A HISTORY

OF THE

ANCIENT WORLD

BY

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WITH MAPS AND NUMEROUS ILLUSTRATIONS

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PREFACE

THE preparation of this volume began as a revision of my Ancient History, but the expansion and alterations have been so extensive as to produce a substantially new book. It is to serve mainly as a practical text-book for meeting new demands in the study of ancient history in secondary schools. In its preparation the advice of educators throughout the country has been obtained; the reports of the Committee of Seven and Committee of Five have been kept in mind; and account has been taken of requirements for admission to college and for state examinations. In brief, every effort has been made to bring the work up to present educational standards. In the labor of preparation I have enjoyed the coöperation of Miss Antoinette Holbrook, Head of the History Department, Chelsea High School, Chelsea, Massachusetts, who has contributed to all parts of the book her experience as a teacher. The proofs have been read, and corrections made, by Professor Eugene Fair, department of Ancient History, State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri. It gives me pleasure to express my high appreciation of such aid. For the choice and arrangement of topics I am especially indebted to "A History Syllabus for Secondary Schools," prepared under the auspices of the History Teachers' Association of New England. This outline is the one used in the Syllabus of the New York State Education Department.

The newer educational movement rightly lays stress on the causal relations and the significance of events and on culture and social life. My "History of Greece" (1899) did pioneer work in this field; and I now cherish the hope that educators will soon see their way clear to the elimination of many minor persons and events from the study of ancient history to make room for a larger treatment of social and cultural activities.

I have aimed also to bring the book up to date from the point of view of scholarship. In the chapters on the Orient, for instance,

advantage has been taken of such recent and authoritative publications as the new edition of Breasted's "History of Ancient Egypt" and of Meyer's "Geschichte des Altertums," Vol. I. Other examples of improvement in this direction may be found in the treatment of the early Greek and Italic civilizations, in the growth and decline of the Roman Empire, and in the period of transition to the Middle Ages.

Great pains have been taken to furnish the volume with an abundance of useful maps and illustrations. All the maps have been drawn especially for this book or have been transferred, with improvements, from my earlier works. The pictures in each chapter are of objects or persons contemporary with the period treated, and have for that reason a great value as a means of instruction. For the use of some of this material my thanks are due to the authorities of the British Museum, to the Ministry of Public Instruction of Italy, and to my colleague, Professor George N. Olcott.

It seems to me to be due to myself now to say that no one of my text-books has been a compilation of modern writings. The present volume, for example, is a product of more than a quarter century of a life earnestly devoted to the study and interpretation of Greek and Roman historical sources. On most of the topics presented within this field I have examined the sources with sufficient care to enable me to express an opinion of my own. But only in a few instances, as on the composition of the Roman assemblies or on the value of Alexander's conquests, do I depart materially from the current view. I understand, however, the difficulty of compressing all ancient history within so few pages. The greater the condensation, the more liable becomes the work to incomplete statements and to errors arising from inattention to details. I shall be grateful to the Reader who will inform me of such defects or offer suggestions for the improvement of the book.

GEORGE WILLIS BOTSFORD.

MOUNT VERNON, NEW YORK,
June 1, 1911.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

CHAPTERS VI and XXVIII owe their existence in their present form to the requests of teachers. Many, however, will find it preferable, with classes beginning the subject, to omit all of chapter VI excepting § 70, the second half of § 79, and § 80, and in chapter XXVIII to omit § 354; to teach the geography in connection with the events; to have the location of every place carefully described from the maps on its first occurrence in the narrative; and to use these two chapters in a review of the geography. One or two myths may be selected for recitation and the rest left to the pupils merely to read. Similarly in the first progress of the class through the book the teacher may find it advisable to touch but lightly on government, and then by way of review to take up as separate topics the constitutional history of Sparta, Athens, and Rome respectively, that the pupils may learn to appreciate the evolution of the government as a whole and of its individual institutions. The teacher will save time and energy by looking carefully over every lesson with the class at the moment the assignment is made, in order to explain difficulties and to indicate what may be omitted or what topics may profitably be expanded by collateral reading. Many proper names and minor events, for example, could be omitted without injury to the pupils' intelligence. In fact the process of elimination has a high educational value. The readings are given merely as illustrations. Generally the teacher will prefer to make his own selections from books accessible to the class. The questions, too, are intended as examples. Many more questions may profitably be asked, not only on the text, but also on the maps and illustrations. Abstracts or topical outlines of periods are strongly recommended. Fortunately no all-sufficing text-book in history has ever been written, or can be written. From the very nature of historical study any effort to avoid the routine work of learning everything in given order in the book and nothing more — to study the subject in hand rather than the book itself — will be amply rewarded by the results.

