

## OUTLINE HISTORY OF ASIA MINOR

Later Bronze Age central Asia Minor was dominated by the Hittites and on the western coast by the Greeks. This period came to an end soon after the Trojan War when great invasions swamped the region. For the Hittite era in Asia Minor, see "Middle East" history. As a result of these attacks, the Hittite empire came to an end about 1200 BCE and the chaos continued until Rameses III defeated the raiders. Out of this chaos that followed the overthrow of the Hittite empire there emerged the Urartean power in Armenia, the Phrygian kingdom of the western plateau and the neo-Hittite states of the northern Syria and the Taurus and Anti-Taurus foothills (for these neo-Hittite states see "Middle East" history).

The successors of the Hittites on the major part of the plateau were the Phrygians who according to Greek tradition were related to the Thracians and ultimately colonized Armenia. They spoke an Indo-European language, of the eastern branch, and doubtless included an immigrant element recently arrived from across the Bosphorus; but it seems that their kingdom was peopled more by a coalition of former subjects of the Hittite empire than by its invaders. Certainly the art of the Phrygian rock monuments in the district about Gordium, the capital of the kingdom, owes much to Hittite inspiration; for instance, the pairs of opposed lions rampant over the doorways of tombs.

There are many features of Phrygian art and architecture which came new to Asia Minor, such as the stone tumuli with corbelled burial chambers, like the "Tomb of Tantalus" on the slopes of Yamanlar Dag (Mt. Sipylus) above Izmir. Moreover, the gabled facades to the false rock-cut tombs near Gordium have no counterpart in Hittite sculpture, and the intricate geometrical patterns carved on these tomb fronts, possibly in mimicry of carpet designs, are also specifically Phrygian. This sculptured ornament recalls the friezes on the painted Phrygian pottery, of a style which is quite novel in Anatolia. This pottery, with its geometrical patterns, repetitive panels, simple animal silhouettes and miniature circles multiplied to fill vacant spaces, has basically much in common with the contemporary geometric styles of the eastern Mediterranean, while keeping certain features of its own.

Despite the overthrow of the Phrygian empire by the invading Cimmerians in the early 7th century BCE, some off-shoots of this civilization survived in the interior, as, for example, at the castle of Pazarli, dating from about 500 BCE in which there are Phrygian reliefs and wall paintings of lions, bulls, deer, winged griffons, centaurs, and soldiers parading with shields and spears.

Elsewhere the Phrygian power was succeeded by the various civilizations speaking Asianic languages, like those of Lydia, Caria and Lycia. These peoples were of various origins, some being invaders who brought the downfall of the Hittite realm, others relics of the old subject populations of the Hittite empire.

These indigenous civilizations of Asia Minor flourished at the same time as the Greek colonial foundations, Aeolic, Ionian and Doric, which began to be established on the Aegean shores in the 8th century BCE; it is therefore important to know what sort and degree of contact there was between them, and in particular how much the young civilization of Ionia owed to its neighbors inland. Certainly Phrygia must have had some connection with the Greek world shortly before the collapse of the kingdom, for the alphabet of the inscriptions on the Midas tomb and other monuments is patently borrowed from the Greek. Moreover, the Ionian cities owed a large cultural debt to their inland neighbor, Lydia. There was continuity between the Hittite and early Greek civilizations, through Phrygian and Lydian intermediaries, though there was a hiatus between the imperial Hittite and the fully developed Phrygian civilization. It was somewhat later that the land routes from the Aegean to the east were reopened. It is probable that the early Greek colonists on the coasts of Cilicia and north Syria, who had close links with the neo-Hittite states of the southern Taurus and north Syria, were at least as influential as the overland traders of Ionia and Lydia in introducing the "orientalizing" features into the art of the Aegean world in the late 8th and in the 7th centuries BCE.

With the conquest of Lydia by Cyrus in 546 BCE, the major part of Asia Minor again came under single control, for the first time since the downfall of the Hittite empire. The old Hittite road round the north side of the central plateau, which had probably never been completely abandoned, was re-established as the royal road from Sardis to Susa, while the great eastern trade route was opened along the southern edge of the plateau.

