrown by the MANCHUS.

**minority** A group within a larger society that is seen as separate from the rest of that society on grounds of ethnicity, language, or religion.

**monarchy** A form of government in which power is held by one hereditary ruler such as a king or emperor.

**monastery** The residence of a religious community, especially of monks.

**Mongols** Nomad peoples of Central Asia who established one of the world's largest territorial empires in the 13th century.

**monotheism** Belief in only one god.

**mosque** A place of worship in ISLAM. It usually has one or more towers (minarets) and may be decorated with patterns and texts from the KORAN.

**Mughals** (also spelled Moguls) A Muslim dynasty that ruled a large part of India from the 16th to the 18th centuries. They were noted for their administrative efficiency and for their high level of cultural activity, especially in painting, textiles, and architecture.

**Muslim** A believer in ISLAM.

**Mutual Assured Destruction** (MAD) The argument in favor of stockpiling nuclear weapons in the COLD WAR, on grounds that neither side would be willing to start a war that could only end in their mutual destruction.

**mythology** A collection of ancient stories about gods and superhuman heroes that were made up to explain the origins

of the world, its natural phenomena, and the social customs of a particular CULTURE.

**nationalism** The idea that a group linked by territory, ethnicity, culture, or language should have its own state.

**nation-state** A state in which the inhabitants all belong to one nation or ethnic/linguistic group. In fact, though many states claim to be nation-states, almost all include MINORITIES.

**Nazi** A member of the National Socialist Workers Party, which seized power in Germany in the 1930s.

**Neanderthals** An extinct form of early humans who lived in Europe during the ICE AGE. They made flint tools and buried their dead.

**Neolithic** Meaning "new stone age," it describes the period of Asian and European prehistory between c.9000 and 2000 BC when crops and animals were domesticated and early farming societies developed.

**neutral state** One that pursues a policy of not joining military alliances.

**New World** The name given to the Americas by European explorers in the 16th century to distinguish them from the Old World of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

**Ninety-five Theses** An account of the failings of the ROMAN CATHOLIC church drawn up by Martin Luther in 1517. He nailed them to the door of the church in Wittenberg, an event that is held to mark the beginning of the REFORMATION.

**nirvana** In HINDUISM and BUDDHISM, the highest state that a soul can achieve, free of suffering and desire.

**nomads** People who move from one place to another in search of food or water as the seasons change.

**Non-Aligned Movement** A group of nations (mostly from the THIRD WORLD) that formed an association to avoid taking sides in the COLD WAR.

**Normans** People from Normandy in France, which is named for the Norsemen ("Northmen," or VIKINGS) who settled there in the 10th century.

**North Atlantic Treaty Organization** (NATO) A mutual defense association formed after World War II by the United States, Canada, and most of non-Communist Europe to protect one another from attack by a hostile Soviet Union. *See also* WARSAW PACT.

**Nubia** A region on the river Nile in Africa, roughly equivalent to modern Sudan, which was the site of an early CIVILIZATION that had close links to ancient Egypt.

**Olmeecs** Corn farmers living on the Gulf coast of southeast Mexico who developed the first CIVILIZATION of the Americas (1200–400 BC).

**Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries** (OPEC) A group founded in 1960 to give oil exporters more control

of the oil market. The members include all of the Middle East oil exporters plus Indonesia, Nigeria, and Venezuela.

**Orthodox** The form of CHRISTIANITY practiced in the eastern Roman empire. Its forms of worship and belief were later adopted by the SLAVS and Russians. It was (and still is) led by the PATRIARCH of Constantinople.

**Ostrogoths** "Eastern Goths," a Germanic people who conquered Italy in 489–93.

**Ottoman** A TURKIC dynasty, originating in Anatolia around 1280, that conquered the BYZANTINE empire in 1453. At its height the Ottoman empire covered parts of North Africa, the Middle East and southeastern Europe. It survived until 1923.

**pagan** In MEDIEVAL Europe, anyone who was not a believing Christian.

**Paleoindian** A name used by archeologists to describe the first humans to settle in the Americas, the ancestors of the Native Americans.

**papacy** The office of POPE.

**papyrus** A species of reed that was used in ancient Egypt to make paper.

**Parliament** The legislative assembly of Great Britain, consisting of the sovereign, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The English parliament formed the center of opposition to the king in the English Civil War (1642–51).

**Parthians** A nomadic people from Central Asia who ruled Iran and Iraq from about 238 BC to AD 226.

**pastoralism** Farming based on grazing domestic animals rather than growing crops. Because grazing animals need to be moved to fresh pastures, pastoral people are NOMADS or seminomads.

**patriarch** In the ORTHODOX church, a BISHOP who has authority over other bishops. There were five senior patriarchs in the early church: in Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Rome.

**patricians** Members of the ARISTOCRACY of Roman society, descended from the original SENATE.

**peon** A peasant laborer in Spain's American colonies.

**Persians** The ancient Iranians, an Indo-European people related to the MEDES. The empire created by the Persian king Cyrus II (c. 559–53 BC) dominated the Middle East until it fell to Alexander the Great in 330 BC.

**pharaoh** The title given to the kings of Egypt. It comes from an Egyptian word meaning "great palace."

**Phoenicians** The people of the narrow coastal plain of Lebanon and Syria, who established a trading empire in the Mediterranean from about 1000–500 BC. They were important in developing the alphabet from which later Middle Eastern and European alphabets are descended.

**pictograph** A symbol or picture that stands for a word or group of words. HIEROGLYPHIC writing used a form of pictograph. Chinese writing is based entirely on pictographs.

**plantation farming** A method of farming in which an entire large estate is devoted to farming one profitable crop, such as cotton, tea, or tobacco.

**plebeians** The name given to the ordinary working people of Roman society, who were not slaves.

**PLO** (Palestine Liberation Organization) Founded in 1964 as a terrorist organization, now the majority party of the Palestinian people and the elected ruling party in Palestinian-controlled territory (GAZA and the West Bank except Jerusalem).

**polytheism** Belief in several gods.

**pope** The title of the BISHOP of Rome, head of the ROMAN CATHOLIC church.

**prime minister** From the 18th century, the senior minister of the British government.

**privateer** A pirate licensed by the government of one state to attack the ships of rival states.

**Protestantism** A religious movement that broke away from the the ROMAN CATHOLIC church in the 16th century REFORMATION. Its name is derived from the "Protestation" issued by a number of German princes in 1529 against Charles V's refusal to allow the princes of the HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE to decide the religion of their own states. *See also* CALVINISM, LUTHERANISM.

**province** A subdivision of an empire, from the Latin word *provincia*. Any area conquered by the Romans was ruled as a province under a Roman governor. In the PERSIAN empire, provinces were known as satrapies and their governors as satraps.

**Ptolemaic** The dynasty founded by the Greek general Ptolemy that ruled Egypt from 305 BC–30 BC. Its last ruler was the famous Cleopatra VII.

**puppet state** A state that retains its own identity but is under the political control of another.

**Puritans** English PROTESTANTS of the 16th and 17th century who were followers of CALVINISM.

**pyramid** A building with a square base and four sloping triangular sides. Enormous stone pyramids were used as royal tombs in ancient Egypt.

**Qing** The official name of the MANCHU dynasty that ruled China from 1644 to 1911.

**quipu** A device, made of knots of colored strings, used by the Incas for keeping records of supplies and taxes.

**Raj** The British empire in India, 1858–1947.

**recession** A period of reduced economic activity, usually lasting less than a year.



**Reformation** The demand for reform of perceived abuses within the ROMAN CATHOLIC church that created a religious and political divide in western Europe during the 16th century, resulting in PROTESTANTISM.

**refugee** A person who is forced to leave his or her country by war, or for political or economic reasons.

**Renaissance** A cultural movement (literally meaning "rebirth") that began in Italy in the 14th century and had spread throughout Europe by the 16th century. A revival of interest in classical learning gave rise to a flowering in art, architecture, literature, philosophy, and science. See also HUMANISM.

**reparations** Payments made by the loser of a war to the winner to compensate for the costs of that war. Damaging reparations were imposed on Germany after World War I.

**republic** A form of government in which elected representatives of the people have supreme power. The chief of state is not a hereditary monarch but an elected officer, usually a president (as in the United States). The Republic was the name the Romans referred to their state as.

**revolution** A sudden and usually violent change of regime.

**Roman Catholicism** The branch of Christianity that recognizes the supreme authority of the pope. It was the only church in western Europe until the REFORMATION.

**Romanov** The ruling dynasty of the Russian empire from 1613 to 1917.

**Romanticism** An artistic and intellectual movement of the late 18th to mid 19th centuries in Europe. It emphasized the beauty of nature and the value of emotion over reason.

**Rus** VIKINGS who settled in eastern Europe (Russia) in the 9th century.

**Safavid** The ruling dynasty of Persia (Iran) from 1502 to 1736.

**samurai** The hereditary warrior class of medieval Japan.

**Scythians** A fierce NOMAD people who dominated the plains of Central Asia from about 700–300 BC. The western Scythians, living north of the Black Sea, traded with the Greeks.

**Sea Peoples** Invaders of Egypt in the 13th and 12th centuries BC, probably from the northern Aegean.

**Seleucid** The dynasty founded by the Greek general Seleucus that ruled the Middle East from 312 BC–64 BC.

**Seljuk** A TURKIC dynasty from Central Asia that conquered most of the Middle East between 1037 and 1080.

**Senate** The ruling assembly of ancient Rome; originally the king's council. Under the REPUBLIC its members were appointed for life and advised officials such as the consuls.

**serf** A hereditary class of peasant farmer.

**serfdom** A medieval institution in which peasant farmers were owned by their landlords and bound for life to the soil. It survived in parts of Europe until the 19th century.

**Seven Years War** A major European conflict (1756–63) in which France, Austria, Sweden, and Russia were aligned against Britain, Prussia, and Hanover. Much of the fighting took place in Europe's colonial empires: the North American phase of the war is known as the FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR. France lost most of its overseas empire to Britain. Prussia emerged with the major gains in Europe.

**Shang** The first historical dynasty of ancient China. It ruled from about 1766–1122 BC.

**Shia** A Muslim minority, "the party of Ali," which broke with SUNNI Islam after a civil war in the 7th century. It is the form of Islam followed in Iran.

**Shinto** The POLYTHEISTIC ancient religion of Japan, still practiced today.

**shogun** The title of "commander in chief" held by the hereditary military dictators who ruled Japan from 1192 until the MEIJI RESTORATION of 1868. The emperor was relegated to a position of purely theoretical supremacy.

**Silk Route** An overland trade route across Asia linking China to Europe.

**Slavs** The largest ethnic and linguistic group of eastern Europe, including Poles, Russians, Belorussians, Ukrainians, Czechs, Slovaks, Slovenians, Croats, and Serbs.

**smelting** Extracting metal from mineral ores by heating them to very high temperatures.

**soviet** The Russian word for council. Under the Communist system, soviets were elected at all levels of government in the Soviet Union.

**space race** Competition between the United States and Soviet Union to be the first to develop a program for exploring space.

**Sputnik** The world's first space satellite, launched by the Soviet Union in 1957, beginning the SPACE RACE.

**stela** A large stone slab decorated with symbols or inscriptions.

**Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT)** Negotiations to limit nuclear arms, held between the United States and Soviet Union from 1969–79, as part of DÉTENTE.

**sub-Saharan Africa** The part of Africa south of the Sahara desert, which acts as a barrier dividing it from the coastal regions of North Africa.

**sultan** The ruler of a Muslim country, from the Arabic word meaning "rule."

**Sumerians** The people of Sumer, southern MESOPOTAMIA, who developed

the world's first civilization from c.3400–2000 BC.

**Sung** The dynasty that ruled China from 960 to 1279. It was overthrown by the MONGOLS.

**Sunni** The larger, orthodox branch of ISLAM that acknowledges the first four CALIPHS as Muhammad's successors. See also SHIA.

**superpower** The United States or Soviet Union, the world's two largest countries during the COLD WAR era and the first to have nuclear weapons.

**Tang** The ruling dynasty of China from 618 to 907.

**Taoism** (also called Daoism) A Chinese religious and philosophical system that, along with CONFUCIANISM, has shaped Chinese thought for 2,000 years, though many of the truths it stresses, such as individual freedom and spontaneity, are at variance with Confucianism.

**Tatars** (also spelled Tartars) A nomadic Turkic people of the south Russian steppes who were conquered by the Mongols in the 13th century and absorbed into the khanate of the Golden Horde, which dominated Russia until the late 15th century. As a result, the Mongols were frequently known as Tatars or Tartars.

**terrorism** The use of indiscriminate violence to achieve a political goal.

**Teutonic Knights** A German CRUSADING order founded in 1190 to convert the PAGAN peoples around the Baltic Sea.

**Third World** The poorer countries of the world in relation to the first (western) and second (COMMUNIST) worlds.

**tiger economy** One of the fast-growing economies of Asia that developed in the 1970s and 1980s, but were in DEPRESSION at the end of the 1990s.

**Treaty of Tordesillas** The agreement between Spain and Portugal in 1494 to divide the NEW WORLD.

**Treaty of Versailles** The treaty that ended World War I. The terms it imposed on Germany helped bring about the rise of the NAZIS, leading to World War II.

**treaty port** In 19th-century Asia, a port forced to open to western imperial powers who wanted to trade with the host country.

**tribe** A large social group comprising numerous families or CLANS united by ancestry, CULTURE, and territory.

**tribune** One of 10 representatives elected by the PLEBEIANS of ancient Rome to serve their interests.

**tribute** A payment, usually made in gold and silver but sometimes in people, by a conquered kingdom to the victor.

**Trojan War** A legendary war fought between the Greeks and the Trojans (the people of the city of Troy, on the coast of ANATOLIA).

**Turkic Peoples** belonging to a major linguistic group of Central Asia.

**tyrant** In ancient Greece, a ruler who seized power unlawfully. Tyrants were not necessarily oppressive rulers—this association came later.

**Umayyad** An ARAB dynasty that ruled the ISLAMIC world from 661 to 750. It was overthrown by the ABBASIDS.

**United Nations** An international organization, founded in 1945 to promote cooperation and peace.

**universal suffrage** The right of every citizen to vote in political elections.

**vassal** A person under the protection of a FEUDAL lord; a state that is subordinate or dependent to another.

**Vietcong** South Vietnamese GUERRILLA forces who fought the U.S.-backed South Vietnamese Army.

**Vikings** Scandinavian pirates who raided western Europe and Russia between the 9th and 11th centuries.

**Visigoth** "Western Goths," a Germanic people, related to the OSTROGOTHS, who invaded the Roman empire in 376. They founded a kingdom in southwest France and Spain (418–62), which was destroyed in the ARAB conquest of 711.

**war crimes** Acts that violate the accepted international rules of war. They include starting a war of aggression, mistreating civilians, and CRIMES AGAINST HUMANITY.

**warlord** An independent military leader who controls limited territory.

**Warsaw Pact** A Soviet-led military alliance of Eastern Europe, formed in 1955 to counter NATO.

**yurt** A large circular tent, made of skins, used by the MONGOL nomads of Central Asia.

**Zealots** Members of a Jewish sect who fought against Roman rule in Palestine around the time of Christ and were defeated at Masada.

**Zhou** The second and longest-ruling dynasty of China, which held power from 1122 BC–256 BC.

**ziggurat** In MESOPOTAMIA, a temple of rectangular tiers (large at the base, small at the top), linked by outside staircases and topped by a shrine.

**Zionism** Jewish nationalism, which sought to reclaim the Holy Land of the Jewish Bible. It began in late-19th-century Europe and caused a wave of immigration to Palestine.

**Zoroastrianism** A religion founded by Zoroaster (also known as Zarathustra), a Persian prophet of the 6th century BC, involving belief in a universal conflict between good and evil. It is still practiced by a few isolated communities in Iran, and also by the Parsis of western India, especially around Mumbai (Bombay).



# FURTHER READING

- Bahn, Paul G. (ed.) *The Story of Archaeology*. New York: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1996.
- Barber, Malcom C. *The Two Cities: Medieval Europe 1050–1320*. New York: Routledge, 1993.
- Barracrough, Geoffrey (ed.) *The Times Atlas of World History*. 4th edition, New York: Hammond, 1993.
- Blanning, T.C.W. *The Oxford Illustrated History of Modern Europe*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Blunden, Caroline and Elvin, Mark. *Cultural Atlas of China*. New York: Facts on File, 1998.
- Briggs, Asa, and Clavin, Patricia. *Modern Europe 1789–1989*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996.
- Brown, Dee. *The American West*. New York: Scribner, 1994.
- Buckley Ebre, Patricia. *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press, 1996.
- Burell, Roy, and Connolly, Peter. *Oxford First Ancient History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
- de Blois, Lukas, and van der Spek, R. *An Introduction to the Ancient World*. New York: Routledge, 1997.
- Coe, Michael. *The Maya*. 5th ed., New York: Thames and Hudson, 1993.
- Colclutt, Martin, Jansen, Marieus and Kumakura, Isao. *Cultural Atlas of Japan*. New York: Facts on File, 1988.
- Conolly, Peter. *The Ancient Greece of Odysseus*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- Conolly, Peter. *The Holy Land*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- Cunliffe, Barry (ed.) *Prehistoric Europe: An Illustrated History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
- Daniel, C. (ed.). *Chronicle of America*. 2nd ed. New York: DK Publishing, 1995.
- Drinkwater, J.F., Drummond, Andrew, Freeman, Charles. *World of the Romans*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1993.
- Dukes, Paul. *A History of Russia c.882–1996*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press, 1998.
- Fagan, Brian M., and Scarre, Christopher. *Ancient Civilizations*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1996.
- Freeman, Charles. *The Legacy of Ancient Egypt*. New York: Facts on File, 1997.
- Freeze, Gregory (ed.) *Russia: A History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
- Hanawalt, Barbara A. *The Middle Ages: An Illustrated History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Harris, Roberta. *The World of the Bible*. New York: Thames and Hudson, 1995.
- Haywood, John et al. *Atlas of World History*. New York: M.E. Sharpe, 1997.
- Haywood, John. *Historical Atlas of the Vikings*. New York: Penguin, 1995.
- Header, Harry. *Europe in the 19th Century*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1988.
- Homburger, E. *Historical Atlas of North America*. New York: Penguin, 1995.
- Hornblower, Simon and Spawforth, Anthony. *The Oxford Companion to Classical Civilization*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Hosking, Geoffrey. *Russia: People and Empire 1552–1917*. New York: Fontana, 1998.
- Howard, Michael E. and Louis, William R. *The Oxford History of the Twentieth Century*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1998.
- Iriye, Akira. *Japan and the Wider World*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1997.
- Johnson, Gordon. *Cultural Atlas of India*. New York: Facts on File, 1995.
- Kulke, Hermann and Rothermund, Dietmar. *A History of India*. New York: Routledge, 1997.
- Lewis, Bernard. *The Middle East*. New York: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1995.
- McCarthy, Justin. *The Ottoman Turks: An Introductory History to 1923*. New York, Longman, 1997.
- Matthew, Donald. *Atlas of Medieval Europe*. New York: Facts on File, 1983.
- Middleton, Richard. *Colonial America: A History 1585–1776*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers, 1996.
- Milner, O'Connor, and Sandweiss. *The Oxford History of the American West*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1995.
- Moseley, Michael. *The Incas and their Ancestors*. New York: Thames and Hudson, 1993.
- Murray, Jocelyn (ed.) *Cultural Atlas of Africa*. New York: Facts on File, 1998.
- The Oxford Atlas of Exploration*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
- Riasanovsky, Nicholas V. *A History of Russia*. 5th ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1993.
- Roaf, Michael. *Cultural Atlas of Mesopotamia and the Ancient Near East*. New York: Facts on File, 1990.
- Roberts, J.M. *A Concise History of the World*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1976.
- Roberts, John. *Penguin History of Europe*. New York: Penguin, 1996.
- Robinson, Francis (ed.) *The Cambridge Illustrated History of the Islamic World*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press, 1998.
- Sawyer, Peter. *The Oxford Illustrated History of the Vikings*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
- Schoeter, Daniel J. *Israel: An Illustrated History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- Thomas, Hugh. *The Slave Trade: The Story of the African Slave Trade 1440–1870*. New York: Simon and Shuster, 1997.
- Tindall, George B., and Shi, David E. *America: A Narrative History*. New York: W.W. Norton and Co., 1996.
- Weinberg, G.L. *A World at Arms: A Global History of World War II*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press, 1994.

# INDEX

When using this index, please note that page numbers in *italics* refer to captions. Page numbers in **bold** type refer to the maps; the number and letter that follow give the grid reference. (For reasons of space, places are not indexed every time they appear on a map—if a map reference is given, it indicates that particular information concerning the place is shown there.) The modern country name is given in brackets.

**A**  
 Abbasid caliphate 83, 83  
 Abbas I (the Great) of Persia 155–156, 157  
 Abd al-Rahman I, founder of Córdoba caliphate 83  
 Abdera (Greece) 43 2G

Aberdeen (U.K.) 139 1B  
 Aboriginal Australians 119 6N, 167, 167 5N, 169, 172, 175  
 Aboukir, battle of (1798, 1799) 147 6I, 168  
 Abu Bakr, first caliph 81, 83  
 Abu'l Hasan, painter 157  
 Abu Rawash (Egypt) 27 1B  
 Abusir (Egypt) 27 2B  
 Abydos (Egypt) 27 3B  
 Abydos (Turkey) 43 2H  
 Acapulco (Mexico) 104 3B, 122 3D  
 Acatlan (Mexico) 104  
 Acco, Phoenician city 31 3B  
 Accra (Ghana) 163 4B, 193 4B  
 Achaia (Greece) 51 3E  
 Acragas (Sicily) 42 4A  
 Actium, battle of 51 3E, 53  
 Adab, Mesopotamian city 23 4G  
 Adal (Africa) 101 4G, 118 4J, 121, 164, 165

Aden (Yemen) 32, 101 3G  
 Adowa, battle of (1896) 176, 194  
 Adrianople *see* Edirne  
 Adulis, Red Sea port 32, 102  
 Aegean Sea 36, 38–41, 43 3G  
 Aegina (Greece) 43 4F  
 Aegyptus *see* Egypt  
 Aeneid (Virgil) 53  
 Aenus (Turkey) 43 2H  
 Aeschylus, Greek dramatist 45  
 Afghanistan/Afghans 83, 121, 155–156, 157, 167 3K, 217 3K, 221 3K, 222  
 Soviet invasion 207, 220, 221  
 Africa 67, 120–121, 154, 162–165, 162–163, 167, 175, 176, 177, 179, 192–195, 192–193  
 early kingdoms 100–103, 100–101  
 Roman province 51 3C  
*see also* North Africa; trade

African Americans 182, 219, 219  
 African National Congress (A.N.C.) 195  
 Afrikaners 172, 172 6I, 175, 176, 192, 194, 194, 195  
 Agade, Mesopotamian city 23 4F, 24, 25  
 Agadir (Morocco) 80 2A  
 Agamemnon, king of Mycenae 40, 41  
 Aghtamar (Turkey) 77 3H  
 Agra (India) 157  
 Agram (Zagreb, Croatia) 185 3D  
 agriculture *see* farming  
 Ahab, king of Israel 32  
 Ahar, Indus valley site 56  
 Ahmed Gran, ruler of Adal 164, 165  
 Aigun (China) 197 1H  
 'Ain Jalut, battle of (1260) 95  
 Ainu people 96, 97 1F  
 Air (Africa) 101 3C, 118 4H, 163 3C

Aix (France) 135 4E  
 Ajanta (India) 55 3C  
 Akan states 101 4B  
 Akbar, Mughal emperor 156  
 Akhmatova, Anna, Russian poet 206  
 Akita (Japan) 97 3F  
 Akkad, Mesopotamian city 23 4G  
 Akrotiri 38, 39 4C  
 Akshak, Mesopotamian city 23 4F  
 Aksum *see* Axum  
 Alabama 181 4I, 182  
 Alacomenae (Greece) 43 3F  
 Alamgirpur, Indus valley site 56  
 Alamut (Iran) 92 2C  
 Alaric, Visigothic general 71  
 Alaska 152, 166, 176, 176 1, 180, 180 1B, 216 1, 220 1A  
 Albania 176 2I, 191, 201 6J, 216 2H, 220 2I  
 Albany (U.S.A.) 126, 127 4G

Alberta (Canada) 181 2F  
 Albigenian Crusade 86  
 Alcala (Portugal) 35  
 Aleppo (Syria) 23 3D, 29, 31 1C, 77 3G, 81 2E, 92 2B, 155 3F  
 Aleria (Corsica) 51 3C  
 Alesia, battle of (52 BC) 50 2B  
 Alexander the Great 29, 33, 45, 46–49, 46–47, 47, 51, 57, 57  
 Alexander I, czar of Russia 153  
 Alexandria (Egypt) 32, 42, 46 3C, 48, 49, 51 4E, 69 4F, 77 4E, 81 2D, 87, 101 1F  
 Alexius I Comnenus, Byzantine emperor 78  
 Alfred the Great, king of Wessex 75  
 Al-Fustat (Egypt) 81 3E  
 Algeria 172, 175, 192, 193 2C, 195, 200 8F, 216 3H, 220 3G



