

Chapter 1 : Florence in the Early Renaissance (article) | Khan Academy

In this way, the colonies of the Archaic period were different from other colonies we are familiar with: The people who lived there were not ruled by or bound to the city-states from which they came.

The largest, Sparta, controlled about square miles of territory; the smallest had just a few hundred people. However, by the dawn of the Archaic period in the seventh century B. They all had economies that were based on agriculture, not trade: Also, most had overthrown their hereditary kings, or basileus, and were ruled by a small number of wealthy aristocrats. Visit Website These people monopolized political power. For example, they refused to let ordinary people serve on councils or assemblies. They also monopolized the best farmland, and some even claimed to be descended from the gods. Land was the most important source of wealth in the city-states; it was also, obviously, in finite supply. The pressure of population growth pushed many men away from their home poleis and into sparsely populated areas around Greece and the Aegean. By the end of the seventh century B. Each of these poleis was an independent city-state. In this way, the colonies of the Archaic period were different from other colonies we are familiar with: The people who lived there were not ruled by or bound to the city-states from which they came. The new poleis were self-governing and self-sufficient. The Rise of the Tyrants As time passed and their populations grew, many of these agricultural city-states began to produce consumer goods such as pottery, cloth, wine and metalwork. Trade in these goods made some people—usually not members of the old aristocracy—very wealthy. These people resented the unchecked power of the oligarchs and banded together, sometimes with the aid of heavily-armed soldiers called hoplites, to put new leaders in charge. These leaders were known as tyrants. Some tyrants turned out to be just as autocratic as the oligarchs they replaced, while others proved to be enlightened leaders. Pheidon of Argos established an orderly system of weights and measures, for instance, while Theagenes of Megara brought running water to his city. However, their rule did not last: The colonial migrations of the Archaic period had an important effect on its art and literature: Sculptors created kouroi and korai, carefully proportioned human figures that served as memorials to the dead. Scientists and mathematicians made progress too: Anaximandros devised a theory of gravity; Xenophanes wrote about his discovery of fossils; and Pythagoras of Kroton discovered his famous theorem. The economic, political, technological and artistic developments of the Archaic period readied the Greek city-states for the monumental changes of the next few centuries.

Chapter 2 : Renaissance for Kids: Italian City-States

From political aspect, this period is characterized by the growth of the city-state called polis. The two most important city-states that began to develop were Sparta and Athens. Sparta was the first city that organized itself with a strict social structure and a government that included an assembly representing all citizens.

These were some of the largest and richest cities in all of Europe. Map of Italian city-states click picture to enlarge What is a city-state? A city-state is a region that is independently ruled by a major city. Some of these cities were run by elected leaders and others by ruling families. Often times these cities fought each other. Why were they important? The wealth of the Italian city-state played an important role in the Renaissance. This wealth allowed prominent families to support artists, scientists, and philosophers spurring on new ideas and artistic movements. Florence Florence is where the Renaissance first began. It was ruled by the powerful Medici Family who used their money to support artists such as Leonardo da Vinci and Michelangelo. One of the early architectural achievements of the Renaissance was the massive dome on the Florence Cathedral. Florence was known for its textile production as well as a banking center. However, the Sforza family took over in They brought peace to the region and with peace came the new ideas and art of the Renaissance. Milan was famous for its metalwork which included suits of armor. Venice The island city of Venice had become a powerful city-state through trade with the Far East. It imported products such as spices and silk. Venice controlled the seas around the east coast of Italy and was famous for its artistic glassware. Rome The pope ruled both the Catholic Church and the city-state of Rome. Much of the city of Rome was re-built under the leadership of Nicholas V beginning in Rome became a patron of the arts and supported the Renaissance through commissions to artists such as Raphael and Michelangelo. Michelangelo worked as architect on St. Naples The city-state of Naples ruled much of southern Italy at the time of the Renaissance. It was one of the last city-states to embrace the movement, but in Alfonso I conquered the city. He supported Renaissance artists, writers, and philosophers. Naples also became known for its music and is where the mandolin was invented. Naples was captured by Spain in Interesting Facts about the Italian City-States of the Renaissance Guilds were powerful institutions in the city-states. In some city-states you had to be a member of a guild to run for public office. The small city-state of Ferrara was known for its music and theatre. The city-state of Urbino was known for its library as well as its beautiful ceramics. Most of the people who lived in the city-states were craftsmen and merchants. This was a growing class of society during the Renaissance. Milan, Naples, and Florence signed a peace treaty called the Peace of Lodi in This helped to establish boundaries and peace for around 30 years. Activities Take a ten question quiz about this page. Listen to a recorded reading of this page: Your browser does not support the audio element. Learn more about the Renaissance:

Chapter 3 : Classical Greece - HISTORY

Ancient Greece consisted of several hundred relatively independent city-states. This was a situation unlike that in most other contemporary societies, which were either tribal or kingdoms ruling over relatively large territories.