The Persian kings, however, did not change the civilization of Asia Minor as much as Alexander and his successors, whose policy was not to rule the country from outside but to colonize it. So, beginning in the late 4th century, a whole series of new cities was founded, usually at strategic points along the routes of trade and administration which had been re-established by the Persians. Sometimes old Anatolian religious centers, like Hierapolis, were refounded and renamed; else-where, completely new cities were set up, like Laodicea on the Lycus.

These foundations were profoundly different in both economy and administration from the old rural centers of Anatolia, and these differences were reflected in their architecture. The old Anatolian cities, like Pessinus, Olba and Comana of Cappadocia, had been, as Strabo's descriptions show, provincial centers with a large agricultural

population subordinate to and serving the temple. They were distinguished not by their construction but only by their size from the Anatolian villages where the populace was divided into the same two strata of theocracy and serfs.

In the new Hellenistic cities, by contrast, a more elaborate and democratic administration was practiced. The population was divided into age grades, residential tribes and trade guilds, and various paid and honorary officers supervised the work of the police, schools, markets and other municipal functions. Specialized industries were set up, trade became increasingly important and the cities ever more dependent on the highways between them.

When Roman power was extended to Asia Minor, these municipalities and highways were used as bases for annexing and ruling the whole of the country. The cities became progressively larger, more luxurious and more detached from the surrounding countryside. Their great public buildings, agorae, stadia, amphitheatres, gymnasiums and triumphal arches, whose ruins are today so common throughout Anatolia, were built on a pattern which was common throughout the Roman world. In imperial times, as these cities grew in size, increasingly elaborate aqueducts and drainage canals were needed to serve them.

In many districts Christianity and paganism rose to strength alternately, in accordance with the trend of official persecution or toleration. Elsewhere the two appear, from the evidence of ambiguous epitaphs, to have combined into an unstable mixture, and in these regions heresy was constantly liable to arise.

From: Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 2, "Asia Minor" pages 541-2

The earliest history of Armenia was a continuous struggle for independence against the imperialist expansion of, first, Babylonia and, later, Assyria, whose monarchs often referred in their inscriptions to the land of "Subartu," "Nairi" and "Urartu" which they had, or only claimed to have, subdued. This struggle has been preserved in the historical memory of the Armenians themselves in the allegorical strife between their king Ara and Semiramis.

The 9th century BCE was marked by the establishment of the hegemony of the Khaldians whose name was derived from that of their chief god Khaldi (Haldi) and whose language was Japhetic. The Khaldian state (called Urartu by the Assyrians, *cf.* "Ararat" of the Bible, "Alarodii" of Herodotus), with its capital-fortress on the lake Van, consolidated the peoples of Armenia and rose to be a formidable foe to Assyria. Its apogee was under the kings Menuas, Argistis I and Sardur III (c. 810 - 733 BCE). Tiglath-Pileser III of Assyria dealt it a serious blow in 735; and the victories of Sargon II (722 - 705 BCE) as well as the subsequent invasions of the Cimmerii, Moschi and Tibarenians, and finally Armenians, brought about the final decline of the Khaldian kingdom of Urartu.

The Indo-European Armenians supplanted the weakened hegemony of the Khaldians and gradually intermingled with them. It is under the name of Armina that the country appeared, a satrapy of the Achaemenid empire, in the Behistun inscription of Darius of Hystaspes (521 BCE).

Although officially a part of the Persian empire, Armenia must have enjoyed the position of a vassal state, and local dynasties flourished alongside the satraps who themselves may have been local dynasts. After the Macedonian conquest, the Seleucids succeeded the Achaemenids in the overlordship of Armenia, but in 190 BCE the satraps Artaxias (Artashes) and Zariadres (Zareh) revolted against and defeated in the battle of Magnesia, the Seleucid Antiochus III. Artaxias founded the kingdom of Greater Armenia with its capital at Artaxata or Artashat, and Zariadres became king of Sophene or Lesser Armenia.