- war of independence 216, 219
- Algiers (N. Africa) 118 3H, 135 5D, 154 38, 166 3H
- Almeria (Spain) 154 3B
- Almohad caliphate 84 4B, 85 5D
- Alsace-Lorraine (France) 185 3B, 187
- Altar de Sacrificios (Mexico) 105 3F
- Alwa (Africa) 101 3F, 102
- Al-Yamama (Saudi Arabia) 81 3F
- Amalfi (Italy) 76 28
- Amaravati (India) 55 4D
- Amasia (Turkey) 77 2G
- Ambato (Ecuador) 108 3A
- Ambracia (Greece) 43 3E
- Americas 118-120, 167, 168  
see also Mesoamerica;  
North America; South America; Spanish American empire; United States of America
- Amerindians 121, 122, 124, 125, 125  
see also Native Americans
- Amida (Diyarbakir, Turkey) 69 3G
- Amiens (France) 143 4C
- Treaty of 146, 148
- Amman (Jordan) 213 3B
- Ammon (Jordan) 31 38
- Amri, Indus valley site 56
- Amsterdam (Netherlands) 135 2D, 138, 150 4A
- Amur (China) 159 1H, 161
- Anatolia 23 2C, 25, 32, 40, 42, 46, 46 2C, 49, 51, 51 3F, 69 3F, 73 3G, 76, 77 3F, 78-79, 79, 83, 120, 154, 155 3F
- An (China) 89 2F
- Ancona (Italy) 69 2D
- Ancyra (Ankara, Turkey) 51 3F, 69 3F, 77 3F
- Andahuaylas (Peru) 108 2C
- Andes 119, 122, 123 5F, 123 7G, 125
- Andong (S. Korea) 97 4A
- Angers (France) 84 3B
- Angkor (Cambodia) 113 4M, 115
- Angles 72
- Anglo-Boer Wars (1899-1900) 176, 192, 194, 194, 195, 195
- Anglo-Saxons 72, 72, 72, 75
- Angola 125, 164, 165, 166 5H, 172 5H, 175, 176 5H, 192, 193 5D, 193 6D, 220 5H
- civil war 219  
see also Luanda
- Angra Pequena 103
- Aniba (Nubia) 29
- An Lushan Rebellion 89-90, 90, 91
- Anna, empress of Russia 153
- Annam (Vietnam) 93 3G, 119 4M, 158, 159 6E, 160, 167 4M  
see also Vietnam
- Annapolis (U.S.A.) 126, 127 5F
- Antarctica 13, 13, 167, 223
- Anthela (Greece) 43 3F
- Antietam, battle of (1862) 182, 182
- Anrigua (Guatemala) 123 3D
- Antiochia (Antakya, Turkey) 32, 48, 51 3G, 77 3G, 79, 81 2E, 87
- Principality of 79
- Antiochus III, king of Syria 49
- Antonine Wall 68 1A
- Antoninus Pius, Roman emperor 68
- Antony, Mark, Roman general 49, 53
- Antwerp (Belgium) 135 2D
- siege of (1576) 137
- Anyang (China) 58
- Anzio (Italy) 201 6H
- Aornus, battle of (327 BC) 47 2J
- Apache 182
- apartheid 195, 222
- Aphrodisias (Turkey) 51 3F
- Apollonia (Albania) 43 2D
- Apollonia (Bulgaria) 43 1H
- Aqaba, battle of (1917) 189 8J
- Aquileia (Italy) 32, 51 2D, 69 2D, 73 2D, 85 3D
- Aquincum (Budapest, Hungary) 51 2D
- Aquitania, Roman province 50 2B
- Arab conquests 72, 76-77, 77, 79, 80-83, 80-81, 89, 102, 112
- Arabia 66, 68, 115, 193 2G
- Arabic language 82
- Arab-Israeli conflict 212-214, 213, 215, 217, 219, 220
- Arab nationalism 212, 213, 219
- Arabs 172 3J, 175, 176 3J, 192, 212, 219
- in Africa 175, 192
- Arab States, League of 220-221
- Arafat, Yasser, Palestinian leader 214, 215
- Aragon, kingdom of 84 4C, 86
- Aral Sea (Russia) 223
- Aram (Syria) 31 2C
- Arausio (Orange, France) 50 2B
- Aravak people 122
- Arbela (Iraq) 47 2E
- Arbil (Iraq) 23 3F
- Archangel (Russia) 151 2E, 201 2N, 204 2C
- Archimedes, Greek mathematician 48
- Ardebil (Iran) 81 3F
- Arelate (Arles, France) 32
- Argentina 172 6D, 174, 176 6D, 216 6D, 220, 220 6D
- Argentine Confederation 124
- Argentorate (Strasbourg, France) 51 2C
- Argos (Greece) 39 4B, 42, 43 4F
- Arguin (Mauritania) 103, 162 2A
- Arhus (Denmark) 85 2D
- Arian Christians 72, 82
- Arica (Chile) 123 6F
- Aristotle, Greek philosopher 44, 45, 46
- Arizona 181 4F, 182
- Arkansas 181 4H, 182
- Ark of the Covenant 30
- Arkhanes (Crete) 39
- Arkwright, Richard, British inventor 145, 168
- Arles (France) 68 2B, 73 3C
- Armant (Egypt) 27 4B
- Armenia 32, 47 1E, 64 3I, 66, 69 3H, 71, 77 2H, 207, 220 2J
- arms race 218, 221
- Arnhem, battle of (1944) 201 4G
- Arrezo (Italy) 85 4D
- Artcmision, battle of (480 BC) 45
- Art of War, *The* (Sun Tzu) 61
- Arvad (Syria) 23 4D, 31 28
- Aryans 19, 19 3K, 54-55, 56-57
- Asante, west African state 162, 163 48, 166 4G, 172 4G, 195
- Ashikaga shogunate 99, 99
- Ashoka, ruler of India 54-55, 55, 56-57
- Ashur, Mesopotamian city 23 3F, 24, 25
- Ashurbanipal, king of Assyria 25, 25
- Asia, Roman province 51 3F
- Aspern, battle of (1809) 147 3F
- Assyria 18 3J, 22-23, 23 3F, 25, 25, 29, 31 2D, 32, 32, 33, 47
- Astrakhan (Russia) 155 2G
- astronomy 82
- Asturias, kingdom of 72, 72 3B
- Asuncion Mita (Guatemala) 105 4G
- Asunción (Paraguay) 123 7H
- Aswa (Africa) 163 3G
- Aswan (Egypt) 101 2F
- Asyut (Egypt) 27 3B
- Atahualpa, Inca emperor 108, 111
- Atapuerca (Spain) 10 2G
- Atazia (Mexico) 105 2E
- Athelstan, king of Wessex 75
- Athens (Greece) 32, 39 4B, 42-45, 42, 43 4F, 45, 46 2A, 48, 48, 51 3E, 69 3E, 73 3F, 77 3D, 78, 87, 201 7J
- Athos, Mount (Greece) 77 2D, 79, 112 3I
- Athribis (Egypt) 27 1B
- Atico (Peru) 108 2D
- Atisa, Buddhist missionary 88
- Atlatomulco (Mexico) 104 1B
- Atlanta, battle of (1864) 182
- Atlantic, battle of the (1940-43) 202, 203
- atomic weapons see nuclear weapons
- Atropatene, Persian province 47 2F
- Attila, Hunnish leader 71, 92
- Auch (France) 72 3C
- Augsburg (Augusta Vindelicorum, Germany) 51 2C, 135 3F
- Peace of 136, 137, 138
- Augusta Treverorum (Trier, Germany) 51 2C, 69 1C
- Augusta Vindelicorum see Augsburg
- Augustus, Roman emperor 53, 65, 68, 71
- Aurangzeb, Mughal emperor 156, 157
- Auschwitz (Poland) 202, 202, 202
- Austerlitz, battle of (1805) 147 3F, 149
- Australia 10, 13, 119 6N, 167, 167, 167 5N, 169, 172, 173, 173 6N, 174, 175, 177 6N, 178, 198, 217 6N, 221 5N
- Austria 184, 185 3D, 186, 191, 201, 216 2H, 220 2H
- duchy of 84, 87
- empire 134, 135, 136, 141, 142, 145, 147, 148, 149, 149, 154, 155 2D, 166 2I, 179, 184, 185 3D, 186
- Austrian Succession, War of the (1740-48) 145
- Austro-Hungarian empire (1867-1918) 179, 184, 186, 187, 187, 191
- Austro-Prussian War see Seven Weeks War
- automobile 177, 183, 183
- Avanti, Indian kingdom 55 3C
- Avaris (Egypt) 27 1B, 29
- Avar khanate 77 1D
- Avars 76
- Avebury (U.K.) 35
- Avignon (France) 113, 135 4D, 139 4C
- Awan, Mesopotamian city 23 4G
- Axim (Ghana) 163 48
- Axima (France) 51 2C
- Axis powers (World War II) 191, 200-203, 200-201, 202
- Axum (Aksum, Africa) 64 4I, 67, 101 3F, 102, 103, 112 4I
- Ayacucho (Peru) 108 2C
- Ayaviri (Peru) 108 1D
- Ayutla (Mexico) 104 3B
- Ayyubid sultanate 92 2B
- Azcapotzalco (Mexico) 104 2B
- Azerbaijan 155, 155 3G, 207, 220 2J, 222
- Azov (Russia) 155 2F
- Aztecs 104, 104, 106-107, 107, 118, 121, 122, 124
- B**
- Ba (China) 59 3C
- Baalath (Israel) 31 4B
- Babur, Mughal emperor 95, 119, 121, 156, 157
- Babylon, Mesopotamian city 18 3J, 22-23, 23 4F, 24, 25, 32-33, 47, 47 3E, 48, 49
- Jews exiled to 112
- Babylonia 32
- Bactra see Balkh
- Badajoz, battle of (1812) 146 5A
- Baecula, battle of (208 BC) 50 3A
- Baetica, Roman province 50 3A
- Baghdad (Iraq) 83, 83, 92 2B, 94, 155 3F, 215
- battle of (1917) 189 7K
- Bagirmi (Africa) 163 3D
- Bahia (Brazil) 123 6J
- Bahrain 155 4G, 163 2G
- Baku (Azerbaijan) 204 4C
- Balathista, battle of (1014) 77, 77 2D
- Balboa, Vasco Núñez de, Spanish explorer 125
- Bali 115
- Balkans 79, 120, 154, 168, 179, 187
- Balkh (Bactra, Afghanistan) 47 2J, 55 1B, 81 2H, 88 2A, 92 2D
- ball game, sacred 104
- Baltimore (U.S.A.) 127 5F, 131 4E
- Bamberg (Germany) 135 2F
- Bampur, Indus valley site 56
- Bandung (Indonesia) 219
- Bangladesh 209 3B, 211, 211, 217 3L, 221 3L
- Bangor (Wales) 72 1B
- Banpo (China) 58
- Bantu-speakers 64 3H, 67, 100, 101
- Baol (Africa) 162 3A
- Baraawe (Somalia) 101 4G
- barbarian invasions 71, 71
- Barbaricum (Pakistan) 55 38
- Barbarossa, operation 202
- Barbary Coast 154 3B
- Barca (Poland) 35 3E
- Barcelona (Spain) 72 3C, 84 4C, 135 4D
- battle of (1808) 147 4C
- Barger-Oosterveld (Netherlands) 35 2C
- Bari (Barium, Italy) 32, 73 3E, 76 2C, 85 4E
- barley 14, 16, 17, 34
- Barqa (Libya) 80 2D
- Barumini (Sardinia) 35 4D
- Barygaza (India) 55 3B
- Basel (Switzerland) 135 3E
- Basil II, Byzantine emperor 77-78, 79
- Basle (Switzerland) 85 3C
- Basque language 69
- Basutoland (Africa) 8 6I, 12 6I3I
- Batavian Republic 145
- Baton Rouge (U.S.A.) 131 5B
- Batumi (Rep. of Georgia) 204 4C
- Bautzen, battle of (1813) 147 2E
- Bavaria 135 3F, 136, 139 3E, 147 3E, 185 3C
- duchy of 84
- Bay of Bengal, battle of (1942) 198
- Bayeux (France) 84 3B
- Bay of Pigs invasion 219
- Bayreuth (Germany) 139 2E
- Becan (Mexico) 105 2G
- Bechuanaland (Africa) 193 7E, 195
- Bedouin soldiers 81
- Begin, Menachim, prime minister of Israel 213
- Beijing (China) 89 2F, 93 2G, 95, 95, 113 3O, 119 3M, 158, 158, 159 3F, 160-161, 160, 197 3G, 199, 209, 209 2D, 220, 223
- Beirut (Lebanon) 213 2B
- Bela (Pakistan) 47 4J
- Belarus 207, 220 2I
- Bele do Para (Brazil) 123 5I
- Belgica, Roman province 50 1B
- Belgium 172, 172 2H, 174, 176 2H, 184, 185 2A, 188, 188 4C, 191, 200 4F, 202, 202, 203, 216 2H, 220 2H
- colonies 176-177, 192-193, 194, 194, 195, 219
- Belgrade (Yugoslavia) 69 2D, 73 3E, 77 2D, 85 4E, 135 4H, 201 6J
- battle of (1914) 188 5G
- Benedict, St. 74
- Benevento (Italy) 135 4F, 139 4E
- Benguela (Angola) 163 6D
- Benin (Africa) 101 4C, 102, 103, 118 4H, 162, 162, 163 4C, 165, 165, 166 4H
- Bennington, battle of (1777) 131 3F
- Bentonville, battle of (1865) 182
- Berbera (Somalia) 101 3G
- Berelekh (Siberia) 11 1O
- Berenice (Benghazi, Libya) 32
- Berenice (Egypt) 32, 69 5F
- Berezina, battle of (1812) 147 2H
- Berezov (Russia) 151 2G
- Berg (Germany) 147 2D
- Bergen (Norway) 85 1C, 86
- Beringia land bridge 10
- Berlin (Germany) 135 2F, 143 3E, 185 2C, 189, 201, 201 4H, 202, 203, 218
- Conference (1884) 192, 195
- Congress of 176
- Wall 216, 219, 222
- Berne (Switzerland) 85 3D, 135 3E
- Bessarabia (Moldova) 147 3H, 155 2E
- Beth-horon (Israel) 31 4B
- Bethlehem (West Bank) 112 3I, 213 3B
- Beth-shean (Israel) 31 3B
- Bezeklik, Buddhist temples 67
- Bhopal (India) 220
- Bhutan 158 5C, 160, 167 3L, 209 3B, 211, 217 3L
- Biafran civil war (1967-70) 217, 219
- Bialystok, battle of (1941) 201 4J
- Bible 22, 23, 30-33, 114
- Bigo (Africa) 101 4F
- Bindusara, ruler of India 54-55, 57
- Birka (Sweden) 73 1E, 75
- Birmingham (U.K.) 143 3B, 187, 200 4E
- Biskupin (Poland) 35 2E
- Bismarck, Prince Otto von, German statesman 187
- Bismarck Sea, battle of (1943) 198
- Bitthynia, Persian province 46 1B, 51 3F
- Black Death 86, 86-87, 87, 95
- Black Sea 32, 42, 71, 75, 77 2F, 81 1E, 87, 92 2B, 93, 119, 152, 153
- Blaj (Romania) 185 3E
- Bluefish Cave (Canada) 10 B1
- Bluff rockshelter (Australia) 11 7O
- boats see ships and boats
- Bobangara (New Guinea) 11 5O
- Bobangi (Africa) 163 4D
- Bobbio (Italy) 73 3D
- Bodhi Gaya (India) 55 3D, 113 3K
- Boers see Afrikaners
- Bohemia 134, 135 3F, 136, 137, 143 4E, 147 3E
- Bohemian War (1613-23) 138, 139



- Boleyn, Anne, English queen 136
- Bolívar, Simón, South American liberator 125, 172, 174
- Bolivia 124, 172 5D, 176, 176 5D, 216 5D, 220 5D
- Bologna (Italy) 85 4D, 87
- Bolsheviks 191, 204-206, 204-205, 207
- Bolton (U.K.) 143 3B
- Bonampak (Mexico) 105 3F
- Bonaparte, Napoleon *see* Napoleon I
- Bonn (Germany) 135 2E
- Bonny (Nigeria) 163 4C
- Bononia (Italy) 35 3D
- Bordeaux (Burdigala, France) 50 2B, 68 2B, 72 3B, 75, 80 1A, 84 4B, 86, 134 4C
- Border Cave (S. Africa) 10 6I
- Borga (Finland) 85 1F
- Borg in-Nadur (Malta) 35 4D
- Borobudur (Indonesia) 113 5M
- Borodino, battle of (1812) 147 1J, 149
- Bosnia-Herzegovina 179, 187, 220 2H, 221, 222
- Boston (U.S.A.) 126, 127 4G, 131 3F, 164
- Boston Massacre 130, 133
- Boston Tea Party 130, 130, 133
- Bou Nouara (Algeria) 35
- Bourges (France) 72 2C, 84 3C, 135 3D
- Bouvines, battle of (1214) 86
- bow and arrow 92, 94, 99
- Boxer Uprising 176, 196, 197, 199
- Boxgrove (U.K.) 10 2G
- boyars* 150, 150
- Brandenburg (Germany) 135 2F, 139 2E, 147 2E
- Brandenburg-Prussia 143
- Brandywine, battle of (1777) 131 3E
- Brass (Nigeria) 163 4C, 164
- Brazil 118, 123, 124, 124, 125, 162, 166 5E, 172, 172 5E, 174, 175, 176 5E, 192, 216 5E, 220 5E
- Breitenfeld, battle of (1631) 139 2E
- Breslau (Poland) 85 3E
- Brest-Litovsk (Belarus) 189 3G
- Treaty of (1917) 188-189, 191
- Brezhnev, Leonid, Soviet leader 206, 207
- Brigantium (La Coruna, Spain) 34 3A, 68 2A
- Brindisi 69 3D
- Bristol (U.K.) 164, 164, 200 4E
- Britain (United Kingdom) 65, 65, 68-69, 71, 72, 75, 140, 141, 142, 142, 145, 146, 148-149, 167, 168, 169
- Battle of (1940) 200 4E, 202, 203
- colonies of 123, 125, 126-133, 126, 127, 146, 154, 156, 157, 161, 166-167, 167, 169, 172-173, 173, 174, 176, 176-177, 192, 192-193, 194-195, 196, 218
- see also* England; Scotland
- British Columbia (Canada) 180, 180 2E, 183
- British East India Company 156, 161
- Brno (Brünn, Czech Republic) 185 3D
- Bronze Age 34-36, 34, 37, 38-41, 58
- Bruce, Robert, king of Scotland 86
- Bruges (Belgium) 84 3C, 86
- Brundisium (Brindisi, Italy) 51 3D, 69 3D
- Brunei 209 5D, 221 4M
- Brünn *see* Brno
- Brussels (Belgium) 135 2D, 185 2A
- Bubastis (Egypt) 27 1B
- Bucephala (Pakistan) 47 3K
- Bucharest (Romania) 185 4F, 201 6K
- Buda (Hungary) 185 3D
- Buddha (Siddhartha Gautama) 55, 57, 57, 112, 115
- Buddhism 54, 54-55, 56, 56, 57, 57, 61, 67, 112-113, 113, 115, 161
- in China 91, 112, 115
- in Japan 96, 96, 97, 97, 99, 115
- Tibetan 88, 88, 112, 115
- Zen 97, 97
- Buenos Aires (Argentina) 123 8H
- Bukhara (Uzbekistan) 81 2H, 92 2D
- Bulawayo (Zimbabwe) 193 7E
- Bulgar (Russia) 92 1C
- Bulgaria 154, 155 2E, 176, 176 21, 179, 191, 201 6J, 202, 207, 216 21, 220 21
- Bulgar khanate 73 2F, 76-77, 77, 78, 79
- Bulge, battle of the (1944-45) 201 4G, 203
- Bull Run, battle of (1861-62) 182, 182
- Bunce Island (Sierra Leone) 162 4A
- Bunker Hill, battle of (1775) 131 3F
- Bunyoro (Africa) 166 4I
- Burdigala *see* Bordeaux
- Burgos, battle of (1808) 146 4B
- Burgoyne, John, British general 133
- Burgundy 85 3C, 134
- Burma 167 3L, 169, 174, 177 3L, 196, 197 5D, 199, 209 3B, 211, 211, 217 3L
- see also* Mian; Myanmar
- Bury (U.K.) 143 3B
- bushido* 99
- Buto (Egypt) 27 1A
- Byblos (Lebanon) 23 4D, 31 2B
- Byzantine empire 71, 73, 76-79, 76, 76-77, 78, 78, 79, 80-81, 82-83, 92 2A, 150, 154
- themes* 76-77, 77
- Byzantium *see* Istanbul
- Cabinda (Angola) 163 5D
- Cabot, John, navigator 118, 120, 126, 126, 129
- Cabral, Pedro Alvarez, navigator 118, 118-119
- Cacheu (Guinea) 103
- Caesar, Julius, Roman general 37, 49, 53, 53, 64
- Caesaraugusta (Zaragoza, Spain) 32
- Caesarea (Israel) 32, 51 4F, 69 4F, 77 4F
- Cagliari (Sardinia) 73 3D, 76 3A
- Cahokia (U.S.A.) 131 4B
- Cairo (Egypt) 79, 101 1F, 112 3I, 155 3E, 192, 201 8L
- Calabar, Old (Africa) 163 4C
- Calakmul (Mexico) 105 2G
- Calauria (Greece) 43 4F
- calendar, Chinese 96
- Islamic 83
- Mesoamerican 104, 106, 107
- California 123, 173, 174, 174, 178, 180, 181 4F, 183
- Caligula, Roman emperor 68
- Calixtlahuaca (Mexico) 104 2B
- Callao (Peru) 123 6F
- calligraphy 80, 80
- Calvin, John, Protestant reformer 136, 137
- Calvinism 134-135, 136, 137
- Camarina (Sicily) 42 4B
- Cambodia 208, 209 4C, 211, 220, 217 4M, 221 4M
- see also* Khmer Rouge
- Cambrai, battle of (1917) 188 3C, 191
- Cambridge (U.K.) 84 3C
- Camden, battle of (1780) 131 5D
- camel 64, 67, 67, 100
- Cameroon 176 4H, 193 4D, 216 4H, 220 4H
- Camirus (Rhodes) 43 4H
- Campa (India) 55 3E
- Camp David Peace Accords 213, 215, 220
- Canaan 23 4C, 29, 30, 33, 41, 112, 114
- Canada 129, 131, 133, 176, 176 2B, 178, 180, 180-181, 183, 216 2B, 218, 220 2A
- Upper and Lower 166 2D
- Cannae, battle of (216 BC) 51 3D, 53
- cannon, first use in Europe 87
- Cano, Sebastian del, navigator 118 5G, 119, 119 4N, 119 6L
- Canterbury (U.K.) 72 2B, 84 3C, 112 2H
- Canton 159 5F, 161
- Cape Cod (U.S.A.) 166
- Cape Colony (S. Africa) 163 7D, 165, 166, 166 6H, 172, 172 6I, 175, 176, 192, 194, 195, 195
- Cape Gelidonya (Turkey) 40
- Cape of Good Hope 90, 103, 103
- Cape Matapan, battle of (1941) 201 7J
- Cape Town (S. Africa) 163 7D, 165
- Cape Verde Islands 125, 162 3
- Caporetto, battle of (1917) 188 4E
- Cappadocia, Persian province 46 1D
- Caracas (Venezuela) 123 3G
- Caracol (Belize) 105 3G
- Carales (Sardinia) 51 3C
- Carapito (Portugal) 35
- Carchemish (Syria) 23 3D
- Caribbean 118, 121, 122, 125, 141, 162, 164, 166, 168, 172, 175
- Caribs 122
- Camel, Mount (Israel) 10 3J
- Carnac (France) 35
- Carnegie, Andrew, American industrialist 183
- Caruntum (Petronell, Austria) 51 2D, 69 2D
- Carolingian empire 72-73, 74-75
- Carrae, battle of (53 BC) 51 3G, 64, 66
- Cartagena (Colombia) 123 3F
- Carter, James Earl, president of the United States 213
- Carthage (Tunisia) 32, 50-51, 50, 51 3C, 53, 69 3C, 76 3B, 80 2B, 83
- Carthago Nova (Cartagena, Spain) 50 3B, 68 3B
- Cartier, Jacques, French explorer 126, 126, 129
- Caspian Sea 155
- Castile, kingdom of 84 4B, 86
- Castlereagh, Viscount, British statesman 148
- Castra Regina (Regensburg, Germany) 51 2C
- Castro, Fidel, Cuban revolutionary leader 216, 218
- Catalaunian Plains, battle of the (451) 71, 71
- Catalimi, battle of (1860) 185 5C
- Catalonia 147 4C
- Catana (Sicily) 42 4B
- Catarpe (Chile) 108 1E
- Cateau-Cambresis, Treaty of (1559) 137
- cathedrals 84, 84-85, 86, 87
- Catherine de Medici, queen of France 137
- Catherine I, Russian empress 153
- Catherine II (the Great), Russian empress 145, 151, 152-153, 153
- Catholic church 72, 72-73, 75, 76, 78, 82, 112, 113, 114
- see also* Inquisition; papacy
- cattle, domestication of 14, 15, 16, 19, 34, 56
- cattle farming 100, 102
- Caulonia (Italy) 42 3C
- Cavour, Camillo di, Italian statesman 186
- Cayor (Africa) 162 3A
- Celts 18 2H, 34-37, 34-35, 36, 37, 53, 64, 64 2G, 69, 72, 72
- see also* Gaul/Gauls
- Cemenelum (Cimiez, France) 51 2C
- Cempoala (Mexico) 104 2C
- Central African Republic 216 4H, 220 4H
- Central America, United Provinces of 124
- Central powers (World War I) 179, 188-191, 188-189
- Cetshwaya, king of the Zulu nation 194
- Ceuta (N. Africa) 103
- Ceylon 173 4L, 177 4L, 211
- see also* Sri Lanka
- Chaeronea, battle of (338 BC) 45
- Chagatai Khanate 95, 95
- Chalcedon (Turkey) 43 2I
- Chalcis (Greece) 43 3F
- Chaldiran, battle of (1514) 118, 118 3J, 155, 155 3G, 157
- Champa, kingdom of 93 3G
- Champigny, battle of (1870) 185 3A
- Champlain, Samuel de, French explorer 129
- Chan Chan (Peru) 108 3B, 109
- Chandragupta Maurya, Indian ruler 54-55, 57
- Chang'an (China) 59 2D, 89 2F, 93 2G, 113 3M
- Changchun (China) 197 2H
- Changsa, battle of (1941-42) 198
- Chanhu-Daro, Indus valley site 56
- Chapultepec (Mexico) 104 2B
- Charlemagne, Frankish emperor 72, 72-73, 74-75, 74
- Charles I, king of England and Scotland 140, 141, 166
- Charles II, king of England and Scotland 140, 141
- Charles II, king of Spain 141
- Charles III (the Fat), Frankish emperor 75
- Charles V, Holy Roman emperor 118, 120, 134-136, 137
- Charleston (U.S.A.) 127 6E, 131 5E, 164
- Chartres (France) 84 3C, 112 2H
- Chatal Huyuk (Turkey) 14
- Chattanooga, battle of (1863) 182
- Chavin, pre-Inca culture 108
- Chechnya (Russia) 222
- Chefoo (China) 197 3H
- Chelmno (Poland) 202
- Chen (China) 59 2E
- Chengdu (China) 89 2E, 93 2F, 159 4D
- Chernigov (Ukraine) 75
- Chemobyl nuclear accident 220
- Cherson (Ukraine) 77 2F
- Chesapeake Capes, battle of (1781) 131 4E, 132
- Chesowanja (Kenya) 10, 10 4I
- Chiapa de Corzo (Mexico) 105 3E
- Chibuene (Mozambique) 101 7F
- Chichén Itzá (Mexico) 105, 105 1G, 106, 107, 112 3C
- Chickamauga, battle of (1863) 182
- Chile 11, 124, 172 6D, 176, 176 6D, 216 6D, 218, 220 6D
- Chilecito (Argentina) 108 1F
- Chimori (Japan) 97 4D
- Chimú, people and empire 108, 109, 110, 111
- China 21, 58-61, 88-91, 119, 121, 172, 173, 174-175, 176, 178, 196-199, 196-197, 198, 198, 199, 205 3J, 208, 219, 221, 223
- Buddhism 91, 112, 115
- civil war 196, 197, 198, 199, 208, 211, 216
- Han dynasty 58-59, 61, 64, 64 3M, 65, 66-67
- Manchu empire (Qing Dynasty) 158-161, 158-159, 166, 167, 168, 169, 173, 173 2L, 174, 177, 196, 197, 199
- Ming dynasty 95, 119 3M, 121, 158, 158, 160, 161, 166
- Mongol conquest 90-91, 93, 93, 94-95
- Opium Wars 172, 174, 196, 199
- People's Republic of (1949-) 208, 209 2B, 210, 211, 216, 217 3M, 219, 220, 221 3M, 223
- Qin dynasty 59, 60-61
- Republic (1912) 196, 199
- Shang dynasty 18, 19, 58, 60, 61
- Springs and Autumns Period 58, 61
- Sung dynasty 33, 34-35, 35, 37 3G, 90-91, 91, 94, 95
- Taiping Rebellion 173, 196
- Tang dynasty 88-90, 88-89, 90, 91
- Warring States Period 58, 59, 60, 61
- Yuan dynasty 160
- Zhou dynasty 19, 58, 60, 60, 60, 61
- Chinkultic (Mexico) 105 3F
- Chiquito (Peru) 108 3B
- Chinbaya Alto (Peru) 108 2D
- chivalry 84
- Chodjenj (Uzbekistan) 92 2D
- Chokojiyama (Japan) 97 5B
- Cholula (Mexico) 104 2B
- Chongqing (China) 197 4F
- Christiania (Oslo, Norway) 85 2D, 86
- Christianity 30, 33, 68, 71, 72-75, 72-73, 79, 102-103, 111, 112-115, 112, 113, 114, 164
- in Africa 192, 192, 194
- in the Americas 121, 122-123, 125, 125
- in China 161
- opposition to slavery 164
- Reformation 118, 120, 134-137, 134-135
- see also* individual sects and Crusades; monasticism; papacy
- Chucuito (Peru) 108 1D
- Church of England 136, 137
- Cilicia, Roman province 51 3F
- cinema 177
- Circeo (Italy) 10 2H
- circumnavigation of the globe 119, 120, 122-123
- C.I.S. *see* Commonwealth of Independent States
- cities, first 18, 21, 22, 22-23, 24, 25, 54, 57
- Ciudad de los Reyes (Peru)