Visit Website The Rise of Athens The defeat of the Persians marked the beginning of Athenian political, economic, and cultural dominance. Other legislators were chosen randomly by lot, not by election. Visit Website However, demokratia did not mean that Athens approached her relationships with other Greek city-states with anything approaching egalitarianism. To protect far-flung Greek territories from Persian interference, Athens organized a confederacy of allies that it called the Delian League in B. Athens Under Pericles In the s, the Athenian general Pericles consolidated his own power by using all that tribute money to serve the citizens of Athens, rich and poor. Generals were among the only public officials in Athens who were elected, not appointed, and who could keep their jobs for more than one year. For example, Pericles paid modest wages to jurors and members of the ekklesia so that, in theory, everyone who was eligible could afford to participate in the public life of the demokratia. Art and Architecture Pericles also used the tribute money to support Athenian artists and thinkers. For instance, he paid to rebuild the parts of Athens that the Persian Wars had destroyed. The result was the magnificent Parthenon , a new temple in honor of the goddess Athena at the Acropolis. Pericles also oversaw the construction of the temple at Hephaestos, the Odeion concert hall, and the temple of Poseidon at Attica. Likewise, Pericles paid for the annual production of comedic and dramatic plays at the Acropolis. Wealthy people offset some of these costs by paying voluntary taxes called liturgies. Dramatists like Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides and the comic playwright Aristophanes all won a great deal of renown for their depictions of relationships between men and gods, citizens and polis, and fate and justice. These plays, like the Parthenon, still epitomize the cultural achievements of classical Greece. Along with the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides and the ideas of the physician Hippokrates, they are defined by logic, pattern and order, and they have in common a faith in humanism above all else. These are the attributes that today aer associated with the art, the culture and even the politics of the era. The Peloponnesian War Unfortunately, none of these cultural achievements translated into political stability. Athenian imperialism had alienated its partners in the Delian League, particularly Sparta, and this conflict played out in the decades-long Peloponnesian War â€” B. The eventual Spartan victory in the Peloponnesian War meant that Athens lost its political primacy, but Athenian cultural lifeâ€”the essence of classical Greeceâ€”continued apace in the fourth century B. By the second half of the century, however, disorder reigned within the former Athenian empire.

Chapter 4 : The Evolution of the City-States

City: City, relatively permanent and highly organized centre of population, of greater size or importance than a town or village. The name city is given to certain urban communities by virtue of some legal or conventional distinction that can vary between regions or nations.