Under the dynasty of Artaxias (Artaxid or Tigranid), Armenia again reached a high point - perhaps the highest - in its political history. Tigranes I, the Great (c. 94 - 56 BCE), the builder of the new capital of Tigranocerta, unified the country by conquering Sophene and other local principalities, wrested territories from Parthia, Syria and Cappadocia and even occupied Syria itself and the Seleucid throne and from 83 to 69 BCE, reigned at Antioch. His alliance with his father-in-law, Mithridates of Pontus, as well as his expansionist policy, involved him in a war with Rome; and the Roman troops under Lucullus attacked Tigranocerta.

There are no records from the Armenian side, but modern research has greatly diminished the value of Roman boastings. Ultimately the Romans held the Euphrates frontier claiming sovereignty over Armenia and Kurdistan. The ethnical and cultural affinities fostered by Persia and Parthia, coupled with the influence of Zoroastrianism, so profoundly shaped the outlook of all peoples living between the Caucasus and the Persian plateau, that Hellenism scarcely penetrated beyond the Euphrates. The Romans considered Armenia as a buffer state, but the Armenian rulers only at moments of struggle with Persia sought the friendship of Rome. As a compromise to end the Romano-Persian rivalry over Armenia, Tiridates I, a prince of the Persian Arsacid (Arshakuni) dynasty, was recognized by Nero in 66 CE as king of Armenia under Roman suzerainty. Under the rule of the Arsacid kings, the Armenian people kept its complete political entity within the frame of Persian suzerainty, which succeeded that of Rome.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 2 "Armenia" pages 377-8

The ancient Bithynians were an immigrant Thracian tribe, Herodotus (i, 28) mentions the Thyni and Bithyni as existing side by side; but ultimately the latter became the more important, and gave their name to the country. They were incorporated by Croesus with the Lydian monarchy, with which they fell under the dominion of Persia (546 BCE). Before the conquest by Alexander the Bithynians asserted their independence, under Bas and Zipoetes, the last of whom transmitted his power to his son Nicomedes I, the first to assume the title of king. This monarch founded Nicomedia, which soon rose to great prosperity, and during his long reign (278 - 250 BCE), as well as those of his successors, Prusias I, Prusias II, and Nicomedes II (149 - 91 BCE), the kingdom of Bithynia held a considerable place among the minor monarchies of Asia. The last king, Nicomedes III, was unable to maintain himself against Mithridates of Pontus, and, after being restored to his throne by the Roman senate, he bequeathed his kingdom by will to the Romans (74 BCE). Bithynia now became a Roman province. Its limits were frequently varied, and it was often united for administrative purposes with the province of Pontus. This was the state of things in the time of Trajan, when the younger Pliny was appointed governor of the combined provinces, (103 - 105 CE).

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 3 "Bithynia" pages 672-3

Nothing is known of the history of Cappadocia before it became subject to the Persian empire, except that the country was the home of a great "Hittite" power centered at Boghaz-Keui. With the decline of the Syro-Cappadocians after their defeat by Croesus, Cappadocia was left in the power of a sort of feudal aristocracy. It was included in the third Persian satrapy by Darius but was governed by rulers of its own, more or less tributary to the Great King. Subdued by the satrap Datames, Cappadocia recovered independence under Ariarathes I, a contemporary of Alexander the Great.

The province was not visited by Alexander, who contented himself with the tributary acknowledgment of his sovereignty made by Ariarathes, and the continuity of the native dynasty was only interrupted for a short time after Alexander's death, when the kingdom fell to Eumenes. His claims were made good in 322 BCE by the Regent Perdiccas, who crucified Ariarathes; but in the dissensions following Eumenes's death, the son of Ariarathes recovered his inheritance and left it to a line of successors. Under the fourth of the name Cappadocia came into relations with Rome, first as an enemy of Antiochus the Great, then as an ally against Perseus of Macedon. The kings thenceforward threw in their lot with the republic against the Seleucids. Ariarathes V marched with the Roman pro-consul, Crassus against Aristonices, and their forces were annihilated (130 BCE). His death led to interference by the rising power of Pontus; the Cappadocians, supported by Rome against Mithridates, elected a native, Ariobarzanes, to succeed (93 BCE); but it was not till Rome had disposed of the Pontic and Armenian kings that his rule was established (63 BCE). In the civil wars Cappadocia was now for Pompey, now for Caesar, now for Antony, now against him. The Ariobarzanes dynasty came to an end and Archelaus reigned by favor first of Antony, then of Octavian, and maintained tributary independence until 17 CE, when the emperor Tiberius reduced Cappadocia to a province. Vespasian in 70 CE joined Armenia Minor to it and made the combined province a frontier bulwark. The report made to Hadrian by his legate Arrian, gives a valuable picture of life in a Roman frontier province in the 2nd century (131 - 137 CE).

