

DOWNLOAD PDF RELATION OF THE PEOPLE TO THE LAND IN SOUTHERN IRAQ.

Chapter 1 : Sumer: The original Black civilization of Iraq

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As the American combat mission in Iraq comes to end, the Obama administration and Pentagon officials have repeatedly assured the world that American involvement with Iraq will continue. They are undoubtedly right. This month, Peter Hahn, an expert on the history of U. Read more on Iraq and the Middle East: Coalition Warfare in Iraq , U. Counterinsurgency strategy , U. Under a cloak of early morning darkness on December 18, , some U. On heightened alert, the convoy maneuvered steadily to the south and reached the border of Kuwait some five hours later. Armyâ€”conducted in secrecy in hope of avoiding any opportunistic attacks by local adversariesâ€”marked the end of a nearly nine-year-long U. Although the final convoy departed Iraq without incident, it left behind a legacy of a war that was controversial in origin, costly to Iraqi civilians and American soldiers, and inconclusive in outcome. During the nine decades since Iraq was established as a separate state in the aftermath of World War I, the policy of the United States towards it can be divided into five phases. In each period, the United States pursued distinct goals in Iraqâ€”goals that reflected the growing interest of the United States in the Middle East, the increasing political and military influence of Iraq, and the evolution of U. The first Americans to encounter the region were evangelical Christian missionaries who swarmed across it beginning in the s and who built hundreds of churches, schools, and medical facilities by the turn of the twentieth century. In , archaeologists from American universities conducted field work in Mesopotamia in the hope of discovering physical artifacts that would corroborate Biblical history. Within a decade, the IPC discovered a massive oil field near Kirkuk and built a network of wells, pipelines, and production facilities that earned it considerable wealth. President Woodrow Wilson envisioned a liberal post-World War I political system that would include self-determination for Iraqis and other peoples of the former Ottoman Empire, but he was unable to promote that vision effectively. In the s and s, U. With American backing, the British restored the monarchy, which cooperated with Allied war aims and strategy. The onset of the Cold War raised fears in Washington about Soviet expansionism into the Middle East and generated a determination among American leaders to prevent the spread of communism in Iraq. Financially drained by the world war, Britain proved unable to maintain its position of imperial dominance in the country. Intra-regional tensions, most notably the conflict over Palestine that erupted as the first Arab-Israeli War of , also destabilized the region. The emergence of anti-Western nationalismâ€”a reaction to the legacy of British imperialism and U. In the late s and s, U. They helped to negotiate a withdrawal of Iraqi military forces from the Palestinian theater as part of a broader plan to end the first Arab-Israeli war. They encouraged the IPC to increase oil production and to share a larger portion of revenues with the Iraqi government. They provided economic and military aid to the Iraqi government. Briefly, it appeared that the United States had found a formula for ensuring the long-term stability and anti-communism of Iraq. In reaction, President Eisenhower sent U. Marines into Lebanon to avert a copycat rebellion there, but he rejected the notion of military intervention to reverse the revolution in Baghdad as too difficult tactically and too risky politically. The Iraqi revolution of clearly marked the failure of the U. Managing Chronic Instability, The second phase of U. The revolution of was followed by others in , , and Other revolts reportedly were attempted along the way and political and ethnic-cultural conflicts generated persistent strife throughout the era. Nationalists aiming to remove the vestiges of foreign imperialism clashed with indigenous communists who sought political influence. The Kurdish population of northern Iraq resisted the authority of Arabs in Baghdad. Although internally unstable, Iraq emerged as an independent power on the international stage. Its government pursued neutralism in the Cold War and flirted with the Soviet Union and other communist states. It also sought political influence among Arab states and contested Egyptian dominance of the Arab community of nations.

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Iraq remained technically at war and occasionally skirmished with Israel. Management of the delicate Kurdish problem in the s led Baghdad into alternating conflict and cooperation with Iran. In the era, the United States pursued interlocking goals in Iraq. On behalf of U. For several years after the coup, U. They maintained diplomatic relations, negotiated the peaceful termination of the Baghdad Pact, averted conflict in an Anglo-Iraqi showdown over Kuwait in , dispensed foreign aid to Iraq, and promoted business opportunities there. In light of evidence that the Soviet Union backed Iraqi Kurds, officials in Washington did nothing to alleviate the Iraqi suppression of that ethnic group. Iraq severed diplomatic relations in because it considered the United States complicit in Israeli military conquests during the so-called Six Day War of June . In the early s, Iraq nationalized U. Although Iraq neutralized the Kurdish problem through diplomacy with Iran, it criticized foreign powers that backed the Kurds and it displayed renewed anti-U. Quickly, Hussein brutally suppressed all domestic rivals and thereby built internal stability in Baghdad, ending decades of political turmoil. A secularist, Hussein also positioned himself as a vital bulwark against Islamic fundamentalism in Iran, where the Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini took power in and declared an intention to export his revolutionary ideals across the region. Iraq initially occupied 10, square miles of Iranian territory before Iran stymied the Iraqi thrust. Iran then gradually recaptured its territory, leading to a stalemate in the battle front by . A series of massive land offensives proved to be ineffective at breaking the deadlock. Yet the war ground on, widened by missile attacks on cities and by mutual assaults on oil tankers on the Gulf. By , the two states together counted more than one million casualties. Initially, Reagan continued the policy he inherited from Jimmy Carter of practicing strict neutrality in the conflict. By , however, the government in Washington began to shift toward a position of supporting Iraq. Thus the Reagan Administration provided Iraq with economic aid, restored diplomatic relations, shared intelligence information about Iranian military forces, and otherwise engaged in what it called a "tilt" toward Iraq designed to ensure its survival. By , the Reagan Administration even assumed limited military involvement in the war on behalf of Iraq. When Iran attacked oil tankers carrying Iraqi oil to world markets, Reagan ordered the U. Navy to patrol the Gulf and protect those tankers. Armed clashes occurred between U. Taking advantage of the relaxation of Cold War tensions, Reagan also worked with Soviet and other world leaders to fashion a United Nations ceasefire resolution that provided a legal framework for ending the hostilities. Iraq promptly accepted the ceasefire but Iran refused, demanding that Iraq first must agree to pay war reparations. Pressured by the U. Navy, however, Khomeini eventually accepted the ceasefire in July . Peace on the battlefields would end the bloodletting between the two belligerents and restore lucrative commerce. At the same time, the dramatic improvement in U. With Khomeini contained, U. Subsequent events would demonstrate that such U. In and , Hussein signaled a growing intention to use force to against the tiny emirate. Bush administration reacted to the mounting tensions by using the relatively stable relationship that emerged during the s as a brake on Iraqi recklessness. Viewing Iraq as an important counterweight against Iranian expansionism, Bush offered political friendship and economic incentives to lure Hussein into proper behavior. When tensions rose and Hussein moved , troops to the Kuwait border, Bush also bolstered the U. Yet Bush continued to deal with Hussein constructivelyâ€”while ignoring his abysmal human rights and foreign policy recordsâ€”on the calculation that firmer measures might actually provoke the very aggressive behavior that the United States hoped to prevent.

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Chapter 2 : Iraq - Wikipedia

Breathing life into dead theories about property rights: de Soto and land relations in rural Africa / Celestine Nyamu-Musembi. HD N93 Reclaiming the land: the resurgence of rural movements in Africa, Asia, and Latin America / edited by Sam Moyo and Paris Yeros.