- 123 6F  
civilizations, earliest 21, 22, 34, 54  
civil rights movement 216, 219, 219  
Clark, George Rogers, American general 131  
Claudius, Roman emperor 71  
Clazomenae (Turkey) 43 3H  
Cleopatra, queen of Egypt 49, 49  
Clermont (France) 84 3C  
Clermont-Ferrand (France) 143 4C  
climate, change in 223  
Clovis, Frankish emperor 72, 72-73, 75  
Clovis (U.S.A.) 10 3B  
Cluny (France) 74, 75, 112 2H  
Cnidus (Turkey) 43 4H  
Cobá (Mexico) 105 1H  
Cochabamba (Bolivia) 108 1D  
Code Napoléon 148  
Coimbra (Portugal) 84 4A  
coinage 45, 52, 99  
Cold Harbor, battle of (1862-64) 182  
Cold War 217-219, 221, 222  
Collasuyu 108 1E  
Cologne (Colonia Agrippina, Germany) 51 1C, 69 1C, 73 2C, 85 3C, 135 2E, 201 4G  
Colombia 172, 172 4D, 176 4D, 216 4D, 220 4D  
Colonia Agrippina see Cologne  
colonialism 118-120, 122-129, 162-165, 166-167, 167, 168, 172-173, 173-175, 176, 176-177, 177, 178, 179, 192-195, 192-193, 216-218  
Colophon (Turkey) 43 3H  
Colorado 181 4G  
Columbus, Christopher, navigator 87, 118, 118 3E, 119-120, 119, 122, 123, 125, 167  
Comalcalco (Mexico) 105 2E  
Commonwealth of Independent States (C.I.S.) 220-221, 222  
Communism, fight against 208, 210-211, 217-218, 222  
see also Cold War  
Communist regimes 218-219  
in Asia 196, 198, 199, 208-211, 208-209  
in Cuba 218  
in Eastern Europe 217-218, 222  
in Russia 191, 204-207  
see also Union of Soviet Socialist Republics  
concentration camps 202, 202, 202, 203  
Concord, battle of (1775) 132, 133  
Confederation of the Rhine 149  
Confucianism 113, 115  
Confucius, Chinese philosopher 58, 60, 61  
Congo (Africa) 101 5D, 103, 162, 163 5D  
Connecticut 127 4G, 133, 181 3J, 182  
conquistadors 104, 106, 107, 108, 108, 111, 120, 121, 122-124, 122-123  
Constantia (Tomi, Romania) 69 2F  
Constantine the Great, Roman emperor 71, 71, 76  
Constantinople see Istanbul  
Continental Congress, First 130, 133  
Continental System 148, 149  
Cook, Captain James, British explorer 166-167, 169  
Copán (Honduras) 105 4G  
Copenhagen, battles of (1801, 1807) 147 1E  
Copiapo (Chile) 108 2F  
copper 14-15, 16, 35, 37, 38  
Coral Sea, battle of the (1942) 198  
Corcyra (Corfu, Greece) 43 3D  
Córdoba (Argentina) 123 8G  
Córdoba (Spain) 32, 50 3A, 68 3A, 72 3B, 80 2A, 83, 83, 84 4B, 112 3G  
Corialium (Cherbourg, France) 68 2B  
Corinth (Greece) 32, 41, 43 3E, 51 3E  
Corinth, battle of (1862) 182  
corn, cultivation of 15, 16, 18, 107, 109  
Coronado, Francisco Vázquez de, conquistador 122 1C, 125  
Corregidor, battle of (1942) 198  
Corsica 50, 51 3C, 76 2A, 80 1B, 85 4D, 154 2C  
Cortés, Hernán, Spanish conquistador 104-105, 107, 118, 122, 122-123  
Cossacks 153, 155 1F, 155 2F  
Cotabambas (Peru) 108 2C  
Counter Reformation 136-137  
Covadonga (Spain) 80 1A  
Cowpens, battle of (1781) 131 5D  
craftspeople 20, 22, 28, 36  
Crazy Horse, Sioux leader 180  
Creswell Crags (U.K.) 10 2G  
Crete 18, 36, 37, 39, 39, 39 5B, 41, 43 5F, 46 2A, 77 3D, 78, 81 2D, 155 3D, 157  
Crimea, khanate of 151 5D, 152, 153, 155 2F  
Croatia 184, 185 4D, 201 6I, 202, 220 2H, 222  
Cro Magnon (France) 10 2H  
Cromwell, Oliver, English statesman 139, 140, 140  
crop rotation 87  
crossbow, invention of 61  
Croton (Italy) 42 3C  
Crusades 78-79, 78, 78-79, 86, 113  
Crystal Palace, London 184  
Ctesiphon (Iraq) 32  
Cuba 118, 118 3C, 123 2F, 124, 166 3D, 172 3C, 176 3D, 181 5J, 183, 216, 216 3D, 218, 219, 220 3D, 222  
missile crisis 207, 216, 218  
Culhuacan (Mexico) 104 2B  
Culiacán (Mexico) 122 2C  
Cumaná (Venezuela) 123 3G  
cuneiform writing 18, 21, 24, 25  
Custer, General George Armstrong 183  
Cuzco (Peru) 108, 108 2C, 109, 110, 110, 111, 112 5D  
Cydonia (Crete) 43 5G  
Cynoscephalae, battle of (197 BC) 49 3E  
Cyprus 46 2D, 51 3F, 79  
Cyrenaica (Libya) 155 3D, 163 1E, 166 3I, 172 3I, 176 3H, 191, 193 1E  
Cyrene (Shahhar, Libya) 32, 46 3A, 69 4E  
Cyrillic alphabet 79  
Cyrus the Great, king of Persia 25, 25, 33  
Cythera (Greece) 39 4B, 43 4F  
Cyzicus (Turkey) 43 2H  
Czechoslovakia 191, 200, 207, 207, 216 2H, 217, 219, 222  
Czech Republic 220 2H
- D**  
Dadu see Beijing  
Dagon (Myanmar) 113 4L  
Dahlak, Red Sea port 101 3G  
Dahomey (Africa) 162, 163 4C, 165  
Dahshur (Egypt) 27 2B  
daimyo warlords 99, 99  
Dakshinapatha, Indian kingdom 55 4C  
Dalian (China) 197 3H  
Daliang (China) 59 2E  
Dallas (U.S.A.) 216  
Dalmatia, Roman province 51 2D  
Daluo (China) 93 3G  
Damascus (Syria) 23 4D, 31 3C, 32, 46 3D, 69 4G, 77 4G, 79, 81 2E, 82, 83, 92 2B, 213 2C  
battle of (1918) 189 7J  
Dandong (China) 197 3H  
Danes 73 1D, 74, 75, 86  
Danish War (1625-29) 139  
Dan (Israel) 31 3B  
Danja Slatina (Bulgaria) 35 4F  
Dantapura (India) 55 4D  
Danton, Georges, French revolutionary 145  
Danube, river 65, 69, 70, 76, 77, 92  
Danyang (China) 59 2D  
Danzig (Poland) 85 2E, 86  
Daoism 113, 115  
Dara (Egypt) 27 3A  
Dardenelles expedition 190  
Dar es-Soltane (Morocco) 10 3G  
Darfur (Africa) 101 3E, 163 3E  
Darius III, king of Persia 46-48, 49  
Dark Ages, European 72-75, 72-73, 75, 84  
Datong (China) 93 2G  
David, king of Israel 30, 31, 33, 112  
David, Jacques Louis, French painter 146  
Dazaifu (Japan) 97 5B  
Dead Sea Scrolls 31, 31  
Debrecen (Hungary) 185 3E  
Deccan (India) 57, 156, 156, 166  
Delaware 127 4I, 127 5G, 128, 133, 181 4J, 182  
Delhi (India) 156, 156, 157  
sultanate 92 3E, 119, 121, 156  
Delos (Greece) 43 4G  
Delphi (Greece) 35 4E, 43 3F  
democracy, Greek 42-43, 45  
Dendra (Greece) 39 4B  
Deng Xiaoping, Chinese leader 210, 211  
Dengzhou (China) 93 2H  
Denmark 185 1B, 187, 187, 191, 191, 201 3G, 202, 203, 216 2H, 220 2H  
Deptford (U.K.) 150 4A  
Derbent (Russia) 92 2C  
Derry (U.K.) 72 1A  
Desalpur, Indus valley site 56  
Deva (Chester, U.K.) 68 1A  
Deventer (Netherlands) 135 2E  
Devil's Lair (Australia) 11 6M  
devshirme, Ottoman tax 154, 157  
Dholavira, Indus valley site 56  
Diangxiang (China) 59 1D  
Dias, Bartolomeu, Portuguese navigator 90, 118 4G  
diaspora, Jewish 33  
Didyma (Turkey) 43 4H  
Dien Bien Phu, battle of (1954) 211, 216  
Dijon (France) 143 4D  
Dinorben (Wales) 34 2B  
Diocletian, Roman emperor 71  
Directory, French revolutionary government 146, 149  
Disasters of War, *The* (Goya) 149  
Djoser, pyramid of 29  
Dodona (Greece) 43 3E  
Dogger Bank, battle of (1915) 188 3C  
Doiran, battle of (1917) 189 5G  
Dominican order 122, 122  
domino theory 208  
Dongola, Old (Sudan) 101 3F  
Dorgun, Manchu regent 158  
Dortmund (Germany) 201 4G  
Dorylaeum (Turkey) 77 3F  
Downpatrick (U.K.) 34 2B  
Drake, Francis, English navigator 122-123, 125  
Dresden (Germany) 185 2C, 201 4H, 203  
battle of (1813) 147 2E  
druids 37  
Drumanagh (Ireland) 34 2B  
Dublin (Ireland) 75, 84 2B, 86, 134 2B, 143 3A  
Dudley (U.K.) 143 3B  
Dunant, Jean-Henri, founder of Red Cross 178  
Dunkirk, battle of (1588) 137  
Dura Europus (Qal'at as Salhiyah, Syria) 69 4G  
Dur-Kunigalzu, Mesopotamian city 23 4F  
Durocorionum see Reims  
Dur-Shamukin, Mesopotamian city 23 3F  
Dutch see Netherlands  
Dutch East India Company 165  
Dutch East Indies 166, 167 5M, 169, 173 5M, 177 5M, 199, 210, 218-219
- Dutch Guiana 124, 166 4E  
Dyme (Greece) 39 3A  
Dyrrachium (Durazzo/Durres, Albania) 32, 69 3d, 73 3E, 77 2C, 85 4E  
Dyukhtai Cave (Russia) 11 1N  
Dzibilchaltun (Mexico) 105 1G
- E**  
Earth Summit (Brazil) 223  
East Timor 210  
Ebersberg, battle of (1819) 147 3E  
Ebila (Syria) 23 3D  
Ecbatana (Iran) 23 4H, 25, 47 3F  
Edessa (Urfa, Turkey) 69 3G  
County of 79  
Edtu (Egypt) 27 4B  
Edgehill, battle of (1642) 139 2B  
Edinburgh (U.K.) 84 2B, 86, 134 1C, 139 1B, 143 2B  
Edirne (Adrianople, Turkey) 77 2E, 154, 155 2E  
Edo see Tokyo  
Edom, Biblical kingdom 30, 31 4B, 32  
Edzná (Mexico) 105 2F  
Egypt (Aegyptus) 25, 29, 30, 31 4A, 33, 47, 66, 76, 77, 79, 82, 100, 102, 118, 119, 120, 146, 155 4E, 157, 163 2F, 166 3I, 168, 168, 172 3I, 176 3I, 192, 193 2E, 194, 195, 201 9K, 212, 213 4A, 215, 216, 216 3I, 220 3I, 222  
Ptolemaic 48-49, 48, 49  
Roman empire 49, 51, 51 4F  
Egyptian civilization 17, 18, 18 3I, 19, 21, 22, 26-29, 26-27, 27, 28, 29, 29  
El Alamein, battle of (1942) 201 8K, 202  
Elam, kingdom of 18 3J  
El Argar (Spain) 34 4B  
Elba 147 4E, 149  
El Dorado, fabled city 122  
Elea (Italy) 42 2B  
Elephantine (Egypt) 27 4B  
elephants, war 47, 50, 57  
Eleusis (Greece) 43 3F  
El Fasher (Sudan) 101 3E  
Elijah, Biblical prophet 32, 33  
Elis (Greece) 43 4E  
Elisha, Biblical prophet 32, 33  
Elizabeth I, queen of England 136-137, 137  
El-Kab (Egypt) 27 4B  
El-Kharga Oasis 27 4A  
El-Kula (Egypt) 27 4B  
el-Lahun (Egypt) 27 2A  
Elliniko (Greece) 39 4A  
el-Lisht (Egypt) 27 2B  
Elmina (Ghana) 103, 118 4H, 163 4B  
El Officio (Spain) 34 4B  
El Paso (U.S.A.) 122 1C  
El Tajin (Mexico) 104 1C  
Emden (Germany) 135 2E  
Emerita Augusta (Merida, Spain) 32, 50 3A, 68 3A  
England 75, 84, 85, 86, 87, 87, 120, 136-137, 139, 140, 141  
see also Britain  
Eniwetok, battle of (1944) 198  
Enlightenment 142-145, 142-143  
Entente Cordiale 177, 187  
environmental issues 223, 223  
Ephesus (Turkey) 32, 43 4H, 51 3E, 69 3E, 73 3F, 77 3E  
Epidamnus (Greece) 43 2D  
Epidaurus (Greece) 43 4F  
Eratosthenes, Hellenistic Greek astronomer 48  
Eretria (Greece) 43 3F  
Eridu, Mesopotamian city 23 5G  
Enitrea 193 3F, 220 4I, 222  
Erlitou, early center of bronze-working 18, 58  
Erzurum, battle of (1916) 189 6L  
Eshnunna, Mesopotamian city 23 4F  
Essen (Germany) 179, 187, 201 4G  
Estonia 191, 204 3A, 206, 207  
Ethiopia 101 3F, 103, 118 4I, 121, 163 3F, 164, 165, 166 4I, 172 4I, 176, 176 4I, 193 4F, 194, 216 4I, 220 4I, 222  
Etruria-Etruscans 18 2H, 36, 50, 50, 50  
Euboea (Greece) 39 3C, 43 3F  
Euclid, Greek mathematician 48  
Euphrates, river 21, 22, 23 3E, 25, 29, 31 2D, 32, 47 3E, 51 3G  
Euripides, Greek dramatist 45  
Europe 120, 168, 173, 174, 184-187, 185, 187, 188-189, 191, 200-201, 202  
alliances 179, 184, 187, 187, 188, 200, 216-217  
colonialism 118-120, 118-119, 122-129, 122-123, 124, 126-127  
Dark Ages 72-75, 72-73, 75, 84  
industrialization 173-174, 177, 178, 178, 184, 187  
Medieval 84-87, 84-85  
nationalism, rise of 184-187  
see also Cold War; Enlightenment; Reformation; World War I; World War II  
Eutaw Springs, battle of (1781) 131 5D  
exploration, voyages of 118-119, 119-120, 122, 122-123, 126, 126, 166-167, 167, 169  
Eylau, battle of (1807) 147 2G  
Ezana, king of Axum 103  
Ezero (Bulgaria) 35 4F  
Ezion-geber (Jordan) 31 5B
- F**  
Falkirk (U.K.) 143 2B  
Falkland Islands (Malvinas) 124, 166 7E  
Falklands/Malvinas War (1982) 220