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 4 "Cappadocia" page 818

Caria figured but little in history. It was absorbed into the kingdom of Lydia, where Carian troops formed the body-guard of the king. Cnidus and Halicarnassus on the coast were colonized by Dorians. At Halicarnassus the Mausoleum, the monument by Artemisia to her husband Mausolus, was erected about 360 BCE. At Cnidus is where the celebrated "Cnidian Lion" crowned a tomb near the city.

In the Persian epoch, native dynasts established themselves in Caria and even extended their rule over the Greek cities. The last of them seems to have been Pixodarus, after whose death the crown was seized by a Persian, Orontobates, who offered a vigorous resistance to Alexander the Great. But his capital, Halicarnassus, was taken after a siege, and the principality of Caria conferred by Alexander on Ada, a princess of the native dynasty. Soon afterwards the country was incorporated into the Syrian empire and then into the kingdom of Pergamum, as part of which it passed into the Roman province of Asia.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 4 "Caria" page 861

According to Herodotus (i 173; vii 92), the original inhabitants of the country were the Milyans and Solymi, the Lycians being invaders from Crete. In this tradition there is a reminiscence of the fact that the Lycians had been sea-rovers before their settlement in Lycia. The Lycian Sarpedon was believed to have taken part in the Trojan war. The Lydians failed to subdue Lycia, but after the fall of the Lydian empire it was conquered by Harpagus, the general of Cyrus (i, 171). While acknowledging the suzerainty of Persia, however, the Lycians remained practically independent, and for a time joined the Delian league. They were incorporated into the empire of Alexander, but,

even after their conquest by the Romans, preserved their federal institutions as late as the time of Augustus. Under Claudius, Lycia was annexed to the Roman empire and united with Pamphylia; Theodosius made it a separate province.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 14 "Lycia" pages 512-3

According to the native historian Xanthus (460 BCE) three dynasties ruled in succession over Lydia. The first, that of the Attiads, is mythical. To this mythical age belongs the colony which, according to Herodotus (i 94), Tyrsenus, the son of Attis, led to Etruria. Xanthus, however, puts Torrhebus in the place of Tyrsenus, and makes him the eponym of a district in Lydia. The second dynasty was also of divine origin, but the names which head it prove its connection with the distant East. The Hittites, and Oriental people, deeply imbued with the elements of Babylonian culture, had overrun Asia Minor and established themselves on the shores of the Aegean before the reign of Egyptian king Rameses II. Their subject allies include the Mysians and the Dardani of the Troad, while the Hittites have left memorials in Lydia (ie; the inscription in Hittite hieroglyphics attached to the figure of "Niobe" on Sipylus). We learn from Eusebius that Sardis was first captured by the Cimmerii in 1078 BCE; and since it was four centuries later before the real Cimmerii appeared on the horizon of history, we may perhaps find in the statement a tradition of the Hittite conquest. As the authority of the Hittite satraps at Sardis began to decay the Heraclid house arose. After lasting five hundred and five years, the dynasty came to an end in the person of Sadyattes. The name Candaules, given him by Herodotus (i, 7), meant "dog strangler," and was a title of the Lydian Hermes. Gyges put him to death and established the dynasty of the Mermnads in 687 BCE. Gyges initiated a new policy, that of making Lydia a maritime power; but towards the middle of his reign the kingdom was overrun by the Cimmerii. The lower town of Sardis was taken, and Gyges sent tribute to Assur-banipal, as well as two Cimmerian chieftains he had himself captured in battle. A few years later Gyges joined in the revolt against Assyria; the Cimmerian hordes returned, Gyges was slain in battle (652 BCE), and Ardys his son and successor returned to his allegiance to Nineveh. Alyattes, the grandson of Ardys, finally succeeded in extirpating the Cimmerii, as well as in taking Smyrna, and thus providing his kingdom with a port. The trade and wealth of Lydia rapidly increased, and the Greek town fell one after the other before the attacks of the Lydian kings. Alyattes's long reign of 57 years saw the foundation of the Lydian empire. All Asia Minor west of the Halys acknowledged his sway. The Greek cities were allowed to retain their own institutions and government on condition of paying taxes and dues to the Lydian monarch, and the proceeds of their commerce thus flowed into the imperial exchequer. The result was that the king of Lydia became the richest prince of his age. Alyattes was succeeded by Croesus, who had probably already for some years shared the royal power. He reigned alone only 15 years, Cyrus the Persian after an indecisive battle on the Halys, marching upon Sardis, and capturing both acropolis and monarch (546 BCE).