Archaic period in Greece Dipylon Vase of the late Geometric period, or the beginning of the Archaic period, c. In the 8th century BC, Greece began to emerge from the Dark Ages which followed the fall of the Mycenaean civilization. Literacy had been lost and Mycenaean script forgotten, but the Greeks adopted the Phoenician alphabet, modifying it to create the Greek alphabet. Objects with Phoenician writing on them may have been available in Greece from the 9th century BC, but the earliest evidence of Greek writing comes from graffiti on Greek pottery from the mid-8th century. It was fought between the important poleis city-states of Chalcis and Eretria over the fertile Lelantine plain of Euboea. Both cities seem to have suffered a decline as result of the long war, though Chalcis was the nominal victor. A mercantile class arose in the first half of the 7th century BC, shown by the introduction of coinage in about BC. The aristocratic regimes which generally governed the poleis were threatened by the new-found wealth of merchants, who in turn desired political power. From BC onwards, the aristocracies had to fight not to be overthrown and replaced by populist tyrants. In Sparta, the Messenian Wars resulted in the conquest of Messenia and enslavement of the Messenians, beginning in the latter half of the 8th century BC, an act without precedent in ancient Greece. This practice allowed a social revolution to occur. Even the elite were obliged to live and train as soldiers; this commonality between rich and poor citizens served to defuse the social conflict. These reforms, attributed to Lycurgus of Sparta, were probably complete by BC. Political geography of ancient Greece in the Archaic and Classical periods Athens suffered a land and agrarian crisis in the late 7th century BC, again resulting in civil strife. The Archon chief magistrate Draco made severe reforms to the law code in BC hence "draconian", but these failed to quell the conflict. Eventually the moderate reforms of Solon BC, improving the lot of the poor but firmly entrenching the aristocracy in power, gave Athens some stability. By the 6th century BC several cities had emerged as dominant in Greek affairs: Athens, Sparta, Corinth, and Thebes. Each of them had brought the surrounding rural areas and smaller towns under their control, and Athens and Corinth had become major maritime and mercantile powers as well. Rapidly increasing population in the 8th and 7th centuries BC had resulted in emigration of many Greeks to form colonies in Magna Graecia Southern Italy and Sicily, Asia Minor and further afield. The emigration effectively ceased in the 6th century BC by which time the Greek world had, culturally and linguistically, become much larger than the area of present-day Greece. Greek colonies were not politically controlled by their founding cities, although they often retained religious and commercial links with them. The emigration process also determined a long series of conflicts between the Greek cities of Sicily, especially Syracuse, and the Carthaginians. This way Rome became the new dominant power against the fading strength of the Sicilian Greek cities and the Carthaginian supremacy in the region. One year later the First Punic War erupted. In this period, there was huge economic development in Greece, and also in its overseas colonies which experienced a growth in commerce and manufacturing. There was a great improvement in the living standards of the population. Some studies estimate that the average size of the Greek household, in the period from BC to BC, increased five times, which indicates [citation needed] a large increase in the average income of the population. In the second half of the 6th century BC, Athens fell under the tyranny of Peisistratos and then of his sons Hippias and Hipparchos. However, in BC, at the instigation of the Athenian aristocrat Cleisthenes, the Spartan king Cleomenes I helped the Athenians overthrow the tyranny. Afterwards, Sparta and Athens promptly turned on each other, at which point Cleomenes I installed Isagoras as a pro-Spartan archon. Eager to prevent Athens from becoming a Spartan puppet, Cleisthenes responded by proposing to his fellow citizens that Athens undergo a revolution: Classical Greece Main article: Classical Greece Early Athenian coin, depicting the head of Athena on the obverse and her owl on the reverse 5th century BC In BC, the Ionian city states under Persian rule rebelled against the Persian-supported tyrants that ruled them. Sparta was suspicious of the increasing Athenian power funded by

the Delian League, and tensions rose when Sparta offered aid to reluctant members of the League to rebel against Athenian domination. These tensions were exacerbated in 427 BC, when Athens sent a force to aid Sparta in overcoming a helot revolt, but their aid was rejected by the Spartans. In an alliance between Athens and Argos was defeated by Sparta at Mantinea. Another war of stalemates, it ended with the status quo restored, after the threat of Persian intervention on behalf of the Spartans. The Spartan hegemony lasted another 16 years, until, when attempting to impose their will on the Thebans, the Spartans were defeated at Leuctra in 371 BC. The Theban general Epaminondas then led Theban troops into the Peloponnese, whereupon other city-states defected from the Spartan cause. The Thebans were thus able to march into Messenia and free the population. Deprived of land and its serfs, Sparta declined to a second-rank power. The Theban hegemony thus established was short-lived; at the Battle of Mantinea in 362 BC, Thebes lost its key leader, Epaminondas, and much of its manpower, even though they were victorious in battle. In fact such were the losses to all the great city-states at Mantinea that none could establish dominance in the aftermath. In twenty years, Philip had unified his kingdom, expanded it north and west at the expense of Illyrian tribes, and then conquered Thessaly and Thrace. His success stemmed from his innovative reforms to the Macedonian army. Phillip intervened repeatedly in the affairs of the southern city-states, culminating in his invasion of Greece in 338 BC. Decisively defeating an allied army of Thebes and Athens at the Battle of Chaeronea BC, he became de facto hegemon of all of Greece, except Sparta. He compelled the majority of the city-states to join the League of Corinth, allying them to him, and preventing them from warring with each other. Philip then entered into war against the Achaemenid Empire but was assassinated by Pausanias of Orestis early on in the conflict. Alexander the Great, son and successor of Philip, continued the war. When Alexander died in 323 BC, Greek power and influence was at its zenith. However, there had been a fundamental shift away from the fierce independence and classical culture of the poleis and instead towards the developing Hellenistic culture. Hellenistic Greece Main articles: Although the establishment of Roman rule did not break the continuity of Hellenistic society and culture, which remained essentially unchanged until the advent of Christianity, it did mark the end of Greek political independence.