- Falmouth (U.S.A.) 131 3F  
Farfa (Italy) 73 3D  
farming 14-15, 15-19, 15, 21, 22, 34-35, 37, 38, 87  
Africa 67  
animal domestication 15-16, 15, 34  
China 91  
food crops 14-15, 15-17, 17  
Incas 109  
irrigation 14, 17, 18-19, 20, 22, 54, 223  
medieval Europe 86, 87  
Mesoamerica 104  
plant domestication 14-15, 15-16, 34  
plow 14, 17, 18-19, 22, 25, 37  
Faroe Islands 75, 75  
fascism 191, 198, 200, 200, 202-203  
Fashoda (Sudan) 179, 193 4F, 195  
Fell's Cave (Argentina) 10 7D  
Feng (China) 89 1E  
Ferdinand II, Holy Roman emperor 136  
Ferdinand V, king of Aragón 122  
Ferghana, kingdom of 88 2B, 89  
Fernando Póo 118 4H, 163 4C  
Fertile Crescent 14, 16, 30  
feudalism, in Europe 84, 84, 86  
Fez (Morocco) 101 1B, 112 3G, 193 1B, 200 8E  
Field of the Cloth of Gold 134  
Filitosa (Corsica) 35 4D  
Finland 201 2K, 204 2A, 206  
fire, first known use 10, 12  
firearms 87, 89, 91  
Florence (Florentina, Italy) 51 2C, 87, 135 4F, 143 5E, 185 4C  
Florida 123, 125, 127 7E, 131 6C-D, 133, 133, 180, 181 5I, 182, 183  
Folsom (U.S.A.) 10 3B  
Forbidden City (Beijing) 160, 161  
Ford, Henry, magnate 183, 183  
Formosa *see* Taiwan  
Fort Dauphin (Madagascar) 53 7G  
Fort Harrouard (France) 34 3B  
Fort James (West Africa) 162 3A, 164  
forts, American and Canadian 127, 131  
Fort Zeelandia (Taiwan) 159 5G  
France 75, 84, 85-86, 87, 119, 120, 132, 133, 134, 136, 137, 139, 144, 149, 162, 179, 184, 185 3A, 187, 191, 200, 216 2H, 222  
colonies 123, 125, 126, 126, 127, 128, 133, 142, 146, 146-147, 166-167, 168, 172, 172-173, 175, 176-177, 191, 192, 192-193, 195, 196, 216, 219  
Franco-Prussian War (1870) 186-187  
Napoleonic 125, 146-149, 146-147, 152, 153, 168, 168  
Revolution 125, 141, 142, 142, 144-145, 144, 144, 146, 149, 153, 167, 168  
World War I 188-191, 188 5C  
World War II 200-203, 200 5F, 202  
*see also* Franks, kingdom of  
Franche-Comté (France) 135 3E, 137, 139 3D  
Francis I, king of France 119, 134, 157  
Francis of Assisi, St. 87  
Franciscan order 87, 122  
Franco, Francisco, Spanish dictator 200  
Franco-Swedish War (1635-48) 139  
Frankfurt (Germany) 135 2E, 139 2D, 139 2E, 185 2B, 186, 201 4G  
Franklin, Benjamin, American statesman 130, 133  
Franks, kingdom of 71, 72, 72-73, 74-75, 82  
Franz Ferdinand, Archduke 177, 179, 179, 188  
Frederick I, Holy Roman emperor (Frederick Barbarossa) 87  
Frederick II, Holy Roman emperor 87  
Frederick II (the Great), king of Prussia 142, 145  
Fredericksburg, battle of (1862) 182  
Frederick William IV, king of Prussia 173, 173, 186  
Freiburg (Germany) 85 3D  
French and Indian War 125, 127, 128, 129, 130  
French Indo-China 177 4M, 196, 197 5E, 199, 210, 211, 216  
Friedland, battle of (1807) 147 2G  
Fu (China) 89 3F  
Fuji, Mount (Japan) 97 4E, 113 3O  
Fujiwara clan 97, 98, 99  
Fujiwara Yoritomo 99  
Fulani empire (Africa) 166 4H  
Fulda (Germany) 73 2D  
Funan, kingdom 65, 65 4M  
Funayama (Japan) 97 5B  
Funj (Africa) 101 3F, 103, 118 4I, 163 3F  
Fuzhou (China) 159 5F, 197 5G
- G**  
Gades (Cadiz, Spain) 32, 34 4B, 50 3A, 68 3A  
Gadsden Purchase 180, 180-181  
Gaeta (Italy) 76 2B  
Gagarin, Yuri, Russian astronaut 207  
Galatia (Roman province) 51 3F  
Galilee (Israel) 17  
Galilee, Sea of (Israel) 31 3B  
Gallia Lugdunensis, Roman province 50 2B  
Gallia Narbonensis, Roman province 50 2B  
Gallipoli landings (1915-16) 189 5H, 190, 191  
182, 182, 183  
Gezer (Israel) 31 4B  
Ghana (Africa) 100, 100-101 3B, 103  
Ghazni (Afghanistan) 47 3J, 92 2D  
Ghost Dance cult 182  
Gilboa, battle of (c. 1006 BC) 33  
Gilgit (N. Kashmir) 88 2B  
Gimar (India) 55 3B  
Giza (Egypt) 27, 27 1B  
Gla (Greece) 39 3B  
Glasgow (U.K.) 143 2B  
global warming 223  
Glorious Revolution 140  
Gloucester (Fort Nassau, U.S.A.) 126  
Gnezdovo (Belarus) 75  
Goa (India) 119 4K, 121, 167 4K  
goat, domestication of 16, 34  
Go-Daigo, emperor of Japan 99  
Godin Tepe (Iran) 23 4G  
Golan Heights 212, 213 2B, 215  
Golashkerd (Iran) 47 4H  
Gold Coast 193 4B, 195  
Golden Horde, Khanate of the 94, 95  
gold rushes 173, 174, 174, 176-177, 180, 180-181, 183  
Gorbachev, Mikhail, Soviet president 207, 220, 221-222  
Gordon (Turkey) 22 2C  
Gordon, Charles, British general 195  
Gorée (Senegal) 162 3A  
Gorki (Russia) 204 3C  
Gorlice-Tamow, battle of (1915) 188 4G  
Gortyn (Crete) 39, 43 5G, 51 3E  
Gothic architecture 84, 84-85, 87  
Göttingen (Germany) 143 3D  
Gournia (Crete) 39  
Goya, Francisco, painter 149  
Gracchus, Tiberius, Roman tribune 53  
Granada, kingdom of 84 5B, 87, 113  
Gran Colombia 124  
Grand Canal (China) 158, 159  
Granicus, battle of (334 BC) 46 1B  
Gravelotte, battle of (1870) 185 3A  
Great Britain *see* Britain  
Great Depression 200  
Great Exhibition 176, 184  
Great Khan 94, 95, 95  
Great Plains 11, 13  
Great Terror (Russia) 206, 207  
Great Trek (Afrikans) 172, 175, 194, 195, 195  
Great Wall of China 58-59 1A, 60-61, 158, 158, 159, 159, 160  
Great Zimbabwe (Africa) 101 7F, 102, 102, 103  
Greece 76, 79, 154, 157, 168, 174, 184, 185 5E, 187, 191, 201 7J, 216 3I  
Greek civilization 18 2H, 36, 40, 41, 42-45, 42, 42-43, 43, 44, 45, 46, 49, 50, 53  
Gama, Vasco da, navigator 118, 118-119  
Gandhara, sculptural art of 57  
Gandhi, Indira, prime minister of India 211  
Gandhi, Mohandas K., Indian leader 195, 210-211, 211  
Gandhi, Rajiv, prime minister of India 211  
Ganges, river 9, 10, 37 3E, 115  
Gangotri (India) 113 3K  
Gangra (Turkey) 77 2F  
Gansu Corridor (China) 61, 89, 89 2E  
Ganweriwala, Indus valley site 56  
Ganzhou (China) 159 3D, 197 3E  
Gao (Mali) 101 3C  
Gaozu, founder of Han dynasty 61  
Garibaldi, Giuseppe, Italian patriot 185, 186, 186, 187  
Gaugamela, battle of (331 BC) 47, 47 2E, 49  
Gaul/Gauls 37, 53, 64, 71  
*see also* Celts  
Gavrinis (France) 35  
Gaza, Biblical kingdom 23 5C, 30, 31 4B  
Gaza Strip 212, 213 3B, 214  
Gedi (Kenya) 101 5F  
Gela (Sicily) 42 4B  
Geneva (Switzerland) 135 3E, 143 4D  
Genghis Khan, Mongolian war leader 90-91, 93-94, 95, 95  
Genoa (Genoa, Italy) 32, 69 2C, 76 2A, 78, 85 4D, 86, 86, 135 4E, 139 4D  
Georgetown 127 6F  
Georgia (Rep.) 207, 220 2J, 222  
Georgia (U.S. state) 127 6E, 129, 133, 181 4I, 182  
German Confederation 149, 166 2H, 186-187  
Germania Inferior, Roman province 51 1C  
Germania Superior, Roman province 51 2C  
Germanic peoples 64, 64 2H, 65-66, 70, 71, 72, 76  
Germantown, battle of (1777) 131 3E  
Germany 84-85, 120, 129, 138, 148, 173, 174, 176, 176 2H, 178-179, 184, 186-187, 191, 201, 203, 220 2H, 221, 222  
colonies 176-177, 185, 187, 191, 192, 192-193, 195  
East Germany (Democratic Republic) 207, 216, 216 2H, 218, 222  
West Germany (Federal Republic) 216, 216 2H, 217, 218  
World War I 188-191, 189  
World War II 200-203, 201, 202  
*see also* Holy Roman empire; Prussia; Reformation  
Geronimo, leader of the Apache 182  
Gesoniacum (Boulogne, France) 68 1B  
Gettysburg, battle of (1863)
- dark ages 41, 42, 45  
Hellenistic period 48, 48  
Roman conquest 53  
Greek language 69, 70, 77  
Greenland 75  
Greenland Ice Sheet 10 1E  
Gregory the Great, Pope 72, 75  
Grobin (Larvia) 73 1E, 75  
Guadalcanal, battle of (1942-43) 198  
Guam, battle of (1944) 198  
Guangling (China) 59 2E  
Guangzhou (China) 89 3F, 93 3G, 159 5F, 161, 197 5G  
Guannei (China) 89 2E  
Guayaquil (Ecuador) 123 5F  
Guiji (China) 59 3F  
Guilford Court House, battle of (1781) 131 4E  
Guilin (China) 159 5E  
Guitarrero Cave (Peru) 10 5D  
Guiyang (China) 59 3D, 159 5E  
Gulf War (1990-91) 214, 215, 215, 221  
Gumbinnen, battle of (1914) 188 3G  
Gumla (Indus valley) 56  
Gundestrup (Denmark) 35 2D  
Gundestrup cauldron 37  
gunpowder 89, 91  
Guru Nanak, Sikh founder 113  
Guryev (Kazakhstan) 151 5F  
Gustavus I Vasa, king of Sweden 136  
Gustavus II Adolphus, king of Sweden 138, 139, 141  
Gutenberg Bible 87  
Gwadar (Pakistan) 211
- H**  
Haarlem (Netherlands) 143 3C  
Habsburg empire 120, 134, 137, 138, 138-139, 141  
Hadar (Ethiopia) 10, 10 4I  
Hadrian, Roman emperor 65, 66, 68, 71  
Hadrian's Wall 65, 68, 68 1B, 71  
Hagia Imi (Greece) 39 4C  
Hagia Triadha (Crete) 39  
Haig, Douglas, British general 190  
Hainan (China) 59 4D, 89 4F, 209 4C  
Haiti 124, 166 3D, 168  
Halicamassus (Turkey) 43 4H  
Halifax (Nova Scotia) 127 4I, 131 3G  
Hallstatt (Austria) 34-35, 35 3D, 37, 37  
Hallunda (Sweden) 35 1E  
Hamadan (Iran) 92 2C  
Hamah (Syria) 81 2E  
Hamath (Syria) 31 2C  
Hamazi (Iraq) 23 3G  
Hamburg (Germany) 135 2F, 201 4G, 203  
Hammurabi, king of Babylon 22-23, 24-25  
Hampton Roads, battle of (1862) 182  
Han (China) 59 2D  
Handan (China) 59 1E  
Han dynasty *see* China  
Hanging Gardens of Babylon
- 25  
Hangzhou (China) 90, 91, 91, 93 2G, 113 3O, 159 4G, 197 4G  
Hankou (China) 197 4G  
Hannibal, Carthaginian general 50-51, 50-51  
Hanoi (Vietnam) 197 5F, 209 3C  
Hanover (Germany) 143, 147 2D, 149, 185 2B  
Hao (China) 58, 58  
Harappa, Indus valley site 54, 56  
Harbin (China) 197 2H, 205 4K  
Hardwar (India) 113 3K  
Harer (Ethiopia) 112 4J  
Harold II, king of England 85  
Hararan (Turkey) 81 2E  
Harrodsburg (U.S.A.) 131 4D  
Harun al-Rashid, caliph 83  
Harvard University 129  
Hastings, battle of (1066) 85  
Hattin, battle of (1187) 79  
Hattusas (Turkey) 23 2C  
Hatunolla (Peru) 108 2D  
Haua Freah (Libya) 10, 10 3I  
Hausa states (Africa) 101 3C, 118 4H, 120, 163 3C, 166 4H  
Havana (Cuba) 123 2E, 125  
Hawara (Egypt) 27 2A  
Hazor (Israel) 31 3B  
Hebron (West Bank) 31 4B, 213 3B  
Hedeby (Denmark) 75  
Hefei (China) 159 4F  
Heian (Japan) 96, 97 4D, 98, 99, 99, 113 3O  
Heiji uprising 99  
Heligoland, battle of (1914) 188 3D  
Heliopolis (Egypt) 27 1B  
Hellenistic period 48, 48  
Helsinki Conference (1975) 216, 218  
Heng (China) 89 2F  
Hengistbury Head (U.K.) 34 2B  
Henry II, king of England 85  
Henry IV, king of France 137, 141  
Henry VIII, king of England 134, 136, 137  
Heraclius, Byzantine emperor 76-77, 79  
Herakleopolis (Egypt) 27 2B  
Herat (Afghanistan) 47 3I, 92 2D, 113 3K  
Hermopolis (Egypt) 27 3A  
Herodotus, Greek historian 45  
Heyn, Piet, Dutch admiral 125  
Hidalgo, Miguel, Mexican revolutionary 125  
Hierakonpolis (Egypt) 27 4B  
Hierapytna (Crete) 39  
hieroglyphs 18, 26, 29  
hilltop forts 19, 20, 36, 36  
Himeji (Japan) 97 5C  
Himera (Sicily) 42 4A  
Hinduism 54, 56, 57, 112-113, 113, 115, 115  
Hipponium (Italy) 42 3C  
Hirohito, emperor of Japan 199  
Hiroshima (Japan) 198, 199, 199  
Hispaniola 118, 118 4D, 122, 123 3F, 125



Huiler, Adolf, German dictator 27, 36, 38–39, 207  
 Hitites 19, 22–23, 25, **29**  
 Hobkirk's Hill, battle of (1781) **131** 5D  
 Ho Chi Minh, Vietnamese leader 210  
 Ho Chi Minh City (Saigon, Vietnam) **209** 4C, 210, 211  
 Hojo clan 99  
 Hokkaido (Japan) 96, **97**  
 Holocaust 202, 202, **202**, 203, 212  
 Holy Alliance 184  
 Holy Land see Crusades  
 Holy Roman empire 74–75, 84–87, **84**, **84–85**, 118, **118** 2H, 120, 138, 148, 149  
 Homer, Greek poet 41, 45  
 hominids **10–11**, 11–12, **11**  
 Hong (Nanchang, China) **89** 3F  
 Hong Kong 174, 196, **197** 5G, **198**, 210, 210, 211  
 Hongze, Lake **58**, **59** 2E  
 Honshu (Japan) 96, **97**, **99**  
 Hopewell culture **64** 3C  
 horse 14, 15, 16, 17, 28, 60, 92, 93–94, 100, 102  
 Hualla Tampu (Bolivia) **108** 1D  
 Huancabamba (Peru) **108** 3B  
 Huáncu (Peru) **108** 3B  
 Huang Di, legendary Chinese emperor 58  
 Huan, pre-Incan empire 108, **109**  
 Huáscar, Incan prince 111  
 Huayna Capac, Incan ruler 109, 111  
 Huazhou (China) **93** 2G  
 Hudson's Bay Company **127** 2E, **131** 1D, **133**  
 Huelva (Spain) 34 4B  
 Huetamo (Mexico) **104** 2A  
 Hugh Capet, Frankish king 75  
 Huguenots **135**, 136, 137, 138, 141, 165  
 Huixian (China) **58**  
 Huiztilan (Mexico) **105** 4E  
 human rights 216, 219  
 Hunchun (China) **197** 2I  
 Hundred Years War 87, 87  
 Hungary 75, 78, 85, **85** 3E, 94, 119, 120, 134, **135** 3G, 136, **139** 3F, 141, 154, **155** 2D, 157, 184, **185** 3D, **191**, **201** 5J, **202**, **207**, **216**, **216** 2I, 217, 219, **220** 2H  
 Huns 71, **71**, 92  
 hunter-gatherers 13, **14–15**, 16, 17, **18–19**, 34  
 Husain, grandson of Muhammad 82  
 Hydaspes, battle of (326 BC) **47** 3K  
 Hydaspes, river 48, 49  
 Hyksos, conquerors of Egypt 29

**I**  
 Ialysus (Rhodes) 39 4E, 43 4I  
 Ibadan empire (Africa) 175  
 Ibo (Mozambique) 163 6G  
 Ibo people 219  
 Ice Age 10, 12–13, 15, 37  
 Iceland 75, 200 2B

Ice Man 34, 34, 37  
 Iconium (Turkey) **77** 3F  
 icons, Byzantine 78  
 Idaho **181** 3F  
 Idris III Aloma, king of Kanem-Bornu 165  
 Ife, African state **100**, **101** 4C, 102  
 Igarka (Russia) **205** 2G  
 Igbo (Africa) **163** 4C  
 Ilerda, battle of **50** 3B  
*Iliad* (Homer) 41, 45  
 Ilipa, battle of (206 BC) **50** 3A  
 Ilkhanate 94, 95  
 Illinois **181** 4I, **182**  
 Illyrians **18** 2H, 42 1C, **50**  
 Imbros 39 2C, 43 2G  
 Imphal, battle of (1944) **198**  
 Incas 108–111, **108–109**, **110**, **111**, 118, **118** 5D, 121, 121, 122, 122, 124, 125  
 indentured labor 172, 175, 195  
 India 48, 49, 54–57, 54, 66, 83, 93, 95, 115, 118, 119, 153, 167 3L, 168, 210–211, **211**, 216, **217** 4K, 218, 219  
 British 173, 173 3L, 174, 176, **177** 3K, 178, 218  
 European colonialism 121, 146, 156, 157, 169  
 Mauryan **47** 4K, **54–55**, 57  
 Mughals see Mughal empire  
 Vedic **54–55**, 56–57  
 Indiana **181** 4I, **182**  
 Indian Mutiny 176  
 Indian Ocean 66, 100, 103, 119, 121, 154  
 Indian wars (U.S.A.) 180, 182, 183  
 Indonesia 210, **217** 5M, 218–219, **221** 5M  
 Indus, river **25**, 46, 47 4J, 48, 54, **55** 2B, 56, 57  
 industrialization 173, 176, **176–177**, 177, 178–179, 179, 183, 183, 184, 184, 187  
 Industrial Revolution 142, 142, **143**, 145, 168  
 Indus valley civilization 18, 21, 22, 54, 54, 56, **56**, 57  
 Inquisition 136  
*intifada* 213, 213, 215  
 Investiture Contest 84–85  
 Iol Caesarea (Cherchell, Algeria) **50** 3B, 68 3B  
 Iolcus (Greece) 39 3B  
 Iona (Scotland) **72** 1B  
 Iowa **181** 3H, **182**  
 Iran 93, 112, 212, 214–215, **214**, **215**, **216** 3J, 220, **220** 3J, 221, 222  
 Iran-Iraq War (1980–88) 214, 215, **215**, 220  
 Iraq 94, 212, 214–215, **215**, **216** 3J, 220, **220** 3J  
 Ireland 72, 86, 129, **138**, 145, 173, 174, **191**, **200** 4D, **216** 2G, **220** 2G  
 Irkutsk (Russia) **150**, **205** 3I  
 Iron Age 36–37, 36, 37  
 Iron Bridge (U.K.) **143** 3B  
 Iron Curtain 207, 217, 219, 220–222  
 irrigation 14, 17, **18–19**, 20, 22, 54, 223  
 Isabella I, queen of Castile

122  
 Isca (Exeter, U.K.) 68 1A  
 Isfahan (Iran) 82, **92** 2C, 95, **112** 3J, **155** 3G, 156, **215**  
 Ishim (Russia) **151** 3G  
 Iskenderum (Turkey) **46** 2D  
 Isla de Sacrificios (Mexico) **104** 2D  
 Islam 30, 72, **72–73**, 75, 77, 80–83, 80, **80–81**, 82, 94, 101, 103, 112–115, 112–113, 154–157, **154–155**, 162, 164, 167, 175, 194, 211, **211**, 212, 214, 220, 221, 222  
 Ismail I, Salavid shah 155  
 Isonzo, battles of the (1915–17) **188** 4E  
 Israel 31 3B, 32, 33, 212–214, 212, **213**, **213** 3B, 215, **216** 3I, 217, 219, **220**, **220** 3I, 222  
 Israelites 30–33, 30  
 Issus (Turkey) **46** 2D  
 Istanbul (Byzantium/Constantinople, Turkey) **32**, **43** 2I, **51** 3F, **69** 3F, 71, 71, 72, 75, 75, 76, 76, **77** 2E, 79, 82, 83, **112** 2I, 114, 120, **135** 4I, 150, 154, **155** 2E, 191  
 Italy 42, 50–53, 85, 87, 119, 120, 134, 148, 176, 176 2H, **216** 2H, **220** 2H, 222  
 colonies **176–177**, **192–193**, 194  
 fascism **191**, 200  
 kingdom of **85** 4D  
 Lombard league **85**  
 Norman kingdom 85, **85** 4E  
 unification 176, 184, **185**, 186, 186, 187  
 World War I 188, **188** 5D  
 World War II **201** 6G, 202, 203  
 Itanus (Crete) **43** 5H  
 Itzcóatl, Aztec king 106, 107  
 Ivan III, grand prince of Moscow 150, 153  
 Ivan III, prince of Moscow 79  
 Ivan IV (the Terrible), czar of Russia 150, 153  
 Iwasakiyama (Japan) **97** 5C  
 Iwo Jima, battle of (1945) **198**, **198**  
 Ixhuacan (Mexico) **104** 2C  
 Iximché (Guatemala) **105** 4F  
 Izamal (Mexico) **105** 1G  
 Izawa (Japan) **97** 3F

**J**  
 Jacobins 145  
 Jahangir, Mughal emperor 157  
 Jainism 56  
 Jalapa (Mexico) **104** 2C  
 Jamaica **123** 3F, **124**, 125, **166** 4D  
 James II, king of England and Scotland 140  
 Jamestown (Virginia) 126, 126, **127** 5F, 129  
 Janissaries 154, 155  
 Jankowo (Poland) **35** 2E  
 Japan 94, 96–99, **97**, 115, **166**, **167** 3N, 169, 174, 177, **177** 3N, 178, 188, 196–199, **196**, **197**, 210, 211, 217, 222, 223  
 and Russia 204, **205** 5L,

207  
 World War II **198**, 199, 202, 208  
 Jarlshof (Shetland Is.) **34** 1B  
 Jasiira (Somalia) **101** 4G  
 Jassy (Romania) **185** 3F  
 Jauja (Peru) **108** 3C  
 Java **119** 5M, **167** 5M  
 Java Sea, battle of (1942) **198**  
 Jedisan **155** 2E  
 Jefferson, Thomas, president of the United States  
 Jemappe (Belgium) **33** 3D  
 Jena-Auenstädt, battle of (1806) **147** 2E  
 Jenin (West Bank) **213** 2B  
 Jenné (Jenne-jeno, Mali) **100**, **101** 3B, 103  
 Jericho (West Bank) 30, **31** 4B, **213** 3B, 214  
 Jerusalem (Israel) **23** 4D, 29, 30, **31** 4B, 32, 33, **51** 4G, 65, 78, 79, **79**, **81** 2E, **112**, **112** 3I, 212, 212, **213**, **213** 3B, 215  
 battle of (1917) **189** 7J  
 Jesuit order 122–123, 125, 136, 161  
 Jesus of Nazareth 33, 65, 112, 114  
 Jews 25, 30–33, 66, 68, 112–115  
 exile 32–33  
 persecution of 200, 202, 202, **202**, 203  
 Jezreel (Israel) 30  
 Ji (China) **59** 1E  
 Jiaozhi (China) **59** 4C  
 Jiddah (Saudi Arabia) **101** 2F  
*jihad* 81  
 Ji'nan (China) **159** 3F  
 Jincheng (China) **59** 2C  
 Jin empire 91, **91**, **93** 2G  
 Jinguji (Japan) **97** 5C  
 Jining (China) **93** 2G  
 Jinyang (China) **59** 1D  
 Jiujiang (China) **197** 4G  
 Joan of Arc, French leader and saint 87, 87  
 Joffre, Joseph, French general 190  
 Johannesburg (S. Africa) **193** 7E  
 John, king of England 87  
 John of Austria, military commander **135**, 137  
 John Sobieski, king of Poland 141, 166  
 Joppa (Israel) **31** 3B  
 Jordan 212, **213** 3B, 215, **216** 3I  
 Joseph II, Holy Roman emperor 145  
 Joseph Bonaparte, king of Spain 149  
 Josephine, empress of France 148  
 Joshua, Jewish warleader 30  
 Judah, Roman province 31 4B, 32, 32, 33  
 Judaism see Jews  
 Judea, Roman province **51** 4G  
 Juizhen (China) **59** 4C  
 Julius Caesar see Caesar, Julius  
 Junagadh (India) **55** 4B  
 junk, Chinese 89, 91  
 Junnar (India) **55** 4C  
 Jürchen people 90–91, **91**, 158, **158**, **159** 2G  
 Justinian, emperor 76, 76  
 Jutland, battle of (1916) **188**

2D, 190, 191  
 Juyang (China) **59** 2E  
**K**  
 Ka'aba, shrine at Mecca 80  
 Kaarta (Africa) 162, **162** 3B, **166** 4G  
 Kabah (Mexico) **105** 1G  
 Kabul (Afghanistan) **55** 1B, **92** 2D, **119** 3K, 121  
 Kabwe (Zambia) **10** 5I  
 Kaegyong (Korea) **93** 2H  
 Kaffa (Ukraine) 86, **87**, 95, **155** 2F  
 Kaifeng (China) 90, 91, **91**, **93** 2G, **113** 3M, **159** 4F  
 Kailas, Mount (Tibet) **113** 3L  
 Kairouan (Tunisia) **80** 2C  
 Kajaghra (India) **55** 3D  
 Kakongo (Africa) **163** 5D  
 Kalhu, Mesopotamian city **23** 3F  
 Kalibangan, Indus valley site **56**  
 Kalinga, Indian kingdom **55** 4D, 57  
 Kalmyks **119** 2M, **158**, **159** 2C  
 Kaluga (Russia) **204** 3B  
 Kamieniec (Poland) **35** 2E  
 kamikaze pilots 199  
 kamikaze winds 99  
 Kaminaljuyú (Guatemala) **105** 4F  
 Kammu, emperor of Japan 96  
 Kandahar (Afghanistan) **55** 2A, 155–156  
 Kanem-Bornu (Africa) **101** 3D, 102, **118** 4H, 162, **163** 3D, 165  
 Kanesh (Turkey) **23** 2D  
 Kanishka, Kushan king 65, 66  
 Kannonyama (Japan) **97** 4E  
 Kano (Nigeria) **101** 3C  
 Karaganda (Russia) **204** 3F  
 Karakorum (Mongolia) **93** 1F, 94, **95**  
 Karashahr (China) **88** 1C  
 Karbala (Iraq) **81** 3F, **112** 3I  
 Karnak (Egypt) **27** 4B  
 Kars (Turkey) **155** 2F  
 Kar-Tukulti-Ninurta, Mesopotamian city **23** 3F  
 Kasanie (Africa) **163** 5D  
 Kashgar (China) **88** 2B, **92** 2D, **95**  
 Kashmir 211, **211**  
 Kastri (Greece) **39** 3B  
 Kato Zakro (Crete) **39**  
 Katsina (Niger) **101** 3C  
 Kaupang (Norway) **73** 1D, **75**  
 Kausambi (India) **55** 3D  
 Kazakhstan **207**, **221** 2K, 223  
 Kazan (Russia) **118** 2J, **155** 1G, **204** 3C  
 Kazembe (Africa) **166** 5I  
 Kelheim (Germany) **35** 3D  
 Kells (Ireland) **72** 1B  
 Book of 74  
 Kennedy, John F., president of the United States 216, 219  
 Kentucky **133**, **133**, **181** 4I, **182**  
 Kenya **216** 4I, **220** 4I, 222  
 keyhole tombs (Japan) 96, **97**  
 Khabarovsk (Russia) **205** 4L  
 khanates, Mongolian 92–95  
 Khandia (Crete) **38**, **39**, **39** 5C