The revolt of the Lydians under Pactyas, whom Cyrus had appointed to collect the taxes, caused the Persian king to disarm them. Sardis now became the western capital of the Persian empire, and its burning by the Athenians was one of the contributing causes of the Persian War. After Alexander the Great's death, Lydia passed to Antigonos; then Achaeus made himself king at Sardis, but was defeated and put to death by Antiochus. The country was presented by the Romans to Eumenes, and subsequently formed part of the proconsular province of Asia. By the time of Strabo (xiii, 631) its old language was entirely supplanted by Greek.

The Lydian empire may be described as the industrial power of the ancient world. The Lydians were credited with introducing or inventing the game of dice and also coined money. The oldest known coins are the electrum coins of the earlier Mermnads, stamped on one side with a lion's head or the figure of a king with bow and quiver; these were replaced by Croesus with a coinage of pure gold and silver. The electrum coins of Lydia were of two kinds, one weighing 168.4 grains for the inland trade, and another of 224 grains for the trade with Ionia. The standard was the silver mina of Carchemish which contained 8,656 grains. Originally derived from Babylonia, this standard was passed on to Asia Minor during the Hittite conquest, but was eventually superseded by the Phoenician mina of 11,225 grains. The inns, which the Lydians were said to have been the first to establish, were connected with their attention to commercial pursuits (Herodotus i, 94). Their literature has wholly perished. They were celebrated for their music and gymnastic exercises, and their art formed a link between that of Asia Minor and that of Greece. Lydian sculpture was probably similar to that of the Phrygians. Phallic emblems, for averting evil, were plentiful; that summit of the tomb of Alyattes is crowned with an enormous one of stone, about 9 feet in diameter.

The tumulus itself is 281 yards in diameter and about half a mile in circumference. There is a sepulchral chamber in the middle, composed of large well-cut and highly polished blocks of marble. The stone basement which, according to Herodotus, formerly surrounded the mound has disappeared.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 14 "Lydia" page 516

For the date of the Phrygian immigration the best evidence is found in Homer, who represents the Phrygians as rendering aid to King Priam at the siege of Troy, in return for assistance which he had given to them in their wars against the Amazons (= the Hittites?) on the banks of the Sangarius. This story indicates that the Phrygians had entered Asia Minor some time before 1200 BCE. A date not later than 1500 BCE has been inferred from the furniture of certain burial mounds in northwestern Asia Minor, which resemble the contents of Macedonian tumuli of the early 2nd or late 3rd millennium.

It would appear from Homer that the incoming Phrygians made their principal settlement in the Sangarius valley. Their chief surviving monuments are also found in this valley (at Gordium), and on the adjacent plateau to the southwest of the Sangarius. But it is probable that about 1000 BCE all the northern and central parts of Asia Minor had come under Phrygian occupation. The extension of Phrygian power to the western seaboard of Asia Minor may be inferred from a somewhat enigmatic Greek tradition, that in the 9th century BCE they exercised a "thalassocracy" or "lordship of the seas" in Aegean waters, and from the abundance of Phrygian remains on Mt. Sipylus in the lower Hermus valley. The description of Sinope as a "Phrygian" town indicates a Phrygian settlement along the Black Sea. Another Greek tradition, that the Armenians were an offshoot of the Phrygian stock, is supported by the resemblance between the Phrygian and Armenian tongues.