South of this lies Babylonia, named after the city of Babylon. However, in the broader sense, the name Mesopotamia has come to be used for the area bounded on the northeast by the Zagros Mountains and on the southwest by the edge of the Arabian Plateau and stretching from the Persian Gulf in the southeast to the spurs of the Anti-Taurus Mountains in the northwest. As a result of the slow flow of the water, there are heavy deposits of silt, and the riverbeds are raised. Consequently, the rivers often overflow their banks and may even change their course when they are not protected by high dikes. In recent times they have been regulated above Baghdad by the use of escape channels with overflow reservoirs. The extreme south is a region of extensive marshes and reed swamps, hawrs, which, probably since early times, have served as an area of refuge for oppressed and displaced peoples. Consequently, agriculture without risk of crop failure, which seems to have begun in the higher rainfall zones and in the hilly borders of Mesopotamia in the 10th millennium bce, began in Mesopotamia itself, the real heart of the civilization, only after artificial irrigation had been invented, bringing water to large stretches of territory through a widely branching network of canals. Since the ground is extremely fertile and, with irrigation and the necessary drainage, will produce in abundance, southern Mesopotamia became a land of plenty that could support a considerable population. The cultural superiority of north Mesopotamia, which may have lasted until about bce, was finally overtaken by the south when the people there had responded to the challenge of their situation. The present climatic conditions are fairly similar to those of 8,000 years ago. The availability of raw materials is a historical factor of great importance, as is the dependence on those materials that had to be imported. In Mesopotamia, agricultural products and those from stock breeding, fisheries, date palm cultivation, and reed industries—in short, grain, vegetables, meat, leather, wool, horn, fish, dates, and reed and plant-fibre products—were available in plenty and could easily be produced in excess of home requirements to be exported. On the other hand, wood, stone, and metal were rare or even entirely absent. The date palm—virtually the national tree of Iraq—yields a wood suitable only for rough beams and not for finer work. Metal can only be obtained in the mountains, and the same is true of precious and semiprecious stones. Consequently, southern Mesopotamia in particular was destined to be a land of trade from the start. The raw material that epitomizes Mesopotamian civilization is clay: Such phrases as cuneiform civilization, cuneiform literature, and cuneiform law can apply only where people had had the idea of using soft clay not only for bricks and jars and for the jar stoppers on which a seal could be impressed as a mark of ownership but also as the vehicle for impressed signs to which established meanings were assigned—an intellectual achievement that amounted to nothing less than the invention of writing. The character and influence of ancient Mesopotamia Questions as to what ancient Mesopotamian civilization did and did not accomplish, how it influenced its neighbours and successors, and what its legacy has transmitted are posed from the standpoint of modern civilization and are in part coloured by ethical overtones, so that the answers can only be relative. Ancient Mesopotamia had many languages and cultures; its history is broken up into many periods and eras; it had no real geographic unity, and above all no permanent capital city, so that by its very variety it stands out from other civilizations with greater uniformity, particularly that of Egypt. The script and the pantheon constitute the unifying factors, but in these also Mesopotamia shows its predilection for multiplicity and variety. Written documents were turned out in quantities, and there are often many copies of a single text. The pantheon consisted of more than 1,000 deities, even though many divine names may apply to different manifestations of a single god. During 3,000 years of Mesopotamian civilization, each century gave birth to the next. Thus classical Sumerian civilization influenced that of the Akkadians, and the Ur III empire, which itself represented a Sumero-Akkadian synthesis, exercised its influence on the first quarter of the 2nd

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millennium bce. With the Hittites, large areas of Anatolia were infused with the culture of Mesopotamia from bce onward. Contacts, via Mari , with Ebla in Syria, some 30 miles south of Aleppo , go back to the 24th century bce, so that links between Syrian and Palestinian scribal schools and Babylonian civilization during the Amarna period 14th century bce may have had much older predecessors. At any rate, the similarity of certain themes in cuneiform literature and the Hebrew Bible , such as the story of the Flood or the motif of the righteous sufferer, is due to such early contacts and not to direct borrowing. In many cases, however, the origins and routes of borrowings are obscure, as in the problem of the survival of ancient Mesopotamian legal theory. The achievement of the civilization itself may be expressed in terms of its best pointsâ€”moral, aesthetic , scientific, and, not least, literary. Legal theory flourished and was sophisticated early on, being expressed in several collections of legal decisions, the so-called codes , of which the best-known is the Code of Hammurabi. The aesthetics of art are too much governed by subjective values to be assessed in absolute terms, yet certain peaks stand out above the rest, notably the art of Uruk IV, the seal engraving of the Akkad period, and the relief sculpture of Ashurbanipal. Nonetheless, there is nothing in Mesopotamia to match the sophistication of Egyptian art. Science the Mesopotamians had, of a kind, though not in the sense of Greek science. From its beginnings in Sumer before the middle of the 3rd millennium bce, Mesopotamian science was characterized by endless, meticulous enumeration and ordering into columns and series, with the ultimate ideal of including all things in the world but without the wish or ability to synthesize and reduce the material to a system. Not a single general scientific law has been found, and only rarely has the use of analogy been found. Technical accomplishments were perfected in the building of the ziggurats temple towers resembling pyramids , with their huge bulk, and in irrigation, both in practical execution and in theoretical calculations. At the beginning of the 3rd millennium bce, an artificial stone often regarded as a forerunner of concrete was in use at Uruk miles south-southeast of modern Baghdad , but the secret of its manufacture apparently was lost in subsequent years. Ziggurat at Ur modern Tall al-Muqayyar, Iraq. Remarkable organizing ability was required to administer huge estates, in which, under the 3rd dynasty of Ur, for example, it was not unusual to prepare accounts for thousands of cattle or tens of thousands of bundles of reeds. Similar figures are attested at Ebla, three centuries earlier. Above all, the literature of Mesopotamia is one of its finest cultural achievements. There are partly material reasons for this: A further reason is the inadequate knowledge of the languages: The classical and medieval views of Mesopotamia; its rediscovery in modern times Before the first excavations in Mesopotamia, about , nearly 2, years had passed during which knowledge of the ancient Middle East was derived from three sources only: In very little more was known than in ce, although these sources had served to stir the imagination of poets and artists, down to Sardanapalus by the 19th-century English poet Lord Byron. Apart from the building of the Tower of Babel , the Hebrew Bible mentions Mesopotamia only in those historical contexts in which the kings of Assyria and Babylonia affected the course of events in Israel and Judah: The Athenian Xenophon took part in an expedition during â€” bce of Greek mercenaries who crossed Anatolia , made their way down the Euphrates as far as the vicinity of Baghdad, and returned up the Tigris after the famous Battle of Cunaxa. These stories are described mainly in the historical work of Diodorus Siculus 1st century bce , who based them on the reports of a Greek physician, Ctesias â€” bce. Herodotus saw Babylon with his own eyes, and Xenophon gave an account of travels and battles. All later historians, however, wrote at second or third hand, with one exception, Berossus born c. Unfortunately, only extracts from them survive, prepared by one Alexander Polyhistor 1st century bce , who, in his turn, served as a source for the Church Father Eusebius died ce. He knew, for example, that it was not Semiramis who founded the city of Babylon, but he was himself the prisoner of his own environment and cannot have known more about the history of his land than was known in Babylonia itself in the 4th century bce. Oannes taught them the essentials of civilization: Furthermore, he was acquainted with the story of the Flood , with Cronus as its instigator and Xisuthros or Ziusudra as its hero, and with the building of an ark. The third book is presumed to have dealt with the history of Babylonia from Nabonassar to the time of Berossus himself. The name Mespila probably was nothing more than the word of the local Aramaeans for ruins; there can be no clearer instance of

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the rift that had opened between the ancient Middle East and the classical West. In sharp contrast, the East had a tradition that the ruins opposite Mosul in north Iraq concealed ancient Nineveh. When a Spanish rabbi from Navarre, Benjamin of Tudela, was traveling in the Middle East between 1165 and 1173, Jews and Muslims alike knew the position of the grave of the prophet Jonah. Previously, other travelers had sought the Tower of Babel in two other monumental ruins: Pietro della Valle brought back to Europe the first specimens of cuneiform writing, stamped brick, of which highly impressionistic reproductions were made. Thereafter, European travelers visited Mesopotamia with increasing frequency, among them Carsten Niebuhr an 18th-century German traveler, Claudius James Rich a 19th-century Orientalist and traveler, and Ker Porter a 19th-century traveler. In 1845, reports had filtered back to Europe of inscriptions that were not in Hebrew, Arabic, Aramaic, Georgian, or Greek. Niebuhr distinguished three separate alphabets: Babylonian, Elamite, and Old Persian cuneiform. Thereafter, the efforts to decipher cuneiform gradually developed in the second half of the 19th century into a discipline of ancient Oriental philology, which was based on results established through the pioneering work of Emile Burnouf, Edward Hincks, Sir Henry Rawlinson, and many others. Today this subject is still known as Assyriology, because at the end of the 19th century the great majority of cuneiform texts came from the Assyrian city of Nineveh, in particular from the library of King Ashurbanipal in the mound of Kuyunjik at Nineveh. Modern archaeological excavations More than years separate the first excavations in Mesopotamia from the adventurous expeditions involving great personal risks, far from the protection of helpful authorities from those of the present day with their specialist staffs, modern technical equipment, and objectives wider than the mere search for valuable antiquities. The progress of six generations of excavators has led to a situation in which less is recovered more accurately; in other words, the finds are observed, measured, and photographed as precisely as possible. At first digging was unsystematic, with the consequence that, although huge quantities of clay tablets and large and small antiquities were brought to light, the locations of the finds were rarely described with any accuracy. Not until the beginning of the 20th century did excavators learn to isolate the individual bricks in the walls that had previously been erroneously thought to be nothing more than packed clay; the result was that various characteristic brick types could be distinguished and successive architectural levels established. Increased care in excavation does, of course, carry with it the risk that the pace of discovery will slow down. Moreover, the eyes of the local inhabitants are now sharpened and their appetite for finds is whetted, so that clandestine diggers have established themselves as the unwelcome colleagues of the archaeologists. A result of the technique of building with mud brick mass production of baked bricks was impossible because of the shortage of fuel was that the buildings were highly vulnerable to the weather and needed constant renewal; layers of settlement rapidly built up, creating a tell Arabic: The word itself appears among the most original vocabulary of the Semitic languages and is attested as early as the end of the 3rd millennium bce. Excavation is made more difficult by this mound formation, since both horizontal and vertical axes have to be taken into account. Moreover, the depth of each level is not necessarily constant, and foundation trenches may be dug down into earlier levels. A further problem is that finds may have been removed from their original context in antiquity. Short-lived settlements that did not develop into mounds mostly escape observation, but aerial photography can now pick out ground discolorations that betray the existence of settlements. Excavations in Mesopotamia have mostly been national undertakings: France, England, the United States, Germany, Iraq, Denmark, Belgium, Italy, Japan, and the former Soviet Union, but joint expeditions like the one sent to Ur miles south-southeast of Baghdad in the 1920s have become more frequent since the 1950s. The history of archaeological research in Mesopotamia falls into four categories, represented by phases of differing lengths: The principal gains were the Assyrian bull colossi and wall reliefs and the library of Ashurbanipal from Nineveh, although the ground plans of temples and palaces were quite as valuable. While these undertakings had restored the remains of the Neo-Assyrian empire of the 1st millennium bce, from onward new French initiatives in Telloh Arabic: There they rediscovered a people whose language had already been encountered in bilingual texts from Nineveh—the Sumerians. Telloh ancient Girsu yielded not only inscribed material that, quite apart from its historical interest, was critical for

