Streams of Civilization

Volume One

Third Edition

Albert Hyma
Mary Stanton
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Foreword and Acknowledgements

Streams of Civilization represents the fruition of a four-year project sponsored by the Institute for Creation Research. This volume is designed to produce a truly objective textbook on world history, suitable for use in various school settings.*

Practically all textbooks on world history have been written from a secular, evolutionary, humanistic point of view. Frequently, texts contain an anti-Christian and even anti-American bias. Such books are offensive to many parents of public and private school students, and even more so to both parents and teachers in Christian day schools and home schools. Furthermore, such texts have presented a distorted view of history that has contributed to a modern-day decline of interest in history as a subject for serious study, especially ancient and medieval history. Therefore, there has been a great need for an introductory textbook of world history that attempts to remedy these deficiencies.

A school textbook should be objective, recognizing that parents and pupils represent a wide variety of philosophical, political, and religious beliefs. Every attempt has been made to present a balanced and objective perspective on world history, which should commend itself to all types of school systems. For example, the evidences for both the creationist and evolutionist interpretations of prehistory are given. Western civilization is emphasized, but not overemphasized, with much space devoted to the important histories of African, Asian, and pre-Columbian peoples. Throughout the book the writers and editors have conscientiously tried to give an objective view of the history of the world from Creation to the Reformation era in such a way as to meet the needs of students in private and home schools.

These goals proved to be more ambitious than originally realized, and the project has, therefore, taken longer than anticipated. A great many people have participated in the project in one way or another, and it is hoped that this wide participation finally has produced a book of optimum benefit to all.

Dr. Albert Hyma and Dr. Mary Stanton are eminently qualified to serve as coauthors for such a book as this. Although others have written

* Note that this foreward has been adapted for this new edition.
or rewritten various sections of the book, *Streams of Civilization* is pre-eminently the product of their experience and expertise. Dr. Hyma was Professor of History at the University of Michigan for many years and is author of numerous other text and reference works in history. The basic manuscript was originally from him and reflects his wide knowledge of history in general, and especially his unexcelled authority in medieval and Reformation history.

Dr. Stanton is an accomplished archaeologist, cultural anthropologist, and educator, as well as an historian. Outstanding among her contributions to the book are the numerous insights into the cultures and personal lives of ancient peoples, as well as her research into the history of the peoples of Asia, Africa, and pre-Columbian America. Both Dr. Stanton and Dr. Hyma are also experienced teachers in both public and private schools, and their writing manifests real concern for the interests and needs of young people.

In addition to the two main authors, Polly Hutchison did extensive research and writing for the final manuscript. Her experience as a history teacher in public schools and as a successful writer enabled her to make many valuable contributions. Certain sections, especially in chapter 1, were written by the Director of the Institute for Creation Research.

Project Coordinator and General Editor was Marilyn Hughes. Assisting her in this herculean task were Annette Bradley, Nancy Eckis, Donna Schenk, and Evelyn Stephens. Publication of the book by CreationLife Publishers was under the overall direction of George Hillestad, President, and Gilbert Tinker, General Manager. The index was prepared by Henry M. Morris, III.

Jay Wegter was in charge of artwork and cartography. Others who participated in art and layout were Tim Ravenna, Gary Johnson, Joe Austin, Marjorie Kibbi, John Meitz, Donna Schenk, Brian Tinker, and Gil Tinker. Those who assisted Dr. Stanton in her initial research, proofing, and artwork included George Phillips, Ralph McEwen, Dorothy Standiford, Mary Day, Marguerite Day, Evelyn Halstrom, Ginny Pruitt, and David Burgher. Credits for photographs are listed separately.

Reviewers and consultants on the project have added greatly to the final book. Dr. Edna Parker read Dr. Stanton’s entire original manuscript, making many helpful suggestions. Dr. Dean Gresham, Professor of History at Point Loma College, reviewed the entire completed manuscript. Several faculty and staff members at Christian Heritage College reviewed part or all of the manuscript at various stages, including Dr. Arnold Ehlert, Dr. James DeSaegher, Robert Lovell, Margarette Hill, William Low, Dr. Duane Gish, Dr. Harold Slusher, Carl Zimmerman, and Peggy Hansen. Dr. Norman Steinaker, Project Specialist for the Ontario: Montclair (California) Public School District, reviewed and corrected the entire completed manuscript.

The final manuscript was typed by Betty Braskamp. Other typists included Judy Bott, Mary Ann Baker, Sharon Stanton, and Gloria Hughes.
We also appreciate the efforts of Ron Baker and Don Albert of the El Cajon Publishing Company, who helped us meet our publication deadline.

The project has involved many participants, the above named representing only the more active contributors. Recognition must also be given to the supporters of the Institute for Creation Research, whose contributions make projects such as this one possible.

To a large degree, this textbook is breaking new ground. There is a need for truly objective textbooks in many other fields, fields that have been almost monopolized by humanistic emphases for many years. It is hoped that *Streams of Civilization* will prove to be a real turning point. Comments from users and readers will, of course, be welcome in order that future editions of this book as well as future textbooks in other fields will attain these objectives to the maximum degree.

*Henry M. Morris, Ph.D.*
*Director, Institute for Creation Research*
*El Cajon, California*
*1976*

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*Creation Orchard.* The Creation Orchard diagram describes the fact that there are multiple phylogenetic “trees” rather than one single “tree” as suggested by the theory of evolution (universal common descent); compare this chart with the evolutionary chart on page 19. God created the various kinds with perfect genetic information; evolutionists speculate that genetic information advances (becomes more complex). However, genetic information in fact only digresses as time progresses. Jonathan Sarfati states, “The true creationist ‘orchard’ diversity has occurred with time within the original Genesis ‘kinds’ (creationists often call them *baramin*, from Hebrew *bara* = create, and *min* = kind).”*
Introducing History

Why History?

Every student at some time has asked the question: “Why is it important to study history? What difference can it make to me what a lot of people did thousands of years ago?”

History is important because it is the story of people, how they came into existence and what they did. People have always faced the same problems of food, shelter, social organization, political structure, and religious expression. By exploring the streams of civilization throughout time, we will have a better understanding of how the world came to be the way it is today. It will also help us to better understand the events that are happening today and the decisions being made that will change the future.

The Story of People

People have always had a strong desire to leave records about their activities. Those records, whether chiseled in stone, baked on clay tablets, written on parchment, or fed into a computer, give us a picture of how these people lived. Thus, history has two functions: it reflects present experiences, and it reveals the life and culture of the past. Whether records were written yesterday or thousands of years ago, they are useful in helping us understand the world in which we live today.

People from many countries are helping to make information available about past cultures and civilizations. As the story of mankind unfolds, many questions come to mind. Was there one original language? Did mankind begin from one family? If there was only one family in the beginning, how did the different races begin? What effects did the fall of the Roman Empire and other powers have on future civilizations? Answers to these questions and many more are presented in the following pages.

In order to understand history, it is important to understand the difference between two basic terms that will be used frequently: civilization and culture.

Culture. The term culture, which comes from the Latin word cultura, meaning “care for,” has many meanings. You can think of it as the way of life of a group of people. Every people group in history has a culture. A cul-
Culture includes all the things one uses to control, benefit from, or make use of the environment. In short, culture is a people’s way of life.

When we use the word *culture* in *Streams of Civilization*, we will be referring to two basic meanings. First, people try to control their environment by changing it or adapting to its more permanent parts, such as climate and geography. For example, a people may change their environment by irrigating a desert area; they may adapt to their environment by wearing warm clothing in a cold climate. Second, people use materials found in their physical environment to develop their culture. One way they do this is by using available materials such as wood, mud, stone, and reeds to build homes.

The family is the basic unit of organization in any culture. Several families that are related and share a common need to work together for survival are known as a clan. As a clan grows in size and influence, villages and cities are established.

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**Japanese Culture.** Rice planting is a community experience; men and women work together to plant each other’s rice paddies.

**Eskimo Culture.** Eskimos have developed the geographic, economic, and political characteristics necessary to make them a distinct culture.

**Ancient Record.** This Bible is handwritten in Latin and on display in Malmesbury Abbey, Wiltshire, England. This Bible was written in Belgium, a.d. 1407, for reading aloud in a monastery.

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**The Bible as a Historical Record**

Many sources of information such as ancient records, literature, and science are used by historians to tell the story of man. One reliable historical document is the Bible, which was written over centuries by the Hebrew people.

Some people try to prove that the Bible is inaccurate because it mentions historical facts, cities, and empires that are not recorded anywhere else. As archaeologists continue to uncover ancient cities and civilizations, their findings have proved the Bible to be historically accurate.

The discovery of the Dead Sea Scrolls (1947–56) also has supported the Bible’s accuracy. Some of the ancient writings are books of the Bible. When scholars translated these scrolls, they discovered that they were nearly the same as our modern Bible.

Since the Bible has proven to be at least as accurate as other records, the authors of *Streams of Civilization* have selected it as a major historical record. When used, the text makes statements such as “according to the Hebrew record” or “the Bible states.”
As these people join together, they develop common geographic, economic, social, and political ties. These cultural characteristics and achievements are then passed on to future generations.

**Civilization.** When a culture expands from villages and communities into more complex social and political entities, it is known as a civilization. The individual culture is always a part of the civilization, but the culture becomes a civilization when it includes elements such as a written language and development in the arts and sciences. It is difficult to identify exactly when the change occurs, but mastery over the food supply is a necessary first step. In *Streams of Civilization*, groups of people will be called a civilization when a culture begins to develop the traits mentioned above and then influences other cultures.

**History’s Building Blocks**

People in many different fields of study, called disciplines, provide information on past civilizations and cultures. The historian takes this information, studies it, and decides what it means to him. Ancient records, current events, and information collected from other disciplines are considered the building blocks of history. What are some of these disciplines that help the historian in his search for the past?

**A Blend of Disciplines**

**Archaeology and Anthropology.** Archaeology is the scientific study of the remains of relics, artifacts, and even lost cities, to learn about the way a people lived. Anthropology is the study of the physical character, environment, social relations, and culture of people. These two disciplines are closely related, but archaeology is older. Nearly 3,000 years ago, people wrote of their interest in digging up and studying the ruins of ancient civilizations. Excavations are a necessary part of both disciplines, and these people have become very skilled in their work.

Discoveries made at archaeological sites are referred to as finds or findings. One of the ways information is provided through archaeology is in pictures of a people carved on their monuments. From these pictures we are able to tell what type of clothing they wore, tools they used, the roles of men and women, and the skills and crafts they developed.

Throughout the world, archaeologists search for tells. A tell appears to be a flat-topped hill or mound, but actually conceals the debris-covered ruins of ancient cities. Many times a city was built upon the destroyed remains of a previous city. Ancient Troy, for example, had nine levels, each representing a different city.

The excavation of an ancient site is slow and difficult work. Great care must be taken to be sure nothing is lost or broken. Some archaeologists use toothbrushes and tablespoons to uncover the ruins of ancient cities. They carefully sift the soil through fine screens to be sure to recover the tiniest broken pieces of pottery.

Today, archaeologists use two major methods of excavation. First, they remove one layer of remains at a time so they can study the complete civilization before digging deeper to uncover the next city. Second, they cut a
A trench cut through successive layers in a selected section, called a trench cut. A trench cut allows them to learn about all the civilizations that were located in a tell. However, it is not the best method because so much can be damaged by cutting a trench. Since it is sometimes difficult to raise money for archaeological work, this is often the method archaeologists are forced to use, as it is faster.

Anthropologists are more interested in the people of these ancient civilizations than in the ruins they left behind. They study physical features of any skeletal remains and attempt to trace their race and origin. People, whether living today or in ancient times, are of primary concern to the anthropologist.

Geography, Geology, and Paleontology. Three companion disciplines that contribute a great deal to the historian’s resource material are geography, geology, and paleontology. Geography is a science that deals with the earth and the distribution of life on it. It especially studies the physical description of land and sea, and the distribution of plant and animal life in these areas.

Geography is an important key to understanding history. Almost every great civilization has had mountains nearby to provide sources of water for lakes and rivers, protection from enemy attacks, and resources such as iron and copper. For example, streams originating in the mountains of central Africa feed the White and Blue Nile Rivers, which empty into the larger Nile River. The Nile River provides all the water for the people of Egypt, and without it the ancient civilization would not have survived.

The Po River originates in the Alps and is warmed from the air around the Adriatic Sea. Those living in the temperate zones were able to spend less time protecting themselves from the cold and more time developing the fine arts and culture. In these examples we can see that the area where people live helps to determine the direction their civilization will take. People who live on flat, fertile plains will form a different culture and character from those who live in barren mountains, isolated valleys, or in other geographic environments.