The expansion of the Phrygians into eastern Asia Minor is proved by the discovery of an inscription in the Phrygian language at Tyana in Cappadocia. This text, it is true, does not appear to be of earlier date than the 8th century BCE. But the presence of Phrygians on the borders of the Euphrates may perhaps be inferred from Assyrian records which relate victories by Tiglath-Pileser I (c. 1120 BCE) and by Sargon (717 - 709 BCE) over a tribe named the Mushki. The fact that in one of Sargon's inscriptions the chief of the Mushki bears the name "Mita" suggests that the Mushki were Phrygian, or at least had Phrygian rulers, for "Mita" or "Midas" was a common name among the kings of Phrygia proper.

The relation between the Phrygians and the Hittites, who were the predominant people in Asia Minor c. 1500 BCE, is not yet quite clear. The existence of a group of rock-carvings in Hittite style, extending from Ancyra to Sardes and Smyrna, suggests that Phrygia proper may at one time have been under Hittite government, but the character of Hittite influence in north-western Asia Minor still remains uncertain. On the other hand there is little doubt that the decline of Hittite culture and the disappearance of Hittite power from Asia Minor after 1000 BCE was in large measure due to the expansion of the Phrygians over the peninsula.

About 1000 BCE the Phrygians had penetrated southward in Asia Minor as far as the Hermus and the Maeander, and eastward to the Halys, if not to the Euphrates. But over the greater part of this territory they were unable to consolidate their power, or to extend their culture. East of the Halys they disappear from history about 700 BCE. Their frontage on the Black Sea was taken from them by the Bithynians, who probably entered Asia Minor from Europe soon after 1000 BCE. Their access to the Aegean was shut off at some unknown date by the Greek colonists of the coastland and by the Lydians of the Hermus valley. After 800 BCE the only districts which remained in Phrygian occupation were the tableland between the Sangarius and the Hermus, and the borderland of the Dardanelles and the Sea of Marmora, known later as "Hellespontine Phrygia."

In the 8th century BCE Phrygia proper achieved a considerable measure of prosperity under a line of kings who had their capital at Gordium and were called alternately "Gordius" and "Midas." The last and greatest of this dynasty was a king Midas who reigned, according to Greek chronologers, from 738 to 695 BCE. This ruler cultivated close relations with the Greeks. He was the first foreign ruler to dedicate offerings to Apollo at Delphi, and he took to wife the daughter of Agamemnon, king of the Achaean Greek city of Cyme. His name may still be read on his tomb in the "Midas city," one of the most notable remains of Phrygian art.

Soon after 700 BCE the reign of Midas was brought to a sudden end by the incursion of a Thracian people named the Cimmerians, of which Greeks, Lydians and Assyrians felt the force, but the Phrygians took the full brunt. By the second half of the 7th century the Cimmerians disappeared from Asia Minor without leaving a trace, but Phrygia was now so far enfeebled that it fell under the dominion of the neighboring kingdom of Lydia.

Under Lydian rule Phrygia recovered some of its former prosperity. If the dates usually assigned to Phrygian monuments are correct, Phrygian art reached its highest development about 600 BCE. A resumption of commerce with the Greeks at this period is indicated by finds of Corinthian pottery at Gordium. But after the conquest of Lydia by the Persians (546 BCE) Phrygia shared in the general decline which now befell western Asia Minor; nothing more is heard of its trade with the Greeks, except that it was a favorite hunting-ground for Greek slaves. It formed one large Persian province, but about 400 BCE it was divided into two portions, "Great Phrygia" and Hellespontine Phrygia.

After two centuries of uneventful history under Persian rule Phrygia passed into the hands of Alexander of Macedon, who visited Gordium (333 BCE) and there cut the "Gordian knot"; legend declared that this knot, which secured the yoke to the shaft of an archaic farm-wagon, had been tied by Gordius, the founder of the Phrygian

dynasty, and that whomsoever might unravel it should become lord of Asia. After Alexander's death Phrygia became a battle-ground for the contending forces of his former marshals. At first it formed the nucleus of the territory of Antigonos, who set up his capital at Celaenae; but after the decisive action at the neighboring site of Ipsus (301 BCE) it was transferred to Seleucus as an annex to the kingdom of Syria.