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the establishment of the chronology of the second half of the 3rd millennium bce but also many artistic masterpieces. Short-lived salvage operations have been undertaken at the site of the Assad Dam on the middle Euphrates e. In its third phase, archaeological research in Mesopotamia and its neighbouring lands has probed back into prehistory and protohistory. The objective of these investigations, initiated by American archaeologists, was to trace as closely as possible the successive chronological stages in the progress of man from hunter-gatherer to settled farmer and, finally, to city dweller. These excavations are strongly influenced by the methods of the prehistorian, and the principal objective is no longer the search for texts and monuments. Apart from the American investigations, Iraq itself has taken part in this phase of the history of investigation, as has Japan since and the former Soviet Union from until the early s. Since shortages of time, money, and an adequate task force preclude the thorough investigation of large numbers of individual sites, the method employed is that of observing and collecting finds from the surface. Of these finds, the latest in date will give a rough termination date for the duration of the settlement, but, since objects from earlier, if not the earliest, levels work their way to the surface with a predictable degree of certainty or are exposed in rain gullies, an intensive search of the surface of the mound allows conclusions as to the total period of occupation with some degree of probability. If the individual periods of settlement are marked on superimposed maps, a very clear picture is obtained of the fluctuations in settlement patterns, of the changing proportions between large and small settlements, and of the equally changeable systems of riverbeds and irrigation canals— for, when points on the map lie in line, it is a legitimate assumption that they were once connected by watercourses. During the four phases outlined, the objectives and methods of excavation have broadened and shifted. At first the chief aim was the recovery of valuable finds suitable for museums, but at the same time there was, from early on, considerable interest in the architecture of Mesopotamia, which has won for it the place it deserves in architectural history. Alongside philology, art history has also made great strides, building up a chronological framework by the combination of evidence from stratigraphic and stylistic criteria , particularly in pottery and cylinder seals. The discovery of graves and a variety of burial customs has thrown new light on the history of religion, stimulated by the interest of biblical studies. While pottery was previously collected for purely aesthetic motives or from the point of view of art history, attention has come to be paid increasingly to everyday wares, and greater insight into social and economic history is based on knowledge of the distribution and frequency of shapes and materials. The observation and investigation of animal bones and plant remains pollen and seed analysis have supplied invaluable information on the process of domestication, the conditions of animal husbandry , and the advances in agriculture. Such studies demand the cooperation of both zoologists and paleobotanists.

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Chapter 3 : Geography of Iraq - Wikipedia

Relation of the People to the Land in Southern Iraq. F uad B aali.

Soon you enter the real desert, swept by sandstorms. Then, after 60km or so, a haunting scene unfolds. Looming out of the haze, the eye begins to make out a low range of brown hills, at first shapeless, then taking form: This is Warka, a site few places on earth can match for sheer atmosphere, and a landmark in the human story. William Loftus, the first outsider in modern times to see these sights in , was almost overwhelmed: Of all the desolate sites I ever beheld, that of Warka incomparably surpasses all". It was ruled in later times by Romans, Persians and Muslim Arabs before in the seventh century AD it was abandoned, except for the Bedouin, whose black tents still hug the horizon. To what extent Uruk really was the "mother of cities" is still hotly argued by archaeologists. It is claimed to be the birthplace of writing, mathematics and literature, and few would dispute that it is one of the most potent memory places of humanity. Inside its silted gates, poking out of huge dunes, it is 3km wide and the circuit, dating back to around BC, is 9km. Where the past century of archaeology has exposed them, you see great platforms and revetments of burned brick like the foundations of small skyscrapers. Islamic glass, Hellenistic bowls, Parthian clay coffins, greenish black-patterned Ubaid sherds and the little clay sickles used by the first dwellers in the Mesopotamian plain around BC. In this one place is the image of civilisation: Like the cultures of the Nile or the Indus, Mesopotamia, as its name suggests "the land between the rivers" owed its existence to a river system. Large-scale human societies had begun to grow from about 10,000 BC in an arc through Syria, Palestine, Anatolia and the Zagros mountains. Starting with the first larger scale settlements at Jericho and Catal Huyuk in Anatolia, these were well built but still relatively small. It was only when sophisticated irrigation techniques were developed that the plain of southern Iraq was opened up to sustain a huge concentration of people and resources. Yet even this was still a relatively confined area: Mesopotamia had 25,000 sq km of irrigated land – similar in size to early dynastic Egypt. From the fourth millennium BC came the first large cities, then states, whose culture and society would influence every aspect of life across west Asia – and further afield. In the third millennium BC, there were around 40 cities in Sumer and Akkad that made up the Babylonian plain. One big city-state, Lagash whose site is more than 3km across , had 36,000 male adults in the third millennium BC, suggesting upwards of 100,000 people altogether. Uruk was probably of similar size. Each controlled an extensive territory: These urban developments were fed by a trading network which, in the case of Uruk, linked Anatolia, Syria and the Zagros. It is not surprising then that writing, written law, contract law, and international treaties are all found for the first time in the area. Not only does history begin at Sumer, but so does economics. The Sumerians were the prehistoric population of the southern plain of Iraq. Their ethnic and linguistic affiliations are not yet clear; their language is not related to any known language, though there are many theories. During the third millennium BC a close cultural symbiosis took place between the Sumerians and the Akkadians, who lived in the middle of the plain – the area around and south of modern Baghdad. Many of the civilisational achievements of Mesopotamia are the product of that symbiosis. Sumerian itself, though, had died out as a living language by around 2000 BC, leaving it only the preserve of Babylonian scientists, scholars and liturgists. By the time the last Sumerian texts were copied in cuneiform in the Hellenistic age of the second century BC, the language had long been superseded by Akkadian as the language of literature in Mesopotamia. And the Sumerians themselves had long disappeared into the multiracial mix that was ancient Iraq. In the 19th century, when the first major excavations were conducted in Iraq, it was still commonly held that the cultural progenitors of western civilisation were the classical world of Greece and Rome and Judaeo-Christian religion. Though the Book of Genesis mentioned Uruk, Akkad and Babylon, it was never suspected that these much older civilisations had had a profound influence on the civilisations of the Near East and the Mediterranean world. At that time it was also not known that Mesopotamia had led the way in the invention of writing and literature; in mathematics, science, astronomy and geometry; in the invention of the wheel; and in the earliest law codes. Even today, when we