Kharkov (Russia) **151** 4D, **204** 4B  
 battle of (1943) **201** 4M  
 Khartoum (Sudan) 194, 195  
 Khmer, kingdom **93** 3F, 115  
 Khmer Rouge 211, 220  
 Khoisan peoples 67  
 Khomeini, Ayatollah, Iranian leader 214, 215, 220  
 Khotan (China) **88** 2B  
 Khrushchev, Nikita, Soviet leader 207  
 Kiel (Germany) **201** 4H  
 Kiev (Ukraine) 75, 75, 79, **92** 1B, **112** 2I, **204** 3B  
 battle of (1941) **201** 4L  
 Kilkenny (Ireland) **84** 2B  
 Kilwa Kisiwani (Tanzania) **101** 5F, **112** 5I, **163** 5F  
 Kimberley (S. Africa) 192, **193** 7E  
 Kim Il Sung, N. Korean dictator 210  
 King, Martin Luther Jr., civil rights campaigner 219, 219  
 King Philip's War (1675–76) 129  
 King's Mountain, battle of (1780) **131** 5D  
 Kingston (Jamaica) 164  
 Kish, Mesopotamian city **23** 4F  
 Kisumu (Kenya) **193** 4F  
 Kizil Irmak **23** 2D  
 Klasies River Mouth (S. Africa) **10** 6I  
 Klondike gold rush 183  
 Knocknalappa (Ireland) **34** 2A  
 Knossos (Crete) **35** 4F, 38, **39**, **39** 5C, 41, **43** 5G  
 Knox, John, Scottish reformer 137  
 Koguryo, kingdom **65** 2O, 89, **89** 1G  
 Kohima, battle of (1944) **198**  
 Kokand (Uzbekistan) **47** 1K  
 Kokubunji (Japan) **97** 4C  
 Kolosvar (Hungary) **185** 3E  
 Komandorskie, battle of (1943) **198**  
 Komorizuka (Japan) **97** 5C  
 Komsomolsk (Russia) **205** 3L  
 Konarak (India) **113** 3L  
 Kong Askers Høj (Denmark) **35**  
 Kong empire (Africa) **163** 3B  
 Königgrätz, battle of (1866) **185** 2D  
 Königsberg (Kaliningrad, Russia) **151** 4C, **201** 4J  
 Konya (Turkey) **155** 3E  
 Koobi Fora (Kenya) **10** 4I  
 Koraku (Greece) **39** 4B  
 Koran 80, 80, 83, 115  
 Korea 64, 67, 89, 91, **93** 2H, 94, 96, 99, 115, **159** 3G, **173** 2N, **177** 3N, **197** 3I, 198, 199, **205** 5K, **209** 1E, 210  
 North **209** 1E, 210, 211, 217, **217** 2N, **221** 2N  
 South **209** 2E, 210, 211, **217** 3N, **221** 3N, 223  
 Korean War (1950–53) 208, 210, 211, 216  
 Koryo, kingdom 91  
 Kosovo, battle of (1389) 83  
 Kotlas (Russia) **204** 2C  
 Koumbi Saleh (Mali) **101** 3B  
 Kowloon (Russia) **197** 5G



Kow Swamp (Australia) 11 6O  
 Krakow (Poland) 85 3E, 92 1A, 151 4B, 155 1D, 185 2D, 202  
 Krapina (Croatia) 10 2H  
 Krasnoi, battle of (1812) 147 2I  
 Krasnovodsk (Turkmenistan) 204 4D  
 Krasnoyarsk (Russia) 150  
 Krupp, Alfred, German industrialist 179, 179  
 Kuba (Africa) 163 5E  
 Kublai Khan, Mongolian ruler 91, 93, 94, 95, 99, 160  
 Kucha (China) 88 1C  
 Kufa (Iraq) 81 3F  
 Kujala Kadphises, Kushan king 65, 66  
 Kula Gulf, battle of (1943) 198  
 Kuomintang (Chinese nationalists) 160, 196, 197, 198, 199, 208  
 Kuril Islands 198, 205 4N  
 Kursk, battle of (1943) 201 4M, 203  
 Kush, kingdom of 18, 18 4I, 102  
 Kushan empire 65, 66  
 Kusinagara (India) 55 2D  
 Kut, battle of (1915-17) 189 7L  
 Kuwait 176 3J, 193 2G, 214, 215, 215, 215, 216 3J, 220 3J, 221  
 Küyük, Mongolian ruler 94  
 Kwajalein, battle of (1943) 198  
 Kyakhta (Mongolia) 159 1E, 161  
 Kyongju (Korea) 113 3O  
 Kyoto (Japan) 96, 97, 99  
 Kyrgyzstan 207, 221 2K, 222  
 Kyushu (Japan) 96, 97, 99

**L**  
 Labná (Mexico) 105 1G  
 La Chapelle-aux-Saints (France) 10 2H  
 Lachish (Israel) 32  
 La Coruña, battle of (1809) 146 4A  
 Laetoli (Kenya) 10, 10 5I  
 Lagash, Mesopotamian city 23 5G  
 Lagos (Nigeria) 163 4C, 164  
 La Horadez (Guatemala) 105 3G  
 Lahore (Pakistan) 157  
 Lalibela (Ethiopia) 101 3F, 103, 112 4I  
 Lampsacus (Turkey) 43 2H  
 Langensaiza, battle of (1866) 185 2B  
 Langres (France) 73 2C  
 Langtangdong (China) 11 3M  
 Lantian (China) 11 3M  
 Laos 159 6D, 160, 208, 209 4C, 217 4M, 221 4M  
 Lapita culture 19, 19 5P  
 La Plata, United Provinces of 166 6D  
 La Playa (Argentina) 108 1F  
 La Salle, Sieur de, French explorer 127, 129  
 Las Flores (Mexico) 104C  
 Las Navas de Tolosa, battle of (1212) 87  
 La Tène culture 34-35, 35

3C, 37  
 Latin empire 78-79, 79  
 Latin language 68-69, 69-70, 77  
 Latvia 191, 204 3A, 206, 207, 220 2I  
 La Venta (Mexico) 104  
 League of Nations 198, 200  
 Lebanon 212-213, 213, 215, 216 3I, 220, 220 3I  
 Lechfield, battle of (955) 75  
 Le Creusot (France) 187  
 Legio (Spain) 50 3A  
 Leipzig (Germany) 135 2F, 201 4H  
 battle of (1813) 147 2E, 149  
 Le Mans, battle of (1870) 185 3A  
 Le Moustier (France) 10 2H  
 Lenin, Vladimir Ilych, Russian revolutionary 205, 205, 206  
 Leningrad see St. Petersburg  
 Léon, kingdom of 84 4B  
 Leonardo da Vinci, Italian painter and inventor 134  
 Leopold II, king of the Belgians 194, 194, 195  
 Lepanto, battle of (1571) 135 5H, 137, 154, 155 3D, 157  
 Leptis Magna (Libya) 32, 69 4D  
 Lewes (U.S.A.) 126  
 Lexington, battle of (1775) 131 3F, 132, 133  
 Leyte Gulf, battle of (1944) 198  
 Lhasa (Tibet) 113 3L, 209 3B  
 Li (China) 89 2E, 89 3E  
 Liangzhou (China) 59 1C  
 Liaodong (China) 158, 158, 159 3G  
 Liaoyang (China) 93 2H  
 battle of (1904) 197 3H  
 Liberia 165, 172, 172 4G, 176 4G, 192 4B, 216 4G, 220 4G  
 Libya 82, 216 3H, 220 3H, 222  
 Lijiacun (China) 58  
 Limanowa, battle of (1914) 188 4F  
 Limerick (Ireland) 75  
 Li Mui (Sardinia) 35  
 Lincoln, Abraham, president of the United States 182, 183  
 Lindsfame (U.K.) 72 1B, 75  
 Lindus (Rhodes) 43 4I  
 Lingling (China) 59 3D  
 Linjiang (China) 11 3M  
 Linköping (Sweden) 85 2E  
 Linz (Austria) 185 3C  
 Linzi (China) 59 1E  
 Lisbon (Portugal) 68 3A, 86, 142 6A  
 battles of (1640, 1809) 138 5A, 146 5A  
 Lithuania 191, 204 3A, 206, 207, 220 2I  
 Little Bighorn, battle of (1876) 180, 183  
 Little Cestos (Liberia) 162 4B  
 Little Salt Spring (U.S.A.) 10 3C  
 Liverpool (U.K.) 164, 164, 200 4E  
 Livingstone, David, British explorer 192, 193, 194, 195

Livy, Roman historian 53  
 Li Yuan, Tang ruler 88, 91  
 llama, domestication of 16  
 Lloyd George, David, British prime minister 190  
 Loanga (Africa) 163 5D  
 Locri (Italy) 42 3C  
 Lodi, battle of (1796) 147 3D  
 Lodz, battle of (1914) 188 3F  
 Lombard league 85  
 London (U.K.) 68 1B, 72 2B, 84 3C, 86, 134 2D, 141, 143 3B, 164, 176, 184, 200 4E  
 Long Island, battle of (1776) 131 3F  
 Longkou (China) 197 3H  
 Longzhou (China) 197 5F  
 Lopez de Sequeira, Diego, Portuguese navigator 119 4L  
 Lorsch (Germany) 73 2D  
 Los Millares (Spain) 35  
 Lostwithiel, battle of (1664) 139 2B  
 Lothal (Indus) 56  
 Louis XIV, king of France 138, 140, 141, 141, 166  
 Louis XV, king of France 141  
 Louis XVI, king of France 144-145  
 Louisiana 127 6C, 131 4B, 133, 181 4H, 182  
 Louisiana Purchase 132, 133, 133, 168  
 Louis-Philippe, king of France 184, 187  
 Lower Palatinate (Germany) 135 3E, 138, 139 3D  
 Lozi (Africa) 163 6E, 166 5I  
 Luanda 118 5H, 162, 163 5D, 165  
 see also Angola  
 Luba, African State 118 5I, 163 5E  
 Lubaantun (Belize) 105 3G  
 Lugdunum see Lyon  
 Lunda, African state 163 5E  
 Luolang (N. Korea) 59 1F  
 Luoyang (China) 58, 58, 59 2D, 61, 89 2F, 113 3M  
 Lushun (Port Arthur, China) 197 3H, 198, 205 5K  
 Lusitania, Roman province 50 3A  
 Luther, Martin, reformer 118, 120, 134, 135, 137  
 Lutheranism 135, 135, 140  
 Lutter, battle of (1626) 138, 139 2E  
 Lützen, battle of (1632) 139 2E, 141  
 Lvov (Poland) 185 3E, 202  
 Lyon (Lugdunum, France) 50 2B, 68 2B, 73 2C, 135 3E, 143 4C, 185 3A, 201 5G

**M**  
 Macartney, Lord, British diplomat 161  
 Macau 158, 159 5F, 161, 166, 197 5G  
 Macedonia (Former Yugoslav Republic of) 220 2I  
 Macedon/Macedonia 43 2E, 44, 45, 46-49, 46-47, 46 1A, 48, 51, 51 3E  
 Machaquilá (Guatemala) 105 3G  
 Machu Picchu (Peru) 108 2C, 111

Madagascar 192, 193 6G, 216 6J, 220 5J  
 Madeira 100 1A  
 Madrid (Spain) 143 5B, 146 4B  
 Madurai (India) 113 4K  
 Maes Howe (Orkney Is.) 35  
 Mafia Island (Tanzania) 101 5G  
 Magadha, Indian kingdom 55 2D, 57  
 Magdagachi (Russia) 205 3K  
 Magdeburg (Germany) 73 2D, 85 3D  
 Magellan, Ferdinand, navigator 118 4F, 118 6D, 119, 119 4N, 120  
 Magna Carta 87  
 Magnesia, battle of (190 BC) 49, 51 3E  
 Magyars 75  
 Mahdi, Al-, Islamic leader 194, 194, 195  
 Mahismati (India) 55 3C  
 Maidum (Egypt) 27 2B  
 Maine 181 3K, 182  
 Mainz (Germany) 73 2D, 135 2E  
 Makapansgat (S. Africa) 10 6I  
 Makkura, kingdom 101 3F, 102  
 Makua (Africa) 163 6F  
 Malacca (Malaysia) 113 4M, 118, 119 4M, 119 5M, 121  
 Malawi 216 5I, 220 5I  
 Malaya 199, 209 5C  
 Malaya Siya (Russia) 11 2L  
 Malaysia 209 5C, 217 4M, 221 4M, 223  
 Male Kosihy (Hungary) 35 3E  
 Malembo (Angola) 163 5D  
 Mali (Africa) 100, 100, 100-101 3B, 102, 103, 118 4G  
 Malinalco (Mexico) 104 2B  
 Malindi (Kenya) 101 5G  
 Mallia (Crete) 38, 39  
 Mallorca, emirate of 84 4C  
 Maloyaroslavets, battle of (1812) 147 2J  
 Malta 185 5C, 193 1D, 201 7H, 216 3H, 220 3H  
 Mal'ta (Russia) 11 2L  
 Mamluke Turks 95, 118, 146  
 Mam Tor (U.K.) 34 2B  
 Manaus (Brazil) 123 5G  
 Manchu empire see China  
 Manchuria 90, 91, 92, 159 2H, 196, 197 2H, 198, 199, 208  
 Manco Capac, first Inca 108  
 Manda (Kenya) 101 5G  
 Mandan 127 3B  
 Mandela, Nelson, president of S. Africa 195, 221  
 Manding (Africa) 162 3A  
 Manhao (China) 197 5E  
 manioc, cultivation of 18  
 Manitoba (Canada) 180, 181 2H  
 Mannheim (Germany) 143 4D  
 Mansu Uli, king of Mali 103  
 Mantinea (Greece) 43 4F  
 Manzhouli (China) 197 2G  
 Manzikert, battle of (1071) 77 3H, 78, 79  
 Maori people 173, 175  
 Mao Zedong, Chinese leader 208, 208, 210, 211  
 Maragha (Iran) 94  
 Marathas 156, 157

Marathon, battle of (490 BC) 44, 45, 45  
 Marcos, Ferdinand, president of Philippines 208, 220  
 Marcus Aurelius, emperor 68  
 Marengo, battle of (1800) 146, 147 4D  
 Mari, Mesopotamian city 23 4E, 24  
 Marie Antoinette, queen of France 144-145, 144  
 Marie-Louise, empress of France 148, 149  
 Mariupol (Ukraine) 204 4B  
 Marius, Roman general 53  
 Marj Dabiq, battle of (1516) 118, 118 3I  
 Mark Antony see Antony, Mark  
 Marnes (U.S.A.) 10 2A  
 Marne, battle of the (1914) 188, 188 4C, 191  
 Marseille (Massilia, France) 50 2C, 68 2B, 86, 86, 154 2C  
 Marshall Plan 217  
 Mars-la-Tour, battle of (1870) 185 3A  
 Marston Moor, battle of (1644) 139 2B  
 Mary I, queen of England 137  
 Mary II, queen of England 140  
 Maryland 127 5F, 133, 181 4J, 182  
 Mary Queen of Scots 137  
 Masada (Israel) 32, 33  
 Mason-Dixon line 182  
 Massachusetts 127 4G, 129, 133, 166, 181 3J, 182  
 Massilia see Marseille  
 Masurian Lakes, battle of (1914-15) 188 3G  
 Mathura (India) 55 2C  
 Matsumoto (Japan) 97 4C  
 Mauritania 192 3A, 216 3G, 220 3G  
 Roman province 50 3B  
 Mauritius 193 7H, 216 6J, 221 5K  
 Mauryan empire 47 4K, 54-55, 57  
 Maximilian I, Holy Roman emperor 134  
 Maya 67, 104-106, 105, 105, 106, 107, 125  
 Mayapán (Peru) 105 1G  
 Mazatlan (Peru) 105 4E  
 Mbundu (Africa) 163 6D  
 Meaux (France) 135 3D  
 Mecca (Saudi Arabia) 80, 81 3E, 83, 83, 101 2F, 103, 112 3I, 154, 155 4F, 157, 168  
 Medes/Media 23 3H, 25, 25  
 Media 23 3H, 25  
 Medici family 87  
 Medieval Europe 84-87, 84-85  
 Medina (Saudi Arabia) 80-81, 81 3E, 82, 83, 83, 112 3I, 155 4F, 168  
 Mediolanum (Italy) see Milan  
 Mediolanum (Saintes, France) 68 2B  
 Mediterranean Sea 22 3A, 25, 26, 29, 31, 32, 35 4D, 36, 40, 43 5F  
 Mediterranean trade 78  
 megaliths 18, 20, 21, 34-35, 35, 37

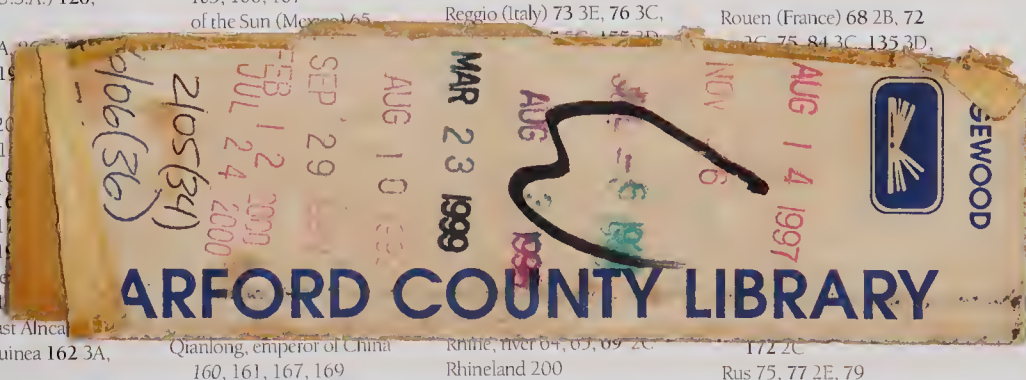
Megalopolis (Sivas, Turkey) 69 3G  
 Megara (Greece) 43 3F  
 Megiddo (Israel) 31 3B  
 battle of (1918) 189 7J  
 Mehmet Ali, viceroy of Egypt 168  
 Mehmet II, Ottoman sultan 79, 154  
 Mehrgarh, Indus valley site 56  
 Meiji Restoration 198, 199  
 Melitene (Turkey) 77 3G  
 Memphis, battle of (1862) 182  
 Memphis (Egypt) 22 5B, 25, 26, 27 2B, 29, 32, 46 4C, 69 4F  
 Menelaion (Greece) 39 4B  
 Mengzi (China) 197 5E  
 Mentuhotep II, Egyptian ruler 29  
 Meroë (Nubia) 32, 64 4I, 101 3F, 102  
 Merv (Turkmenistan) 47 2I  
 Mesembria (Bulgaria) 43 1H, 77 2E  
 Mesoamerica 64, 65, 67, 104-107, 104-107  
 Mesopotamia 18, 21, 22-25, 22, 23, 24, 25, 28, 30, 56, 66, 69 4G, 71  
 metalworking 14-15, 16-17, 18-19, 22, 34-37, 57, 67, 99, 100, 102  
 Metapontum (Italy) 42 2C  
 Methodius, St. 79  
 Methone (Greece) 43 2F  
 Métis 180, 180-181  
 Metternich, Prince Klemens von, Austrian minister 184, 186  
 Metz (France) 73 2C, 75, 85 3C, 185 3B  
 Mexican-American War (1846-48) 173, 183  
 Mexico 65, 67, 121, 122, 124, 125, 134, 168, 172 3B, 176 3B, 180  
 see also Aztecs; Maya  
 Mexico, Valley of 104, 106, 107  
 Mexico City (Mexico) 122 2C  
 Mexiquito (Mexico) 104 2A  
 Mian 159 5C  
 Michigan 181 3I, 182  
 Middle Awash (Ethiopia) 10 4I  
 Middle East 212-215  
 Midway, battle of (1942) 198, 199  
 migration, human 172-173, 173-175, 174, 183  
 Mike (Japan) 97 5B  
 Mikhail I, czar of Russia 153  
 Milan (Mediolanum, Italy) 32, 35 3C, 69 2C, 73 2D, 85 3D, 87, 135 3E, 137, 139 3D, 147 3D, 185 3B, 201 5G  
 Milazzo, battle of (1860) 185 5D  
 Miletus (Turkey) 39 4D, 43 4H  
 millet, cultivation of 16  
 Minamoto Yoritomo 97, 98-99  
 Minamoto Yoshinaka 97  
 Ming dynasty see China  
 Minnesota 181 3H, 182  
 Minoan civilization 18, 35 4F, 36, 37, 38-40, 38, 39, 41