Chapter 5 : Maya Civilization for Kids: Timeline

Swahili City States were trading states along the east coast of Africa, from Kenya to Mozambique. The Swahili City States provided and connected african raw material to the rest of the Indian Ocean world--Arabia, India, Persia, China and vice-versa.

There The division of the Roman Empire after Diocletian is more complexity in these empires than the above maps show. The Roman Empire, under Diocletian, was divided into several administrative zones, which led to the establishment of a western Latin empire and an eastern Greek portion see map on the right. The later would continue as the Byzantine Empire for another thousand years after the western side fell in C. The antagonism between the Persians and Greek civilization would provoke the wrath of Alexander the Great, whose conquest of Persia ended the Achaemenid Empire. This conflict evoked the most famous political propaganda in Roman history, the Augustus of Prima Porta on the left. Brazened on the breastplate of Augustus is the Parthian general returning the battle standards lost to the Romans in earlier defeats, a great diplomatic triumph for Caesar Augustus. The collapse of the Sassanid Empire in C. One result of these Persian Empires was the diffusion of religious ideas associated with Zoarastrianism. Empires and states developed new techniques of imperial administration based, in part, on the success of earlier political forms. Empires are large and diverse. As they expanded duing the classical age, ruling them became more difficult. Governments had to implement methods to project power over large areas, something that presented a challenge in the age before modern transportation and communication. Drawing from the successes of earlier civilizations, empires in the classical age were able to centralize their power and rule over vast domains. A centralized government is one in which most decisions for the entire state are made by one executive power. This usually involves one leader, or a small group of individuals, having authority over all regions of a state from a single location, such as a capital city. Although all states are necessarily centralized to some degree, some governments can lean more toward decentralization. A decentralized government allows more control and decision making to be made at the level of local provinces or counties. An illustration would be a school in which the administration allows teachers to create many of the rules and procedures for their own classrooms, as opposed to a more centralized system in which an administrator micro-manages every aspect of the classroom from an administrative office. Each of these models of government has its own pattern of strengths and weaknesses. Although decentralized governments put people more in touch with the powers that govern them, they often find it difficult to unite for the common good in times of crises. Centralized states can be efficient, but require some apparatus to project power and hold distance provinces together. They can also can be the target of blame when people become discontented. Although a time of conflict and strife, this period was one of the most fruitful in terms of intellectual output. In the quest to understand how China could have fallen into a period of instability, great thinkers pondered questions such as "What is the best form of governance? The Period of Warring States ended when the warrior Qin Shi Huang centralized power and destroyed regional opposition. Although it lasted only 14 years, the Qin Dynasty set in place many important aspects of Chinese civilization. The Qin Dynasty and its administrative regions. Each region was subdivided and placed into the bureaucratic chain that enabled the emperor to have his hand in every area of the empire. The Qin emperor is best known for his famous tomb discovered in The amount of man power and resources required to build this tomb display the centralized power of emperor Qin Shi Huang. One of the most important things the Qin did was create a bureaucracy. Bureaucrats are employees of the state whose position in society, unlike nobles or aristocrats, does not rest on an independent source of wealth. Members of the bureaucracy only had positions and power as granted by the emperor. Land owning aristocrats, on the other hand, have large estates and personal fortunes to fall back on; they have a vested interest in influencing the government in their personal favor. Aristocrats also tend to make decisions based on what is best for their location, thus becoming a decentralizing force. By assigning bureaucrats to regions, the Qin bypassed the powerful aristocracy and governed through those whose position depended on loyal obedience to the state. Additionally, the practice of Legalism reinforced the bonds of obligation between bureaucrat and superior. In this manner, the bureaucracy