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count time and space in multiples of 12 and 60, we do so because of the Mesopotamians. Creativity and conflict But if Mesopotamia was a place of cultural and technological innovation, it was also the site of constant conflict. With no natural boundaries, and no protection from neighbours, it was always open to attack from nomads and outside invaders, and internally prey to continual disputes over resources – especially water. Not surprisingly, then, this is where organised law appears for the first time in history – as well as organised warfare. The history of Mesopotamia was then both uniquely creative and uniquely violent and destructive; marked by invasions and devastating wars in which the great achievements of its civilisation were smashed many times, from the ruin of the Ur III dynasty through Mongols, Tartars and Seljuks, to the savagery of recent wars. Nevertheless, a single civilisation survived through all these conflicts – one that is recognisably Iraqi: The character that emerges is very different from the optimism of Egyptian culture. Early Iraq was pessimistic in its view of human destiny – its poets knew the achievements of humanity were fragile and always fated to be wiped away. It perhaps also explains why lamentation became a ritual tradition in ancient Iraq and still is in Iraqi Shiism; a cultural personality that is still part of the way Iraqis are seen by other Arabs. How and when did ancient Iraq end? One should note that in Iraqi culture there is no clear dividing line between the ancient world and the medieval. The Arab conquest of Mesopotamia in the seventh century AD looks like another cultural turning point, but even then, change was slow, with a more immediate impact on mentalities rather than material culture and custom. Just as Christianity inherited the Roman empire in the West, Islam inherited West Asia and the Near East; and in this sense Islam could be seen simply as a continuation of the much older culture that underlay it. Baghdad, the great capital of the caliphate founded in AD, was still a vast Mesopotamian city, made of burnt brick in the ancient way. And if change was slow in Baghdad, it was even slower in the old cities. The sacred city of Nippur, for example, continued to be a provincial centre for scholars – Christian, Jewish and Muslim. Out in the countryside the old Mesopotamian religion survived until cAD, among pagan tribes in the south of the plain who worshipped the deities of the primal waters, the abode of the old Sumerian god Enki. But even then the ancient world never really ended. Even today, in the streets of Najaf during the Shia ceremony of Ashura, people still enact the communal ritual lament, which was so striking a feature of their ancient culture. Even in their traditional clothes one might see a link: The rediscovery of its ancient literature in the 19th century stressed links with the Bible: But scholars have been far slower to cotton on to the fact that later Arabic and Greek literature is permeated by Mesopotamian ideas, images and stories. Especially influential was the cycle of tales about the legendary king of Uruk, Gilgamesh, which might just be the single most influential work of literature in the world. It is now clear, for example, that many of the Tales of the Arabian Nights are transformations of ancient tales that had long circulated orally. Early Greek literature – especially Homer, Hesiod and the early epic tradition – was strongly influenced in form and content by Gilgamesh. Mesopotamian civilisation, in short, is still alive in the ways we think, count time and measure the world, but also in the stories that we love most. Travellers in Iraq were confronted by huge murals and billboards of Saddam at Ur: But what is left has suffered grave damage. Like the other great civilisations – Greek, Indian, Chinese, Persian – Iraq had the ability to remake itself over millennia, preserving its own distinctive vision. The author of the epic of Gilgamesh asks us to "walk the walls of Uruk – what human could ever equal them? Go up, go on; walk around – look at the foundations. Are they not magnificent? Michael Wood is a film-maker and broadcaster who first worked in Iraq more than 20 years ago.

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Chapter 4 : Iraq Map / Geography of Iraq / Map of Iraq - blog.quintoapp.com

Relation of the people to the land in southern Iraq. By Fuad Baali. Abstract. University of Florida monographs, social sciences no. 3.

Modern Iraq covers almost the same area as ancient Mesopotamia, which centered on the land between the Tigris and the Euphrates Rivers. Mesopotamia, also referred to as the Fertile Crescent, was an important center of early civilization and saw the rise and fall of many cultures and settlements. In the medieval era, Iraq was the name of an Arab province that made up the southern half of the modern-day country. The second-largest cultural group is the Kurds, who are in the highlands and mountain valleys of the north in a politically autonomous settlement. The Kurds occupy the provinces of As Sulaymaniyah, Dahuk and Irbil, the area of which is commonly referred to as Kurdistan. Iraq, in the Middle East, is 438,317 square miles, 1,136,000 square kilometers, which is comparable to twice the size of Idaho. Baghdad was the name of a village that the Arabs chose to develop as their capital and is in the central plains. The northern border areas near Iran and Turkey are mountainous and experience cold, harsh winters, while the west is mostly desert. The differences in climate have influenced the economies of the various areas and ethnic groups, especially since a large part of the economy used to be agriculturally based. The estimated Iraqi population for 2010 is 22.5 million people. Arabs comprise about three-fourths of the population, and Kurds compose about one-fifth. The remaining people are divided into several ethnic groups, including Assyrian, Turkoman, Chaldean, Armenian, Yazidi, and Jewish. Almost all Iraqis speak and understand their official language, Arabic. Arabic, a Semitic language, was introduced by the Arab conquerors and has three different forms: Modern standard Arabic, which has virtually the same structure in all Arabic-speaking countries, is taught in schools for reading and writing. The spoken language is Iraqi Arabic, and is extremely similar to that which is spoken in Syria, Lebanon, and parts of Jordan. Those who go to school learn Modern Standard Arabic, and many that do not attend school are likely to at least understand it. The major differences between modern standard and Iraqi Arabic are changes in verb form, and an overall simplicity in grammar of the spoken Arabic. Kurdish is the official language in Kurdistan, and serves to distinguish Kurds from other Iraqis. It is not of Semitic origin nor an Arab or Persian dialect, but a distinct language from the Indo-European family. Other minority languages include Aramaic, Turkic, Armenian, and Persian. Archaeological museums were built in several cities, which held exhibitions and educational programs especially for children, so that they were made aware of the historical importance of their culture and nation. In order to promote this center of attention on history, several ancient sites from the city of Babylon were reconstructed, such as the Ziggurat of Aqarquf, the ruins of Babylon, the temple of Ishtar, the southern Iraq fortress of Nebuchadnezzar, and the Greek amphitheater. The Iraqi flag is also an important national symbol, and is composed of three colored, horizontal sections, starting with red on the top, white, and black. On the white band there are three green five-pointed stars. History and Ethnic Relations

Emergence of the Nation. Starting from prehistory, the area of Mesopotamia has been under the Iraqi men socialize at a tea stall in Baghdad. In about 3500 B.C. literature was produced, including the first known recorded story, the Epic of Gilgamesh. Unlike their Egyptian counterparts who believed that all land belonged to the pharaoh, Sumerians believed in private property, still an important notion in Iraq today. When the Sumerian civilization collapsed in about 2300 B.C. Hammurabi, a great leader known for creating the first recorded legal code in history, united the Assyrians and Babylonians in harmony. Following several changes in power, Nebuchadnezzar II came to rule from 605 to 562 B.C. Babylon, which is about thirty miles forty-eight kilometers south of modern-day Baghdad, became the most famous city in the world, and boasted, among other things, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon. At the time of the invasion, the people of Mesopotamia were mostly Christian, and paid non-Muslim taxes to the invaders. As the Persians were eventually defeated, the people of Mesopotamia began to convert to Islam and intermarry with Arabs. It linked Asia to Mediterranean countries via trade; welcomed visitors, scholars, and commercial traders from all over the world; and produced

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incredible philosophical and scientific works by both Arab and Persian thinkers. The s witnessed yet another invasion, and control went to the Mongols, who ruled until the s. The Ottoman Turks took control in the sixteenth century, in a reign that lasted until the end of World War I. When the Ottoman Empire was defeated in that war, the League of Nations assigned Britain to set up the administration in Mesopotamia. The British defined the territory of Iraq, and in doing so paid little attention to natural boundaries and ethnic divisions. They set up the institutional framework for government and politics, which included installation of a monarchy and influence in writing the constitution. On 14 July the monarchy was overthrown, and Iraq was declared a republic. The following ten years were followed by much political instability. Arab rule during the medieval period had the greatest cultural impact on modern Iraq. The dominating culture within Iraq is Arab, and most Arabs are Muslim. Iraqi Muslims are split into two groups, the Sunnis and the Shias Shiites. The Sunnis, a majority in Islam, are a minority in Iraq, and the Shias, a minority in the Arab world, are the majority in Iraq. Between the Shia and Sunni Muslims, loyalty to Iraq has come to be a common factor. Though they have differing views, both Sunnis and Shias hold high leadership positions in the government including the Sunni Saddam Hussein , as do some Christians. The Arab culture, as influenced by the conquerors in the seventh century, withstood many changes of power throughout the centuries, and managed to remain influential. In the nineteenth century, while the Ottoman Empire was focusing on the "Turkification" of its people, rebels in Mesopotamia were building their Arab nationalist movement. They were granted an opportunity to act during World War I, when the British agreed to recognize Arab independence in Mesopotamia if they helped fight against the Turks. Though Iraq was subject to British mandate rule following the defeat of the Ottoman Empire, Arab nationalism stood strong. Today Iraq stands firm in its belief in pro-Arab nationalism. The largest minority in Iraq, the Kurds, continually battle with the majority Arabs, and the sparring between these two cultural groups has contributed to a survivalist mentality for the Kurds. The Turkomans, who populate the northern mountainous areas, also have had strained relations with the Kurds due to their historical role as buffers between Arab and Kurdish areas. Other cultural groups who are sometimes subject to the will of the Arab majority are the Yazidis, who are of Kurdish descent, but differ from the Kurds because of their unique religion. There are the Assyrians, who are direct descendents of the ancient Mesopotamian people and speak Aramaic. They are mainly Christian, and though they compose a significant minority in Iraq, the government does not officially recognize them as an ethnic group. However, due to oil production, an economic boom hit Iraq in the s, and with the change of economic basis, much of population migrated toward urban centers. Modern apartment and office buildings sprang up in Baghdad, and programs and services such as education and health care developed with the shift from rural areas to urban population centers. In addition to modernization, the influx of monetary resources allowed Iraq to do things for its cultural identity and preservation, especially in architecture. High priority was placed on restoring and building according to historic style, and the structures targeted included archaeological sites, mosques, and government buildings. Some of the traditional aspects of the architecture include rooms surrounding an open center or courtyard, and use of multiple colors, tiles, and arches. Food and Economy Food in Daily Life. Prior to the United Nations economic sanctions, the traditional diet included rice with soup or sauce, accompanied by lamb and vegetables. Today, because food is tightly rationed, most people eat rice or another grain sometimes with sauce. Both vegetables and meat are hard to come by. In rural areas it is customary for families to eat together out of a common bowl, while in urban areas individuals eat with plates and utensils. Food Customs at Ceremonial Occasions. It is traditional to sacrifice a lamb or a goat to celebrate holidays. However, today few Iraqis have the means to do this, and celebrations are now minimal. Following the Persian Gulf War, the United Nations imposed Security Council Resolution , which requires Iraq to disclose the full extent of its programs to develop chemical and nuclear weapons and missiles, and to eliminate its weapons of mass destruction. Until Iraq complies with these requirements, the United Nations attests that there will be an economic embargo and trade sanctions against Iraq. At first the resolution meant that Iraq could not assume trade relations with any foreign country. The most important industries in Iraq produce crude oil, petroleum