- Minoan, legendary Cretan ruler 38
- Minsk (Belarus) **204** 3A
- battle of (1944) **201** 4K
- Miocene epoch 11-12
- Mississippi **181** 4I, **182**
- Mississippi, river 126, 128, 133
- Missolonghi, battle of (1826) **185** 5E
- Missouri **181** 4H, **182**
- Mistra (Greece) **77** 3D
- Mithraism 68
- Mida **104** 3C
- Mixco Viejo (Guatemala) **105** 4F
- Mixtlan (Mexico) **105** 2D
- Mladec (Czech Republic) **10** 2H
- Moab, Biblical kingdom 30, 31 4B, 32
- Mobile Bay, battle of (1864) **182**
- Moche, Andean kingdom **64** 5D, 67, 108, 109, 109, 111
- Moctezuma II, Aztec ruler 106, 107
- Modena (Italy) **135** 4E, **139** 4E
- Modoc War (1872-73) **180** 3E
- Moesia, Roman province **51** 2E
- Mogadishu (Somalia) **101** 4G
- Moguntiacum (Germany) **51** 2C
- Mohács, battle of (1526) **118** 2H, 119, **155** 2D, 157
- Mohenjo-Daro, Indus valley site 54, 54, 56
- Moldova **207**, **220** 2I, 222
- Mombasa (Kenya) **101** 5F, **163** 5F, 166
- monasticism
- Buddhist 88, 88
- Christian **72-73**, 74, 74, 75, 79, 87
- Monastiraki (Crete) **39**
- Möngke, Mongolian ruler 94
- Mongolia **159**, 177 2L, 196, 197 2E, **198**, 209 1C, 217 2M, 221 2M
- Mongols 83, 92-95, **92-93**, 93 1G, 94, 94-95, 95, 99, 121, 150, 156, 158, 160-161
- Monmouth, battle of (1778) **131** 3F
- Monroe Doctrine 174, 183
- Montagnais **127** 2I
- Montana **181** 3G
- Monte Albán (Mexico) 104, 104, **104** 3C
- Monte Cassino (Italy) **73** 3D, 74, **112** 2H
- battle of (1944) **201** 6H
- Montenegro **135** 4H, **139** 4F, 143 5F, 147 4G, **155** 2D, 176 2H, **185** 4D, 187, 201 6I, 202
- Monterrey (Mexico) **122** 2D
- Monte Verde (Chile) **10** 6D
- Montréal (Canada) **127** 3G, **131** 2F
- moon landings 218
- Morgan, John Pierpont, railroad tycoon 183
- Morocco 162, 163 1B, 165, 179, 191, 216 3G
- Moscow (Russia) 79, 92 1B, 95, **112** 2I, 150, **151** 3D, 153, **155** 1F, **201** 3M, 202, **204** 3B
- siege of (1812) **147** 1J, 148, 149
- Moses, Biblical prophet 30
- mosques 82, 100, 100
- Mosquito Coast **124**, **166** 4C
- Mossi (Africa) **101** 3B, **118** 4G, 162, **163** 3B, **166** 4G
- Motul (Mexico) **105** 1G
- Mozambique **118** 5I, **163** 6G, **193** 6F, **216** 5I, **220** 5I
- Mozart, Wolfgang Amadeus, Austrian composer 145
- Mpumbe (Africa) **163** 5E
- Muawiya, caliph 82
- Mughal empire 95, 119, **119** 3K, 121, 154, 156-157, 156, **156**, 157, 166, 169
- Muhammad 80, 83, 112, 115
- Mukden *see* Shenyang
- Mundigak, Indus valley site **56**
- Mungo, Lake (Australia) **11** 6O
- Munich (Germany) **85** 3D, **135** 3F, **139** 3E, 143 4E, **185** 3C, **201** 5H, 203, 219
- Muraski Shikibu, Lady 99
- Murmansk (Russia) **204** 2B
- Mursa (Osijek, Croatia) **32**
- musical instrument, first 10
- Muslims *see* Islam
- Mussolini, Benito, Italian dictator 200, 203
- Mwenemutapa (Africa) **118** 5I, 162, 165
- Myanmar 196, 211, **221** 3L
- see also* Burma
- Mycalae, battle of (479 BC) **45**
- Mycenaean civilization 18, 19, 35 4E, 36, 38, **39**, 40-41, 40, 40, 41, 42
- Mycenae (Greece) **35** 4E, 39 4B
- Mylae (Sicily) **42** 3B
- Myorenjiyama (Japan) **97** 4C
- Myrtos (Crete) **39**
- Mysia, Persian province **46** 2B
- Mytilene (Lesbos) **43** 3H
- N**
- Nablus (West Bank) **213** 2B
- Naco (Honduras) **105** 4G
- Nadir Shah, ruler of Persia 156, 156, 168-169
- Nagasaki (Japan) **197** 4I, **198**, 199
- Naissus (Nis, Yugoslavia) **69** 2E
- Nanchang (China) **159** 4F, 161
- Nancy (France) **143** 4D
- Nanghai (China) **59** 4D
- Nanjing (China) **59** 2E, **113** 3M, **119** 3M, **158**, **159** 4E, 160, 197 4G, 198
- Nanning (China) **197** 5F
- Nantes (France) **68** 2B, **72** 2B
- Edict of (1598) 137, 138, 141
- Napata (Nubia) **29**
- Naples (Neapolis, Italy) **42** 2B, **73** 3D, 76 2B, **80** 1C, 85 4D, 86, **135** 4F, 136, **137**, **139** 4F, **143** 5E, 184, **185** 4C, 201 6H
- Naples and Sicily, kingdom of **143** 6F
- Napoleon I, emperor of France 133, 145, 146-149, 146, **146-147**, 153, 167, 168, 168
- Napoleon III, emperor of France 184, 186, 186, 187
- Napoleonic wars 125, 133, 152, 153, 167, 168, 168, 174, 184
- Naqada (Egypt) **27** 4B
- Nara (Japan) 96, **97** 5D
- Naranjo (Belize) **105** 3G
- Narbonne (Narbo, France) **32**, **50** 2B, **68** 2B, **72** 3C, **80** 1B
- Narmada (India) **11** 3K
- Narmer, Egyptian ruler 26
- Narvik, battle of (1940) **201** 1I
- Naseby, battle of (1645) **139** 2B
- Nashville, battle of (1864) **182**
- Nasik (India) **55** 4C
- Natal 195, 195
- Natal (Brazil) **123** 5J
- Native Americans 125, 126, 126, **126-127**, 128, 128, 129, 130, **131** 4C, **133**, 168, 172, 178, 180, 180, **180-181**, 181, 182
- see also* Amerindians
- Natufian people 17
- Naupactus (Greece) **43** 3E
- Navarre, kingdom of **84** 4B
- Naxos (Greece) **43** 4G
- Nazca **64** 5D, 67, 108, **108** 2C, **109**
- Nazi Party 191, 200, 200, 202-203, 204, 206, 212
- Nazi-Soviet pact 206, 207
- Ndongo (Africa) **101** 5D, 162, **163** 5D
- Neander valley (Germany) **10** 2H
- Nebaj (Guatemala) **105** 4F
- Nebraska **181** 3G
- Nebuchadnezzar II, king of Babylon 24, 25, 32, 33
- Nehru, Jawaharlal, Indian prime minister 210-211, 211
- Nelson, Horatio, British admiral 146, 149
- Nemea (Greece) **43** 4F
- Neo-Babylonian empire 25
- neolithic tombs 34-35, **35**
- Nepal **158** 4B, 160, **167** 3L, **208** 3A, **221** 3L
- Nerchinsk, Treaty of (1689) **150**
- Nero, Roman emperor 68, 71
- Netherlands 120, **123**, 125, 126, 128, 129, 134, 136, 138, 141, 144, 148, 158, **163**, 165, 166, **166-167**, **166** 2H, 168, 169, 184, **185** 2A, 191, **201** 4G, **202**, 203, **216** 2H
- Batavian Republic 145
- Dutch empire **172-173**, 174, 176, **176-177**, 192, 218-219
- Spanish 136-137, 138, **139** 2C
- Nevada **181** 4F
- New Amsterdam *see* New York
- New Bern (U.S.A.) **127** 5F
- New Brunswick (Canada) **172** 2D, 180, **181** 3K
- Newbury, battle of (1643) **139** 2B
- Newcomen, Thomas, British inventor 145
- New Delhi (India) **211**
- New England 128, 129, 129
- Newfoundland (Canada) 75, 120, 126, **126**, **127** 3J, **166** 2E, **181** 3L
- New Granada, Viceroyalty of **166** 4D
- Newgrange (Ireland) **35**
- New Guinea 10, 13, 20
- New Hampshire **127** 4G, **133**, **181** 3J, **182**
- New Haven (U.S.A.) **126**, **127** 4G
- New Jersey **127** 4G, **133**, **181** 3J, **182**
- New Mexico **181** 4G, 182
- New Orleans (U.S.A.) **123** 2E, **127** 6C, **131** 6B
- New South Wales (Australia) **167** 6O, 173, **173** 6O
- New Spain 123-124, **132**, **166** 3B
- New Sweden 128
- New World 118-120, 119, 121, 121, 122-129, **122-123**, **124**, **126-127**, 167
- New York (New Amsterdam, U.S.A.) **126**, **127** 4G, 128, 129, **131** 3F, **133**, **164**, 166, 222
- New York state **181** 3J, **182**
- New Zealand 169, 173, **173** 6P, **175**, **177** 6P, 178, **217** 6P, **221** 6P
- Ngarzagamu (Nigeria) **101** 3D
- Ngoyo (Africa) **163** 5D
- Niah Cave (Borneo) **11** 4M
- Niani (Guinea) **101** 3B
- Nicaea (Turkey) **77** 2E
- Nicaragua **172** 4C, **176** 4C, **216** 4C, **220** 4C
- Nicholas II, czar of Russia 191, 204, 207
- Nicomedia (Izmit, Turkey) **51** 3F, **77** 2E
- Nicopolis (Greece) **77** 3D
- battle of (68 BC) **51** 3G
- Nieder-Neundorf (Poland) **35** 2D
- Nie (Japan) **97** 2F
- Niger **193** 3C, **216** 4H
- Nigeria 100, 102, **193** 4C, **216** 4H, **220** 4H
- Biafran civil war 217, 219
- Nijmegen **69** 1C
- Nikolaevsk (Russia) **205** 3M
- Nikolayev (Ukraine) **204** 4B
- Nile, battle of the (1798) 146
- Nile, river 21, **22** 5B, **25**, 26-27, **27**, **29**, **32**, **46** 4C, 100
- Nindowan, Indus valley site **56**
- Nineveh, Mesopotamian city **23** 3F, 25, 32
- Ningbo (China) **197** 4H
- Ningxia (China) **93** 2G
- Nippur, Mesopotamian city **23** 4G
- Nishapur (Iran) **92** 2C
- Nisibis (Turkey) **47** 2E
- Nitriansky Hrádok (Slovakia) **35** 3E
- Niuzhuang (China) **197** 3H
- Nixon, Richard M., president of the United States 207
- Nizhnekolymsk (Russia) **150**
- Nizhny Novgorod (Russia) **151** 3E
- Njinga, queen of the Ndongo 162
- Nkore (Africa) **166** 5I
- Nobatia, kingdom 102
- Nochcoc (Mexico) **104** 3A
- Noh drama 99
- Nok (Nigeria) 100, **101** 4C
- nomadism 16-18, **64-65**, 66, 67, 71, 92-93, 92, 95, 100
- Nombre de Dios (Panama) **123** 4F
- Non-Aligned Movement 208, 219
- Noricum, Roman province **51** 2D
- Norilsk (Russia) **205** 2G
- Normandy landings (1944) **200** 5E, 203
- Normandy/Normans 75, 76, 78, 85, 87
- North Africa 76, 79, 82, 83, 115
- Roman empire 69, 71
- North America 11, 13, 64, 75, **126-133**, **126-127**, **131**, 152, 166, **166** 1
- North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) 208, 218
- North Carolina **127** 5F, **133**, **181** 4J, **182**
- North Dakota **181** 3H
- Northern Ireland 222
- Norway **201** 2G, 202, 203, **216** 1H
- Novae (Bulgaria) **51** 2E
- Nova Scotia (Canada) **127** 4I, **131** 2G, **166** 2D, 180, **181** 3K
- Novgorod (Russia) 75, 79, **112** 2I, **151** 3D
- Noviomagus (Chichester, U.K.) **68** 1A
- Noviomagus (Nijmegen, Netherlands) **51** 1C, **69** 1C
- Novocherkassk (Russia) **204** 4C
- Novorossisk (Russia) **204** 4B
- Nubia, kingdom of 18, 26, **27** 5B, 28, 29, **101** 3F, 102, 103
- nuclear weapons 198, 198, 199, 199, 207, 214, 216, 217, 217, 218, 220, 221
- Numantia (Spain) **34** 4B
- battle of **50** 3B
- Nuraghe Albuca (Sardinia) **35** 4D
- Nuremberg (Germany) **85** 3D, **135** 3F, **201** 5H, 203
- Nzinga Nkwu, Christian convert 103
- O**
- oats, cultivation of 16
- Obdorsk (Russia) **151** 1G
- Octavian *see* Augustus
- Odawara (Japan) **97** 4E
- Odense (Denmark) **85** 2D
- Odessa (Ukraine) **201** 5L, **204** 4B
- Odessos (Bulgaria) **43** 1H
- Odoacer, Germanic ruler 71
- Odyssey (Homer) 41, 45
- Ogachi (Japan) **97** 3F
- Ogedai, Mongol warlord 94
- Ohio **133**, **181** 3I, **182**
- Okinawa (Japan) **11** 3N
- battle of (1945) **198**
- Oklahoma **181** 4H
- Oklahoma City bombing 222
- Olbia (Ukraine) **32**
- Olduvai Gorge (Kenya) **10** 5I, 12
- Olekminsk (Russia) **150**
- Olinda (Brazil) **123** 5J
- Olmees **18** 4C, 19, 19, 104, **104**, 107
- Olympia (Greece) **43** 4E, 45
- Olympic Games 45, 219
- Olympus, Mount (Greece) **43** 2F, 45
- Oman **119** 3K, **155** 4H, 165, 166, 167, **167** 3K, 168
- Omdurman, battle of (1898) 194
- Ormo (Ethiopia) **10** 4I
- Ornsk (Russia) **151** 3H, **204** 3F
- Orin war, Japan 99
- Ontario (Canada) **180**, **181** 2I
- Opium Wars 172, 174, 196, 199
- Oppenheimer, J. Robert, nuclear scientist 199
- oracle bones 21, 58
- Orange Free State 175, 194, 195, **195**
- Orchomenus (Greece) **39** 3B
- Oregon **181** 3F
- Oregon Country 180, **180-181**, 183
- Orel (Russia) **151** 4D
- Orenburg (Russia) **151** 4F, **204** 3D
- Oriskany, battle of (1777) **131** 3E
- Orizaba (Mexico) **104** 2C
- Orléans (France) **135** 3D, **143** 4C, **185** 3A
- siege of 87
- Oromo, African state 118 4I, **163** 4G
- Oropesa (Spain) **154** 2B
- Orthodox church 76, 78-79, 78, 82, **112**, 113, 114, 150, 154
- Osaka (Japan) **97** 5D
- Osama bin Laden, Muslim militant 222
- Oslo Declaration (1993) 215
- Ostia (Italy) **69** 3C
- Ostrogoths 71
- Otrar (Kazakhstan) **92** 2D
- Otto I, king of Germany 75
- Ottoman empire 118, **118** 3I, 119, 120, 121, **135**, 137, 141, 142, 143, 147, 153, 154-157, 154, **154-155**, **163**, 166, **166** 3I, 167, 168, 168, 172, **172** 2I, 174, 176, **176** 3I, 179, 184, **185**, **185** 4E, 187, 187, 188, 191, 212
- Ottoman Turks 79, 83
- Ötztal Alps (Austria) **34**, **35** 3D
- Ouidah (Benin) **163** 4C
- Ovimbundu, Africa **163** 6D
- Oxford (U.K.) **84** 3B, **134** 2C, **139** 2B
- Oyo (Africa) **101** 4C, 102, **118** 4H, 162, **166** 4H
- Old **163** 4C
- P**
- Pacal, Mayan ruler 105
- Pachacamac (Peru) **112** 5D



- Pachacutec, Inca ruler 108, 111
- Pacific War (1941-45) 176, 196, 198, 198, 199, 199, 211
- Padua (Italy) 85 3D, 143 4E
- Pagan (Myanmar) 113 3L
- Pakhoi (China) 197 5F
- Pakistan 211, 211, 216, 217 3K, 221 3K
- Palaikastro (Crete) 39
- Palencia (Spain) 84 4B
- Palenque (Mexico) 105, 105, 105 3E
- Palermo (Sicily) 76 3B, 85 4D, 185 5C, 201 7H
- Palestine 69, 76, 77, 77 4F, 79, 82, 83
- Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) 212-214, 215
- Palestinians 212-214, 212, 213, 213, 215, 220
- Palmyra (Tadmor, Syria) 31 2D, 51 4G, 69 4G
- Panama 118 4D, 121, 123 4F, 176 4C, 216 4C, 220 4C
- canal 176 4C, 177, 178
- Panipat, battle of (1526) 119, 119 3K, 156
- Panlongcheng (China) 58
- Pannonia, Roman province 51 2D
- Panticapaeum (Kerch, Ukraine) 32, 69 2G
- papacy 72, 72-73, 76, 78-79, 84-85, 87, 113, 135-136
- Papal states 85 4D, 118 2H, 135 4F, 139 4E, 166 2H
- Paphos (Cyprus) 51 4F
- Papua New Guinea 199, 217 5O, 221 5O
- Paraguay 124, 166 6E, 168, 172 6E, 176 6E, 178, 216 6E, 220 5E
- Paria (Bolivia) 108 1D
- Paris (France) 68 2B, 72 2C, 75, 84 3C, 85, 87, 135 3D, 143 4C, 145, 153, 185 3A, 187, 188, 191, 200 5F, 203
- Treaty of (1763) 129, 132, 133
- Parma (Italy) 139 4D
- Paros (Greece) 39 4C, 43 4G
- Parthenon (Athens) 42, 45
- Parthia/Parthians 51 3G, 64, 64 3J, 66
- Pasargadae (Iran) 25, 47 3G
- Passey (France) 143 4C
- pastoral nomads 16-17, 18-19
- Patagonia (Argentina) 13
- Pataliputra (India) 55 3D
- Pattala (Pakistan) 47 4J, 55 3B
- Paul, St., journeys of 112
- Paul I, czar of Russia 153
- Paulistas 123, 125
- Pavia, battle of (1525) 118 2H, 119, 134
- peace movement 217
- Pea Ridge, battle of (1862) 182
- Pearl Harbor 198, 199, 202
- Peasants' Revolt 87
- Pedra Pintada (Brazil) 10 5E
- Pedro I, emperor of Brazil 174
- Peleliu, battle of (1944) 198
- Pella (Greece) 46 1A
- Peloponnesian War 44, 45
- Pelym (Russia) 151 3G
- Pemba Island (Tanzania) 101 5F
- Pengli (China) 59 3E
- Peninsular War (1808-14) 148-149, 168
- Pennsylvania 127 4F, 133, 181 3J, 182
- Pensacola (U.S.A.) 127 6D, 131 6C
- Perarine (France) 35
- Perestrello, Rafaello, Italian navigator 119 4M
- Pergamon (Bergama, Turkey) 32, 48, 51, 51 3E, 69 3E
- Pericles, Athenian leader 45
- Peristeria (Greece) 39 4A
- Perrn (Russia) 204 3D
- Perry, Commander Matthew, U.S. navy 176, 196, 199
- Perryville, battle of (1862) 182
- Persepolis (Iran) 47 4G, 48, 48, 49
- Persian Gates, battle of the (330 BC) 47 4G
- Persian Gulf 155
- Persia/Persians 25, 25, 29, 32, 33, 43 2H, 44, 45, 45, 46-49, 46-47, 66, 70, 76, 77, 82-83, 94, 95, 112, 166 3J, 169
- see also Safavid empire
- Peru 18, 20, 64, 67, 108-111, 118, 118, 119, 122, 123, 124, 125, 134, 166 5D, 172 5D, 176, 176 5D, 216 5D, 220 5D, 222
- Pest (Hungary) 92 1A
- Petatlan (Mexico) 104 3A
- Petén (Guatemala) 105, 105 3F, 107
- Peter I, czar of Russia 150, 150, 150-151, 152, 153
- Peter III, czar of Russia 152, 153
- Petersburg, battle of (1864) 182
- Petersburg (U.S.A.) 131 4E
- Petra (Jordan) 32
- Petrograd see St. Petersburg
- Petropavlovsk (Russia) 150
- Phaistos (Crete) 38, 39
- Pharos lighthouse, Alexandria 48, 49
- Pharsalus, battle of (48 BC) 51 3E
- Phaselis (Turkey) 43 4J
- Pherai (Greece) 43 3F
- Philadelphia (U.S.A.) 127 5G, 131 3E, 132, 132, 133
- Philip II, king of Macedon 44, 46, 46, 47, 49
- Philip II, king of Spain 136-137
- Philip V, king of Macedon 51
- Philip V, king of Spain 141
- Philippaugh, battle of (1645) 139 1B
- Philippines 173 4N, 177 4N, 183, 199, 208, 209 4D, 211, 217 4N, 220, 221 4N
- Philippine Sea, battle of (1944) 198
- Philistia/Philistines 30, 31 4B, 33, 41
- Phocaea (Turkey) 43 3H
- Phoenicia/Phoenicians 23 4D, 30, 31 3B, 36, 42, 46-47, 50-51, 53
- Pi, Chinese province 58
- Piacenza (Italy) 85 4D
- pictographs 18-19, 21, 54, 58, 61
- Piedras Negras (Guatemala) 105 3F
- pig, domestication of 16
- pilgrimage 80, 113
- Pilgrim settlers 129, 166
- Pilsen (Plzen, Czech Republic) 187
- Ping (China) 59 2D
- Pingyang (China) 59 2D, 93 2G
- Pisa (Italy) 85 4D
- Pisidia, Persian province 46 2C, 51 3F
- Pizarro, Francisco, conquistador 108, 111, 121, 122, 123, 123 4E, 123 6E, 125
- Plains of Abraham, battle of (1759) 129
- Plataea, battle of (479 BC) 45
- Plato, Greek philosopher 44, 45
- plow, use of 14, 17, 18-19, 22, 25, 37
- Plymouth (U.S.A.) 126, 127 4G, 129
- Plymouth (U.K.) 143 3B
- Pocohontas 128, 128
- Poitiers (France) 84 3B
- battle of (732) 72 2C, 75, 82
- Poland 136, 143 3G, 145, 149, 150, 151, 166, 191, 191, 200, 203, 204 3A, 206, 207, 207
- Partition of 142, 152
- Polish Succession, War of the (1733-35) 145
- Polo, Marco, traveler 94
- Polonnaruwa (Sri Lanka) 113 4L
- Pol Pot, dictator 211, 220
- Poltava (Ukraine) 204 4B
- battle of (1709) 153
- Polynesians 19, 64
- Pomerania 185 2D
- Pompeii (Italy) 51 3D, 68
- Ponce de Leon, Juan, Spanish explorer 123 2F
- Pontiacs 129
- Pontiac's War (1763) 129
- Pontus, Persian province 51 3F
- population increase, in ancient world 15, 19, 22, 42
- Port Arthur see Lushun
- Port Jackson (Sydney, Australia) 167
- Port Moresby, battle of (1942-43) 198
- Porto Bello (Panama) 123 3E
- Port Royal (Nova Scotia) 127 4H
- Portsmouth (U.S.A.) 126, 127 4G
- Portugal 84 4A, 149, 175, 191, 216 2G
- colonies 120
- 124, 125, 125
- 162, 162-163
- 166, 166-167
- 172-173, 173
- 192, 192-193
- voyages of 118, 118-119
- Portuguese East Africa 166 4G
- Portuguese Guinea 162 3A, 166 4G
- Portuguese traders 100, 103, 103
- Porus, kingdom of 47 3K
- Poseidonia (Paestum, Italy) 42 2B
- potato, cultivation of 15, 109
- Potidaea (Greece) 43 2F
- Potosí (Bolivia) 123 6G, 125
- pottery 14-15, 16, 19, 22, 34, 38, 45, 64, 89, 91, 100, 102
- Terracotta Army 60, 60
- Poverty Point (U.S.A.) 18
- Poznan (Poland) 85 3E, 185 2D
- Prague (Czech Republic) 85 3D, 135 2F, 185 2C, 217
- Pratisthana (Italy) 55 4C
- Pressburg (Bratislava, Slovakia) 185 3D
- Princeton, battle of (1777) 131 3F
- printing 87, 91, 134, 134-135, 135
- Proclamation Line (1763) 130
- Protestantism 118, 120, 128, 134-141, 134-135, 138-139, 165
- Providence (U.S.A.) 126, 127 4G, 131 3F
- Prussia 135 2H, 139 2G, 142, 143, 144, 145, 149, 149, 166 2I, 168, 174, 178-179, 184, 185 2D, 186-187
- Przemysl, battle of (1915) 189 4G
- Pseira (Crete) 39
- Pskov (Russia) 75, 151 3C, 204 3A
- Ptolemaic rulers of Egypt 48-49, 48, 49
- Ptolemy, founder of dynasty 48, 49
- Puerto Rico 123 3G, 124, 166 4D
- Punic Wars 50-51, 53
- Puritanism 128, 129, 136, 140
- Pusilhá (Belize) 105 3G
- Puteoli (Pozzuoli, Italy) 69 3D
- Puyang (China) 59 2E
- Puy de Paulhiac (France) 35
- Pu Yi, emperor of China 196, 198
- Pydna, battle of (168 BC) 51 3E
- Pylos (Greece) 39 4A
- Pyongyang (N. Korea) 197 3H
- pyramid
- Egyptian 18, 26, 27, 28, 29
- Mesoamerican 65, 104, 105, 106, 107
- of the Sun (Mexico) 165
- Qin (China) 59 2C, 60, 89 2E
- Qin dynasty see China
- Qingdao (China) 197 3H
- Qing Dynasty see China
- Qinghai 158 3C
- Qinhuangdao (China) 197 3G
- Qiongzhou (China) 197 6F
- Quakers 164
- Quebec (Canada) 126, 127 3G, 128, 129, 131 2F, 180, 181 2J
- Quechua language 110
- Quelimane (Mozambique) 163 6F
- Quetzaltepec (Mexico) 104 3C
- Qufu (China) 58, 59 2E
- Quiriguá (Guatemala) 105 4G
- Quito (Ecuador) 108 3A, 123 5F
- Qum (Iran) 92 2C
- Qumrun (Jordan) 31
- Rabbah (Jordan) 31 4B
- Rabin, Yitzhak, prime minister of Israel 214, 215
- Raetia, Roman province 51 2C
- railroads 172, 174, 176-177, 177, 178, 179, 180, 180-181, 183, 187, 192, 192-193, 196-197, 198
- Rakhigarhi, Indus valley site 56
- Raleigh, Sir Walter, English navigator 126, 129
- Ramallah (Palestine) 81 2E
- Ramses II, Egyptian pharaoh 29
- Ram's Hill (U.K.) 34 2B
- Rangpur, Indus valley site 56
- Ras Xaafuun (Somalia) 101 3H
- Ratisbon, battle of (1809) 147 3E
- Ravenna (Italy) 73 3D, 76 2B
- Ravensberg (Germany) 139 2D
- Rayy (Iran) 81 2G, 92 2C
- Razin, Stenka, Cossack rebel 153
- Recife (Brazil) 123 5J
- Red Cross, International 178
- Red River colony (Manitoba, Canada) 166 2C
- Red Sea 119
- Reformation 118, 120, 134-137, 134-135
- refugees 210, 212-214, 212, 220
- Regensburg (Germany) 69 2D, 73 2D, 85 3D
- Reggio (Italy) 73 3E, 76 3C, 76 3C, 155 3D
- Rhode Island 133, 133, 181 3J, 182
- Rhodes 39 5E, 43 4I, 45, 46 2B
- Rhodes, Cecil, S. African statesman 192, 192
- Ribe (Denmark) 73 1D, 75
- rice, cultivation of 14, 16, 18, 61, 91, 97, 99
- Richard I, king of England 78
- Richelieu, Cardinal, French statesman 141
- Richmond (U.S.A.) 127 5F
- Riebeeck, Jan van, Dutch colonist 165
- Riel, Louis, leader of Canadian revolt 180-181
- Rift Valley (Africa) 10-11, 12
- Rift Valley states (Africa) 163 5F
- Riga (Latvia) 204 3A
- battle of (1917) 189 2G
- Rio Bec (Mexico) 105 2G
- Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) 123 7I
- roads 70, 70, 108, 110
- Roanoke Island (U.S.A.) 126, 126, 129
- Robespierre, Maximilien de, French revolutionary 145, 146
- Rockefeller, John D., oil tycoon 183
- Rocroi, battle of (1643) 139 3C
- Roman Catholic church 120, 125, 125, 134-138, 134-135, 138-139
- Romance languages 69-70
- Roman empire 32, 33, 33, 37, 49, 50-53, 50-51, 65-66, 65, 68-71, 68, 68-69, 70, 71, 72, 102, 112, 114
- see also Byzantine empire
- Romania 168, 176, 176 2I, 179, 187, 191, 201 5J, 204 3A, 207, 216 2I, 220 2I
- Romanov dynasty 150, 153
- Roman Republic 50, 52, 53
- civil wars 50-51, 53
- Romantic movement 144, 184
- Rome (Italy) 32, 35 4D, 50, 51, 51 3C, 52, 53, 69 3D, 71, 71, 73 3D, 84, 112 2H, 114, 135 4F, 176, 185 4C, 186, 201 6H
- sacking of (c.390) 37, 53
- Rome-Berlin Axis see Axis powers
- Romulus Augustulus, Roman emperor 71
- Romulus and Remus 51, 53
- Roskilde (Denmark) 85 2D
- Rostov (Russia) 204 4B
- Rotterdam (Netherlands) 143 3C
- Rouen (France) 68 2B, 72 2C, 75, 84 3C, 135 3D, 135 3D
- Rus 75, 77 2E, 79