Geology is the science of earth’s physical history as recorded in the rocks and fossils. Knowledge of geology helps us to determine if an area is likely to have earthquakes, why riverbeds change, how glaciers move, if there will be enough water, and many other features of an area. It is through geology that we learn if a civilization had a natural foundation of minerals in the soil, a spongy soil, or a solid rock base. These conditions would determine whether the people of a civilization would be farmers, herders, hunters, or even nomads.

Paleontology is the study of plants and animals that are represented by their fossil remains. Paleontologists work closely with geologists because of the fossils that are found in rock.
Biology. The science that studies living organisms is called biology. Biology helps the historian answer questions on how people developed different skin coloring and the effects of disease on a society. Biology also explains how people exist and survive in their environment. Since these are all questions related to a civilization’s lifestyle, they should be considered in the study of history.

Economics. The science that deals with the way goods and services are produced, distributed, exchanged, and used is called economics. An economic system may be based on a simple exchange of goods, or it might be more complex. Today we use money, credit cards, loans, and even electronic transfers using our phones.

Different people have used many items for barter, exchange, or money. Such things as leather-backed turtle shells, semiprecious stones, bars of gold, and rings of silver have been used in various economies. The idea of minted coins was first introduced about 4,700 years ago, with paper money coming into existence somewhat later. The rise, development, and fall of almost every civilization has depended greatly on its economic policies and trading problems.

Political Science. The study of political science tells how governments are established, the way they operate, and what different types of agencies exist within a civilization. The earliest form of government was the family unit. This expanded to the clan, village, city, and state as the population

Geographical Features. Mountains, rivers, and deserts form natural barriers of protection and influence the growth of civilizations. By looking at this map, you can see for yourself the directions people would choose when migrating, and how the boundaries of the nations were decided upon.

Means of Exchange. Civilizations have always had some means of monetary exchange. These coins from Thebes in ancient Greece are decorated with a Boeotian shield on one side and a depiction of the god Dionysus on the other. The shield was a symbol of the Boeotian League, a group of Greek cities with Thebes as the leader.
Before understanding why people act the way they do, we have to know something about the political side of their history. Civilizations throughout history have used many different forms of government. Streams of Civilization discusses each type, such as a monarchy, democracy, or communism, as well as the nations that practiced them. By studying these governments and the way they have affected the civilizations that used them, we are better able to understand the world around us today.

Diplomacy is the study of the relationships between different governments and their political interactions. It shows us actions that cause war, develop trade, and bring peace. The study of diplomacy helps us understand what we can expect as the result of actions taken by governments.

We have all heard the statement, “History repeats itself.” Therefore, it is important to learn as much as possible about the way people lived in the past.

One of the reasons we study history is to learn from the mistakes of the past. Unfortunately, people seldom learn from other peoples’ experiences. Perhaps that is why history repeats itself.

Many examples illustrate how history often repeats itself. One concerns two famous leaders, Napoleon and Hitler. Although they ruled a century apart, they were faced with similar situations and decisions. You will see in the following account how the results of their actions were also the same.

Napoleon, as emperor of France, had conquered almost all of Europe except England. Subsequently, his army invaded Russia. The Russian army kept retreating, and the French marched farther and farther into Russia. When the terribly cold Russian winter arrived, the French army was almost completely destroyed. Napoleon never recovered from this disaster and soon afterwards lost his throne.

Hitler was the dictator of Germany. He had conquered most of Europe except Britain. Then, instead of remembering what happened to Napoleon, Hitler invaded Russia. Once again the Russian armies began retreating, and the Germans were pulled deeper into Russia. When winter arrived, the Germans were trapped in a conflict they could not win. Hitler was forced to continue sending men and supplies to Russia, which gradually weakened Germany’s forces. Then Russia’s allies invaded Europe. Like Napoleon, Hitler was defeated.

Demonic Activity. The person wearing this costume depicts a Malaysian demon; he is preparing for a festival or ritual ceremony. Buddhists are firm believers in demons.

Religious Influence. Buddha has been pictured in many different forms over the years. The Buddhist religion spread from India to Southeast Asia, China, and Japan, and was very important in the development of history. The Buddha pictured here resembles one from Japan.
Through political science we can understand why people and governments act the way they do. The one major lesson of history is that people have behaved in much the same way throughout the ages. Civilizations have come and gone. Science and technology has advanced over time. However, basic problems and human needs have remained the same.

**Religion.** In this textbook, the term *religion* refers to the worship of God or of gods and goddesses. A civilization’s religion determines its system of moral values and informs its culture. These religious ideas shaped the way people lived and treated each other; and some historians believe that these ideas may also have affected how certain civilizations prospered.

We have also learned a great deal about education from a people’s religion. From the earliest times to the present day, education was often handled by religious groups and organizations.

## Historical Time Periods

The history of the world covers such a long period, it almost seems too much to learn. To make the study of history easier, historians divide history into three major periods.

### Creation to Current Events

**Ancient History.** This period begins with the appearance of the first human beings on our planet. Ancient history may be divided into two parts: (1) preliterate, or prerecords, the time before there were any written records; and (2) literate, the period after about 3000 B.C. when written records were kept. Most historians consider the end of the ancient period to be in the fifth century after Christ. The fall of the Roman Empire in the West (A.D. 476) was the final event in this period.

**Medieval History.** The Middle Ages, or the medieval period, has been so named because it falls between ancient and modern history. Many historians consider the year 1492 to mark the end of the medieval period. That was the year Columbus landed in the Americas and Muslims lost their last state (Granada) in Spain. Alternately, some consider 1517 as the end point, the year the Reformation started in Europe. Thus, the medieval period covers the years between approximately A.D. 500 and A.D. 1500.

**Modern History.** Today historians divide modern history into two periods—the early modern period and the late modern period, which begins after the French Revolution in 1789. The early modern period runs roughly from 1500 to 1800. The late modern period immediately follows.

**World Religions.** Can you name each religion represented by the symbols at the right? Christianity is the world’s largest religion with 2.4 billion adherents. Islam is the second largest with 1.8 billion, and Hinduism is third with 1 billion. Paul warns, “...you must no longer walk as the Gentiles do, in the futility of their minds. They are darkened in their understanding, alienated from the life of God because of the ignorance that is in them, due to their hardness of heart” (Ephesians 4:17–18, ESV).
Why Do We Study History?

1. History gives us a framework or perspective to everything else. For example, you cannot understand twentieth-century church history without the Reformation.

2. God is going somewhere; He is in control. Sometimes we can see His direction in history.

3. God’s interventions in history show us His attributes. In the flood we see His justice and mercy.

4. God holds us responsible to fit into His plans and be His instruments.

5. We can learn from our mistakes, but do we? Unregenerate man rarely does. Christians, however, with the help of the Holy Spirit, can truly learn and change.

In addition, historian David McCullough says:

6. History teaches and reinforces what we believe in, what we stand for, and what we ought to be willing to die for. It is the bedrock of patriotism.

7. At their core the lessons of history are lessons of appreciation.

8. History is an extension of life. It enlarges and intensifies the experience of being alive, and it shows that integrity and character do count in the long run.

Views of History

History is the study of things that are past. It also helps us understand what is happening in the world today. Some historians view history as a game with players, rules, and clever plans. The players are people of all civilizations. The rules are the many sciences, such as biology, geology, archaeology, and geography.

By studying people of the past and their planned “moves,” we discover which moves lead to success or bring destruction. However, each person must first decide whether to be an active player in the game of history or a “pawn.” As players, we try to improve the world in which we live. As pawns, we ignore the moves and decisions that others make that affect our lives.

Other historians see history as a stream. On the surface, it appears to flow steadily onward, moving at will. Actually, however, it is slowed down, changed, and forced onward by strong undercurrents.

Still other historians see history as the ongoing story of God working out His will for His glory through and among men. For them, history is truly “His story.”

The authors of Streams of Civilization realize the importance of examining the past. By doing this, we are able to understand the present. In the pages that follow, we will explore many fields of study and ancient records. These are combined to present the story of man, beginning with his origin. It should become clear as you read this book that there are laws of the universe that always have been the same. You will also see that they are still operating today.
Changing Perspectives on History

The word *history* came to us from the Greek scholars who went with Alexander the Great (pages 150–152) during his conquests of new lands. These scholars recorded details about the people in distant lands—their manners, dress, habits, foods, customs, and so forth. Among themselves, the scholars said, “This is exactly what we saw.” That expression was given in one Greek word *hjistemi*, which is pronounced “his-tame” with a long “a” and “e.” *(H)jistemi* meant “that which is” and in literature is translated by “is” or “are.”

When the scholars made their final records for Alexander and the Greeks to read, they called it history, referring to “that which is, or that is how we saw the people in various lands of conquest.”

The science of archaeology has changed our perspective in many areas. Biblical scholars believe that man was intelligent from the day of creation. He communicated first with his Creator, and then with his wife and children (family). Archaeologists have never found a civilization wherein members did not communicate in some form of written patterns.

However, scholars who do not accept creation believe that man had to learn how to communicate gradually, slowly, over the generations. So these writers use the word *preliterate* to tell readers that man did not (or could not) record his or her ideas from the beginning. Prior to the science of archaeology, such teaching was largely unchallenged. But now, artifacts from digs (archaeological excavations) have changed many ideas about man’s past lifestyles.

Biblical history allows no time “before history began.” There are no “pre-humans” on any records. (See pages 23–25 for a discussion of “missing links.”) Remember: “A bone, whether whole or a fragment, is not a civilization unless culture is found with it.” From the science of archaeology, we learn that man always used fire, built houses as family homes, had music, used a written communication, and practiced a belief system, or religion.

As archaeologists are uncovering civilizations farther away from the present, they are finding brilliant cultures with written communications as far down as they go. (See chapter 1 for a discussion about dating past civilizations.) Several ancient civilizations are dated to 8000 B.C. and even 10,000 B.C., as archaeologists dig level by level and identify artifacts. Archaeologists had to dig through a flood layer of water-laid silt at some sites in order to reach lower civilizations. Now that archaeologists are interpreting signs and symbols from ancient civilizations (as among the Olmecs, pages 104–106), they are revising their perspectives of history. For example, archaeologists are now convinced that the Sumerians were not the first people to...
develop a written language. New perspectives on this topic are found on page 42.

From these kinds of evidence, we know that mankind did not necessarily move through the hunting stage—to pastoral—to domestication of animals—to sedentary—and eventually to the age of technology. The biblical record teaches how man left Noah’s “houseboat” and immediately planted vineyards, established communities, built cities, and had the technology to build a high tower from bricks that were held together by bitumen. However, as groups of families migrated away from a crowded community, they carried tools with them. When those tools wore out, they used whatever materials they found to build a culture that controlled the environment around them. (For example, it may have been several generations before the families who settled around the Baltic Sea found iron and developed furnaces to design iron tools again.)

Modern archaeologists are continually finding data that support the biblical record regarding ancient civilizations. As usual, the ancient writings of the Bible are far ahead of those who are seeking to uncover the mysteries of past civilizations.

The Metric System

The metric system, an international system of weights and measures, was legalized in the United States by an Act of Congress on July 28, 1866. It was first established in France in the 1700s and has undergone many changes since that time. The SI (Systeme International) method has replaced the more traditional metric systems and is the one currently approved by most countries of the world.

The following table of measurements gives the conversion factors for the metric system used in this textbook:

1 inch = 2.54 centimeters (cm)
1 foot = 0.3048 meters (m) or 30.48 centimeters (cm)
1 yard = 0.9144 meters (m) or 9.144 decimeters (dm)
1 mile = 1.609 kilometers (km) or 1,609 meters (m)
1 square foot = 929.03 square centimeters (cm²)
1 square yard = 0.8361 square meter (m²)
1 square mile = 2.59 square kilometers (km²)
1 pound = 0.45 kilograms (kg)
1 ounce = 28.35 grams (g) or 0.278 newtons (N)
1 pound = 4.448 newtons (N) or 0.4536 kilograms (kg)
1 short ton = 0.9072 metric tonnes (m t)
32 °F (degrees Fahrenheit) = 0 °C (degrees Celsius or Centigrade)

\[ °F = \frac{°C \times 9}{5} + 32 \]
Comprehension Questions
1. Define *culture*. Which people groups have a culture?
2. Define *civilization*.
3. What is the first step in bringing about civilization?
4. To make the study of history easier, historians have divided history into what major time periods, and what years do they cover?
5. What are the eight major reasons for studying history?

Words and Concepts
- history’s two functions
- culture
- clan
- civilization
- disciplines
- building blocks of history
- archaeology
- anthropology
- tell
- trench cut
- geography
- geology
- paleontology
- biology
- economics
- political science
- diplomacy
- religion
How Did It All Begin?

In the Beginning

In studying the story of man, it is important to start with his origin—his beginnings on earth. There are many viewpoints about where the first person came from because no written records have been kept. There are also many questions that remain unanswered about this period of early history.

What happened to the dinosaurs and other exotic creatures? Why has the earth changed so much? Who were the “cave men,” and where did they come from? These are not easy questions, and even scientists disagree on the answers.