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A HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

PART I

THE ORIENTAL NATIONS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: THE SCOPE AND COURSE OF ANCIENT HISTORY

1. **Condition of the World To-day.** — As we look over the world to-day we find that the nations and peoples differ widely from one another in character and habits. Some have refined homes, a good government, a moral religion, schools, libraries, steam power, the telegraph, the telephone, and hundreds of other comforts and conveniences. Such people are civilized. We think of the United States, Great Britain, France, and the other countries of Europe and America as the most highly civilized of the world. Others, as those of central Africa, are savage. Between the two extremes we can find every grade of civilization. The reason is that for ages some peoples have remained almost stationary, whereas others have made progress.

2. **Savagery, Barbarism, and Civilization Distinguished.** — In the history of the world much use is made of the terms savagery, barbarism, and civilization. Savagery is the rudest and lowest condition of life, when men live by hunting and fishing and have either no settled homes or those only of the crudest kind. Barbarism is the intermediate stage between savagery and civilization. Some have found it convenient to define barbarism as beginning with the invention of pottery and ending with the invention of the al-

phabet. In a general sense civilization refers to any degree of improvement, however low or high, in a narrower sense to the condition of life above barbarism. We associate with the word civilization especially the idea of a government strong enough to protect the lives and property of the citizens, a well-ordered society, and some advancement in the arts and sciences. Culture is but another word for civilization.

3. **History.** — History is chiefly concerned with progress. It has to do, therefore, with those nations only which have improved their condition. Based on written records, it could not begin till writing was invented and applied to the preservation of facts. So far as our knowledge goes, the Egyptians were the first civilized people. They invented a system of writing as early as the fifth millennium (5000–4000) B.C.[1] We may say, then, that the history of the world begins at this time. We do not know when men first appeared on the earth, but we may feel certain that thousands of years were required to bring them up to the condition in which we find the Egyptians at the dawn of history. In brief, the historical age, extending through the past seven thousand years, is but an insignificant fraction of the entire life of mankind.

4. **The Prehistoric Age.** — The period before the dawn of history is called prehistoric. Our knowledge of it is not derived from written records, but from entirely different sources. The chief materials to be studied for that age are the works of men's hands, such as tools, weapons, personal ornaments, ruins of walls, dwellings, tombs, and temples. The science which has to do with such objects is archaeology. Many implements, ornaments, and other works of primitive men have been found in caves which once served as their dwellings, in their tombs, beneath the surface of fields they have tilled, in the gravel beds along the banks of streams where they have hunted and fished, or in the buried sites of their villages. From such material it is possible to trace the progress of the human race through the prehistoric period.

5. **Great Periods of the Historical Age.** — History is continuous like the flow of a river. It moves now slowly, now rapidly; it often changes direction, but it never comes to a standstill. A period of

[1] § 12 f.

history is a time during which mankind, or some part of it, is developing or declining in a particular direction. One period glides so gradually into another that the line of separation between them can never be definitely fixed. It is customary to divide the seven thousand years of the historical age into three great periods, Ancient, Mediaeval, and Modern. The past five centuries, or thereabout, are usually assigned to modern times. As regards the division between ancient and mediaeval history there is far less agreement. Some make the beginning of the Middle Ages coincide with the barbarian invasions of the Roman Empire in the fourth and fifth centuries, A.D., others with the death of Charlemagne early in the ninth century. This very difference of opinion shows the artificial character of such divisions.

6. Ancient History Explained. — An explanation of the term Ancient History will help us decide when this period closed. It has to do with the countries in or near the Mediterranean Sea. Here were the only civilized peoples of the time who have contributed anything to our own life.[1] All parts of this region were closely connected with each other. The chief means of communication was the sea itself, which served as a highway for colonization, trade, and conquest. In a word, it was the Mediterranean which gave unity to the region and to the history of its civilization.