Rushdie, Salman, British writer 214  
 Russia 92, 92 1A, 93, 94, 95, 118 1J, 142, 149, 161, 166-167, 172-173, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 184, 185 2F, 186-187, 187, 188, 190-191, 204-207, 207  
 expansion of 121, 150-153, 150-151, 166, 168, 169  
 Napoleon in 147, 149  
 Revolution 191, 204-205, 204-205, 206, 207  
*see also* Commonwealth of Independent States; Union of Soviet Socialist Republics  
 Russian Federation 221 1L, 222  
 Russo-Japanese War (1904-05) 177, 196, 197, 198, 199, 204, 207  
 Rwanda (Africa) 166 5I  
 Ryazan (Russia) 92 1B

**S**  
 Sabaea, kingdom of 101 3G, 102  
 Sabine people 50  
 Sacramento (U.S.A.) 181 4E  
 Sadat, Anwar, president of Egypt 213, 215  
 Saddam Hussein, Iraqi dictator 214, 215  
 Safavid empire 118, 118 3J, 120, 154, 155-157, 155, 157  
 Saguntum (Spain) 50 3B  
 Sahara Desert 14, 64, 67, 100, 120, 162, 162  
 Sahul land bridge 11 5N  
 Saigon *see* Ho Chi Minh City  
 St. Augustine (U.S.A.) 123 2E, 127 7E, 131 6D  
 St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre 134-135, 137  
 St. Gall (Switzerland) 73 2D  
 St. Louis (U.S.A.) 131 4B  
 St. Louis (Senegal) 162 3A  
 St. Petersburg (Leningrad/Petrograd, Russia) 151 2D, 152, 152, 153, 201 3L, 202, 204, 204 2B  
 St. Sophia, Constantinople 76, 79  
 Saipan, battle of (1944) 198  
 Sais (Egypt) 27 1A  
 Sakas 54-55, 55 1C, 57  
 Sakha (Egypt) 27 1A  
 Sakhalin Island 197 2K, 205 4M, 217 2O  
 Saladin, Seljuk warrior 78  
 Salamanca (Spain) 84 4B  
 battle of (1812) 146 4A  
 Salamis, battle of (480 BC) 45  
 Salé (Morocco) 10 3G  
 Salerno (Italy) 85 4D  
 Salisbury (Harare, Zimbabwe) 193 6F  
 Saloniae (Solin/Split, Croatia) 69 2D, 32, 51 2D  
 Salzburg (Austria) 73 2D, 85 3D, 139 3E, 185 3C  
 Samara (Russia) 204 3C  
 Samaria (Israel) 31 3B  
 Samarkand (Uzbekistan) 81 2H, 88 2A, 89, 92 2D, 94, 95, 113 3K  
 Samnite people 50

Samos (Greece) 39 4D, 43 4H  
*samurai* 98, 99, 99  
 San Antonio (U.S.A.) 122 2D  
 San Blas (Mexico) 122 2C  
 San Carla (Minorca) 34 4C  
 Sanchi (India) 55 3C  
 San Francisco (U.S.A.) 122 1A  
 Sangiran (Indonesia) 11 5M  
 San Juan (Puerto Rico) 123 3G  
 San Martín, José de, liberator of Argentina 125, 174  
 San Miguel (Mexico) 105 1H  
 San people 13  
 San Salvador (Bahamas) 118 3D, 119  
*sans-culottes* 142  
 Sanshui (China) 197 5G  
 Sanskrit language 56  
 Santa Cruz (Brazil) 118 5F, 123 6J  
 Santa Fe (U.S.A.) 122 1C  
 Santa Fe de Bogota (Colombia) 123 4F  
 Santa Rita (Belize) 105 2G  
 Santiago (Chile) 123 8F  
 Santiago de Compostela (Spain) 112 2G  
 Santo Domingo (Dominican Republic) 123 3G, 125  
 Santuao (China) 197 5G  
 Sanxingdui (China) 58  
 São Luis do Maranhão (Brazil) 123 5I  
 São Paulo (Brazil) 123 7I  
 São Vicente (Brazil) 123 7I  
 Saqqara (Egypt) 27 2B, 29  
 Sarai (New and Old, Russia) 94  
 Sarajevo (Bosnia) 155 2D, 177, 179, 179, 188 5F  
 Saratoga, battle of (1777) 131 3F, 133  
 Saratov (Russia) 151 4E, 204 3C  
 Sardinia (Italy) 42, 50, 51 3C, 136, 137, 166 2H, 188 6D  
 Sardis (Turkey) 25, 45, 46 2B  
 Sargon, king of Akkad 18, 22-23, 24, 25  
 Samath (India) 55, 55 3D  
 Sasanian Persians 76, 77, 77 3H, 81 2G  
 Saskatchewan (Canada) 181 2G  
 Saudi Arabia 212, 215, 216 3J, 220 3J, 222  
 Saul, king of Israel 30, 31, 33  
 Savannah (U.S.A.) 127 6E, 131 5D  
 Saxons 72, 74  
 Sayil (Mexico) 105 1G  
 Saylac (Somalia) 101 3G  
 Schleswig-Holstein War (1864) 187  
 Schlieffen Plan 188, 191  
 science 142-143  
 Scipio Africanus, Roman general 50-51  
 Scotland 84 2B, 86, 118 2G, 120, 129, 136, 140, 141  
*see also* Britain  
 Scythians 57  
 Sea Peoples 19, 29, 39, 41  
 Sedan, battle of (1870) 185 3A, 187  
 Segu, African state 162, 163 3B  
 Segusio (Italy) 51 2C

Seibal (Guatemala) 105 3F  
 Seila (Egypt) 27 2B  
 Sekijinyama (Japan) 97 5B  
 Seleucia/Seleucids 48, 48, 49, 66  
 Seleucus, founder of dynasty 48, 49  
 Selim I, Ottoman sultan 154, 157  
 Seljuk Turks 77-79, 77 3G, 83, 83, 92 2B  
 Semipalatinsk (Russia) 150  
 Sena (Mozambique) 163 6F, 165  
 Sennacherib, king of Assyria 31, 32  
 Sens (France) 72 2C, 80 1B  
 Serbia/Serbs 77 2D, 79, 83, 154, 155 2D, 176, 179, 184, 188, 189 5G, 191, 201 6J, 222  
*see also* Yugoslavia  
 serfdom 72, 86, 87, 144, 145, 150, 152, 160  
 Serraglia (Turkey) 39 4D  
 Ses Paisses (Mallorca) 34 4C  
 Sestus (Turkey) 43 2H  
 Sevastopol (Ukraine) 151 6D, 152  
 Seven Weeks War (1866) 186, 187  
 Seven Years War (1756-63) 125, 142, 145, 156  
 Seville (Spain) 84 5B  
 Shahi Tump, Indus valley site 56  
 Shah Jahan, Mughal emperor 156, 157, 157, 166  
 Shahr-i-Sokhta, Indus valley site 56  
 Shaka, king of the Zulu 172, 195  
 Shamir, Yitzhak, prime minister of Israel 214  
 Shamshi-Adad, king of Assyria 25  
 Shan (China) 89 2E, 89 2F  
 Shanga (Kenya) 101 5G  
 Shangdu (China) 95  
 Shang dynasty *see* China  
 Shanggu (China) 59 1E  
 Shanghai (China) 197 4H  
 Shangqiu (China) 59 2E  
 Shanidar 10 3J  
 Shantou (China) 197 5G  
 Shasi (China) 197 4G  
 Sheba, Queen of 102  
 sheep 14-15, 16, 34, 38  
 Sheng (China) 89 1F  
 Shenyang (Mukden, China) 159 3G, 197 3H, 205 4K  
 Shi Huangdi, emperor of China 58-59, 60-61  
 Shiite Muslims 82  
 Shiloh, battle of (1862) 182  
 Shimazu (Japan) 97 6B  
 Shinto 96, 97, 97, 115  
 ships and boats 14, 17, 25, 38, 43, 70, 70, 89, 91, 103, 172, 177, 178, 187, 190  
 shipwrecks 40, 41  
 Shiraz (Iran) 112 3J  
 shoguns 98-99, 99  
 Shona people 102  
 Shoshenq I, Egyptian pharaoh 29, 31, 32  
 Shotoku, prince 96, 99  
 Shouchun (China) 59 2E  
 Shu 59 2C  
 Shubar-Enlil, Mesopotamian city 23 3E  
 Siam 159 6D, 167 4M, 169

*see also* Thailand  
 Sibenik (Croatia) 85 4E  
 Siberia 119, 150, 153, 154, 196, 206  
 Sicily 42, 42 3A, 50, 136, 137, 185 5D, 201 7H, 202  
 kingdom of 76 3B, 78, 85, 85 4D-E  
 Sicyon (Greece) 43 3F  
 Siddhartha Gautama *see* Buddha  
 Sidon (Lebanon) 31 3B  
 Siena (Italy) 85 4D  
 Sierra Leone 162 4A, 165, 166 4G, 192 4A, 216 4G, 220 4G  
 Sikhism 113  
 Sikkim 158 4B  
 Silesia 135 2G, 143 4F, 145, 174, 185 2D, 187  
 Silk Route 65 2L, 66, 67, 86, 92-93  
 Silla, kingdom 89, 89 2G  
 Simao (China) 197 5E  
 Simbirsk (Russia) 151 4E  
 Simferopol (Ukraine) 204 4B  
 Sinai, Mount 30, 31 5A  
 Sinai Desert 30, 31 5A  
 Sinai peninsula 212-213, 213 4A, 215  
 Singapore 175, 198, 209 5C, 223  
 Singidunum (Belgrade, Yugoslavia) 51 2E  
 Sino-Japanese Wars (1894-95) 196, 197, 198, 199  
 Sinope (Sinop, Turkey) 32, 51 3G, 69 3G, 77 2G, 79  
 Sippar, Mesopotamian city 23 4F  
 Siraf (Iran) 81 3G  
 Sirmium (Yugoslavia) 77 2C  
 Sisupalgarh (India) 55 3D  
 Sitting Bull, Sioux leader 180  
 Siwa (Egypt) 46 4B  
 Six-Day War (1967) 213, 215, 217  
 Skhul 10 3I  
 slavery 100, 103, 107, 122, 123, 123, 124, 125, 128, 129, 130, 162, 162-163, 164, 165, 172, 175, 182, 183, 192  
 slave trade *see* trade and trade routes  
 Slavs 73, 76, 78, 79, 85, 86  
 Smolensk (Russia) 204 3B  
 battle of (1812) 147 2I  
 Smyrna (Izmir, Turkey) 69 3E, 77 3E  
 Soba (Sudan) 101 3F  
 social organization 19-21, 34, 42-43, 45, 56  
 Socrates, Greek philosopher 44, 45  
 Sofala (Mozambique) 101 7F  
 Sofia (Bulgaria) 155 2D  
 Sogdia (Uzbekistan) 47 2I  
 Soghd, kingdom of 88 2A, 89  
 Solferino, battle of (1859) 178  
 Solidarity 220  
 Solo (Indonesia) 11 5M  
 Solomon, king of Israel 30, 31, 33, 102  
 Solomonid dynasty 103  
 Somalia 164, 166 4J, 216 4J, 220 4J, 223  
 Somme, battle of the (1916) 188 4C, 190, 191  
 Somnath (India) 56, 113 3K

Song, Chinese province 59 2E  
 Songhai (Africa) 101 3B, 102, 103, 118 4G, 120, 162, 163 3C, 165  
 Song Taizong 90  
 Song Taizu 81, 90  
 Sophocles, Greek dramatist 45  
 sorghum, cultivation of 16  
 South Africa 172, 175, 176, 176 6I, 178, 192, 193 7D, 193 8E, 194, 194, 195, 195, 210, 216 6I, 220 6I, 221, 221, 222  
 South America 11, 13, 64, 65, 67, 108-111  
 South Carolina 127 6E, 133, 181 4I, 182  
 South Dakota 181 3G  
 Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) 208  
 space exploration 207, 218  
 Spain 42, 50, 71, 72, 74, 75, 120, 125, 133, 134, 136-137, 138-139, 141, 142-143, 149, 149, 166, 168, 184, 191, 200 6E, 222  
 civil war 200, 200, 203  
 colonies 172-173, 174, 176-177, 180, 183, 192-193  
 Islamic 80, 80, 82, 83, 83, 112  
 reconquest 84 4A, 86, 87  
*see also* Habsburg empire; Spanish American empire  
 Spanish American empire 118-120, 118-119, 121, 122-125, 122-123, 124, 124, 125, 127, 133, 134, 141, 166-167  
 Spanish-American War (1898) 183  
 Spanish Armada 137, 137  
 Spanish Sahara 192 2A  
 Spanish Succession, War of the 141  
 Spartacus, leader of slave revolt 53  
 Sparta (Greece) 42-45, 43 4F, 45  
 Speke, John, African explorer 195  
 Spice Islands 169  
 Spichenen, battle of (1870) 185 3B  
 spinning 17  
 Spissky Stvrtok (Poland) 35 3E  
 Sravasti (India) 55 2D  
 Sri Lanka 57, 211, 217 4L, 221 4L  
*see also* Ceylon  
 Sron-btsan-sgam-po, Tibetan ruler 88  
 Stagira (Greece) 43 2F  
 Stalin, Joseph, Soviet leader 202-203, 204, 206-207, 217  
 Stalingrad (Russia) 201 5N, 203, 204 4C  
 Stanley, Henry Morton, African explorer 194, 195  
 Staraja Ladoga (Russia) 75  
 Stavromeno (Crete) 39  
 steam engine 172, 177  
 Sterkfontein (S. Africa) 10 6I  
 Stettin (Poland) 85 2D  
 Stockholm (Sweden) 143 2F  
 Stonehenge (U.K.) 18, 20,

21, 35, 35, 37  
 Stone's River, battle of (1862-63) 182  
 Stormy Sky, Mayan king 107  
 Strasbourg (France) 85 3C, 135 3E  
 Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT) 218  
 Stuttgart (Germany) 201 5G  
 Subiaco (Italy) 135 4F  
 Succoth (Egypt) 31 4A  
 Sudak (Ukraine) 92 1B  
 Sudan 179, 192, 193 3E, 194, 194, 216 4I, 220 4I, 223  
 Sudetenland 200, 203  
 Suez canal 176, 178, 192, 212, 213 3A, 215, 216, 218  
 Sufutun (China) 58  
 Suharto, General, Indonesian leader 210  
 Sui (China) 89 3E  
 Suifenhe (China) 197 2I  
 Suleiman I (the Magnificent), Ottoman ruler 118, 120, 154, 155, 157  
 Sultaniyya (Iran) 94  
 Sumer, Mesopotamian city 18, 22, 23 4G, 24, 25, 57  
 Sunda land bridge 11 4M  
 Sung dynasty *see* China  
 Sunnite Muslims 82  
 Sun Tzu, Chinese sage 61  
 Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen), Chinese nationalist leader 196  
 Surgut (Russia) 151 2H  
 Susa (Iran) 23 4G, 25, 47 3F  
 Susu (Africa) 162 4A  
 Sutkagen Dor, Indus valley site 56  
 Sutton Hoo burial 72  
 Suparnagiri (India) 55 4C  
 Suzhou (China) 88 2D, 197 4H  
 Swanscombe (U.K.) 10 2G  
 Swartkrans (S. Africa) 10 6I  
 Swaziland 193 7F, 195, 216 6I, 220 6I  
 Sweden 118 1H, 120, 126, 126, 138, 139, 148, 149, 150, 153, 201 2H  
 Swedish War (1630-35) 139  
 Swiss Confederation 135 3E, 139 3D  
 Switzerland 136, 148  
 Sybaris (Italy) 42 3C  
 Syracuse/Syracuse (Sicily) 32, 42 4B, 51 3D, 69 3D, 73 4E  
 Syria 42, 48, 49, 51 3G, 154, 155 3F, 168, 212, 213 2C, 214, 215, 216 3I, 220 3I

**T**  
 Tabon (Philippines) 11 4M  
 Tabora (Tanzania) 163 5F  
 Tabriz (Iran) 92 2C  
 Taga (Japan) 97 3F  
 Tainan (Taiwan) 197 5H  
 Taiping Rebellion 173, 196  
 Taira clan 98, 99, 99  
 Taiwan (Formosa) 158, 159 5G, 197 5H, 198, 209 3E, 217 3N, 221 3N  
 Taixicun (China) 58  
 Taiyuan (China) 89 2F, 93 2G, 159 3E  
 Taizong, Tang emperor 88  
 Tajikistan 207, 221 3K, 222