In this chapter, we will explore the facts of science and other fields of study in an attempt to answer these questions. We also will compare and contrast the two major ideas about man’s beginnings—evolution and creation. As we travel through very early times, each person must make his own decision and answer for himself the question: “How did it all begin?”

Time Before Our Known Records

Before written history began, the world must have been very different from the way it is today. There were probably no arctic areas with freezing temperatures and no desert areas. Strange creatures, such as giant dinosaurs and great flying reptiles, lived on the earth. How do we know about these very early things? The fossil remains of these and other extinct animals have been discovered by paleontologists.

Fossil Findings. We know the arctic regions were once warmer because bones of thousands of animals have been excavated from now frozen soils. Fossils of elephants and other such animals have been found, in some instances with flesh still on their bones and food still between their teeth.

Fossils are any remains or traces of animals or plants that have been preserved in the earth’s crust throughout the ages. Fossil remains of tropical plants also have been found in these arctic regions. Surely there have been great changes in the world.

Fossil Ferns. A fern is a plant with water-conducting vessels that reproduces by means of spores but does not have seeds or flowers. A fern’s genome has stayed mostly the same since creation, which refutes evolution’s millions-of-years time frame.
Two Explanations—More Than Theories

There are two major explanations about very early events and how the earth began. They are known as “special creation” and “evolution.”

In Streams of Civilization, we will refer to both viewpoints as theories; however, they are also beliefs that have significant theological implications. A scientific theory can be proved or disproved by actual testing and measuring. This is not entirely possible with either evolution or creation. Scientists cannot see or test events that took place in the distant past. They cannot prove without a doubt how the earth and all life began. Therefore, we will refer to the theories of creation and evolution as concepts, models, beliefs, or systems. Those who believe in evolution are called “evolutionists,” and those who believe in creation are called “creationists” or “creationist scientists.”

Since neither evolution nor special creation can be proved by science, a person must simply believe in one or the other. Each, therefore, is a faith. Both require faith or belief because they are based on events of the past that cannot be verified one way or the other. It is just as scientific to believe that God created the earth as it is to believe that it was not created by God. Neither belief can be tested scientifically.

Evolution. The general concept of evolution has been found in many religions and philosophies of the world, both ancient and modern. In its current form, however, it dates back to 1859 when Charles Darwin (1809–1882), a young theological graduate, published the famous book entitled On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection. Since then, scientists and non-scientists have tried to find ways to prove his ideas.

According to leading evolutionists, matter in some form has always existed. They believe that many changes have been occurring slowly over eons of time. The earth, they believe, was formed from some kind of cosmic dust cloud about four and a half billion years ago. Then, by some unknown process, nonliving chemicals in the seas evolved into a simple living cell about three billion years ago. This first cell has since evolved into the cells of every plant and animal that ever existed.

This evolutionary process in plants and animals is said to happen because of the processes of mutation and natural selection. A mutation is an accidental and unpredictable change in the reproductive material of a cell. Natural selection is the process by which nature weeds out individuals who in one way or another are less fit than others to survive and reproduce. Evolutionists estimate that, perhaps four million years ago, one of these evolving lines produced human beings. Since that time, changes have been
more in the cultures and economic systems of mankind than in man’s body and brain.

When we use the term *evolution* in this book, it refers simply to the process of evolution. According to evolutionists, this process involves eons of slow changes, mutations, and natural selection.

There are three main points that evolutionists use to support their beliefs:

1. Living things are similar in many ways. These likenesses include similarities in body form, in the first stages of embryonic growth, and in the chemicals of the blood and reproductive cells. These similarities exist, for example, between apes and men.
2. Changes in nature have always occurred. There are many examples of this. Varieties of dogs have been produced during the past 4,000 years.

Great numbers of adaptations have been produced in the fruit fly, as well as in other plants and animals. The color of the peppered moth, for example, is known to have changed from a dominantly light color to a dominantly dark shade. This change occurred in England during the Industrial Revolution. As the trees became darker from the soot in the air, the moths’ color gradually changed. These changes were possible because of the different characteristics located in the gene pool of the moth.

Other changes have occurred in some animals that seem to have some organs that have no useful function. Such organs are believed to be the remains of organs that were once useful to their ancestors. There is no doubt that there is a great amount of change taking place in nature.

3. The Fossil Record. Remains of plants and animals have been preserved in the rock formations of the earth’s crust. These are said to represent former geological ages. Evolutionists believe that old rocks contain fossils from an early stage of evolution, and young rocks contain more recent, more complex life. Thus, evolutionists say, the fossil record shows the evolution of life over the ages.

**Evolution vs. the Gospel of Christ**

During the twentieth century, a number of scientists and religious leaders sought to reconcile the teachings of biblical Christianity with the teachings of Darwinian evolution. However, a growing number of people who believe in the gospel of Jesus Christ are finding that evolutionary beliefs undermine their Christian faith.

When a person accepts the theory of evolution, he is forced to conclude that the story of Adam and Eve’s fall into sin, as recorded in the Holy Bible, is a myth. Consequently, Jesus looks very foolish for coming to the earth to save people from the myth of original sin. Indeed, evolutionary teaching requires individuals to fictionalize major portions of the Bible that talk about sin, creation, and Jesus as Savior.

There is a diverse group of people, called “theistic evolutionists,” who profess to be Christians yet believe in evolution; they are, however, outside the bounds of historic, orthodox Christianity. Atheistic evolutionists consider theistic evolution an attempt to “smuggle God in by the back door.” Young-earth creationists, on the other hand, criticize theistic evolution theologically, since it is impossible to reconcile the existence of death and suffering before the Fall of Man; this undermines the central biblical teachings of man’s rebellion against God and, thus, his need for a Savior.

It is proper to conclude, therefore, that the teachings of true biblical Christianity are incompatible with all teachings of evolution. Individuals must ultimately accept the biblical view of origins or the evolutionary view of origins by faith. Professing Christians, however, would do well to remember the words of Jesus as He declared, “He who is not with Me is against Me” (Matthew 12:30a).
**Special Creation.** Unlike evolutionists, creationists claim there is no natural process that explains the origin of the earth or of life. The creation model defines a period of Special Creation. During this time all the stars and planets, all the plants and animals, and the first man and woman were supernaturally created by God.

The creationist agrees that many changes have taken place since that time. He knows that some of the created kinds of plants and animals even have become extinct. The creationist believes, however, that it is not possible for one living thing to evolve into a completely different kind of organism.

Interestingly, creationists use the same three main points as the evolutionists to support creation. They claim, however, that the evidence for creation is more substantial than the evidence for evolution. Creationist scientists explain their beliefs as follows:

1. **The many likenesses in living things are to be expected if everything was created.** Such a master design would have to use similar organs, such as eyes and ears, if they were to be used for similar purposes, such as seeing and hearing and communicating with one another.

   In addition to explaining the likenesses, the creation model also answers the question of why there are so many differences in living things. So far, evolutionists have not been able to show how such completely different features could have evolved by accident from the same ancestor.

2. **Changes in nature do occur, and the process of natural selection does operate.** Such changes, however, take place within a “kind”; that is, dogs change into many varieties of dogs, but never into cats. These changes are horizontal, not vertically upward toward more complex kinds.

   Creationists agree that mutations also occur, but there never seem to be any “good” ones. They often have damaging effects on genes. Natural selection operates to conserve the kinds of organisms as they were created. This process keeps the injuries that result from mutations from gradually affecting all the other individuals in a particular group of living things. Of course, God does give some creatures the ability to adapt, in a limited way, in order to survive.

3. **The many fossils that have been uncovered over the years are known as the fossil record.** This record reveals to the creationist that there always have been differences between kinds of organisms. Nobody has ever found a series of fossils showing a gradual change of one kind of animal or plant into a different kind. Fossils have shown variations within a kind, but never stages of development into new kinds. These situations—variations within kinds and differences between kinds—are exactly what one would expect if creation were true.

In addition to the creationist argument that the very evidences claimed by evolutionists are really better evidences for creation, creationists point to two important additional scientific evidences for creation. One is “the scientific law of decreasing order” (also known as the **Second Law of Thermodynamics** or the law of entropy), according to which every system in nature tends to go downhill from order to disorder unless it has available (1) some kind of special “motor” to take in a surplus of ordering energy from outside and (2) some kind of “blueprint” to guide this energy into orderly growth. Since the evolutionary process has neither such a mechanism to energize it nor program to direct it, creationists maintain that this
scientific law makes evolution impossible. However, the law of decay is quite consistent with the idea of an originally perfect creation, which is now running down, and so it fits the creation model easily. The concept of things tending toward disorder and decay is entirely consistent with the biblical teaching of the effects of the Fall on creation.

The other special evidence for creation is the great complexity of living organisms. Even the simplest one-celled animal is far more complex than the most complex computer or spacecraft or any other invention of mankind. It can be shown mathematically that such highly organized systems almost certainly could never—in all the history of the universe—organize themselves by chance. That is, the number of different events of any kind that could ever happen anywhere in the universe in all of its history turns out to be far less than the number of events that would have to take place before even the simplest living thing could ever arise without anyone or anything to guide it.

**Conclusion.** So what meaning does creation have? It reveals God. Creation does not have meaning so much as it is meaning. It appears that one of God’s goals was to establish an ongoing relationship with human beings, and creation is a medium for communicating with us.
Men, Monkeys, and Missing Links

Regardless of when the universe came into being or how life began, people are interested in the nature of man’s beginnings and early history.

To better understand man’s beginning, scientists look for pieces of bone and other remains that might have belonged to a very early man. By examining these bones, scientists try to determine whether they came from an animal or a human. Bone findings reveal much information to scientists.

For example, if a skull or fragments of a skull are found, they are measured to determine the size of the brain. Even if only a very tiny piece is found, the size of the skull can be estimated. Also, the opening at the base of the skull (where the spinal cord is attached) shows whether or not the head was held upright. The eye sockets indicate what the face may have looked like. The shoulder sockets show whether the specimen walked upright or spent most of its time on four legs.

A jawbone and teeth are very important because no two animals have exactly the same kind of teeth or jaws. The size of the jawbone and teeth help the scientist determine what the specimen ate. It could be either an herbivore (eating only plants), a carnivore (eating only meat), or a omnivore (eating both plants and animals).

The Cave Men

Since Darwin’s time, many people have felt that the cave men of very early times proved the concept of evolution. If these early people seemed to be less than human, people thought they were in a stage of evolution between an apelike creature and man. For example, many books show the early cave people to be stooped and apelike in appearance. They claimed these cave men were the “missing links” in man’s development. That is, they were believed to be an in-between, or transitional, stage in man’s development.

Scientists today are aware that incorrect ideas about these early people have been published. They are taking a closer look at the remains of these very early men. We will now examine some of the interesting evidence about these so-called cave men.

Neanderthal Man. The unmistakably human remains of the Neanderthal Man were first discovered in 1856 in Germany. Later, other remains were found in France and Spain. In the past, the Neanderthal Man was thought to be the missing link between the ape and modern man.

Today both evolutionists and creationists agree that the Neanderthal Man is not that link. The remains of bones indicate he had a full-sized human brain. Evidence suggests he raised flowers, designed tools, painted pictures, and practiced a religion. Most anthropologists believe his stooped posture was due to a combination of arthritis and a lack of vitamin D in his diet.

The Cro-Magnon Man. Another early cave dweller was the Cro-Magnon Man. Remains of this tribe were first discovered in 1868 in southern France. Other findings were discovered later in Switzerland, Germany, and in the province of Wales in the United Kingdom. Again, scientists now agree that Cro-Magnon is not a missing link, but a human being that looks much the same as we do today.
The Java Man. For many years the Java Man was considered to be the first human to walk upright on two legs. Bones were found by Dr. Eugene Dubois in old river gravels about a mile from Trinil, Java, in Southeast Asia. In August of 1891 he found a molar and skullcap; the next year he found a femur (thighbone) at a different location. From these few remains, he concluded that he had found an apeman, which he named *Pithecanthropus erectus*.

For thirty years, anthropologists, including Dr. Dubois, studied and debated these findings. He and others finally decided the teeth were from an orangutan and the skull from a giant gibbon. A close look at the thighbone showed it came from a modern man.

The Peking Man. In 1927 and 1928, a number of teeth and skull fragments were discovered near Beijing (formerly known as Peking), China. Only a few people examined them, and they were thought to be very old. These bones disappeared while being shipped during World War II, and there is little information about their age or origin.

Of those who examined the bones of the Peking Man, some believed they were from animals. Many anthropologists, however, believed that Peking Man was a primitive human being, living in a very primitive state of culture. He had a smaller brain than people today. This early people group walked upright on two legs and is, therefore, often classed in the genus *Homo erectus*.