became a tool of centralization for China and placed the entire empire under the leadership of the Qin emperor. A bureaucracy is an hierarchical chain of authority that allows a central leader to project power across a large area divided into many administrative regions. In order to bring unity to China, the Qin also built roads and bridges, constructed defensive walls, standardized units of weight and measurement, created a standard currency, and made one common form of Chinese writing. The harsh Legalism of the Qin allowed it to do much during its short reign of 14 years, but this same strict political philosophy also generated much resentment among the common people. As soon as the emperor died, the people revolted and slaughtered many of the remaining Qin officials. Unlike previous eras, Chinese civilization did not regress into chaos for long. The Han dynasty came to power and ruled China for about years, roughly B. The ability of the Han to maintain a strong central government over such a vast area was greatly facilitated by the Qin reforms under Legalism. Under the leadership of emperor Han Wudi, the Han Dynasty is responsible for some very important innovations that would have a lasting effect on China: The Han adopted Confucianism because it was the most organized educational network from which they could draw people for the bureaucracy. To make certain new recruits were educated well, they began testing them through a rigorous system of civil service examinations; to be in the Han bureaucracy, one had to demonstrate a mastery of Confucian ideas on these tests. One effect of this was that the Han bureaucracy was filled with people profoundly influenced by Confucian thought. They were taught to model good behavior for those under them and to respect and submit to those in authority over them. Thus Confucianism not only became deeply embedded in Chinese culture, it also came to re-enforce the political bureaucracy by advocating obedience and benevolent rule. Although Alexander left no lasting impression on India, he did clear out several small Aryan states and create the power vacuum which allowed Chandragupta Mauryan to establish his namesake dynasty. Under Mauryan rule much of the Indian subcontinent was united for the first time under one central government. The Gupta Empire was smaller and concentrated in the north. Chandragupta maintained his bureaucracy with a systematic use of spying, brutality and intimidation. The most important ruler of the Mauryan dynasty was Ashoka. He retained the bureaucracy created by this grandfather Chandragupta, but imposed a system of law across his empire known as the Edicts of Ashoka. These rules brought cohesion and legal consistency across the empire, as the Code of Hammurabi did for the Babylonians. Thus Ashoka relied on both a bureaucracy and a codified legal system to centralize his rule. He created central organizations to ensure that his edicts and policies were carried out across his empire. When Ashoka died the Mauryan empire soon crumbled. After a period of disorder and regional kingdoms, the Gupta Dynasty emerged and once again united India under a single government. The Gupta empire never grew to the size of the Mauryan. The organization of their empire was considerably different as well. Ashoka used the bureaucracy to manage most details of the empire. The Gupras, on the other hand, let most decisions and policy making up to local leaders. They also preferred to negotiate or intermarry with local rulers to keep the peace. Although they ruled over a smaller area than the Mauryans, the Gupta era was the greatest period of political stability in classical India. However, this lack of centralized rule came with an eventual price. The various regions of India had their own distinctions and were never integrated into the whole as they were under Ashoka. In fact, the Gupta empire would break along these regional divisions as the empire was threatened by internal corruption and nomadic invaders. After the fall of the Gupta dynasty, the Indian subcontinent would remain fragmented into regions for over years. Thus the pattern of rule in classical India alternated between large but decentralized empires and networks of disjointed regional kingdoms. As its territory expanded it grew from a monarchy, to a Republic, and finally became an Empire. The first laws implemented in Rome were the Twelve Tables. These laws were produced early in Roman history BCE in order to relieve tensions between the upper classes the patricians and the common classes the plebeians of citizens. The Twelve Tables, which guaranteed procedural equality and consistency in courts of law, was the first major concession won by the plebeians on their road to political equality and republican government. Roman The enduring influence of Roman law can be seen in this work on Natural Law. Jus gentium, or law of all nations, refers to universal principles that are true of all people. These are fundamental to being human and all societies have some version of them. They embody principles such as: The Romans thought these basic precepts were universal to all people; without them different cultures could

not even engage in trade. Because they are universal, a foreigner in Rome could be charged for breaking one of these principles even if that person did not see them written down. Ignorance can never be an excuse for violating jus gentium. By the second century C. After recognizing the general principles jus gentium that make society possible, the Romans realized that these general principles do not look the same within different societies; specific cultural norms and practices vary widely across civilizations. Thus the Romans came up with the idea of jus civile, or civil law. This codified system of law is what the jus gentium looks like inside a specific culture. They differ from place to place, but always manifest the general principles common to all people. For example, in all cultures it is wrong to cheat in trade. In both cultures cheating is wrong, but the written law concerning this principle looks different in both places. In short, general principles of right and wrong jus gentium are customized to fit the specific circumstances of local conditions; at the local level they become civil law jus civile. This system of law had coherence because it was based on principles thought to be universal to all men, and it had flexibility in that it allowed for local variances. Thus rendered, this system of law allowed Rome to administrate its massive empire with all its diverse cultures and local customs. After the Visigoths laid waste to Rome in C. You made of foreign realms one fatherland, the lawless found their gain beneath your sway; sharing your laws with them you have subdued, you have made a city of the once wide world. This took place through a variety of techniques: Diplomacy The Han acquired allies through diplomacy in order to defeat the Xiongu confederation. The Gupta Empire and the region of its tributary states.

Chapter 6 : The Rise of Sumer and the Akkadian Empire

Post-classic Period (AD to AD) Although the southern city-states collapsed, the Mayan cities in the northern part of the Yucatan Peninsula continued to thrive for the next several hundred years during the Post-classic period.