- Taj Mahal (Agra) 156, 157  
Takehara (Japan) 97 5B  
Talas River, battle of (751) 88 1B, 89  
Talavera, battle of (1809) 146 5B  
*Tale of Genji, The* (Lady Murasaki Shikibu) 96, 98, 99  
Tamar (Israel) 31 4B  
Tamatsukuri (Japan) 97 3F  
Tambo Colorado (Peru) 108 3C  
Tarnob (Russia) 151 4E, 204 3C  
Tarnolipti (India) 55 3E  
Tamuin (Mexico) 104 1B  
Tang, Shang ruler of China 61  
Tang dynasty *see* China  
Tangier (Morocco) 80 2A, 101 1B  
Tangjin (S. Korea) 197 3H  
Tanis (Egypt) 27 1B, 31 4A  
Tannenberg, battle of (1914) 188 3F, 191  
Tian-shui (Taiwan) 197 5H  
Tanzania 195, 216 5I, 222  
Tanzhou (China) 89 3F, 197 4G  
Taoism *see* Daoism  
Taranto, battle of (1940) 201 6I  
Taras (Italy) 42 2C  
Tarawa, battle of (1943) 198  
Tarentum (Taranto, Italy) 51 3D, 53  
Tarracensis, Roman province 50 3A  
Tarraco (Tarragona, Spain) 32, 68 3B  
Tarsus (Turkey) 32, 51 3G  
Tartien, temple at (Malta) 37  
Tashkent (Uzbekistan) 92 2D  
Tasman, Abel, Dutch navigator 167  
Tasmania 167, 175, 177 7O, 221 7O  
Tassili N'Ajjer, rockpaintings (Algeria) 15  
Tatars 150  
Taung (S. Africa) 10 6I  
Taxila (Pakistan) 55 1B  
Tayasal (Guatemala) 105 3F, 125  
Tazumal (El Salvador) 105 5G  
Tbilisi (Georgia) 10 2J  
Tegea (Greece) 43 4F  
Tehran (Iran) 214, 214, 215  
Teke (Africa) 163 5D  
Telamon, battle of (225 BC) 51 2C  
Tel Aviv (Israel) 213, 213 2B  
Teloloapan (Mexico) 104 2B  
Temesvár (Romania) 185 3E  
Tenayucan (Mexico) 104 2B  
Tengyueh (China) 197 5E  
Tennessee 133, 133, 181 4I, 182  
Tenochtitlán (Mexico) 104, 104 2B, 106, 107, 112 3C, 118 4C, 122 2C  
Teotihuacán (Mexico) 65, 67, 104, 104, 104 2B, 106, 107  
Teotitlan (Mexico) 104 2C  
Tepeacac (Mexico) 104 2C  
Tepexpan (Mexico) 10 3B  
Tepoztlan (Mexico) 104 2B  
Terminine (N. Africa) 10 3G  
Terra Amata (France) 10  
Terracotta Army (China) 60, 60  
terrorism 219, 222  
Teshik Tash 11 2K  
Tetela (Mexico) 104 3B  
Tete (Mozambique) 163 6F, 165  
Tetzmolihuacan (Mexico) 104 3B  
Teutoburgerwald, battle of (AD 9) 51 1C, 64, 65  
Teutonic Knights 86  
Texas 123, 125, 180, 181 4H, 182  
Texcoco (Mexico) 104 2B  
textiles 14-15, 16, 17, 38, 66, 67, 91  
Thailand 208, 209 4C, 211, 221 4M, 223  
*see also* Siam  
Tham Khuyen (China) 11 3M  
Thebes (Egypt) 22 6C, 25, 27 4B, 28, 29, 32, 39 3B, 46 4C  
Thebes (Greece) 43 3F  
*themes* 76-77, 77  
Theodosiopolis (Turkey) 77 3H  
Theodosius, emperor 71  
Thera (Greece) 38, 39 4C, 41  
Thermopylai, battle of (480 BC) 45  
Thessalonica (Thessaloniki, Greece) 51 3E, 69 3E, 77 2D, 135 4H  
battle of (1918) 189 5G  
Thirty Years War (1618-48) 138, 138, 138-139, 140, 141  
Thomas Quarries (Morocco) 10 3G  
Thrace/Thracia, region 43 2G, 51 3E  
Tiahuanaco, empire 108, 109, 111  
Tiananmen Square massacre 210, 211, 220  
Tianjin (China) 197 3G  
Tiayó (Mexico) 104 1C  
Tiberius, Roman emperor 53, 71  
Tibet 88, 88, 88-89, 89, 91, 94, 95, 112, 115, 119 3L, 158 4B, 160, 161, 196, 196 4C, 208, 208 2A, 211  
Ticinus, battle of (218 BC) 51 2C  
Tiflis (Georgia) 92 2B  
"tiger economies" 221, 223  
Tigris, river 21, 22, 23 4F, 25, 32, 47 3E, 51 3G  
Tikal (Guatemala) 105, 105 3G, 107  
Tilcara (Argentina) 108 1E  
Timbuktu (Mali) 101 3B, 112 4G  
Timur, Mongol conqueror 94-95, 95  
Tingis (Tangier, Morocco) 32, 50 3A  
Tingzhou, battle of (791) 89, 89 1D, 91  
Tinian, battle of (1944) 198  
Tiryns (Greece) 39 4B  
Titicaca, Lake (Peru/Bolivia) 108, 108 1D, 111  
Tlacopán (Mexico) 104 2B  
Tlaxcala (Mexico) 104 2B  
Tlaxcallan (Mexico) 104 2C, 106  
Tobolsk (Russia) 150, 151 3G, 204 3E  
Tobruk, battle of (1942) 201 8J  
Tokmak 88 1B  
Tokugawa shogunate 166  
Tokyo (Edo, Japan) 97 4E, 166, 196, 197 3J, 199  
Toledo (Spain) 84 4B  
Tollantzinco (Mexico) 104 1B  
Toltec empire 104, 106-107  
Tomsrk (Russia) 150  
Tonggyong (Korea) 93 2H  
Tongking 159 5D  
Toniná (Mexico) 105 3E  
tool-making 10, 12-13, 12, 14, 16  
Tordesillas, Treaty of 118, 118, 123, 124-125  
Torwa, kingdom 101 7E  
Tosali (India) 55 3D  
Toulon (France) 154 2C, 201 6G  
siege of (1793) 146, 149  
Toulouse (France) 72 3C, 84 4C, 135 4D  
battle of (1814) 147 4C  
Tours (France) 72 2C, 84 3C, 185 3A  
Trabzon, battle of (1916) 189 5J  
trade and trade routes 22-23, 32, 36, 37, 38, 40, 64-65, 65, 66, 67, 68-69, 70, 86, 94, 100, 100-101, 102, 103, 103, 154, 156, 166, 167, 168, 174-175, 178, 192, 196, 199  
China 158, 158, 158-159, 161  
East India Companies 156, 161, 165  
European colonialism 119-120, 126, 130, 138, 166-167  
fur trade 126, 129, 150, 152, 161, 166  
slave trade 120, 122, 123, 123, 124, 125, 130, 162, 162-163, 164-165, 164, 164, 166, 167  
trans-Saharan 120, 162  
*see also* Silk Route  
Trafalgar, battle of (1805) 146 5A, 149  
Trail of Tears 172, 180  
Trajan, emperor 65, 66, 68, 71  
transportation 16, 17  
*see also* roads; ships and boats; wheel  
Trans-Siberian railroad 178, 196 1B  
Transvaal 175, 192, 194, 195  
Trapezus (Trabzon, Turkey) 32, 51 3G  
Trasimenus, Lake, battle of (217 BC) 51 2C  
Trebia, battle of (218 BC) 51 2C  
Trebizond (Trapezus/Trabzon, Turkey) 77 2G, 79, 87  
Trent, Council of 136, 137  
Trento, battle of (1918) 188 4E  
Trenton, battle of (1776) 131 3F, 132, 133  
Trinil (Indonesia) 11 5M  
Triple Alliance (Europe) 187, 187  
Triple Alliance, War of the (S. America) 178  
Triple Entente 187, 187  
Tripoli, County of 79  
Tripoli (Libya) 101 1D  
Trojan War 41, 45  
Trondheim (Norway) 85 1D  
Troy (Turkey) 35 4F, 39 3D, 41  
Troyes (France) 135 3D  
Truman, Harry S., president of the United States 199  
Trundholm (Denmark) 35 2D  
Tsaritsyn (Russia) 151 5E  
Tsushima Straits, battle of (1905) 197 4I, 198  
Tukh (Egypt) 27 4B  
Tula (Mexico) 104 1B, 106, 107  
Tunis (Tunisia) 101 1D, 137, 154 3C, 163 1C, 166 3H, 168  
Tunisia 193 1C, 201 8G, 216 3H, 220 3H  
Tupac Yupanqui, Inca king 108-109  
Tupiza (Bolivia) 108 1E  
Turfan (China) 58 1A  
Turin (Italy) 187, 201 6G  
Turkistan 158 3B, 160  
Turkey 168, 179, 187, 191, 201 7L, 216 3I, 220 3I  
Turkmenistan 207, 220 3J  
Turks *see* Mamluks; Ottoman empire; Ottoman Turks; Seljuk Turks  
Turnham Green, battle of (1643) 29 2B  
Turukhansk (Russia) 150  
Tushpa, Mesopotamian city 23 2F  
Tustrup (Denmark) 35  
Tutankhamen, Egyptian pharaoh 29  
Tuthmosis I, Egyptian pharaoh 29  
Tuttl, Mesopotamian city 23 3E  
Tututepec (Mexico) 104 3C  
Tylissos (Crete) 39  
Tyre (Tyros, Lebanon) 23 4D, 30, 31 3B, 46-47, 46 3D, 69 3F  
Tyumen (Russia) 151 3G  
Tzintzúntzan (Mexico) 104 2A  
**U**  
Uaxactún (Guatemala) 105 3G  
Uch (Pakistan) 47 4K  
Ufa (Russia) 151 4F  
Uganda 176 4I, 193 4F, 216 4I, 220 4I  
Ugarit (Syria) 23 3D, 31 2B  
Ujiji (Tanzania) 163 5F, 195, 195 5F  
Ujjain (India) 55 3C  
Ukraine 151 4C, 152, 191, 204, 207, 220 2I  
Ulm (Germany) 85 3D  
battle of (1805) 147 3D  
Ulu Burun (Turkey) 40  
Umar, caliph 81-82  
Umayyad caliphate 72, 72 3B, 83, 83  
Umayyad dynasty 82-83  
Unetice (Czech Republic) 35 3D  
Ungwana (Kenya) 101 5G  
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R.) 191, 198, 200, 201, 202-203, 203, 204-207, 204, 204-205, 207, 217 1I  
break-up 207, 207, 221-222  
United Kingdom/U.K. *see* Britain  
United Nations (U.N.) 208, 214, 216, 217-218, 219, 222  
United Provinces *see* Netherlands  
United States of America (U.S.A.) 124, 125, 132-133, 133, 165, 166 3C, 167, 168, 172 3B, 174, 176 3C, 180-183, 180-181, 190-191, 199, 202-203, 216 3B, 217, 219, 220 3C  
American Revolution 125, 130-133, 130, 131, 132, 133, 142  
civil war 176, 176, 178, 182, 182, 182, 183  
Constitution 132-133, 132  
immigration 173-174, 174, 180, 183  
*see also* individual states and North America  
universities 84-85, 87  
Uppsala (Sweden) 85 2E, 143 2F  
Ur, Mesopotamian city 23, 23 5G, 24  
Urartu, Anatolian kingdom 18 3J  
Urban II, Pope 78, 86, 113  
Urbino (Italy) 135 4F  
Urgench (Uzbekistan) 92 2C  
Urnfield culture 34-35, 36, 37  
Uruk, Mesopotamian city 21, 23 5G  
U.S.A. *see* United States of America  
U.S.S.R. *see* Union of Soviet Socialist Republics  
Utah 181 4F  
Utalán (Guatemala) 105 4F  
Uthman, caliph 81-82  
Utrecht (Netherlands) 85 3C, 135 2E  
Treaty of 141  
Uttarapatha, Indian kingdom 54 2A  
Uxmal (Mexico) 105 1G  
Uzbekistan 207, 221 2K  
**V**  
Valdivia (Chile) 123 8F  
Valencia (Spain) 84 4B  
battle of (1808) 146 5B  
Vallabhipur (India) 55 3B  
Valletta (Malta) 201 7H  
Valley Forge (U.S.A.) 131 3E, 133  
Valley of the Kings (Egypt) 27 4B, 29  
Valparaíso (Chile) 123 8F  
Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) 167 7O, 172, 173 7O, 175  
Vanga, Indian kingdom 55 3I  
Varanasi (India) 113 3L  
Vedas 56, 57  
Vedic Aryan kingdoms 19 3K, 54-55, 56-57  
Vella Gulf, battle of (1943) 198  
Venezuela 168, 172, 172 4D, 176 4D, 216 4D, 220 4D  
Venice (Italy) 73 2D, 76 1B, 78, 85 3D, 85 4D, 86, 86, 118 2I, 135 3F, 139 4E, 154, 157, 185 3C, 186, 201 5H  
Veracruz (Mexico) 122 3D  
Vercelli (Italy) 85 3D  
Verdun (France)  
battle of (1916) 188 4D, 190, 191  
Treaty of (843) 75  
Verkhotyure (Russia) 151 3G  
Vermont 133, 181 3J, 182  
Venazano, Giovanni da, navigator 126, 126  
Versailles (France) 140, 140, 141, 144, 187  
Treaty of 191, 200  
Vespasian, Roman emperor 71  
Vespucci, Amerigo, explorer 122, 123 4I  
Veterov (Czech Republic) 35 3E  
Vicenza (Italy) 85 3D  
Vichy (France) 200 5F  
Vichy government (France) 202  
Vicksburg, battle of (1863) 182, 183  
Victor Emmanuel II, king of Italy 186, 186  
Vidisha (India) 55 3C  
Vienna (Austria) 85 3E, 135 3G, 149, 151 5B, 185 3D  
Congress of 146, 148, 149, 152, 167, 174, 184, 187  
sieges of 119, 120, 137, 141, 154, 155 2D, 157, 166  
Vienne (France) 73 2C  
Vietnam 210  
Vietnam 64, 67, 208, 209 4C, 210-211, 216, 217 4M, 218, 219, 221 4M  
*see also* Annam  
Vijayanagara (India) 113 4K  
Vikings 74-75, 75, 75, 77 2E, 79, 126  
Vilcas (Peru) 108 2C  
Villa Rica (Brazil) 123 6I  
Villa Rica (Mexico) 104 2C  
Viminacium (Yugoslavia) 51 2E  
Vindobona (Vienna, Austria) 51 2D  
Virgil, Roman poet 53  
Virginia 127 5F, 128, 129, 133, 181 4J, 182  
Virunum (Austria) 51 2D  
Visby (Sweden) 85 2E  
Visigoths 71, 71, 72, 75, 82  
Vitcos (Peru) 108 2C  
Vitoria, battle of (1813) 146 4B  
Vittorio Veneto, battle of (1918) 188 4E  
Vladimir (Russia) 92 1B  
Vladimir, prince of Kiev 79, 79  
Vladivostok (Russia) 197 2I, 205 4L  
volcanic eruptions 38, 39, 41  
Voltaire, French writer 145, 145  
Voturno, battle of (1860) 185 4C  
Vorkuta (Russia) 204 2E  
Voronezh (Russia) 151 4D, 204 3B  
**W**  
Wadai (Africa) 118 4I, 163



3D  
Wadjak (Indonesia) 11 5M  
Wagram, battle of (1809) 147 3F, 149  
Wahhabi sect 168  
Waitangi, Treaty of 173, 175  
Walesa, Lech, Polish politician 220  
Wallace, William, king of Scotland 86  
Wall Street Crash 200  
Walo (Africa) 162 3A  
Walpole, Robert, British prime minister 145  
Wang Mang, Chinese rebel 61  
Wanxian (China) 197 4F  
Warsaw (Poland) 135 2H, 185 2E, 188 3G, 201 4J  
Grand Duchy of 147 2F  
Warsaw Pact 207, 216, 218, 219  
Washington, George, first president of the United States 132, 133  
Washington, state of U.S.A. 181 3F  
Washington DC (U.S.A.) 133, 133, 216  
Wasit (Iraq) 81 3F  
Wasserburg (Germany) 35 3D  
Waterloo, battle of (1814) 147 2C, 149, 167  
weaving 17  
*see also* textiles  
Wei (China) 89 2E  
Weihaiwei, battle of (1895) 197 3H  
Wellington, 1st Duke of, British general 148-149  
Wenzhou (China) 197 4H  
Weris (France) 35  
Wessex, kingdom of 72 2B, 75  
West Bank 212, 213, 214, 215  
Westphalia (Germany) 139 2D, 147 2D  
Treaty of (1648) 138, 141  
West Turkana (Kenya) 10 4I  
West Virginia 181 4I  
wheat, cultivation of 14, 16, 17, 34  
wheel 14-15, 17, 25, 28  
potter's 14-15, 17  
Whitby (U.K.) 72 1B  
White, John, governor of Roanake colony 126  
White Plains, battle of (1776) 131 3F  
White Russians 204-205, 204, 207  
Wilderness, battle of (1863-64) 182, 182  
William I, German emperor 176, 187  
William I (the Conqueror), king of England 85, 87  
William II, German emperor 187, 191  
William III (of Orange), king of England and Scotland 140, 141  
Williamsburg (U.S.A.) 127 5F  
Willow Palisade (China) 158, 158, 159 3G  
Wilmington (U.S.A.) 126, 127 6F, 131 5F  
Wisconsin 181 3H, 182  
Wissembourg & Wörth,

battles of (1870) 185 3B  
Wittenberg (Germany) 118, 135, 135 2F, 137  
Wittnauer Horn (Switzerland) 35 3D  
Wolin (Poland) 75  
women 177-178, 186, 186, 189, 190  
World War I 177, 179, 187, 188-191, 188-189, 189, 190, 195, 204  
World War II 196, 198-199, 198, 198, 199, 200-203, 200, 200-201, 202, 202, 203, 204, 206, 207, 208, 211, 212  
*see also* Pacific War  
Worms (Germany) 85 3D, 135, 137  
Wounded Knee, massacre at (1890) 182, 183  
writing systems 18-19, 21, 24, 25, 26, 29, 38, 40, 41, 45, 54, 56, 58, 61, 67, 104  
Wu, founder of Zhou dynasty 58, 61  
Wuchang (China) 159 4F  
Wuhu (China) 197 4G  
Wuyuan (China) 59 1D  
Wuzhou (China) 197 5F  
Wyoming 181 3G

**X**  
Xerxes, king of Persia 44, 45, 45  
Xiamen (China) 197 5G  
Xi'an (China) 159 4E  
Xiangping (China) 59 1F  
Xiangyang (China) 93 2G  
Xianyang (China) 59 2D, 60  
Xingtai (China) 58  
Xinzheng (China) 59 2D  
Xiongnu nomads 59, 59D, 61, 64, 66  
Xochicalco (Mexico) 104 2B  
Xpuhil (Mexico) 105 2G  
Xtampak (Mexico) 105 2G  
Xunantunich (Belize) 105 3G

**Y**  
Ya (China) 89 2E  
Yaishan, battle of (1279) 91  
Yakutsk (Russia) 150  
Yalu River, battle of (1894) 197 3H  
yam, cultivation of 18  
Yamanoshita (Japan) 97 5B  
Yamato kings of Japan 96, 99  
Yamato plain (Japan) 96, 97 5D  
Yan (China) 89 2F  
Yangtze, river 16, 58, 59 2D, 59 2E, 61  
Yanhuitlan (Mexico) 104 3C  
Yanying (China) 59 2D  
Yammuk River, battle of 77, 77 4G, 81 2E, 83  
Yaroslavl (Russia) 75, 92 1B  
Yaxchilán (Mexico) 105 3F  
Yaxhá (Guatemala) 105 3G  
Yayo (Chad) 10 4H  
Yayoi culture 65 3O, 96, 97  
Yekaterinoslav (Ukraine) 204 4B  
Yellow river 16, 21, 58, 58, 59 1D, 59 1E, 59 2C, 60, 61  
Yellow Sea, battle of (1904) 197 3H, 198

Yemen 155 5F, 193 3G, 216 4J, 220 4J  
Yeniseysk (Russia) 150  
Yerevan (Armenia) 10 2J  
Yeuyang (China) 197 4G  
Yichang (China) 197 4F  
Ying (China) 59 2D  
Yizhou (China) 59 3C  
Yom Kippur War (1973) 215  
Yong (China) 58, 59 2D  
Yoritomo, shogun 98-99  
York (U.K.) 68 1B, 72 1B, 75, 84 2B  
Yorktown (U.S.A.) 131 4E  
surrender of (1781) 132, 133  
Yoruba states (Africa) 163 3C  
Yubeiping (China) 59 1E  
You (China) 89 1F  
Ypres, battle of (1914-17) 188 3C  
Yuan *see* Kubilai Khan  
Yucatán peninsula 104, 105 2G, 106, 107  
Yue Qi (China) 59 1C  
Yugoslavia 191, 216 2H, 219, 220 2I  
break-up and civil war 221, 222  
Yukon Territory (Canada) 180 1D, 183  
Yun (China) 89 2F

**Z**  
Zaandam (Netherlands) 150 4A  
Zacaleu (Guatemala) 105 4F  
Zacatollan (Mexico) 104 2A  
Zacatula (Mexico) 104 3A  
Zaizhou (China) 93 2G  
Zama, battle of (202 BC) 51, 51 3C  
Zanzibar (Tanzania) 101 5F, 192, 193 5F  
sultanate of 163 5G, 165, 166, 166 5J  
Zapotecs 67, 104, 104, 107  
Zaragoza, battle of (1809) 146 4B  
Zaria (Nigeria) 101 3C  
Zasragi (Japan) 11 3O  
Zawyet el-Arnat (Egypt) 27 2A  
Zawyet el-Aryan (Egypt) 27 1B  
Zealots, Jewish sect 33  
Zhanjiang (China) 197 5F  
Zhao (China) 59 1D  
Zheng He, Chinese admiral 158  
Zheng Shi Huangdi first emperor of China 56, 58  
Zhengzhou (China) 58  
Zhenjiang (China) 197 4G  
Zhitomir (Belarus) 204 3A  
Zhong-Shan (China) 59 1E  
Zhou (China) 19, 19 3M, 58, 58, 59 2D  
Zhou dynasty *see* China  
Zhoukoudian (China) 11 3M  
Zhuyai (China) 59 4D  
Zhu Yuanzhang, founder of Ming dynasty 95  
ziggurats 23, 25  
Zimapan (Mexico) 104 1B  
Zoroastrianism 112, 114  
Zulu nation 166 6I, 172, 172 6I, 175, 194, 195, 195  
Zürich (Switzerland) 135 3E  
Zwaanendael (Lewes, U.S.A.) 126

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

1 Erich Lessing/AGK; 2-3 Michael Holford; 8 Erich Lessing/AGK; 12 Natural History Museum, London; 14-15 Hutchison Library; 15 AGK; 16-17 & 17 Erich Lessing/AGK; 19 WFA/Anthropology Museum, Veracruz University, Jalapa; 20-21 Robert McLeod/RHPL; 21 RHPL; 22 Erich Lessing/AGK; 23 B. Norman/Ancient Art & Architecture Collection Ltd; 24 & 25 Erich Lessing/AGK; 26-27 WFA; 27 Copyright British Museum; 28 WFA; 29 Copyright British Museum; 30t & 30b Erich Lessing/AGK; 31 The Stock Market; 32 Erich Lessing/AGK; 33 The Stock Market; 35 Hanny Paul/Gamma/FSP; 36 John Haywood; 36-37, 37t, 37b, 38t & 38b Erich Lessing/AGK; 40 John Haywood; 40-41 Erich Lessing/AGK; 42 John Haywood; 44 & 47 Erich Lessing/AGK; 48-49 Powerstock/Zefa Photo Library; 49 WFA/Private Collection; 50 & 51 Erich Lessing/AGK; 53 RHPL; 54 P. Koch/RHPL; 56 Adam Woolfitt/RHPL; 57 Ashmolean Museum, Oxford; 60 Tiziana & Gianni Baldizzone/Corbis; 61 RHPL; 62 Sonia Halliday & Laura Lushington; 65 Bodleian Library; 66-67 WFA; 67 & 68 Erich Lessing/AGK; 70t Mick Sharp Photography; 70b & 71 Erich Lessing/AGK; 72 Copyright British Museum; 74t Board of Trinity College, Dublin; 74b Erich Lessing/AGK; 75 Adam Woolfitt/RHPL; 76 British Library; 78t Erich Lessing/AGK; 78b British Library; 79 Erich Lessing/AGK; 80, 82 & 82-3 RHPL; 84t Erich Lessing/AGK; 84b John Haywood; 86 Giraudon; 87, 88 & 90t Erich Lessing/AGK; 90b WFA/National Palace Museum, Taipei; 92 Vanessa S. Boeye/Hutchison Library; 93 National Palace Museum, Taipei/RHPL; 94 WFA/Gulistan Imperial Library, Teheran; 94-95 Sonia Halliday; 96 Tokyo National Museum; 97 WFA; 98t WFA/Boston Museum of Fine Arts; 98b WFA/L.J. Anderson Collection; 100 RHPL; 102 Robert Aberman; 103 WFA/Victoria & Albert Museum; 104-105 Robert Frerck/Odyssey/Chicago/RHPL; 106 Erich Lessing/AGK; 106-107 WFA/British Museum, London; 107 WFA/Museum für Völkerkunde, Basel; 108 N.J. Saunders/Barbara Heller; 110-111 N.J. Saunders; 110 WFA/Dallas Museum of Art, U.S.A.; 111 Loren McIntyre; 113 Bodleian Library; 114-115 Gavin Hellier/RHPL; 116 ETA/Prado Madrid; 119 Bibliothèque Nationale; 120-121 Erich Lessing/AGK; 122 N.J. Saunders/Barbara Heller; 123 & 124 AGK; 125 Thomas Hoepker/MP; 126 ETA/British Museum; 128-129 Dennis Stock/MP; 129 HG; 130 & 132 AGK; 132-133 HG; 134 MEPL; 136t & 136b AGK; 138 Erich Lessing/AGK; 140t & 140b AGK; 142 ETA/Ironbridge Gorge Museum; 144-145 & 145 Erich Lessing/AGK; 146 ETA/Musée de Versailles; 148t AGK; 148b ETA/Decorative Arts Library, Paris; 148-149, 150 & 152 AGK; 152-153 Michael Holford; 153 ETA/Historical Museum, Moscow; 154 Michael Holford; 156 David Jacobs/RHPL; 157 Michael Holford; 159 Images Colour Library; 160t MEPL; 160b Jeremy Homer/Hutchison Library; 160-161 WFA/Courtesy Christie's; 161 MEPL; 162 Bruno Barbey/MP; 164-165 ETA/National Maritime Museum; 165 AGK; 167 ETA/Queen Victoria Museum; 168 & 168-169 AGK; 170 Gamma/FSP; 173 Thomann/Bildarchiv Preussischer Kulturbesitz; 174 HG; 174-175 ETA; 177 Culver Pictures; 178-179 Ullstein; 179 ETA/Decorative Arts Library, Paris; 180 Stan Osolinski/Oxford Scientific Films; 181 Archiv für Kunst und Geschichte; 183 inset Popperfoto; 183 From the Collections of the Henry Ford Museum & Greenfield Village; 184t HG; 184b ETA/Victoria & Albert Museum; 186t ETA/Cavalry Museum, Pinerolo; 186b ETA; 189t Harlingue-Violet; 189b ETA; 190t & 190b Imperial War Museum; 192 HG; 194 J.L. Chamer; 196 ETA/British Museum; 197 MEPL; 198-199 Popperfoto; 199 Associated Press/Topham Picturepoint; 200 HG; 202 Wiener Library; 202-203 Imperial War Museum; 203 John Erikson; 204 Arkady Shishkin; 205 Peter Marlow/MP; 206t Burt Glinn/MP; 206b Mikhail Nappelbaum; 208 ETA/William Sewell; 209 Fallander/Sipa Press/Rex Features; 210t Francolon/FSP; 210b & 212t HG; 212b Richard T. Nowitz/Corbis; 213 Topham Picturepoint; 214 HG; 214-215 Bruno Barbey/MP; 217 ETA/Library of Congress; 218-219 Gamma/FSP; 219 Danny Lyons/MP; 221 G. Mendel/MP; 222-223 Colin Monteath/Gamma/FSP; 223 Anderson/Gamma/Liaison/FSP

**Timetable backgrounds** (7) 25, 29, 33, 37, 41, 45, 49, 53, 57 & 61 Babylonian plan of the world (detail): Michael Holford; (6) 71, 75, 79, 83, 87, 91, 95, 99, 103, 107 & 111 The Peutinger Table, a medieval copy of a late Roman map (detail): Österreichische Nationalbibliothek; (6) 125, 129, 133, 137, 141, 145, 149, 153, 157, 161 & 165 A map of the world by Gerhard Mercator; 1587 (detail): MEPL; (6) 183, 187, 191, 195, 199, 203, 207, 211 & 215 Computer-generated map: Terra Forma™ Copyright © 1995-1997 Andromeda Interactive Ltd.

**Abbreviations**  
AGK Archiv für Kunst und Geschichte  
ETA E.T. Archive  
FSP Frank Spooner Pictures  
HG Hulton Getty  
MP Magnum Photos  
MEPL Mary Evans Picture Library  
RHPL Robert Harding Picture Library  
WFA Werner Forman Archive

**Artists**  
John Fuller; Charles Raymond, Roger Stewart, Andrew Wheatcroft

*Every effort has been made to trace copyright holders of the pictures used in this book. Anyone having claims to ownership not identified above is invited to contact Andromeda Oxford Limited.*







# The ATLAS of PAST TIMES

An excitingly presented atlas containing 100 specially drawn full-color maps that relate the story of humankind from its beginnings in Africa to the present day



Extensive coverage sets the major civilizations of Africa, the Americas, Asia, and Europe in their global context and explains their rise to power, conquests, and cultural achievements



Packed with a wealth of information including more than 50 timelines and 225 illustrations and photographs



Hours of absorbing reading offer fascinating insights into world history and give the background to current global events

*JOHN HAYWOOD is a Research Fellow in the Department of History at the University of Lancaster, England, and Fellow of the Royal Historical Society of Great Britain. He is a well-known author of several books and historical atlases*