The Piltdown Man. In 1910–1912, a series of discoveries near Piltdown, England, created a sensation in the scientific world. Someone found ancient bones, and many thought that the supposed missing link between ape and man had been uncovered, called Piltdown Man.

Some forty years later, however, it was discovered that some of the remains of this Piltdown Man had been chemically treated to make them appear old. It was also discovered that the different parts of the skeleton did not even come from the same creature.

Additional fossils of *Homo erectus* have been found in Australia. According to the standard evolutionary methods of dating, these findings

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**Piltdown Hoax**

In Piltdown, England, some bones were found that scientists believed were the remains of the oldest man yet discovered. After studying these bones for almost forty years, the British Natural History Museum was forced to admit that the find was just a clever hoax. They announced that the jawbone was from a modern ape, probably an orangutan, which had been doctored with chemicals to make it look old.

Even though they now realize the jawbone was from an ape, scientists still believe that the skullcap is from an ancient man. Before they discovered the hoax, they thought the skull was 50,000 years old. Now they think it is 50,000 years old. Other scientists, however, believe that the dating methods are not accurate beyond 4000 B.C. For this reason, they believe the skull is only a few thousand years old.
are about 10,000 years old. This means they are younger than either the Neanderthal Man or the fossils of modern man.

**Australopithecines.** Much attention has been given to the work of paleoanthropologist Dr. Louis Leakey (1903–1972), his son Richard Leakey, and other scientists. While working in Africa, they have found many old bone fragments, portions of jaws, skulls, and many teeth. They claimed that they had found a prehistoric creature, a “nearman,” which they believed was the forerunner of man as we know him today.

The so-called people that the Leakeys found were called australopithecines, meaning “southern ape-like creatures.” They supposedly lived two to three million years ago, walked erect, and used crude tools. Their brains were about the size of a gorilla’s. Thus, people believed this was a true missing link between man and his apelike ancestors.

The archaeological work in Africa continues to attract much attention. Many anthropologists were convinced that the genus *Australopithecus* was an evolutionary ancestor of man. More recent discoveries, however, have raised serious doubt about this belief. For example, Richard Leakey discovered more complete fossil remains that showed australopithecines as having long arms and short legs. They were not able to stand erect, but walked on the knuckles of their hands. Later, a scientist named Oxnard made extensive studies of the australopithecines. He claimed the genus *Australopithecus* was some kind of extinct animal unrelated to man or ape.

Many other discoveries were made in Africa, which reveal that creatures much like men of today were living in Africa at the same time as the australopithecines, or possibly even earlier. They walked erect, used tools, were more than 150 cm (5 feet) tall, and had fully human-type hands.

**Conclusion.** Evolutionists, such as the Leakeys, believe man’s ancestors will be found someday. They agree that those once thought to be “missing links” do not actually fit in that category. Creationists, on the other hand, say that missing links have not been found because they never existed. Man was created as man and is not related to any animal.

**Dating Methods**

To record history, it is important to know when a civilization or culture existed. The methods used to give ages to the many things found by archaeologists are called *dating methods*. By using several methods, historians can tell the dates of objects and artifacts back to about 1000 B.C. with reasonable accuracy. Beyond this, to about 2500 B.C., artifacts can often be dated with an accuracy of about 100 years (written 2500 B.C. ± 100 years). In this way, events related to the artifacts can be given dates.

There are some serious problems involved in using dating methods, however. When scientists attempt to date objects before 2500 B.C., major errors in the dating tend to occur. Let us take a brief look at some of the major dating methods.

**Sequence Dating.** The method of dating a civilization by studying its pottery is called *sequence dating*. Sir Flinders Petrie found that every civilization’s pottery was different, either in design, shape, or texture. When archaeologists are excavating a new site, they sometimes uncover pottery from a period of civilization they recognize. This can give them an accurate
Sequence Dating. Sequence dating is a method of telling the age of civilizations. It is done by comparing the ages of pottery and other items discovered in various levels of a tell with items in other tells. For example, in this drawing pottery located in level four of tell A (counting from the top), level five of tell B, and level seven of tell C indicates the civilizations that existed at the same time and probably traded with each other.

Artifacts. An artifact is any simple object showing a person’s workmanship. Many types of artifacts help historians date civilizations. For example, scarabs (signature seals used in Egypt) carried the name of the ruling pharaoh. Therefore, cities where these scarabs were found would have existed around the time of that pharaoh. Coins, stone tablets, or papyrus rolls also recorded information about rulers or events.

Scarab Signatures. Scarabs were used in Egypt as the pharaoh’s signature on personal letters and government documents. Because these beetle-like seals (see diagram below) bear the name of the ruling pharaoh, historians use them to help date events.

B.C. & A.D.

Keeping track of years has always been an issue for any culture. In ancient times, most cultures identified years by numbering them with each king’s reign. Thus we see entries even in the Bible like “in the fourth year of King Solomon.” With each new king, they would start over with a year one for the new king.

The Greeks were one of the first to number from an event, their first Olympics, which occurred in what we call 776 B.C. The Romans numbered from the founding of the republic, what we call 509 B.C. After the republic was gone, a later emperor started over at year one.

In the year A.D. 525, after Rome had fallen, an abbot named Dionysius Elygus (c. A.D. 470–544) of Scythia Minor was plotting out future dates for Easter for the pope. In his work, he realized he could work all the way back to what he believed was the birth of Christ. The church adopted this system.

Starting with what they believed was Christ’s birth, they numbered off the years and added A.D., short for the Latin Anno Domini “in the year of our Lord.” For the time prior to Christ’s birth, they numbered backwards from His birth and called it B.C., “Before Christ.” Thus the further back you go, the higher the numbers get.

One minor point is that, some time later, they discovered they were a bit off with the year of Christ’s birth. It was too late to change, but it appears Christ was actually born about 4 B.C.

This system has served us well; but in man’s latest attempt to remove God from everything relevant, even this has now been challenged. Instead of A.D., the new abbreviation is C.E., which stands for “Common Era,” and B.C. is now B.C.E., or “Before Common Era.”
Chapter 1: How Did It All Begin?

The “Circa”
Archaeologists and historians often are unable to be exact when dating ancient artifacts and civilizations. This is especially true for objects that are older than 2000 B.C. When there is much doubt as to the age of their findings, scientists use the word *circa*, or c. with a date—this means “approximately” or “about,” and the date given is the closest estimate.

King Lists. Lists of monarchs and orderly lists of events with dates (chronologies) reveal many stories about kings. King lists were written by historians of ancient civilizations and cultures. Comparing lists from different historians and areas has helped to develop more accurate dates for events. Some modern historians, however, have found reason to question the purposes and accuracy of these records. Many ancient historians exaggerated the facts because they wanted to make their ruler appear great and powerful. That is one reason why errors sometimes occur in modern accounts of ancient history.

Astronomy. Many ancient civilizations kept astronomical records of the movements of the stars and planets. This was done for religious reasons rather than for science. Modern astronomers (scientists who study the stars), however, have found these old records very helpful. Unusual events such as eclipses of the sun or moon have always occurred and have been recorded throughout the world. A comparison of these records may help us decide which cultures existed at the same time.

Carbon-14 Dating. Scientists often help historians and archaeologists date civilizations by examining their findings. For example, when they are given remains of living things, certain scientists can estimate their age by a...
process called the carbon-14 dating method. Scientists have learned that all living things absorb a radioactive substance into their system from the air. This is called carbon-14 or radiocarbon. After something dies, this radiocarbon decays at a known rate every year. The amount of radiocarbon left in the remains at a given time tells scientists how long it has been dead. For many years this seemed to be a good and accurate way to date ancient findings with only a five percent margin of error.

Today, scientists question the use of carbon-14 as a dating method, especially for carbonaceous remains older than 60,000 years. Most scientists still use the radiocarbon method today; however, some scientists and historians do not accept this method for dating items beyond 10,000 years old.

Potassium-Argon Dating. The decay of radioactive minerals in rocks provides another way of dating civilizations. Many of the objects found by archaeologists are in and around rocks. Scientists have assumed that the deposit in the rock has the same age as the rock. One widely used way of determining how old rocks are is known as the potassium-argon dating method. Potassium is a metal-like element found in nature, and argon is a gas. This method can only be applied to rocks that were formed by great heat, such as volcanic action.

The potassium in lava rocks, and other igneous rocks, changes slowly into argon. Scientists measure the amount of argon in a rock and compute how long it took the potassium to decay. Then they give an age to the rock. This method is widely used, and many of the fossils found by the Leakeys have been dated in this way.

As with the carbon-14 dating method, however, scientists have learned that this potassium-argon dating method is also subject to great error. By studying the formation of new volcanic rocks, they have found that free argon gas often becomes trapped in the rock. This happens when it is first formed and is not a result of the decay of the potassium. Therefore, many rocks appear old, but are not.

Tree-ring Dating. When a tree is cut down, its growth can be seen in the form of circles, or rings, around the inside of the tree trunk. Scientists count and compare the growth rings of living trees with those found in trees used in ancient villages. From this information, they have developed the tree-ring dating method. It is based on the findings of the long-living tree known as the bristlecone pine.

Today the tree-ring dating method is being used to double-check and revise the carbon-14 method. Even this method, however, is subject to error. Two or more rings may grow in a single year. In addition, it is hard to compare patterns of rings from timbers of different times and places.

Conclusion. It is difficult to determine the age of bones and other fossil remains. Many other factors also affect the accuracy of dating fossils. For example, bones found in a riverbed or gravel pit may not be the same age as the rocks around it. Erosion and earthquakes could have changed the landscape, and the bones could have been washed there from another place. In general, the only dependable way of determining dates is careful analysis of written records.
Chapter 1: How Did It All Begin?

New Perspectives

Any method of dating depends on the basic presuppositions or beliefs of the person who is designing and using the measuring system. No one gave the measurements of archaeological levels, tree rings, potassium-argon levels in lava rock, or radiocarbon at the time of destruction. Formulas, created to suit the measurement, are designed with basic assumptions. One of them says, “All things today are the same as they have always been.” This does not allow for the flood and attendant changes. Some scientists forget that rock “levels” are all mixed up with no rhyme or reason. Scientists who designed carbon-14 dating apparently based their formula on charcoal from cloth found at Jericho, which they thought was the oldest city. However, archaeologists know that many cities in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley are much older than Jericho. Furthermore, rays from the sun, moon, cosmic elements, or from water change chemical ratios for potassium-argon and carbon-14 dating.

The Leakeys did not date bone fragments by the carbon-14 method. They dug lava rock from beneath bones and measured the rock by the potassium-argon method. Then the bones were given the same age as the date of that rock. Furthermore, the Olduvai Gorge where the Leakeys’ site was located is a watershed, and all of the bones had been washed to the site by surging water, which causes minerals to seep from objects.

So, what do historians do with these problems? Historians gather all the data they can find, measure artifacts by as many methods as possible, compare with biblical data as the foundation for time frames up to A.D. 100, and draw conclusions.

The History of the Earth

There is another aspect of history about which evolutionists and creationists have different beliefs. Evolutionists believe the earth is very old, with the records of many billions of years now found in the rocks of the earth’s crust. These records are called the “geological ages,” and they are believed to record the earth’s long evolutionary history before the appearance of man on the earth.

Creationist scientists believe, on the other hand, that these rocks and the fossils found in them were formed by a great worldwide flood that occurred sometime after man had been created. In this view, the fossils do not tell of the gradual evolution of life over millions of years, but rather of the rapid destruction of life in one age, the age at the time of the flood.

Soil Erosion. Evolutionists believe the present is the key to the past. As pictured here, rainfall and soil erosion (also, volcanoes and earthquakes) are similar to those today and are believed to have formed the strata (layers) over billions of years. Creationists studying the erosion of the earth and formation of sediment in the oceans believe it occurred in a much shorter period of time.
Uniformitarianism / Catastrophism

Since the scientific method can be applied only to repeatable and observable events, it is not possible to prove scientifically which view is correct. One must study the rocks and fossils closely in order to decide which concept seems to explain the facts better. The first belief is called uniformitarianism because it depends on the idea that present-day geologic processes, acting more or less uniformly as they do at present, can explain how all these rocks were slowly formed over long ages in the past. The other belief is called catastrophism since it is based on the idea that a worldwide catastrophe formed most of these rocks. The most important part of the catastrophe was a great deluge of water, but it was also accompanied by gigantic earth movements, volcanic eruptions, and other violent phenomena.

The main argument for the uniformitarian model is the feeling that it is safer and more scientific to assume that the earth’s processes have always been more or less as they are today. A slogan made popular by this school of thought is that “the present is the key to the past.” A second argument is that it would be necessary to have long ages in order for the evolutionary process to function adequately.