They were seized by a Maya lord, and most were sacrificed , although two managed to escape. Maya peoples The Spanish conquest stripped away most of the defining features of Maya civilization. However, many Maya villages remained remote from Spanish colonial authority, and for the most part continued to manage their own affairs. Maya communities and the nuclear family maintained their traditional day-to-day life. Traditional crafts such as weaving, ceramics, and basketry continued to be practised. Community markets and trade in local products continued long after the conquest. At times, the colonial administration encouraged the traditional economy in order to extract tribute in the form of ceramics or cotton textiles, although these were usually made to European specifications. Maya beliefs and language proved resistant to change, despite vigorous efforts by Catholic missionaries. Thompson promoted the ideas that Maya cities were essentially vacant ceremonial centres serving a dispersed population in the forest, and that the Maya civilization was governed by peaceful astronomer-priests. Rather, throughout its history, the Maya area contained a varying mix of political complexity that included both states and chiefdoms. These polities fluctuated greatly in their relationships with each other and were engaged in a complex web of rivalries, periods of dominance or submission, vassalage, and alliances. At times, different polities achieved regional dominance, such as Calakmul, Caracol , Mayapan, and Tikal. The first reliably evidenced polities formed in the Maya lowlands in the 9th century BC. The divine authority invested within the ruler was such that the king was able to mobilize both the aristocracy and commoners in executing huge infrastructure projects, apparently with no police force or standing army. In other cases, loose alliance networks were formed around a dominant city. An overriding sense of pride and honour among the warrior aristocracy could lead to extended feuds and vendettas, which caused political instability and the fragmentation of polities. Women in Maya society From the Early Preclassic, Maya society was sharply divided between the elite and commoners. As population increased over time, various sectors of society became increasingly specialized, and political organization became increasingly complex. Commoners included farmers, servants, labourers, and slaves. Such clans held that the land was the property of the clan ancestors, and such ties between the land and the ancestors were reinforced by the burial of the dead within residential compounds. The king was the supreme ruler and held a semi-divine status that made him the mediator between the mortal realm and that of the gods. From very early times, kings were specifically identified with the young maize god , whose gift of maize was the basis of Mesoamerican civilization. Maya royal succession was patrilineal , and royal power only passed to queens when doing otherwise would result in the extinction of the dynasty. Typically, power was passed to the eldest son. Although being of the royal bloodline was of utmost importance, the heir also had to be a successful war leader, as demonstrated by taking of captives. Government was hierarchical, and official posts were sponsored by higher-ranking members of the aristocracy; officials tended to be promoted to higher levels of office during the course of their lives. Officials are referred to as being "owned" by their sponsor, and this relationship continued even after the death of the sponsor. Ajaw is usually translated as "lord" or "king". In the Early Classic, an ajaw was the ruler of a city. Later, with increasing social complexity, the ajaw was a member of the ruling class and a major city could have more than one, each ruling over different districts. It indicated an overlord, or high king , and the title was only in use during the Classic period. A sajal would be lord of a second- or third-tier site, answering to an ajaw, who may himself have been subservient to a k'ulmte'. These last two may be variations on the same title, [] and Mark Zender has suggested that the holder of this title may have been the spokesman for the ruler. Rivalry between different factions would have led to dynamic political institutions as compromises and disagreements were played out. In such a setting, public performance was vital. Such performances included ritual dances , presentation of war captives, offerings of tribute, human sacrifice, and religious ritual. Their houses were generally constructed from perishable materials, and their remains have left little trace in the archaeological record. Some commoner dwellings were raised on low

platforms, and these can be identified, but an unknown quantity of commoner houses were not. Such low-status dwellings can only be detected by extensive remote-sensing surveys of apparently empty terrain.

Chapter 7 : Swahili City States - Afropedia

In the first half of the first millennium BCE, ancient Greek city-states, most of which were maritime powers, began to look beyond Greece for land and resources, and so they founded colonies across the Mediterranean.