Ancient history consists of two great parts, Oriental and Greco-Roman or Classical. The Orient was made up of Egypt and Southwestern Asia. Here civilization was born. From this beginning the classical world afterward developed. The latter included the whole Mediterranean basin and some adjacent territory on the East and North. Thus a considerable part of the Orient came within the region here described. The whole classical area came to be united in the Roman empire under one government. When the centre of interest shifts from this area to the countries north and northwest, ancient history closes and mediaeval history begins.

7. The Western Progress of Civilization. — When we take up these subjects in greater detail, we shall find the general progress of

[1] India, China, and Japan were also civilized in ancient times; but in our brief study we do not need to consider them, as they have stood quite apart from the progress of the world to which we belong.

the world during ancient history to have been from east to west. First Egypt, Babylonia, and the neighboring Asiatic countries became civilized, then Greece, then Italy and Carthage, then Spain, southern Gaul, and the opposite coast of north Africa. Northern Gaul and Britain, remote from the Mediterranean coasts, were less affected by ancient civilization.

8. The Great Divisions, or Races, of Mankind. — In the study of history it is convenient to divide mankind into groups according to their physical qualities, as color, hair, skull, or the like, and to call these grand divisions races. From the point of view of color three groups may be distinguished. The first is the Black or Negro race of central and southern Africa. They are the lowest in intelligence, and have contributed practically nothing to the progress of the world. The second is the Yellow or Mongolian race of Asia. They include the Chinese and Japanese, who have long been civilized, and the nomads, or wandering people, of central Asia. Some of the Europeans, as the Turks, Hungarians, and Finns, belong to the same race. The American Indians are grouped with them by some scholars; by others they are regarded as a distinct race. The third and historically most important group is the White, or Caucasian race. To the White race are due practically all the improvements of the past seven thousand years.

9. Subdivisions of the White or Caucasian Race. — The White race is termed Caucasian because scholars once believed that its highest physical perfection could be found among the mountaineers of Caucasus. It included three main branches, which we also usually call races, Hamites, Semites, and Indo-Europeans (or Aryans).[1] The Hamites, named after Ham, a son of Noah, inhabited northern Africa. They comprised the ancient Egyptians and the Libyans. They were the creators of the first civilization. The Semites, so named after Shem, another son of Noah, comprised the Babylonians, Assyrians, Hebrews, Phoenicians, and other peoples of southwestern Asia. Their greatest contribution to the world's progress was commerce, a phonetic alphabet, and religion. The Indo-Europeans had two branches, Asiatic and European. To

[1] It is only in a loose, popular sense that Aryan is equivalent to Indo-European. Strictly, the word applies only to the Hindoos and the Iranians.

the Asiatic division belong the Persians and Hindoos; to the European the Greeks, Italians (including the Romans), Teutons, Slavs, and Celts. The European members of this great family have been, and still are, the most progressive people known to history. They and their colonies control the greater part of the world.

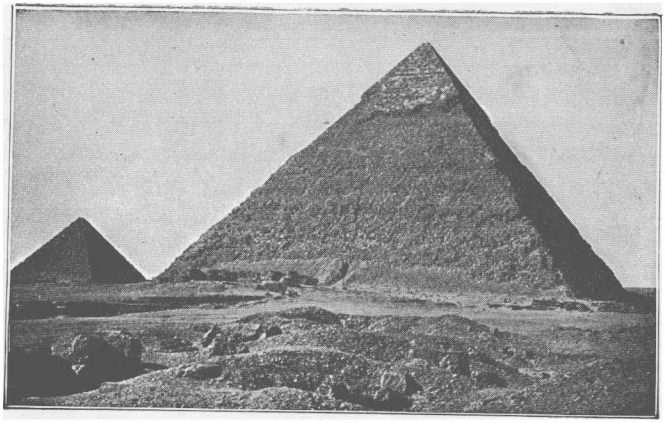
10. **All Race Groupings are Arbitrary.** — Any classification of races is at best superficial and unsatisfactory. The chief fault is that two men may be alike in the characteristics which form the basis of the grouping, but very unlike in other respects. Again, there has been so much intermingling of peoples that no pure stock or race now exists, nor are we sure that any such has existed within the historical age. In geography and history, however, it is necessary to speak of men in groups, and those named above are found convenient for the purpose. Within the White race the ground of our classification is not a physical quality, but speech. The Indo-European peoples, for instance, have always spoken languages closely related to one another,[1] but quite distinct from any Semitic or Hamitic language. No one supposes all the Indo-Europeans to resemble one another in complexion or stature or in the shape of the skull[2] or to be of one blood or stock. In fact, they have sprung from the blending of many peoples. What they have in common, however, stored up in their language, is a treasure of knowledge and ideas of far greater value than blood. Another common feature is the mental superiority they have thus far shown over all other people. Kindred speech proves relationship, not in blood, but in history. Language is therefore a useful basis for the classification of mankind.