Catastrophists, on the other hand, insist that present-day processes could never account for the great mountains of the world, the vast expanses and thicknesses of sedimentary rocks, and numerous other features of the earth—especially the great masses of fossilized plants and animals that were buried in these rocks. Only a worldwide flood could explain them, they maintain. They show that no normal modern process is sufficient to cause any of the earth’s geologic features and, therefore, that just about every rock formation in the earth must have been produced by at least a local flood or other catastrophic event. Furthermore, they point out that, since the geologic data do not show any worldwide time-breaks in rock-forming processes, such processes were going on at least somewhere in the world all the time. Since each particular unit was formed rapidly, and since each unit is followed by another one without a time gap, therefore, the entire assemblage of rocks supposedly representing the geological ages must have been formed rapidly, in what would amount to a worldwide flood.

The Ice Age. According to the uniformitarian system, man completed his physical evolution perhaps about three million years ago during the

Explosive Evidence for Creation

An extremely important geological event happened in the year 1980, as a major volcanic eruption took place in the state of Washington at Mount Saint Helens. The eruption of this volcano was so violent that it knocked down millions of trees, laid down numerous tons of strata, changed the flow of rivers, and formed several large canyons. These massive geological changes, which took place in just a few days, provided geologists who believed in catastrophism with significant evidence to prove that formations, such as the Grand Canyon, did not require millions of years to develop. Creation scientists have long believed that the complicated geological formations that are now present in the earth were created by sudden and violent catastrophes.

However, it was not until after scientists had studied the results of the Mount Saint Helens eruption that conclusive evidence was available to support the theory that complicated geological formations could be formed in days versus millions of years. This new data directly challenged the fundamental principle of evolution that presupposes that organic and inorganic matter developed gradually over millions of years.
famous Ice Age, which is believed to be the most recent of the geological ages. During this period, great sheets of ice crept over much of North America, down as far south as the northern states in the United States and corresponding latitudes in Europe. Most geologists believe that the continental glaciers advanced and retreated three or four times during this period.

The Paleolithic (“Old Stone”) Age. One strange aspect of the evolutionary model is that, although man completed his biological evolution perhaps three million years ago, he did not begin his cultural evolution until about 10,000 years ago, after the last retreat of the glaciers. Perhaps the rigors of the Ice Age kept him from making more progress. During all this time, he lived merely by hunting animals and gathering fruits and nuts, and by using only the crudest of chipped-stone tools and weapons. This period of culture is called by archaeologists the Paleolithic (“Old Stone”) Age.

The Neolithic (“New Stone”) Age. This period started perhaps 10,000 years ago, at which time people began to raise crops, domesticate animals, and live in organized villages. Their tools were now made of shaped stone, and they began also to make pots and other utensils of clay. Soon afterward, they learned how to use metals; the Bronze Age and Iron Age then quickly followed. Writing was invented and great cities began to be organized. After over a million or more years of evolutionary stagnation, civilization suddenly appeared.

The Flood. The uniformitarian beliefs do not include a worldwide flood. However, early nations and tribes from all parts of the world have traditions of such a flood at the beginning of their histories, and creationists believe these records must be taken seriously. Such a flood would explain the geological evidences of worldwide catastrophism that were mentioned previously.

Old- vs. Young-Earth Creationism

Old-earth creationists contend that “… the scientific community has reconstructed the chronological history of Earth (and the universe) with remarkable precision and accuracy. Some notable elements of that chronology include Earth’s formation 4.5 billion years ago, the first confirmed appearance of life around 3.5 billion years ago, the Cambrian explosion at 540 million years ago, and the origin of humanity somewhere between 50 and 150 thousand years ago. Obviously, scientists have determined some dates more accurately than others, but the consistency of different dating techniques applied to the same event gives confidence in the overall chronology. The only group of people who seem to dispute the dates in any significant fashion are Christians who argue for a 6,000- to 10,000-year-old Earth” (Reasons to Believe, <http://www.reasons.org/>).

Young-earth creationists argue, “The idea of an old earth, however, is based upon uniformitarian geology, which understands the fossil record to have been laid down over millions of years. Yet, the fossil record contains death, mutations, disease, suffering, bloodshed, and violence. To accept millions of years of human and animal death before the creation and Fall of man undermines the teaching on the full redemptive work of Christ (Romans 5:12–21; Colossians 1:15–20)” (Answers in Genesis, <https://answersingenesis.org/>).
The most complete record of the flood, and the one evidently least changed by later word-of-mouth transmission, is the one found in the book of Genesis, in the Hebrew Bible. Certain flood stories preserved on stone or clay tablets, such as those of the Babylonians and Assyrians, have been excavated by archaeologists and dated earlier than the time of Moses, the traditional author of Genesis. However, these contain obvious mythological additions, and it is much more likely that the Genesis record contains the original and true account.

According to this Hebrew record, all the basic kinds of plants and animals, as well as the first man and woman, were directly created in the beginning. The original world was a perfect world, with abundant provision for every need of man and the animals. This all changed, however, when the first man and woman (named Adam and Eve, according to the Hebrew record) rebelled against their Creator, and God had to introduce the law of decay and death into the world, partly as punishment and partly to make men and women recognize their helplessness without God. This law is a universal law that scientists have in modern times called the “law of entropy,” describing how every system tends to go down from order to disorder. Everything tends to wear out, run down, grow old, and die.

As human populations grew, their wickedness became so great that God finally had to destroy them all with the great flood. Only the patriarch Noah and his family survived the flood, in a great vessel built by him at God’s direction. From his three sons (Shem, Ham, and Japheth) and their wives, according to the Genesis record, all modern tribes have descended.

Most modern scientific creationists believe that the flood is a better explanation for the great fossil beds and sedimentary rock deposits than is the evolutionary system of geologic ages. By this explanation, all the great animals that have been found as fossils—even the dinosaurs—lived together with man in the pre-flood world. The different zones in these strata do not
represent different evolutionary ages, as uniformitarians believe, but different ecological communities in the age before the flood.

The Genesis accounts of creation and the flood are used as a scientific model by creationists. The question of their religious authority is an entirely different problem, which must be settled elsewhere. The point we should notice here is simply that creationist scientists are convinced that these historical accounts are at least as scientific as the idea of evolution in their ability to fit all the actual facts.

**Societal Development.** In contrast to the evolutionary belief that the cultures of early people evolved slowly during several million years, creationists believe the evidence indicates human tribes and nations are only several thousand years old and that man was civilized right from the start. Immediately after the flood, human populations were very small, so it was not possible to develop complex societies. Even though people knew how to raise crops, work metals, and build houses, they could not do any of these things for several generations. They first needed to have a large enough population and to find new sources for metal, building materials, and other resources. Furthermore, as people gradually migrated and spread out around the world, each tribe would have to go through the same cycle. First, they would have to live off the land by hunting and gathering, living in whatever shelters they could find and using only crude wooden and stone

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**Noah’s Ark**

An important link to ancient civilizations, Noah’s Ark is believed by many people to be hidden in a glacier on Mt. Ararat in eastern Turkey. Extremely large and unusually made, this ark would be a sensational find. The Bible says that Noah was divinely directed to build a boat in an area where there was no known water. The dimensions of the boat were to be approximately 140 m (450 feet) long, 23 m (75 feet) wide, and 14 m (45 feet) high (assuming that the “cubit” mentioned in the Hebrew record was 46 cm, or 18 inches) with three levels of deck space. A window opening was to be placed around the top of the ark for air and light. These dimensions indicate that the ark was large enough to hold 569 railroad stock cars. Figures have shown that two of every known species of land animal, living or now extinct, could have been housed comfortably in less than half of the ark’s space.
tools. After some time, the tribe would be able to develop stable food supplies, both crops and herds. They would also locate metallic ores, suitable clays and other materials, and eventually establish a stable, self-sufficient society. This would take many years, and possibly several generations. It is not surprising, therefore, that archaeologists often find evidence of an “Old Stone Age” first, then a “New Stone Age” after that, and then a “Bronze Age,” and so on. This need not mean an evolutionary growth in intelligence, but only the growth of a tribe in numbers and resources.

Furthermore, evidence is growing to support the idea that even the so-called “Old Stone Age” people had much more technical skill than many people have thought in the past. Although they may have lived in caves, they painted excellent pictures, raised flowers, used medicines, wore complex clothing, and used involved symbols in their inscriptions. In fact, there is so much evidence now to show that very ancient people were highly skilled that some people have jumped to the conclusion that they must have come by spaceship from some more civilized planet out in space. This idea, however, is not accepted by scientists—either creationists or evolutionists—because of the overwhelming problems it entails. It is also a needless idea if we accept the possibility that ancient men on the earth were very intelligent and skilled, as the creation model suggests.

The Ice Age. Many of these early tribes lived during the Ice Age, and for those who lived near the ice sheets, life must have been very difficult. For those who were able to establish their settlements in warmer regions, there was evidently plenty of rain; and great civilizations developed in regions that now tend to be very arid.

In the creationists’ view, the Ice Age was caused by the change in worldwide environment brought about by the flood. They feel there is no good reason to think the Ice Age lasted more than about 1,000 years—not several million years, as evolutionists think. The continental ice sheets covered the lands nearer the Arctic at the same time that great civilizations such as those of ancient Egypt and Sumer developed nearer the equator.
The book of Genesis in the Bible, as well as ancient traditions from a number of other sources, has an interesting explanation of what caused the first group of people after the flood to break up into different tribes and nations scattered throughout the world. This migration has been difficult for evolutionists to explain, since it would have been to their advantage for early peoples to stay close together and cooperate if they could.

However, they could only work together if they could communicate with each other. According to the Hebrew record, people lived together after the flood for several generations, finally settling on the Euphrates River and building the first city at ancient Babylon. Because of their wickedness, especially in building a great temple tower where they could worship the stars and sun, God miraculously

Two Views: Naming the Animals

Travis Campbell states that “Adam must have taken longer than 24 hours to name every animal God brought before him and that his words to Eve (“at long last!”) suggest he was significantly older than 24 hours when he finally met his wife. Having looked at a popular [young-earth creationism] critique of the OEC [old-earth creationism] appeal to these particular points, I conclude that the argument from the sixth day still stands, both as a powerful critique of the calendar-day perspective as well as a strong argument for the day-age interpretation of the Genesis creation account” (<http://www.reasons.org/articles/the-sixth-creation-day-biblical-support-for-old-earth-creationism>).

Jonathan Sarfati, however, states in regard to the naming of the animals, “Combining both facts—that ‘kinds’ are broader than species, and that there was only a small subset of all kinds—there are probably only a few thousand animals involved at most. Even if we assume that Adam had to name as many as 2,500 kinds of animals, if he took five seconds per kind, and took a five-minute break every hour, he could have completed the task in well under four hours. This hardly seems onerous even for people today, and with Adam’s pre-Fall stamina and memory recall abilities, the problem disappears totally” (Sarfati, Refuting Compromise, 89–90).
“confused” their languages so that only the members of each family could talk with each other. When they could no longer work together, they finally scattered by into different parts of the world where each group could then develop its own distinct culture.

Evolutionists do not accept this record. However, they do not yet have any other satisfactory explanation as to how different tribes and languages could ever develop from the common ancestral population of early people. To believe that each nation—and especially each “race”—developed its own language and distinct physical features by being separated from others for scores of thousands of years (as the usual ideas of evolutionary change would require) would lead to racism, the belief that some “races” have evolved further than others.

The Beginning of Written History. Once we reach the time when the first written records were being made, there is no longer much question about the further course of history. Both creationists and evolutionists work with the same records, although their interpretations of them differ somewhat.

The rest of this book tells about the different groups of people—or “streams of civilization”—that made and recorded history after the very early dispersion. The way in which we interpret the meaning of all these records of migrations, wars, the rise and fall of different nations, and other events of history will depend largely upon what we believe about the very beginnings of history.

That is, did God originally create people, or did they evolve naturally from some animal ancestor? The answer to this question largely determines whether or not we can attach real meaning and significance to history, seeing it as a medium for God communicating with us and showing us His glory, or whether it is all essentially a record of chance happenings and struggles for existence with no particular goal except what man can make of it for himself.
Comprehension Questions

1. What are the two major explanations about the earth’s beginnings and the origins of humanity? Compare and contrast these viewpoints.

2. Explain the three main points that evolutionists use to support their beliefs. Evaluate each of these points in light of archaeological findings and Scripture.

3. Is the concept of evolution compatible with the gospel of Jesus Christ? Explain why or why not.

4. What are “missing links”? What different explanations do evolutionists and creationists give for missing links?

5. Identify some of the dating methods many archaeologists use. What are some of the potential flaws in each of these methods?

6. Some evolutionists claim that the existence of flood stories in multiple ancient cultures suggests that the biblical account of a flood was merely a cultural myth. Explain why these extra-biblical flood stories actually lend additional credence to the biblical account of the flood.