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products, and natural gas. Prior to the sanctions, Iraq imported about 70 percent of its food. However, food shortages have forced people to grow their own, but given the severity of the economic situation of the country, it is difficult for Iraqis to find the means to do this. Items that are imported through the oil-for-food program are distributed to people in a food basket on the first of each month. The rations are estimated to last twenty to twenty-three days and include flour, tea, sugar, rice, beans, milk, cooking oil, soap, and salt.

Land Tenure and Property. Private property was an important notion first introduced by the Sumerians during their control of Mesopotamia, and emerged again in the late nineteenth century. At present many people have sold or are selling their land to the government to purchase essentials such as food and medicine. Though private property does exist, fewer and fewer people can now claim it. Oil, mining, manufacturing, construction, and agriculture are the major types of goods and services produced for sale. Crude oil, refined petroleum products, and natural gas are products produced by the most important industry in Iraq. Other products and services include light manufacturing, food processing, textiles, and mining of nonmetallic minerals. Iraq may only legally trade with other countries through the oil-for-food program, wherein they are allowed to sell oil to buy basic food supplies. However, diplomatic reports have indicated that Iraq has been illegally exporting some of its medical supplies and food, purchased through the oil-for-food program, to Lebanon, Syria, and Jordan. It is common for jobs to be assigned through knowing people in the government. Those who enter the military may have more opportunity locating work, as they are trained for jobs that are specifically needed in the country.

Social Stratification Classes and Castes. Arabs, Kurds, and other ethnic groups each have their own social stratospheres, and no one ethnicity dominates another in a caste system. In terms of social class there is great disparity between rich and poor. Those who compose the high class in society of Iraq are essentially chosen by the government, since there is no opportunity to start a business or make a name for oneself without the endorsement of the government. The once-dominant middle class of the s has deteriorated in the face of the economic crisis. These people, who are very well educated, now perform unskilled labor, if they have jobs at all, and have joined the ranking of the majority lower or poor class. Iraq is a republic divided into eighteen provinces, which are subdivided into districts.

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Chapter 5 : Ancient Lands and Their Current Names

Regarding relations with other countries, Iraq's Shias have been the traditional enemies of Persians for centuries; this contributed to Iraq fighting Iran in a costly war from to over a land dispute.

Upper Mesopotamia The uplands region, between the Tigris north of Samarra and the Euphrates north of Hit , is known as Al Jazira the island and is part of a larger area that extends westward into Syria between the two rivers and into Turkey. Water in the area flows in deeply cut valleys, and irrigation is much more difficult than it is in the lower plain. The southwest areas of this zone are classified as desert or semi-desert. The northern parts, which include such places like the Nineveh Plains , Duhok and Zakho , mainly consist of Mediterranean vegetation. The vegetation cyclically dries out and appear brown in the virtually arid summer and flourish in the wet winter. Here the Tigris and Euphrates rivers lie above the level of the plain in many places, and the whole area is a river delta interlaced by the channels of the two rivers and by irrigation canals. Intermittent lakes , fed by the rivers in flood, also characterize southeastern Iraq. Much of it is permanent marsh, but some parts dry out in early winter, and other parts become marshland only in years of great flood. Because the waters of the Tigris and Euphrates above their confluence are heavily silt - laden, irrigation and fairly frequent flooding deposit large quantities of silty loam in much of the delta area. Windborne silt contributes to the total deposit of sediments. It has been estimated that the delta plains are built up at the rate of nearly twenty centimeters in a century. In some areas, major floods lead to the deposit in temporary lakes of as much as thirty centimeters of mud. The Tigris and Euphrates also carry large quantities of salts. These, too, are spread on the land by sometimes excessive irrigation and flooding. A high water table and poor surface and subsurface drainage tend to concentrate the salts near the surface of the soil. In general, the salinity of the soil increases from Baghdad south to the Persian Gulf and severely limits productivity in the region south of Al Amarah. There are two other major lakes in the country to the north of Bahr al Milh: Buhayrat ath Tharthar and Buhayrat al Habbaniyah. These " Baghdad Belts " can be described as the provinces adjacent to the Iraqi capital and can be divided into four quadrants: Northeast, Southeast, Southwest, and Northwest. Beginning in the north, the belts include the province of Salah ad Din , clockwise to Baghdad province, Diyala in the North-east, Babil and Wasit in the south east and around to Al Anbar in the west. Northern Iraq The northeastern highlands begin just south of a line drawn from Mosul to Kirkuk and extend to the borders with Turkey and Iran. Except for a few valleys, the mountain area proper is suitable only for grazing in the foothills and steppes; adequate soil and rainfall, however, make cultivation possible. Here, too, are the great oil fields near Mosul and Kirkuk. The northeast is the homeland of most Iraqi Kurds. The region, sparsely inhabited by pastoral bedouins , consists of a wide stony plain interspersed with rare sandy stretches. A widely ramified pattern of wadis "watercourses that are dry most of the year" runs from the border to the Euphrates. Western and southern Iraq is a vast desert region covering some 64, square miles square km , almost two-fifths of the country. The western desert, an extension of the Syrian Desert, rises to elevations above 1, feet metres. The southern desert is known as Al-Hajarah in the western part and as Al-Dibdibah in the east. Both deserts are part of the Arabian Desert. Al Hajarah has a complex topography of rocky desert, wadis, ridges, and depressions. Al-Dibdibah is a more sandy region with a covering of scrub vegetation. Elevation in the southern desert averages between 1, and 2, feet to metres. It has been recognized since as the boundary between western Kuwait and Iraq. Tigris&"Euphrates river system[edit] Main article: Tigris&"Euphrates river system The Euphrates originates in Turkey, is augmented by the Balikh and Khabur rivers in Syria, and enters Iraq in the northwest. Here it is fed only by the wadis of the western desert during the winter rains. It then winds through a gorge, which varies from two to 16 kilometers in width, until it flows out on the plain at Ar Ramadi. Beyond there the Euphrates continues to the Hindiya Barrage , which was constructed in to divert the river into the Hindiya Channel; the present day Shatt al Hillah had been the main channel of the Euphrates before The Tigris also rises in Turkey but is significantly augmented by several rivers in Iraq, the