Timeline[change change source] The history of Greece went through these stages: The bronze age collapse or Greek dark ages c. The archaic period c. The archaic period ends with the overthrow of the last tyrant of Athens in BC. The classical period c. Politically, the classical period was dominated by Athens and the Delian League during the 5th century. They were displaced by Spartan hegemony during the early 4th century BC. Finally there was the League of Corinth , which was led by Macedon. This period begins with the death of Alexander and ends with the Roman conquest. The final phase of antiquity is the period of Christianization during the later 4th to early 6th centuries. Literacy[change change source] In the 8th century B. They had lost literacy at the end of the Mycenaean culture , as the Mediterranean world fell into the Dark Ages. The Greeks learned about the alphabet from another ancient people, the Phoenicians. They made some adjustments to it. In particular, the Greeks introduced regular letters for vowels , which was necessary for their language. Their alphabet was, in turn, copied by the Romans, and much of the world now uses the Roman alphabet. Political structure[change change source] Ancient Greece had one language and culture, but was not unified until BC, when Macedonia defeated Athens and Thebes. That marked the end of the Classic period, and the start of the Hellenistic period. City states[change change source] Ancient Greece consisted of several hundred more-or-less independent city states. This was different from other societies, which were tribal, or kingdoms ruling over relatively large territories. Undoubtedly the geography of Greeceâ€™”divided and sub-divided by hills, mountains and riversâ€™”contributed to the nature of ancient Greece. Yet each city state or " polis " was independent ; unification was something rarely discussed by the ancient Greeks. Even when, during the second Persian invasion of Greece, a group of city-states allied themselves to defend Greece, most poleis remained neutral, and after the Persian defeat, the allies quickly returned to infighting. There was not one country, but many little countries called "city states". The focus on cities in tiny states. The colonies they set up round the Mediterranean were independent of the founding city. Conquest or direct rule by another city state was quite rare. The cities grouped themselves into leagues, and members sometimes quit one league and joined another. Later, in the Classical period, the leagues were fewer and larger, and dominated by one city particularly Athens, Sparta and Thebes. Often cities would be compelled to join under threat of war or as part of a peace treaty. However, he did force most of the cities to join his own Corinthian League. Kingdoms[change change source] Some cities were democratic, some were aristocratic , and some were monarchies. Some had many revolutions in which one kind of government replaced another. One famous Greek kingdom is Macedon , which became briefly the largest empire the world had seen at the time by conquering the Persian empire including ancient Egypt and reaching into modern-day India. Other famous kingdoms are Epirus and Thessaly. Monarchies in ancient Greece were not absolute because there was usually a council of older citizens the senate, or in Macedonia the congress who gave advice to the King. These men were not elected or chosen in a lottery like they were in the democratic city-states. Citizens[change change source] Citizens in Ancient Greece were usually men who were free-born in that city. Women, slaves and usually residents born elsewhere, did not have the right to vote. Details differed between cities. Athens is an example: The men of Athens were of three groups: They had the rights of free men and could be elected any official state position. Colonies[change change source] The ruins of Sparta The number of Greeks grew and soon they could not grow enough food for all the people. When this happened, a city would send people off to start a new city, known as a colony. Because the terrain was rough, most travel was by sea. For this reason, many new cities were established along the coastline. They even started a city, Naucratis, on the river Nile in Egypt. The big four[change change source] By the 6th century BC some cities became much more important than the others. They were Corinth , Thebes , Sparta , and Athens. The Spartans were very well disciplined soldiers. They defeated the people who lived near them and those people had to farm the land for the Spartans. These "helots" had to give the Spartans part of the food they grew and so the Spartans did not have to work. Instead,

they learned how to be better soldiers. There were not many Spartans but there were many helots. Spartan military strength controlled the helots. The Spartans had two hereditary kings who led them in war. At home they were also ruled by a group of old men called the Gerousia the senate. Athens became a democracy in BC. The men came to a place in the center of the city and decided what to do. It was the first place in the world where the people decided what their country should do. They would talk and then vote on what to do at the Boule the parliament. But the women did not vote. These slaves were owned by their masters and could be sold to someone else. The Athenian slaves were less free than the Spartan helots. Every year, Athenian citizens elected eight generals who led them in war.

Chapter 8 : THE ITALIAN CITY-STATES OF THE RENAISSANCE

The Classic period Maya political landscape has been likened to that of Renaissance Italy or Classical Greece, with multiple city-states engaged in a complex network of alliances and enmities. The largest cities had populations numbering 50,000, and were linked to networks of subsidiary sites.