7. How do creationists explain the existence of dinosaur fossils?

8. Explain the differing ways that evolutionists and creationists view the Ice Age.

9. Identify uniformitarianism and catastrophism. How do these views differ?

Projects

1. Find at least three stories on how the earth and life began from either ancient cultures like the Egyptians and Greeks or from the American Indians, Chinese, or Africans. Compare these stories. Are they based on creationist or evolutionist beliefs? Explain.

2. Make a scale model, or drawing to scale, of Noah’s Ark.

3. Write a story about cave people based on the facts given in this chapter. At the end of your story, state whether you agree that they were “barely human.” Explain.

4. Do a study on “stone age” people who have been discovered in modern times. Check newspapers and magazines for reports. Why have these people not advanced further than they have?

5. Do a study on the great redwoods of California. How old are they? Research any tree whose rings were marked after it died to show its age and the historical events that happened while it lived. Tell about this tree, bringing pictures, diagrams, or models to explain.

6. Do a study on the ice caps. How do evolutionists say they were formed? How do creationists say they were formed? What do scientists say will happen if they melt? Where did water for ice caps come from? Explain.
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In accordance with Noah’s prophecy in Genesis 9:27, a major stream of civilization moved from the Middle East toward Western Europe. In the area now known as Italy, the Roman civilization developed. These people played a major role in world events for more than 1,000 years. Roman leaders imposed one system of government upon the people, establishing first a republic and then an empire.

How the great Roman Empire came into existence is the subject of this chapter. The features that made Rome a great power, however, were developing long before it became an empire. Like the Greeks, the Romans were first ruled by a king. They became a republic in 509 B.C. and an empire in 31 B.C.

**Early Beginnings**

The Roman Empire had its beginning in the area of Italy. A narrow, boot-shaped peninsula, Italy appears to have “straps” in the Alps Mountains and a “toe” pointing into the Mediterranean Sea. It is about 1100 km (685 miles) long and is four times larger than Greece. The island of Sicily is located off the tip of Italy’s “boot.”

Early settlers in Italy found a mountainous country. The Apennine Mountains extend down the center of the peninsula. Unlike Greece, however, the mountains of Italy did not divide the country into separate units. Three nearby islands, Elba, Sardinia, and Corsica, provided raw materials and land for expansion.

Italy was a rich land. The broad, fertile plain along the west coast, as well as the area around the Po River Valley, was good pastureland and farmland. The mountain areas contained rich deposits of copper ore.

About 2000 B.C., while the first people were developing Greece, groups of Indo-European peoples wandered into the Po River Valley. From then on, other groups also moved into the territory. They all mingled together, adding to each other’s culture. One of these groups, the Italics, gave their name to Italy. Another, the Latins, gave their name to the language later used by the Romans.

**The Etruscans**

The groups that first settled in the Italian peninsula did little to build a civilization. This changed, however, when they were conquered by a group called the Etruscans. Until relatively recent times, there was not much information available about these people, in part because historians do not know how to translate the dead language used in their inscriptions. Then archaeologists have found remnants of the Etruscans and have been reconstructing their brilliant civilization. Descendants of Japheth first settled along the Po River about 2500 B.C. Subsequently, they expanded their civilization by following the river west, across the Apennine Mountains. Eventually, the Etruscan civilization extended from the Po to the Arno rivers. Above is a silver panel hammered with patterns in relief, overlaid with electrum foil, depicting two riders and a fallen man. This Etruscan artifact was found in a tomb at Castel San Marino, near Perugia, in 1812.
ologists began piecing together Etruscan history and culture from their findings. They believe these conquerors were from the East, possibly Mesopotamia, or more likely the northern portion of the Balkan Peninsula. The Etruscans introduced many customs and ideas to the people that were once thought of as Roman. We now know that they established the first city-state civilization in this area.

**Early Settlements.** The Etruscans settled in northern Italy about 800 B.C., taking over the peoples already living there. This was easy because the Etruscans were much more advanced than the people they conquered.

The Etruscans built many cities, including Pisa, Siena, and Assisi, which are still in existence today. Rome was already an established city when the Etruscans took it over.

**Etruscan Culture.** The cities founded by the Etruscans developed an independent culture that appeared to specialize in the theater. There was little influence from other civilizations. Most of the cities were relatively isolated from the rest of the known civilized world. This was because the best harbors were on the western side of Italy. The civilization they developed was distinctly Etruscan.

About 700 B.C., Greek colonies began to take shape on the southern end of Italy. As we have seen, these colonies were so large they were referred to as Great Greece. The Etruscans, quick to appreciate the value of Greek culture, began to adapt it to their own. Trade between the Greeks, Phoenicians, and Etruscans became very important. Nearly all the gold and silver in Italy at

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**Romulus and Remus**

One of the most popular legends about the founding of Rome comes from a tribe called the Latins. They settled along the Tiber River on the future site of Rome. The legend involved twin boys, named Romulus and Remus, who were thrown into the Tiber River by a wicked uncle. They were pulled out of the river by a mother wolf who had lost her cubs.

When the boys were grown, they killed their uncle and started the city of Rome. Each man wanted the city named after him. In the argument that followed, Romulus killed Remus. Romulus became the first king about 753 B.C., and the city was named Rome in his honor. This story is interesting because it shows the violence and harshness that became a basic part of the Roman character.
this time came in through trade. In exchange, the Etruscans traded copper, lead, iron, zinc, and tin.

Etruscan women, like the women in Mesopotamia, were respected and given rights and freedoms. They attended banquets with their husbands, and sculpture depicts them together in loving poses. Etruscan women were allowed to own property, and some were involved in trade. Such freedom for women was unheard of by the Greeks, who placed women only slightly above slaves.

**Art and Religion.** When the Etruscans first established themselves as a power in Italy, their artwork depicted large, sturdy, athletic men. They were active, joyous, and music lovers. Over the years, as luxury items from all over the world flooded their markets, their artwork changed. Pictures showed overweight, flabby men; and their faces showed disinterest in their surroundings. The artwork reflected a decline in their physical well-being, a factor that later resulted in the Etruscans’ downfall. (We will see how the Romans later followed the same course of action, going into physical decline after becoming rich and prosperous.)

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**Myth or Reality**

The Greek historian Herodotus (c. 484–420 B.C.) recorded how the Etruscans may have been descendants of Lydians. He tells of a severe famine that struck the country of Lydia. In order to save lives, the king of Lydia divided the people into two groups. They cast lots to see which group would be allowed to stay in Lydia. The group that lost had to find a new place to live.

**Tyrrenhus** (lived between 600–500 B.C.), the king’s son, led that group to Smyrna, where they built ships. They sailed away until they arrived in central Italy (present-day Tuscany, Lazio, and part of Umbria). They settled there and changed their names from Lydians to Tyrrenhens after their leader. Tyrrenhus became the founder of the Etruria, including twelve cities called the Etruscan League. These ancient people of Etruria are known as Etruscans.

Many people say this story is only a myth. In recent years, however, archaeologists have made many discoveries that seem to back up many of the ancient myths. Some historians now believe this story could be true.
The Etruscans were controlled by religious rules on just about every subject, from founding their cities to burying the dead. The Etruscans always feared they would overlook an important omen, sign, or ritual and, by so doing, make some god or spirit angry. They were not concerned about right or wrong. Their primary interest was in understanding all the signs and performing all the rituals correctly.

The three primary Etruscan deities were Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva, which the Romans also worshiped later. The Etruscans also believed in demons. Pictures of them in all their ghoulish splendor have been found on the walls of tombs. One demon, named Charun, was pictured with horse ears, a beaked nose, and decaying flesh. His face was an eerie blue, and he towered above his trembling victims, carrying a big mallet.

Emergence of Rome

Although the Etruscans conquered Rome, the Romans were always looking for a chance to throw off Etruscan domination. In 509 B.C., they succeeded in gaining political freedom, but they retained many Etruscan customs.

Decline of the Etruscans. From 700 to 500 B.C., the Etruscans controlled the western Mediterranean Sea. Etruscan fleets either traded or pirated, whichever seemed best at the moment. They fought the navies of the Greeks and the Phoenicians, who had set up the powerful trading center of Carthage in North Africa. After the Battle of Alalia, the Etruscans gradually began to lose southern provinces. Their increased isolation in the north combined with the fall of an important ally, Carthage, left the Etruscans vulnerable to Roman invasion.

The Etruscans claimed that nations, like people, had a time of birth, growth, and death. They believed the average life of a nation was between eighty and 120 years. When their 120th birthday as a nation approached, Etruscan soldiers lost the will to fight. This lack of interest, along with additional collapse of their physical fitness, weakened their power. It is no wonder that the Etruscans fell before the strength of the Roman soldiers.

Etruscan Influence. The Romans adopted many things from the Etruscan civilization. One of them was the men’s main garment, the toga.
This was a loose outer coat or robe worn by men in public. The toga had been introduced by the Etruscans for use during their religious ceremonies.

The Romans also copied Etruscan homes, building covered walkways, called porticos. These walkways led to pillared courtyards. All rooms of the house opened into an inner courtyard, called the atrium. On the inside walls the Etruscans painted frescoes depicting lively everyday life. Many of these frescoes showed people at parties similar to the wild orgies later held by Romans. The practice of lying on low couches while eating from small tables was also introduced by the Etruscans to the Romans.

One of the most typical Etruscan characteristics—their harsh, almost bloodthirsty, concept of life—influenced the Romans. The Etruscan warriors were the bravest and best fighters in the world. The Romans copied Etruscan weapons, armor, and fighting techniques. As a result, the Roman army became almost unbeatable. The Etruscans also invented the gladiator games that were later enjoyed by the Romans. In these competitions, performed mostly during funerals, armed men fought to the death. The Romans later turned the gladiator games into circuses where people spent an entire day watching men kill each other.

Rome Gains Independence. In 509 B.C., the Romans overthrew the Etruscan king and gained their freedom. Then Roman troops began to take over the Etruscan cities one at a time. By 250 B.C., the territory once controlled by the Etruscans was absorbed by Rome’s political system. This was the beginning of the Roman Republic.

**The Fasces—A Timeless Symbol**

The fasces—an axe, bound in a bundle of rods—symbolized strength in unity to ancient people. Each rod, taken separately, could easily be broken; but tied together, they were unbreakable. The axe symbolizes the power of the state over life and death.

The fasces symbol has represented the government of Rome since the time of the Etruscans. During World War II, when Mussolini was dictator of Italy, his government was called a “fascist” government. This name originated from the fasces, the emblem he adopted for his symbol.
The Early Roman Republic

When the Romans broke away from the Etruscan king, they did away with the rule of one man and established a more democratic form of government, called a republic. The leaders, called consuls, ruled Rome and the territory Rome later conquered, until it became an empire hundreds of years later.

Roman territory expanded with each conquest. The republic became more and more difficult to govern under the laws of a republic. We will see how the strain of controlling most of the known world finally destroyed Roman freedom and democracy.

The attitudes and customs of the Roman people made the early Roman Republic strong. The father headed each Roman family, including his servants and slaves. He had unlimited authority within the household, and he was obeyed by all members. The atmosphere that prevailed in the homes taught all Romans to respect authority and obey government officials.

All citizens of Rome, whether rich or poor, belonged to the General Assembly. Only members of the nobility, however, could be members of the Senate. The Senate was the ruling body that elected men to govern the republic. The Roman people elected two consuls who were chosen to rule the republic for one year. Having two consuls provided a checks and balances system in which each consul kept the other in check from abusing his power. To prevent them from getting too much power, they were not supposed to be reelected for ten years. Some of these political ideas, such as a representative government composed of elected officials and a system of checks and balances, were influential in the founding of the United States' constitutional republic many centuries later.

Class Struggle. The Romans were divided into two classes of people—the nobility, called patricians, who were usually rich and owned large amounts of land; and the lower class, or plebeians, who were small, independent farmers and artisans.

Because the Senate was dominated by the patricians, the plebeians often were treated unfairly. At first, the laws were vague because they were not written down. When a plebeian brought a case to court, a patrician judge most likely would rule against him. After many years of struggle, however, the plebeians finally won the right to have laws recorded. The laws were written on twelve bronze tablets to protect them from theft or change and placed, in 450 B.C., in the Roman Forum (marketplace) for everyone to read. Memorization of these laws became part of every boy’s schooling.

Roman Citizens Willingly Serve

Roman legend tells of an eighty-year-old retired general who helped to save his country. The general, Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus (c. 519–430 B.C.), was plowing his land when members of the Senate came to his farm seeking help. The republic was in danger, and Cincinnatus was needed to lead the Roman armies. Although he could easily have used his age as an excuse to stay home, Cincinnatus quickly answered his country’s call. Under his leadership, the Romans won and Cincinnatus returned to his farm.

This story shows the dedication and deep nationalism of Rome’s citizens, a virtue that helped make the Roman Republic great. People were willing to drop everything to help their country in battle. Then they humbly returned to their small farms, allowing others the glory of ruling them.
The plebeians also won the right to elect their own representatives, called tribunes, who were to protect plebeian rights. At first, the tribunes were not allowed in the Senate. Later, they had the right to stand in the doorway of the Senate and shout “veto” (“I forbid”) to any laws they felt were unjust. However, this was not the end of their class struggle.