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most important of which are the Khabur , the Great Zab , the Little Zab , and the Adhaim , all of which join the Tigris above Baghdad, and the Diyala , which joins it about thirty-six kilometers below the city. At the Kut Barrage much of the water is diverted into the Shatt al-Hayy , which was once the main channel of the Tigris. Water from the Tigris thus enters the Euphrates through the Shatt al-Hayy well above the confluence of the two main channels at Al Qurnah. Both the Tigris and the Euphrates break into a number of channels in the marshland area, and the flow of the rivers is substantially reduced by the time they come together at Al Qurnah. Below Basra , however, the Karun River enters the Shatt al Arab from Iran, carrying large quantities of silt that present a continuous dredging problem in maintaining a channel for ocean-going vessels to reach the port at Basra. This problem has been superseded by a greater obstacle to river traffic, however, namely the presence of several sunken hulls that have been rusting in the Shatt al Arab since early in the Iran-Iraq war. The waters of the Tigris and Euphrates are essential to the life of the country, but they sometimes threaten it. The rivers are at their lowest level in September and October and at flood in March, April, and May when they may carry forty times as much water as at low mark. In , for example, Baghdad was seriously threatened, and dikes protecting it were nearly topped by the flooding Tigris. Since Syria built a dam on the Euphrates, the flow of water has been considerably diminished and flooding was no longer a problem in the mids. In Turkey was also constructing a dam on the Euphrates that would further restrict the water flow. Until the mid-twentieth century, most efforts to control the waters were primarily concerned with irrigation. Some attention was given to problems of flood control and drainage before the revolution of July 14, , but development plans in the s and s were increasingly devoted to these matters, as well as to irrigation projects on the upper reaches of the Tigris and Euphrates and the tributaries of the Tigris in the northeast. During the war, government officials stressed to foreign visitors that, with the conclusion of a peace settlement, problems of irrigation and flooding would receive top priority from the government. The bases of the relationship between watercourse and settlement have been summarized by Robert McCormick Adams, director of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago. He notes that the levees laid down by streams and canals provide advantages for both settlement and agriculture. Above all, those living or cultivating on the crest of a levee have easy access to water for irrigation and household use in a dry, hot country. Although there are some isolated homesteads, most rural communities are nucleated settlements rather than dispersed farmsteads; that is, the farmer leaves his village to cultivate the fields outside it. The pattern holds for farming communities in the Kurdish highlands of the northeast as well as for those in the alluvial plain. The size of the settlement varies, generally with the volume of water available for household use and with the amount of land accessible to village dwellers. Sometimes, particularly in the lower Tigris and Euphrates valleys, soil salinity restricts the area of arable land and limits the size of the community dependent on it, and it also usually results in large unsettled and uncultivated stretches between the villages. Fragmentary information suggests that most farmers in the alluvial plain tend to live in villages of over persons. For example, in the mids a substantial number of the residents of Baqubah , the administrative center and major city of Diyala Governorate, were employed in agriculture. The Marsh Arabs of the south usually live in small clusters of two or three houses kept above water by rushes that are constantly being replenished. Such clusters often are close together, but access from one to another is possible only by small boat. Here and there a few natural islands permit slightly larger clusters. Some of these people are primarily water buffalo herders and lead a semi- nomadic life. In the winter, when the waters are at a low point, they build fairly large temporary villages. In the summer they move their herds out of the marshes to the river banks. The war has had its effect on the lives of these denizens of the marshes. With much of the fighting concentrated in their areas, they have either migrated to settled communities away from the marshes or have been forced by government decree to relocate within the marshes. Also, in early , the marshes had become the refuge of deserters from the Iraqi army who attempted to maintain life in the fastness of the overgrown, desolate areas while hiding out from the authorities. These deserters in many instances have formed into large gangs that raid the marsh communities; this also has induced many of the marsh dwellers to abandon their villages. The war has also affected settlement patterns in

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the northern Kurdish areas. There, the struggle for a Kurdish state by guerrillas was rejected by the government as it steadily escalated violence against the local communities. Starting in , the government launched a scorched-earth campaign to drive a wedge between the villagers and the guerrillas in the remote areas of two provinces of Kurdistan in which Kurdish guerrillas were active. In the process whole villages were torched and subsequently bulldozed, which resulted in the Kurds flocking into the regional centers of Irbil and As Sulaymaniyah. Also as a "military precaution", the government has cleared a broad strip of territory in the Kurdish region along the Iranian border of all its inhabitants, hoping in this way to interdict the movement of Kurdish guerrillas back and forth between Iran and Iraq. The majority of Kurdish villages, however, remained intact in early . In the arid areas of Iraq to the west and south, cities and large towns are almost invariably situated on watercourses, usually on the major rivers or their larger tributaries. In the south this dependence has had its disadvantages. Until the recent development of flood control, Baghdad and other cities were subject to the threat of inundation. Moreover, the dikes needed for protection have effectively prevented the expansion of the urban areas in some directions. The growth of Baghdad , for example, was restricted by dikes on its eastern edge. The diversion of water to the Milhat ath Tharthar and the construction of a canal transferring water from the Tigris north of Baghdad to the Diyala River have permitted the irrigation of land outside the limits of the dikes and the expansion of settlement.

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Chapter 6 : history of Mesopotamia | Summary & Facts | blog.quintoapp.com

Land. Iraq is one of the easternmost countries of the Arab world, located at about the same latitude as the southern United States. blog.quintoapp.com is bordered to the north by Turkey, to the east by Iran, to the west by Syria and Jordan, and to the south by Saudi Arabia and Kuwait.

Ancient Mesopotamia refers to the place where humans first formed civilizations. It was here that people first gathered in large cities, learned to write, and created governments. For this reason Mesopotamia is often called the "Cradle of Civilization". When people say Mesopotamia they are referring to a section of land in the Middle East between and around the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. Today this land is located mostly in the country of Iraq. There are also portions in southwestern Iran, southeastern Turkey, and northeastern Syria. The heart of Mesopotamia lies between the two rivers in southern Iraq. The land there is fertile and there is plenty of water around the major two rivers to allow for irrigation and farming. Civilizations and Empires

Early settlers in Mesopotamia started to gather in small villages and towns. As they learned how to irrigate land and grow crops on large farms, the towns grew bigger. Eventually these towns became large cities. New inventions such as government and writing were formed to help keep order in the cities. The first human civilization was formed. Sumer - The Sumerians were the first humans to form a civilization. They invented writing and government. They were organized in city-states where each city had its own independent government ruled by a king that controlled the city and the surrounding farmland. Each city also had its own primary god. Sumerian writing, government, and culture would pave the way for future civilizations. Akkadians - The Akkadians came next. They formed the first united empire where the city-states of the Sumer were united under one ruler. The Akkadian language replaced the Sumerian language during this time. It would be the main language throughout much of the history of Mesopotamia. Babylonians - The city of Babylon became the most powerful city in Mesopotamia. Throughout the history of the region, the Babylonians would rise and fall. At times the Babylonians would create vast empires that ruled much of the Middle East. The Babylonians were the first to write down and record their system of law. Assyrians - The Assyrians came out of the northern part of Mesopotamia. They were a warrior society. They also ruled much of the Middle East at different times over the history of Mesopotamia. Much of what we know about the history of Mesopotamia comes from clay tablets found in Assyrian cities. Persians - The Persians put an end to the rule of the Assyrians and the Babylonians. They conquered much of the Middle East including Mesopotamia. The Sumerians are often credited with inventing the wheel. The Tigris and the Euphrates Rivers are both well over 1,000 miles long. Because this is where people first began to write, Mesopotamia is often called the place where history began. Mesopotamia is part of a larger area that archeologists call the Fertile Crescent. Many of the buildings, walls, and structures were made from sun-dried bricks. Much of what we know about Mesopotamian history comes from thousands of clay tablets found in the library at the Assyrian city of Nineveh.

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Chapter 7 : Lay it to Heart - Where Is the Land of Cush?

Western and southern Iraq is a vast desert region covering some 64, square miles (square km), almost two-fifths of the country. The western desert, an extension of the Syrian Desert, rises to elevations above 1, feet (metres).