By the 10th century, Islam was beginning to take root as it was reported that Kanbalu was run by muslims. Trading opportunities saw the arrival of Arab, Persian, and Indian merchants. By 1000, Kilwa became the most important Swahili town by tapping into the gold trade of the Zimbabwe Plateau and Limpopo Valley. Sofala was later found to exploit the gold trade, further south. The Portuguese arrived along the Swahili Coast in 1482. By 1505, they were bent on conquest in the name of Christianity and attacked Zanzibar. By 1505, they attacked Kilwa, Mombasa, and Barawa. The Portuguese were never able to gain control of the Swahili City States, and its trading networks. In 1505, the Swahili States received assistance from the Imam of Oman. By 1505, the Portuguese threat was removed. The Swahilis never recovered their glorious trading past. Cities, Towns, and Architecture More Info: Each town had a mosque. Very few stone structures existed. The population consisted of muslim and slave population. The well to do and old families lived in the northern part of the town, while migrants and the less well to do lived in the southern part. Some towns were run by royalty, others were run by an oligarchy called waungwana. One of the earliest examples of monumental Swahili Architecture is the trade emporium, palace of Husuni Kubwa, lying west of Kilwa, built about 1000. As with many other early Swahili buildings, coral was the main construction material, and the roof was constructed by attaching coral to timbers. It contained fluted conical vaults and domes, one hundred rooms with courtyards, terraces, and a sunken swimming pool. Contrastingly, the palace at Kilwa was a two-story tower, in a walled enclosure. Other notable structures include the Pillar Tombs at Malindi and Mnarani in Kenya, originally built from coral but later from stone. Intricately carved doors were a unique element in Swahili townhouses, found in Zanzibar and other homes along the East African coast. Commerce The Swahili used the dhow for ocean going trade in distant lands. The Swahili provided the Asian and Mediterranean world gold, ivory, furs, slaves, tortoise shell, and rhinoceros horns for Persian rugs, Chinese Porcelain, and other luxurious items. They manufactured cotton cloth, glass and shell beads, for trade with the east african interior. Although the Fatimid dinar was the currency of international trade, the Swahili minted their own coins in silver and copper. Basic Civitas Books, pp. A History of Sub-Saharan Africa.

After the Dark Age, Greeks began to set up city-states and entered a period of great achievements known as Greece's BLANK age. An age marked by great achievements.

As the need for defense increased, an acropolis or citadel was built on a high location, and a city grew up around it as the seat of government for a whole community. Thus emerged the city-state, the most famous unit of political society developed by the Greeks. Examples were to be found in almost every section of the Hellenic world. They varied enormously in both area and population. Sparta with more than three thousand square miles and Athens with had by far the greatest extent; the others averaged less than a hundred. At the peak of their power Athens and Sparta, each with a population of about ,, had approximately three times the numerical strength of most of their neighboring states. With a few exceptions the Greek city-states went through a similar political evolution. They began their histories as monarchies. During the eighth century they were changed into oligarchies. About a hundred years later, on the average, the oligarchies were overthrown by dictators, or "tyrants," as the Greeks called them, meaning usurpers who ruled without legal right whether oppressively or not. Finally, in the sixth and fifth centuries, democracies were set up; or in some cases "timocracies," that is, governments based upon a property qualification for the exercise of political rights, or in which love of honor and glory was the ruling principle. On the whole, it is not difficult to determine the causes of this political evolution. The first change came about as a result of the concentration of landed wealth. As the owners of great estates waxed in economic power, they determined to wrest political authority from the king and vest it in the council, which they generally controlled. In the end they abolished the kingship entirely. Then followed a period of sweeping economic changes and political turmoil. The increasing scarcity of land forced many of the Greeks to emigrate and seek new homes for themselves in unoccupied regions. As a result, numerous colonies were founded, mostly along the shores of the Aegean and Ionian Seas, but some as far east as the Black Sea and as far west as Italy and Spain. The demand for new outlets for trade also prompted some of this expansion. The consequence was a veritable economic revolution in the Greek world. Commerce and industry grew to be leading pursuits, the urban population increased, and wealth assumed new forms. The rising middle class now joined with dispossessed farmers in an attack upon the landholding oligarchy. The natural fruit of the bitter class conflicts that ensued was dictatorship. By encouraging extravagant hopes and promising relief from chaos, ambitious demagogues attracted enough popular support to enable them to ride into power in defiance of constitutions and laws. Ultimately, however, dissatisfaction with tyrannical rule and the increasing economic power and political consciousness of the common citizens led to the establishment of democracies or liberal oligarchies. Unfortunately space does not permit an analysis of the political history of each of the Greek city-states. Except in the more backward sections of Thessaly and the Peloponnesus, it is safe to conclude that the internal development of all of them paralleled the account given above, although minor variations due to local conditions doubtless occurred. The two most important of the Hellenic states, Sparta and Athens, deserve more detailed study.