The plebeians worked hard to win more individual freedoms. Because they were needed to fight in the army, they were successful. The Senate was willing to give in to their demands to keep them happy.

Finally, members of the plebeian class were allowed to hold important government offices. But instead of helping the lower classes, these plebeians intermarried with the rich class. As a result, the old struggle of low against high class peoples and the rich against the poor continued.

**Roman Expansion**

The rulers of the Roman Republic were not as powerful as those in the empires we have studied. Roman leaders were not as power-hungry as other rulers, and they did not have as much desire to conquer lands just to increase their strength. Nevertheless, the Romans found themselves engaged in war after war. They achieved many victories, adding many new lands to the republic.

The Romans had a strong and patriotic love for their republic. When danger threatened, they left their farms and businesses to fight in the army. These citizens were able soldiers; and by 265 B.C., all the territory on the mainland of Italy was controlled by Rome.

**Italy Conquered**

The Romans conquered the Etruscans, Latins, and Greeks. They took over the entire territory of Italy and began to attach conquered territories to the Roman Republic. The conquered peoples were expected to pay taxes, but many of them were allowed to keep their own ruling families. When the new cities proved their loyalty, their inhabitants were allowed to become Roman citizens. It was considered a great privilege to be part of the Roman Republic. The new citizens thought of themselves as Romans and were fiercely loyal to their new state.

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**A Clever Princess**

There is an interesting legend about the founding of Carthage by a Phoenician princess named Dido. Dido’s brother, the king of Tyre, killed her husband during a struggle for power. Fearing for her life, Dido fled with a band of followers until she came to North Africa.

The original inhabitants, led by Hiarbas, objected to having new settlers in their territory. Not wanting to appear openly hostile, Iarbus told Dido she could have as much territory as could be contained by the skin of an ox. Hiarbas was certain he had fooled the strangers, since such a small amount of land could not support a colony.

Dido had the ox hide cut into one long, thin strip, which, when laid out, provided enough territory for a city. Realizing he had been outsmarted, Hiarbas allowed the strangers to stay and Carthage was born.

_**Dido.**_ Dido allegedly was the founder and first queen of Carthage (Qarta Hdatha or “New City” in present-day Tunisia). She is mainly known from the passage written by Virgil, the Roman poet, in his poem called _Aeneid_. Dido is also known as Elissa, according to certain accounts.
The Romans did not set out to conquer the world. New territory was added as a result of meeting emergencies. When the Romans dethroned their Etruscan king, they had to conquer the other Etruscan cities so they would not become a threat. Once the Etruscan cities were under Roman control, other Latin cities began to fear Roman power and tried to destroy it. The Romans met this threat by defeating the Latin cities and adding them to their growing republic.

The only part of Italy that remained in foreign hands was Great Greece. Once again the republic was threatened; but in 270 B.C., this enemy was defeated. As the Roman Republic gained control of the entire Italian peninsula, it was faced with its greatest threat yet—the Carthaginian Empire in North Africa.

The Punic Wars

Carthage was started as a Phoenician colony about the time the Mycenaeans ruled the area of Greece. Although the Phoenician mother cities were captured by enemies, Carthage continued as a free city. Because of its location, Carthage became a powerful trade empire with colonies on Sicily and in Spain.

The Romans also had developed a flourishing trade. There was room for only one large trade capital in the area, so the Phoenicians and the Romans were bound to clash. Wars between Carthage and Rome followed. They are called the Punic Wars (264–146 B.C.), from the Latin word Punicus, meaning “Phoenician.” There were three phases to these wars, and they lasted a total of nearly 120 years.
The First Phase. The first clash came in 264 B.C. over the territory of Sicily. The people of Carthage had been merchants for centuries, traveling all over the Mediterranean Sea in their ships. They had a powerful navy, which was an advantage in war.

The Romans, located across the Mediterranean Sea from Sicily, had no navy and no knowledge of shipbuilding. They copied the ship designs of their enemy, and Roman crews practiced rowing while the ships were on the beach. The hastily trained Roman fleet was no match for the likes of the Carthaginians. But they invented a hooklike object that tied the Carthaginian ships to their ships. This enabled the Roman soldiers to board the Carthaginian ships, demonstrating their superior hand-to-hand combat. Soon Carthage was forced to make peace; and Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica fell to the Romans.

The Second Phase. The people of Carthage longed to avenge their humiliating defeat to an inferior naval force. Then Carthage and Rome got into another disagreement over territory. This time the territory claimed by both countries was in Spain. About 218 B.C., the second phase of the Punic Wars began.

A young Carthaginian named Hannibal (c. 247–183 B.C.) thought of a daring plan to settle the disagreement between Carthage and Rome. Hannibal had been reared by a father who hated the Romans. He decided to cross the Alps and invade Italy from an unexpected direction. He was sure that when his army arrived in Italy, all the conquered Etruscan and Latin cities would join with him in fighting against Rome.

Hannibal took 40,000 men, 9,000 cavalry men, and thirty-seven elephants and began the dangerous crossing of the Alps. Storms, snowslides, and a difficult path caused Hannibal to lose almost half his army and most of the elephants. Certainly, Hannibal breathed a sigh of relief when he came out of the mountains into the lush sunshine of Italy in 218 B.C.

The Romans were panic-stricken. Time after time they sent armies against Hannibal. Although he was outnumbered, he won great victories. The one thing he had counted on was the revolt of the Italian cities, but it did not come to pass. Hannibal was disappointed to learn that the people of Italy were loyal to the Roman Republic and would not join him. No reinforcements or supplies were sent from Carthage, so Hannibal’s army was not strong enough to attack the city of Rome. For fifteen years, they ravaged the countryside of Italy, burning farms and small cities and defeating Roman armies.

For a long time, it seemed that Rome was powerless in stopping Hannibal. Then the Romans put their army under the leadership of a brilliant general named Scipio the Elder (236–183 B.C.). Instead of trying to attack Hannibal, Scipio and his army sailed across the Mediterranean Sea and attacked Carthage. Immediately, Carthaginian rulers ordered Hannibal to come home and defend them. Hannibal hated to leave Italy because he felt he had Rome to the point of surrendering. He obeyed his orders, however, and returned to North Africa.

Scipio and Hannibal met at Zama near Carthage in 201 B.C. There Hannibal was defeated for the first time and was forced to flee. He went to Mesopotamia to live at the court of the Seleucids. Carthage was forced to disband its army and pay Rome an indemnity, which means "payment
made to some person or entity due to damage, loss, or injury”—in this case, as a result of war. Under this agreement, Spain was given to Rome as a part of its expanding territory.

The Third Phase. Carthage was recovering her strength, and many Romans felt she was still a threat to Rome. Cato the Elder (234–149 B.C.), the famous Roman statesman and orator, ended every speech with the cry: “Carthage must be destroyed.” As a result, there was one more Punic War.

The Romans sent the Carthaginian government a series of impossible demands. One required that the entire city be moved 16.1 km (10 miles) from the coast. When the Carthaginians refused to comply with these demands, the Romans declared war. The Carthaginians were defeated, and only ten percent of her population survived the massacre. The city was destroyed completely, and even the city’s ground was plowed with salt. Only a wasteland remained in the place where a bustling city of more than a million people had once lived.

The Republic Expands

Through the Punic Wars, the Romans also became involved with the problems of other countries outside the mainland of Italy. At first, their motives were a combination of self-interest to protect themselves and the unselfish desire to help people win their freedom. They felt both the Macedonians and the Seleucids were a threat to Roman trade interests. Later, the Romans’ motives became selfish as more territory was added to the republic.

Macedonia, Mesopotamia, and Egypt. Between the Second and the Third Punic Wars, the Romans began a series of attacks that led to the conquest of Greece. The ruler of Greece at that time was Philip V of Macedonia (238–179 B.C.), who had supported Hannibal when he invaded Italy. Philip and Hannibal became allies against their common Roman enemy. When Carthage was defeated about 200 B.C., the Romans turned on Philip. He was trying to capture all the territory around the Aegean Sea. The weaker Hellenistic cities of Pergamum and Rhodes had asked Rome for help. In 197 B.C., Philip was defeated and the country of Macedonia became a Roman province.

The Romans felt compelled to fight the Seleucids who controlled all of Mesopotamia and were looking to expand their empire further. The Seleucids had also supported Hannibal by giving him a place to stay after his defeat at Zama. Hannibal tried to help the Seleucids capture Macedonia, but the Romans again defeated him. Hannibal took poison rather than be captured.

In 168 B.C., the Seleucids tried to conquer Egypt. The Romans stopped them and made Egypt a Roman protectorate. A protectorate meant that the Romans had partial political control over Egypt and were responsible for protecting Egypt from enemy powers.

Conquest of Greece. The Romans were angered when the Greek city-states became anti-Roman and demanded that they leave the Aegean area. Instead of returning to Italy, the Romans destroyed the city of Corinth in 146 B.C. They took over all of Greece and placed the people under the Roman governor of Macedonia.
Although the Romans conquered Greece, Greek culture nevertheless played a very important part in Roman history. Greek culture had already been introduced to Rome earlier in the Greek colonies of Great Greece (southern Italy and Sicily). Roman architecture was modeled after Greek styles. The major difference was that the Romans built gigantic buildings, preferring size to style. Most Roman sculpture and artwork was created by Greek artists.

There were no public schools in Rome. Those who could afford it sent their children to private schools to learn from Greek teachers. Others had Greek slaves to teach their children. The Roman patrician class spoke Greek, preferring it to Latin. Soon the Greek language, philosophy, literature, art, and science became a part of Roman culture.

**Fall of the Roman Republic**

By 146 B.C., the Roman Republic had acquired large amounts of territory. The Romans actually controlled Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Spain, North Africa, and Greece. In addition, they had encouraged the Hebrews to rebel against the Seleucids and were giving Palestine and Egypt protection. The large amount of slaves and tribute flowing back to Rome was making serious changes in the way the people lived in Rome. Trying to control and maintain such a large territory was almost more than the republic could handle.
Problems Facing the Republic

Two basic problems faced the Roman Republic. The first concerned governing and providing work for members of the plebeian class. The second involved defense of the republic and maintaining control of its vast territory. How these problems were handled determined whether the Roman Republic would survive or fall.

Unrest and Unemployment. Great changes were taking place in the plebeian class. Remember that a loyal group of farmers was the strength of the Roman Republic. When their country was endangered, they left their farms to defend their homeland. When the danger had passed, they returned to their farms. As long as the Romans fought in Italy, this system worked well. Things changed, however, when the fighting was in foreign territory.

When the farmer-soldiers returned home after years of fighting, they learned that they had lost their farms because the taxes had not been paid. The good farmland was controlled by patrician landlords, and they had brought in large numbers of slaves to work the land.

As more slaves were brought to Rome because of wars and conquests, jobs for free men became few and far between. Many proud, independent Romans were forced to move to the city of Rome where they roamed the streets in angry mobs. Most of them seemed to feel the government owed them a living. During the day, noisy crowds wandered the streets, unruly and discontent. The years of fighting had gradually made these farmer-soldiers more loyal to their generals than to the Roman Senate. This decreased loyalty, though preserving a strong sense of Roman nationalism, set the stage for civil unrest and open rebellion.

A law was passed that outlawed transportation of goods in the streets during the day. So from midnight until sunrise, while people tried to sleep, heavy wagons rumbled through the streets. The sounds of drivers’ whips cracking and angry men shouting and demanding the right-of-way rang out in the night. It is no wonder that the rich preferred to live in their villas on the outskirts of town.

Since Rome supposedly was run on democratic principles, the mobs were allowed to vote for their government representatives. The problem was that the government was becoming corrupt. Evil men exchanged food and wine for the votes of the hungry people.

Most patricians were pleased with things as they were, but some people realized that improvements were needed. The independent farmers were no longer the strong middle class of the Roman Republic. The virtues of hard work, honesty, and love of country were dying out.

The Gracchus Brothers. Many people wanted something done about the situation in Rome. One man who tried to start reforms was Tiberius Gracchus (c. 167–133 B.C.), a member of one of the most respected families in Rome. His grandfather was General Scipio, who had defeated Hannibal in the Punic Wars. Tiberius Gracchus was elected tribune in 133 B.C. and immediately set out to pass laws that would help the plebeians.

His first law limited the amount of land a person could own. All extra land was to be divided among the poor. The law was passed, but a tribune
who supported the patricians vetoed it. While the veto was first introduced to protect the plebeians, it was then used by a tribune against the plebeians.