Suggestive Questions

1. Which is the more useful, a narrative of wars or of the progress of mankind? 2. Why have not all peoples progressed equally and in the same direction? 3. What are some points of difference between the savage and the barbarian? 4. How is our knowledge of ancient life constantly increasing? 5. In the classification of mankind, where do the French belong? the Spanish? the Arabs? the people of the United States?

[1] § 61.

[2] History has derived practically no benefit from the attempt to classify mankind according to skull measurements. The failure of the attempt is due chiefly to the fact that within two or three generations the shape of the skull may be completely changed by a change of surroundings.



SECOND AND THIRD PYRAMIDS OF GIZEH
(View from the east. From a photograph)

CHAPTER II

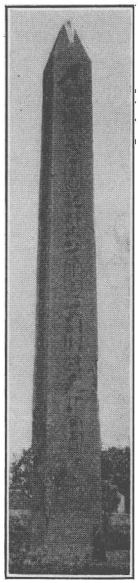
EGYPT

About 5000–525 B.C.

I. LAND AND PEOPLE; POLITICAL HISTORY

11. Physical Features and their Influence. — The progress of mankind depends largely on country and surroundings. And of all the region round the Mediterranean none is so favored by nature as the valley of the Nile River in northeastern Africa. Egypt, the lower part of this valley, extends from the First Cataract to the sea. It is seven hundred miles long, and averages through most of its course less than ten miles in width. It is therefore one of the smallest countries in the world. Its area is about that of the state of Maryland. A hundred miles before the river reaches the sea, it divides into several channels, and the valley broadens into the Delta. Every summer, swollen by the rains and melting snows of the country in which it rises, the Nile overflows the valley; and when in early December the water returns to the channel, it leaves the land fertilized with a rich coat of earth. In fact, the entire soil is composed of mud deposited in this manner. The land therefore

is wonderfully fertile. With little labor a man can raise each year three crops of grain, grasses, flax, and vegetables. Wheat yields a hundred fold. The mountains produce an abundance of building stones and various kinds of metal. Commerce, too, is easy. The Nile forms a natural waterway for domestic trade. For foreign commerce it is a great advantage that the country lies at the meeting of three continents and borders on two navigable seas. The warm climate makes little clothing necessary; the rainless sky preserves the works of men from decay; and the mountain chains and deserts on both sides protect the people from invading armies. With her natural resources and her situation, it is no wonder that Egypt became the birthplace of civilization.



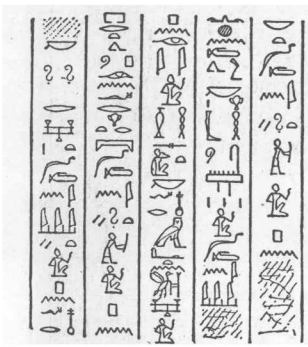
An Obelisk
(From a photograph)

12. Remains of Ancient Civilization; Writing. — The traveller in Egypt is astonished at the great number and size of the ancient monuments. In various parts of the valley he finds obelisks, colossal statues, the ruins of vast temples, and, grandest of all, the pyramids. These and other monuments will be described in this chapter. Nowhere else have the ancients built so magnificently, and nowhere have their works been so well preserved. The good condition of the monuments is due not only to their substantial character, but to the dryness of the atmosphere.