Victory stele of Naram-Sin of Akkad. Bronze Age In the 26th century BC, Eannatum of Lagash created what was perhaps the first empire in history, though this was short-lived. Later, Lugal-Zage-Si , the priest-king of Umma , overthrew the primacy of the Lagash dynasty in the area, then conquered Uruk , making it his capital, and claimed an empire extending from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean. From the 29th century BC, Akkadian Semitic names began to appear on king lists and administrative documents of various city states. It remains unknown as to the origin of Akkad, where it was precisely situated and how it rose to prominence. Its people spoke Akkadian , an East Semitic language. The influences between Sumerian and Akkadian are evident in all areas, including lexical borrowing on a massive scale—and syntactic, morphological, and phonological convergence. This mutual influence has prompted scholars to refer to Sumerian and Akkadian of the 3rd millennium BC as a Sprachbund. Bill of sale of a male slave and a building in Shuruppak , Sumerian tablet, circa BC. Between the 29th and 24th centuries BC, a number of kingdoms and city states within Iraq began to have Akkadian speaking dynasties; including Assyria , Ekallatum , Isin and Larsa. However, the Sumerians remained generally dominant until the rise of the Akkadian Empire 2335 BC , based in the city of Akkad in central Iraq. Sargon of Akkad , originally a Rabshakeh to a Sumerian king, founded the empire, he conquered all of the city states of southern and central Iraq, and subjugated the kings of Assyria, thus uniting the Sumerians and Akkadians in one state. He then set about expanding his empire, conquering Gutium , Elam and had victories that did not result into a full conquest against the Amorites and Eblaites of Ancient Syria. After the collapse of the Akkadian Empire in the late 22nd century BC, the Gutians occupied the south for a few decades, while Assyria reasserted its independence in the north. This was followed by a Sumerian renaissance in the form of the Neo-Sumerian Empire. The Sumerians under king Shulgi conquered almost all of Iraq except the northern reaches of Assyria, and asserted themselves over the Gutians , Elamites and Amorites , destroying the first and holding off the others. An Elamite invasion in BC brought the Sumerian revival to an end. By the mid 21st century BC, the Akkadian speaking kingdom of Assyria had risen to dominance in northern Iraq. Assyria expanded territorially into the north eastern Levant, central Iraq, and eastern Anatolia, forming the Old Assyrian Empire circa 2025 BC under kings such as Puzur-Ashur I , Sargon I , Ilushuma and Erishum I , the latter of whom produced the most detailed set of law yet written. During the 20th century BC, the Canaanite speaking Amorites began to migrate into southern Mesopotamia. Eventually, they began to set up small petty kingdoms in the south, as well as usurping the thrones of extant city states such as Isin , Larsa and Eshnunna. Hammurabi , depicted as receiving his royal insignia from Shamash. One of these small Amorite kingdoms founded in BC contained the then small administrative town of Babylon within its borders. It remained insignificant for over a century, overshadowed by older and more powerful states, such as Assyria, Elam, Isin, Eshnunna and Larsa. In BC, an Amorite ruler named Hammurabi came to power in this state, and immediately set about building Babylon from a minor town into a major city, declaring himself its king. Hammurabi conquered the whole of southern and central Iraq, as well as Elam to the east and Mari to the west, then engaged in a protracted war with the Assyrian king Ishme-Dagan for domination of the region, creating the short-lived Babylonian Empire. He eventually prevailed over the successor of Ishme-Dagan and subjected Assyria and its Anatolian colonies. By the middle of the eighteenth century BC, the Sumerians had lost their cultural identity and ceased to exist as a distinct people. However, his empire was short-lived, and rapidly collapsed after his death, with both Assyria and southern Iraq, in the form of the Sealand Dynasty , falling back into native Akkadian hands. The foreign Amorites clung on to power in a once more weak and small Babylonia until it was sacked by the Indo-European speaking Hittite Empire based in Anatolia in BC. After this, another foreign people, the Language Isolate speaking Kassites , originating in the

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Zagros Mountains of Ancient Iran , seized control of Babylonia, where they were to rule for almost years, by far the longest dynasty ever to rule in Babylon. Iraq was from this point divided into three polities: Assyria in the north, Kassite Babylonia in the south central region, and the Sealand Dynasty in the far south. Beginning with the campaigns of Ashur-uballit I , Assyria destroyed the rival Hurrian - Mitanni Empire, annexed huge swathes of the Hittite Empire for itself, annexed northern Babylonia from the Kassites, forced the Egyptian Empire from the region, and defeated the Elamites , Phrygians , Canaanites , Phoenicians , Cilicians , Gutians , Dilmunites and Arameans. The Kassites were driven from power by Assyria and Elam, allowing native south Mesopotamian kings to rule Babylonia for the first time, although often subject to Assyrian or Elamite rulers. However, these East Semitic Akkadian kings, were unable to prevent new waves of West Semitic migrants entering southern Iraq, and during the 11th century BC Arameans and Suteans entered Babylonia from The Levant , and these were followed in the late 10th to early 9th century BC by the migrant Chaldeans who were closely related to the earlier Arameans. It was during this period that an Akkadian influenced form of Eastern Aramaic was adopted by the Assyrians as the lingua franca of their vast empire, and Mesopotamian Aramaic began to supplant Akkadian as the spoken language of the general populace of both Assyria and Babylonia. The descendant dialects of this tongue survive amongst the Mandaeans of southern Iraq and Assyrians of northern Iraq to this day. Relief showing a lion hunt , from the north palace of Nineveh , 600 BC. In the late 7th century BC, the Assyrian Empire tore itself apart with a series of brutal civil wars, weakening itself to such a degree that a coalition of its former subjects; the Babylonians , Chaldeans , Medes , Persians , Parthians , Scythians and Cimmerians , were able to attack Assyria, finally bringing its empire down by BC. It failed to attain the size, power or longevity of its predecessor; however, it came to dominate The Levant , Canaan , Arabia , Israel and Judah , and to defeat Egypt. Initially, Babylon was ruled by yet another foreign dynasty, that of the Chaldeans , who had migrated to the region in the late 10th or early 9th century BC. Its greatest king, Nebuchadnezzar II , rivalled another non native ruler, the ethnically unrelated Amorite king Hammurabi , as the greatest king of Babylon. However, by BC, the Chaldeans had been deposed from power by the Assyrian born Nabonidus and his son and regent Belshazzar. The Achaemenids made Babylon their main capital. The Chaldeans and Chaldea disappeared at around this time, though both Assyria and Babylonia endured and thrived under Achaemenid rule see Achaemenid Assyria. Little changed under the Persians, having spent three centuries under Assyrian rule, their kings saw themselves as successors to Ashurbanipal, and they retained Assyrian Imperial Aramaic as the language of empire, together with the Assyrian imperial infrastructure, and an Assyrian style of art and architecture. In the late 4th century BC, Alexander the Great conquered the region, putting it under Hellenistic Seleucid rule for over two centuries. From Syria , the Romans invaded western parts of the region several times , briefly founding Assyria Provincia in Assyria. Christianity began to take hold in Iraq particularly in Assyria between the 1st and 3rd centuries, and Assyria became a centre of Syriac Christianity , the Church of the East and Syriac literature. A number of independent states evolved in the north during the Parthian era, such as Adiabene , Assur , Osroene and Hatra. The region was thus a province of the Sassanid Empire for over four centuries, and became the frontier and battle ground between the Sassanid Empire and Byzantine Empire , with both empires weakening each other, paving the way for the Arab - Muslim conquest of Persia in the mid-7th century. Middle Ages The Abbasid Caliphate at its greatest extent, c. The Umayyad Caliphate ruled the province of Iraq from Damascus in the 7th century. The Abbasid Caliphate built the city of Baghdad in the 8th century as its capital, and the city became the leading metropolis of the Arab and Muslim world for five centuries. Baghdad was the largest multicultural city of the Middle Ages , peaking at a population of more than a million, [36] and was the centre of learning during the Islamic Golden Age. The Mongols destroyed the city and burned its library during the siege of Baghdad in the 13th century. This angered Hulagu, and, consistent with Mongol strategy of discouraging resistance, he besieged Baghdad , sacked the city and massacred many of the inhabitants. The city has never regained its previous pre-eminence as a major centre of culture and influence. Some historians believe that the Mongol invasion destroyed much of the irrigation infrastructure that had sustained Mesopotamia for millennia.

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Other historians point to soil salination as the culprit in the decline in agriculture. After the capture of Baghdad, 20,000 of its citizens were massacred. During the late 14th and early 15th centuries, the Black Sheep Turkmen ruled the area now known as Iraq. From the earliest 16th century, in , as with all territories of the former White Sheep Turkmen, Iraq fell into the hands of the Iranian Safavids. Owing to the century long Turco-Iranian rivalry between the Safavids and the neighbouring Ottoman Turks , Iraq would be contested between the two for more than a hundred years during the frequent Ottoman-Persian Wars. With the Treaty of Zuhab in , most of the territory of present-day Iraq eventually came under the control of Ottoman Empire as the eyalet of Baghdad as a result of wars with the neighbouring rival, Safavid Iran. Throughout most of the period of Ottoman rule â€” , the territory of present-day Iraq was a battle zone between the rival regional empires and tribal alliances. By the 17th century, the frequent conflicts with the Safavids had sapped the strength of the Ottoman Empire and had weakened its control over its provinces. The nomadic population swelled with the influx of bedouins from Najd , in the Arabian Peninsula. Bedouin raids on settled areas became impossible to curb. During the years â€” , Iraq was ruled by a Mamluk dynasty of Georgian [47] origin who succeeded in obtaining autonomy from the Ottoman Porte , suppressed tribal revolts, curbed the power of the Janissaries, restored order and introduced a programme of modernisation of economy and military. In , the Ottomans managed to overthrow the Mamluk regime and imposed their direct control over Iraq. The population of Iraq, estimated at 30 million in AD, was only 5 million at the start of the 20th century. In the Mesopotamian campaign against the Central Powers, British forces invaded the country and initially suffered a major defeat at the hands of the Turkish army during the Siege of Kut â€” However, subsequent to this the British began to gain the upper hand, and were further aided by the support of local Arabs and Assyrians. An armistice was signed in . The British lost 92,000 soldiers in the Mesopotamian campaign. Ottoman losses are unknown but the British captured a total of 45,000 prisoners of war. By the end of , the British had deployed , men in the area, of which , were combat troops.