Tiberius Gracchus had the support of the Roman mobs. He demanded that the Senate remove the title of tribune from the man who had vetoed his bill. Many thought it was wrong to punish the tribune because he disagreed with Tiberius Gracchus. However, the Senate was afraid of the mob, so it did what Tiberius asked.

Tiberius thought the bills he introduced were so important that he should do anything to get them passed. After serving his one-year term as tribune, Tiberius decided to run for office again. According to the law, he was supposed to wait ten years before running again. Tiberius evidently felt his program was important enough to justify disobeying the law.

The patricians could see that Tiberius was going to win his bid for another term. In order to stop his campaign, the people who opposed his reforms staged a massacre. Tiberius Gracchus and 300 followers were murdered and their bodies thrown into the Tiber River. This was the first time in Roman history that laws and governmental changes had been opposed with force and bloodshed; but it would not be the last.

When Tiberius was killed, his younger brother Gaius Gracchus (c. 154–121 B.C.) took up his cause. Gaius was elected tribune in 123 B.C. and again began to distribute land to the plebeians. He also encouraged plebeians to relocate in southern Italy, hoping to move some of the masses of population out of Rome. To encourage this, Roman leaders gave full Roman citizenship to the people of cities all over Italy. This meant they were allowed to vote in the elections of Rome.

Another evil that Gaius tried to stop was grain speculation. Rich people bought up all the wheat crop. When there was a grain shortage, they raised the price of grain and sold it at much more than its fair market value. Through Gaius’ reforms the government bought and stored grain, which was sold or given to the poor people. Eventually, the government bought the grain and gave it to the plebeians in an effort to keep them from trying to overthrow the government.

Gaius was widely hated because his policies weakened the power of the patricians and the Senate. Finally, the Senate hired men to kill him. In the fighting that followed, 3,000 of his followers were killed. Gaius killed himself in 121 B.C. to keep from being captured.

Problems Outside Rome. As a result of the Gracchus brothers’ reforms, people began to see some of the weaknesses of the Roman Republic. It was becoming difficult to decide who was entitled to citizenship. Decisions had to be made about how to rule the conquered territories as part of the republic. Reforms had failed, and the common people were angry. Everyone realized things could not continue as they were.

If the Roman Republic was going to keep all its conquered territory, changes were necessary. Between 111 and 105 B.C., Roman armies fighting in North Africa and Gaul (France) were defeated. People rebelled in many of the territories, and something had to be done.

Gaius Marius (157–86 B.C.), one of two consuls elected at that time to govern Rome, came up with an idea for Rome’s first professional army. Up to this time only citizen landowners were allowed to serve in the army. Very few of these men were actually available to serve in the army, so a new
method of recruitment was needed. Marius formed a new army by hiring landless citizens for long terms of service. There were some drawbacks to the professional army, however, and it turned out to be a trouble spot throughout Roman history.

The main problem with the new army, as had been the case with the farmer-soldiers, was that the soldiers’ loyalty was not primarily to Rome. Instead, they gave their support to the commander who paid their salary. Marius was loyal to Rome, but generals who followed him used the power given to them by the army to promote their own ambitions.

The First Civil War. A power struggle between Rome’s Senate and the General Assembly led to the First Civil War (also known as the “Social War”; 90–88 B.C.). This means that the citizens in the territories rebelled and fought each other instead of a foreign enemy. The Senate chose Cornelius Sulla (c. 138–79 B.C.) to suppress the people. In an attempt to keep the Senate from making decisions concerning the army, the General Assembly chose Marius to do the same job Sulla had been chosen to do. The two generals clashed, and the civil war broke out. First one general and then the other captured Rome, and thousands of citizens were killed. When the fighting ended, Sulla was dictator of Rome.

Roman law allowed a dictator to rule the republic during an emergency; however, at the end of the crisis, he was supposed to resign. If a crisis continued, the dictator was supposed to resign after six months. Sulla broke this law and remained dictator for three years.

As dictator, Sulla attempted to strengthen the Roman government so it could govern its entire territory without problems. He attempted to make the Senate the supreme governing body. In 79 B.C., when he thought the government would run smoothly without him, Sulla stepped down as dictator.

The Republic Comes to an End

Sulla’s reforms did not last, and there was much unrest and fighting throughout the republic. People wanted a strong leader to bring order to the republic and to solve their problems. They were even willing to lose some of their freedoms.
The Second Civil War. While the Romans were looking for a leader, three men became consuls in Rome. They were Pompey the Great (106–48 b.c.), a famous general who had fought successfully in Italy, Africa, and Spain; Julius Caesar (100–44 b.c.), who had added Gaul to the republic; and Crassus (115–53 b.c.), an ambitious politician. The unofficial government established by these three men in 60 b.c. was called the Triumvirate (“group rule by three people”). Each man served as consul for one year.

While Pompey was consul, Julius Caesar led his troops into the southern part of Gaul (now France). The people there lived under primitive conditions, compared to the Romans. While Caesar was away, he sent written reports of his victories back to Rome so the people would not forget him. As a result, Caesar became a great hero to the common people. Pompey became jealous of Caesar’s popularity and was afraid of his power.

In the meantime, Crassus was killed while leading his army in Asia. Pompey felt the time was right to get rid of Caesar. In 49 b.c., the Senate sent Caesar an order to disband his army and return to Rome. Caesar realized if he obeyed the order, he probably would be killed. He disobeyed and took his army across the Rubicon River into Italy. It was an act of direct rebellion against the Senate. The term “crossing the Rubicon” has come to mean taking a step from which there is no turning back.

Julius Caesar—Dictator for Life. In the fighting that followed, Caesar defeated Pompey with half the number of soldiers as his new rival. Pompey fled to Egypt where he was killed. However, Caesar still had many influential enemies in Rome. Palestine became a province of the Roman Empire. Caesar became dictator for the rest of his life, claiming that his office was hereditary and that his heirs should succeed him.

Caesar ruled only five years, but during that time he accomplished many good things. He passed laws prohibiting the selling of people into slavery for debts and gave relief to small farmers. He changed the calendar to resemble the one we use today and named the seventh month July after his family name, Julius. In addition, he improved the coinage system, took a census, drained marshes, and built many public buildings.

Power Poisons People

As the English poet Shelley (1792–1822) once said, “power poisons every hand that touches it.” History is full of stories about men who were willing to take advantage of problems and disorder to gain unlimited power. Roman history is a perfect example.

Money and power gained as a result of conquest were often misused by the Romans. The common people were troubled by unemployment and hunger, but their leaders simply ignored the problems. As a result, the people began to lose confidence in their democratic government. With no way to earn a living, these once-independent and hard-working people lost their values and self-respect.

In the years before the fall of the Roman Republic, a growing number of people believed it was all right to break the law so long as it helped people. This idea of the “end justifies the means” opened the door for even more lawlessness. The laws that once protected the masses no longer were effective. The virtues of loyalty and hard work that made the Roman Republic great, now vanished. The fall of the republic followed close behind.
In spite of all the things he accomplished, there were two groups of people who hated him and wanted him out of the way. One group consisted of people who had used their government offices to get rich. When Caesar cleaned up the corruption, they resented him. The other group was made up of people who wanted to go back to a republican form of government. They believed this would be possible if Caesar were out of the way. The two groups united in a conspiracy to kill Caesar. On the *Ides of March* (i.e., the fifteenth of March) in 44 b.c., Julius Caesar was stabbed to death in the Senate.

**The Third and Final Civil War.** Caesar’s heir was an eighteen-year-old named Gaius Octavius (or Octavian; 63 B.C.–A.D. 14). He joined with Caesar’s friend, Mark Antony (83–30 B.C.), to defeat the men who killed Caesar. In the rioting and fighting that followed, Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 B.C.), a famous orator, was killed. After defeating their enemies, Antony and Octavian ruled the empire for ten years. Their relationship weakened, however, as the years went by.

Antony traveled to Egypt, where he fell in love with Queen Cleopatra (c. 69–30 B.C.), even though he already was married to Octavian’s sister. It became obvious that Antony was planning to rule an independent empire made up of the Roman territory formerly ruled by Alexander the Great. Octavian decided to get rid of his rival.
Antony was a very popular leader, so it was necessary for Octavian to turn public opinion against Antony before attacking him. Octavian produced a paper that he claimed was Mark Antony’s will and read it to the Senate. The will stated that Antony wanted Cleopatra and her children to rule the eastern part of the Roman Republic. When the Senate heard this, they voted to send an army to stop Antony before he ruined the republic.

Octavian’s forces met Antony in a naval battle known as the Battle of Actium. Both Antony and Cleopatra deserted their navies before the fighting started. Antony’s fleet was destroyed in 30 B.C. Both Antony and Cleopatra committed suicide to avoid being taken as prisoners. Two of Cleopatra’s children were murdered, and three younger ones were taken to Rome as prisoners.

Octavian then was sole ruler of the Roman world. The Roman Republic had developed into the Roman Empire. Octavian took the name Augustus, became the first Roman emperor, and was known as Caesar Augustus.

Conclusion. The major trends established during the years of the republic survived throughout the period of the Roman Empire. The number of slaves in Rome continued to grow. The independent, small farmer became a thing of the past. The term plebeian, formerly used to refer to the middle class, then referred to the unemployed people crowding into Rome. There they were entertained by free circuses and given free bread. Such handouts helped wealthy patricians keep the common people from rebelling and demanding changes in government.

The patrician class, with the riches of the world at their fingertips and slaves to handle all their work, became cold-hearted, selfish, and cruel. The patricians drew upon the customs of the Etruscans and were entertained by orgies and gladiator contests.

Before very long, Rome became known throughout the world as a place of moral corruption. The Roman Empire enjoyed many years of peace and prosperity, and it greatly influenced the rest of the world, as we will see in the next chapter.
Comprehension Questions

1. What aspects of Etruscan society and culture carried over into Roman culture? Which of these originated with the Greeks?

2. How did the republic’s governmental system function in Rome?

3. Do you think early Romans possessed a spirit of nationalism? Why or why not?

4. Roman culture featured several myths, such as the founding of Rome by Romulus and Remus and the founding of Carthage by Princess Dido. If much of the Roman myths were fiction, why are they helpful for historians to understand?

5. What were some of Hannibal’s motives in attacking Rome?

6. How did the Roman motivations in their military campaigns evolve over time?

7. What factors facilitated the fall of the Roman Republic?

8. In spite of his short reign, what were some of the good things that Julius Caesar accomplished?
Projects

1. Study at least four civilizations and prepare a report on women’s rights. Are there certain conditions that make a civilization favor stricter controls or more freedom for women? Why do you suppose this is true?

2. What were some of the unusual Etruscan religious customs? How did they mark boundaries of their cities and bury their dead? What influence did their religion have on the development and decline of their civilization?

3. Compare the differences between a democracy and a republic. Which form of government do we have in the United States? Which form do you feel is better? Why?

4. Draw a picture or make a model of the Roman Forum or the Senate.

5. The Plebeians worked hard to win rights in Rome. In the United States the Irish, Chinese, African Americans, Latinos, Native Americans, and other minority groups have had to work for rights. Compare the struggle of one of these groups with that of the Plebeians.

6. Research how indemnities have been used in more recent times. Study how the indemnity Germany was forced to pay after World War I led to the outbreak of World War II. What is your conclusion on the use of indemnities?

7. Compare the welfare system in the United States with Rome’s system of giving free food to the mobs. How do these systems of helping the poor operate, and what are they supposed to accomplish? Is public welfare accomplishing these goals in the United States?

8. Do a report on one of these men—Hannibal, Julius Caesar, Pompey, or Mark Antony. Compare his goals and aims in his early life with his goals, aims, attitudes, and actions of his latter years. Did his successes and failures cause his personality to change? How?

9. Do a report on Cleopatra. How did she become queen of Egypt? What other Roman besides Antony was in love with her? Do you think she really loved Antony? Why or why not?
Words and Concepts

toga
gladiator games
consul
patricians
plebeians
tribune
class struggle
Punic Wars
indemnity
protectorate
grain speculation
Gaul
First Civil War (Social War)
Triumvirate
“crossing the Rubicon”
Ides of March
Battle of Actium

People

Romulus and Remus (legendary founders of Rome)
Tyrrhenus (Lydian ruler; founder of Etruria)
Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus (Roman statesman)
Dido (queen of Carthage)
Hannibal (Carthaginian general)
Scipio the Elder (Roman general)
Cato the Elder (Roman statesman)
Philip V (king of Macedonia)
Tiberius Gracchus (Roman tribune)
Gaius Gracchus (Roman tribune)
Gaius Marius (Roman general and consul)
Cornelius Sulla (Roman dictator)
Pompey the Great (Roman statesman)
Julius Caesar (Roman general and dictator)
Crassus (Roman statesman)
Gaius Octavius (Caesar Augustus; emperor of Rome)
Mark Antony (Roman general and co-ruler with Gaius)
Marcus Tullius Cicero (Roman orator)
Cleopatra (queen of Egypt)
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