On many of these monuments are inscribed lines of strange characters. Till about a hundred years ago, no one could make them out, and the history and life of the country remained, therefore, largely a mystery. The key was discovered by means of an inscription on what is known as the Rosetta stone. In Napoleon's invasion of Egypt, 1798, while some of his men were digging to lay the foundation of a fort, they came upon this stone. It is of black basalt and is covered with an inscription. It was named after the place where the soldiers found it — on the Rosetta branch of the Nile in the Delta. The credit for deciphering it is due chiefly to Cham-

pol'li-on, a French scholar. It was found to contain a public document in Egyptian, with a Greek translation added. By means of the translation Champollion and other scholars were enabled with great difficulty to decipher the Egyptian. Most of the inscriptions can now be read, and through them the details of Egyptian life and history may be studied.

In their earliest writing objects were represented by pictures. A disk ⊙ stood for the sun, and a crescent ☾ for the moon. From pictures they passed to symbols; the disk of the sun suggested day, and an axe 𓌳 god. In course of time they invented letters representing each a single sound. From them they might easily have made a phonetic alphabet like ours; but they were too conservative for so great an improvement. They continued, therefore, to use their pictures and symbols, mingling them with the new phonetic letters. As the priests always used these early, difficult characters for religious purposes, they are called hieroglyphs — sacred inscriptions. A running style, however, came into use in literature and business. On the Rosetta stone, mentioned above, the inscription in the Egyptian language is written first in hieroglyphs and below in the common running style.

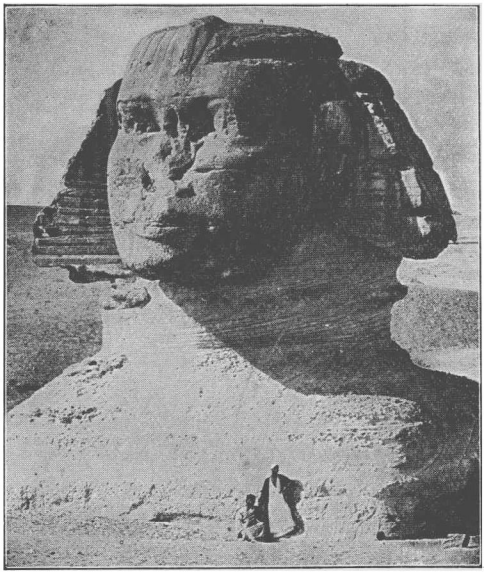


EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHIC WRITING

13. The People: Origin and Earliest States (to about 3400 B.C.). — The ancient Egyptians, in common with the other inhabitants of northern Africa, were Hamites.[1] Their language is related to the Semitic. Evidently in prehistoric times Semites invaded the Nile valley and mingled with the natives. The civilization was not imported, however, but grew up in the country. Through archaeology[2] we may trace its progress from the early stone age — that is, from the time men began to make implements of stone. Nothing strikes us as remarkable in this development till we come to the beginnings of agriculture and the founding of states. Men could fish on

[1] § 9. [2] § 4.

the Nile and hunt among the marshes of its valley, independently of one another. The nature of the country, however, compelled them, if they were to live there in considerable numbers, to resort to farming. This step could not be taken without draining the marshes and irrigating the fields. For so great an enterprise coöperation was necessary. This need brought the state into being. The whole course of the Nile through Egypt came to be held by small states, each occupying the entire width of the valley and a few miles of its length. Each was ruled by a king, whose first duty was to control the waters by canals and dikes, so as to make life possible. The need of enforcing strict coöperation among the people in these labors rendered him absolute and reduced his subjects to a condition but little better than slavery. Gradually war and conquest united the petty kingdoms, until there came to be but one.



THE SPHINX OF GIZEH
(From a photograph)

These political events were accompanied by a great development of culture. We may safely say that about 5000 B.C. the Egyptians had emerged from barbarism. Before the close of the period (3400) their civilization had taken on the character which it maintained thereafter with little change.

14. The Old Kingdom; the Pharaohs of Memphis (3400–2100 B.C.). — Among the many titles of the Egyptian king, the one by