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Chapter 8 : Relation of the people to the land in southern Iraq - CORE

Over the centuries, numerous empires dominated Mesopotamia, the fertile land we now call Iraq. Located between the Euphrates and Tigris Rivers, its capital city of Baghdad was at one time the most significant commercial and cultural center in the entire Muslim world.

The population tends to be relatively young and heavily skewed gender ratio dominated by males. In many states, the number of South Asians exceeds that of the local citizenry. In , the estimated population of the Arabian Peninsula was 77,, including expatriates. It seems to be an exclusively Adnani marker. AR-Arabian Plate, velocities with respect to Africa in millimeters per year. Salalah is a famous tourist destination in Arabia for its annual khareef season. Geologically, this region is perhaps more appropriately called the Arabian subcontinent because it lies on a tectonic plate of its own, the Arabian Plate , which has been moving incrementally away from the rest of Africa forming the Red Sea and north, toward Asia, into the Eurasian Plate forming the Zagros Mountains. The rocks exposed vary systematically across Arabia, with the oldest rocks exposed in the Arabian-Nubian Shield near the Red Sea, overlain by earlier sediments that become younger towards the Persian Gulf. The peninsula consists of: A central plateau, the Najd , with fertile valleys and pastures used for the grazing of sheep and other livestock A range of deserts: Asir province but also at the southeastern end of the peninsula Oman. Most areas are drained by ephemeral watercourses called wadis , which are dry except during the rainy season. Plentiful ancient aquifers exist beneath much of the peninsula, however, and where this water surfaces, oases form e. In general, the climate is extremely hot and arid , although there are exceptions. Higher elevations are made temperate by their altitude, and the Arabian Sea coastline can receive surprisingly cool, humid breezes in summer due to cold upwelling offshore. The peninsula has no thick forests. Desert-adapted wildlife is present throughout the region. The plateau slopes eastwards from the massive, rifted escarpment along the coast of the Red Sea, to the shallow waters of the Persian Gulf. The interior is characterised by cuestas and valleys, drained by a system of wadis. A crescent of sand and gravel deserts lies to the east. Land and sea[edit] Coconut palms line corniches of Oman Al Hafa. Red sea coral reefs. Most of the Arabian Peninsula is unsuited to agriculture, making irrigation and land reclamation projects essential. Goat, sheep, and camel husbandry is widespread elsewhere throughout the rest of the Peninsula. Some areas have a summer humid tropical monsoon climate , in particular the Dhofar and Al Mahrah areas of Oman and Yemen. These areas allow for large scale coconut plantations. Much of Yemen has a tropical monsoon rain influenced mountain climate. The plains usually have either a tropical or subtropical arid desert climate or arid steppe climate. In addition, the organisms living in symbiosis with the Red Sea coral, the protozoa and zooxanthellae , have a unique hot weather adaptation to sudden rise and fall in sea water temperature. Hence, these coral reefs are not affected by coral bleaching caused by rise in temperature as elsewhere in the indopacific coral sea. The reefs are also unaffected by mass tourism and diving or other large scale human interference. However, some reefs were destroyed in the Persian Gulf , mostly caused by phosphate water pollution and resultant increase in algae growth as well as oil pollution from ships and pipeline leakage[citation needed]. Terraced fields in Yemen. In the higher reaches, elaborate terraces have been constructed to facilitate grain, fruit, coffee, ginger and khat cultivation. The Arabian peninsula is known for its rich oil, i. The Romans named three regions with the prefix "Arabia", encompassing a larger area than the current term "Arabian Peninsula": It was the only one that became a province , with Petra as its capital. Arabia Deserta "Desert Arabia": As a name for the region, it remained popular into the 19th and 20th centuries, and was used in Charles M. Arabia Felix "Fortunate Arabia": The Arab inhabitants used a north-south division of Arabia: Arabia Felix had originally been used for the whole peninsula, and at other times only for the southern region. Because its use became limited to the south, the whole peninsula was simply called Arabia. Arabia Deserta was the entire desert region extending north from Arabia Felix to Palmyra and the Euphrates, including all the area between Pelusium on the Nile and Babylon. This area was

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also called Arabia and not sharply distinguished from the peninsula. The history of the Arabian Peninsula goes back to the beginnings of human habitation in Arabia up to , years ago. Pre-Islamic Arabia Sabaeen inscription addressed to the god Almaqah , mentioning five Ancient Yemeni gods, two reigning sovereigns and two governors, 7th century BC. There is evidence that human habitation in the Arabian Peninsula dates back to about , to , years ago. Eastern Arabia was home to the Dilmun civilization. The earliest known events in Arabian history are migrations from the Peninsula into neighbouring areas.

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Chapter 9 : Blood of the Irish: What DNA Tells Us About the Ancestry of People in Ireland | Owlcation

Biblical names for the southern part of ancient Mesopotamia [Iraq] include Shinar (ancient Sumer), Chaldea, and Babylon, and for the northern area, Assyria. The ancient language of the region is called Akkadian, named after the city of Akkad, one of the cities founded by Nimrod in Shinar (Genesis).

It extends over 2, miles from the Black Sea in the north to the Arabian Sea in the south, and about 1, miles from the Mediterranean Sea in the west to the mountains of Iran. In the first of these zones, the Nile River flows northward through the Sahara Desert from Khartoum in Sudan where its two major tributaries join , through Egypt, and to the Mediterranean Sea. As a source of water, food, and fertile soil deposited in annual floods as well as a transportation route, it was the ecological basis for ancient Nubian and Egyptian civilization. The rich mineral resources of the deserts around the Nile, particularly gold, have historically been important to economic development in this area. Located in the Mediterranean climatic zone with rich agricultural land and relatively abundant rainfall, and having easy access to land and sea routes, the Levant has always been a cultural crossroads and has frequently been conquered. Among the first areas to develop agriculture as far back as 11, BCE , ancient cultures that developed in this region include Canaanite, Amorite, Israelite, and Phoenician. The western coast of Turkey had closer contact with cultures of Greece and the Aegean Sea than with the rest of the Middle East through much of its early history. Ancient cultures in Anatolia included the Hittite empire and a Hurrian-speaking population. Southeast of the Levant is the Arabian Peninsula with its extensive deserts, oases, and coastal regions along the Red Sea, Arabian Sea, and Persian Gulf that were more often suited to permanent settlement. Distinctive ancient cultures of this area include the South Arabian kingdoms in what is now Yemen that traded incense to the Levant and communities in Oman that were rich in copper and hard stone. Arab culture first appears in the historical record after the introduction of the camel in about BCE, which allowed more extensive use of arid zones of Saudi Arabia, and Islam first developed in the oasis towns of Mecca and Medina before spreading over much of the Middle East by CE. In many ways, what we call Mesopotamian civilization is a series of diverse languages and cultures bound together by a common script and written tradition. Mesopotamia is a particularly fertile agricultural zone with vast areas available for cultivation. Northern Mesopotamia receives enough rainfall to grow grain crops, while southern Mesopotamia receives virtually no rain, so agriculture there depended on extensive networks of irrigation canals. At the southern end of the Tigris-Euphrates course, a series of marshes has maintained a distinctive environment and culture for millennia. Apart from water and fertile soil and later oil , Mesopotamia contains few natural resources, and has depended on trade with people in the mountainous regions to the north and east for stone, copper, and timber. Zagros Mountains Mesopotamia is bordered on the east by the Zagros Mountains of western Iran and eastern Turkey elevation up to 15, feet , whose highland valleys were home to Elamite and Persian civilizations as well as later powerful nomadic confederations including the Bakhtiari. The Zagros are a rich source of stone and timber. The climate of the Middle East ranges from the warm summers and cold winters of highland Turkey and Iran, through hotter summers and cool winters of northern Mesopotamia and the Mediterranean coast, to the extreme temperatures of the Arabian desert. Most, but not all, of the region is arid. As this outline suggests, geography plays a significant role in the formation and maintenance of cultures. The earliest civilizations with large population centers developed near abundant sources of water and agricultural land, rather than in areas of other valuable raw materials, like metals, semi-precious stones, building stone, or timber. Geography also provides a basis for distinctive attributes of regional cultures, like the importance of olive oil and wine in the cuisine of the eastern Mediterranean region where grapes and olives can easily be cultivated , or the extensive use of incense in daily life, ritual practice, and in economic exchange in the cultures of south Arabia. Scholars debate the extent to which geography shapes culture and the direction of historical change. Some see geography as destiny, while others see a more complex set of changing opportunities and constraints that geography poses through history.