About 275 BCE all the Phrygian lands east of the Sangarius came into the possession of a horde of Celtic invaders from the Danube lands and was renamed Galatia. The western portion of Phrygia at the same time was taken from the kings of Syria by the newly-founded monarchy of Pergamum. For nearly a century the Phrygian territory remained a bone of contention between the kings of Pergamum and Syria and the Galatian Celts, until in 189 BCE the Romans expelled the Syrian kings from Asia Minor, confined the Celts to Galatia, and left the western half of the peninsula under the undisputed control of the Pergamene rulers. After the annexation of the Pergamene kingdom by Rome in 133 BCE, Phrygia west of the Sangarius became part of the province of Asia, and remained in this condition until c. 300 CE, when the emperor Diocletian constituted it into two independent provinces, Phrygia Prima and Secunda. Under the Byzantine empire the name Phrygia disappeared altogether.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 17 "Phrygia" pages 851-2

The name Pontus is a later simplification of "Cappadocia toward the Pontus" or "Pontic [ie, Maritime] Cappadocia." The ethnic affinities of the indigenous Cappadocians, whom the Greeks called Leucosyri or White Syrians, are a matter for conjecture; so too are those of the Chalybes, the Tibareni, the Mosynoeci and the Macrones, barbarous tribes who were still inhabiting the mountains in Strabo's time. The Chalybes, however, were credited with being the first workers of iron, and the mines of the eastern mountains provided much of the ancient world's supply of that metal. The Milesian Greeks established colonies on the coast at Sinope (Turkish, Sinop) and at Amisus (Samsun) in the 7th century BCE; and Cotyora, Cerasus and Trapezus (Trebizond) were colonized from Sinope. Trapezus exported iron from the hinterland; Sinope was an entrepot for this trade and for the grain sent from the opposite shores of the Euxene.

Little is known of the early kings. The emergence of the region as a political unit of international importance dates from the end of the 4th century BCE, when Mithridates I Ctistes (Κτίστης, the Founder), taking advantage of the situation created by the Wars of the Diadochi, established a new kingdom there. The capital was at first at Amasya (Amasia) on the Iris, where the rock-cut tombs of four of the new kings have been recognized; later it was transferred to Sinope. The dynasty reached the zenith of its power in Mithradates VI Eupator, later called the Great, whose sovereignty embraced not only a large Anatolian state but also the Greek colonies in what is now the Ukraine and the Crimea and who at one time came near to subduing Greece proper. Pompey conquered Pontus for Rome in 66 BCE, at the end of the Third Mithradatic War, driving the king from his country. Under Pompey's settlement the Ora Pontica or western part of the seaboard, from a point east of Heracleia (Eregli) to Amisus, was attached to Bithynia to form the province of Bithynia and Pontus; and the eastern part of the coast as far as Trapezus, with most of the hinterland, was assigned to the Galatians.

From Encyclopedia Britannica, 1959, Volume 18 "Pontus" page 213

Urartu is the Assyrian name for the country later called Armenia, and for its inhabitants. Herodotus's Alarodoi are the Urartaeans who after the immigration of the Armenians (after 600 BCE) retained or formed a distinct nation in the valley of the Araxes. The inhabitants of Urartu, however, in their cuneiform inscriptions call themselves *Chaldini* ("plural").

The writing of the cuneiform inscriptions of the Urartaeans was taken from the Assyrians; but whereas Assyrian is a Semitic language, Urartean is neither Semitic nor Indo-European. The Urartaeans or Chaldians must have immigrated from the west into what was then to a greater part called Naïri. Apparently Sardur I, son of Lutipris, who built a fort to the west of the rock of Van, out of huge stones brought from afar, united the "Naïri-countries" under his rule after a long war against the Assyrians about the time of Assurnasirabal II, the father of Shalmaneser III. This kingdom of Naïri was replaced by the kingdom of Urartu-Chaldia. Aram, who was the king of Urartu, was fought by Shalmaneser III (859 - 824 BCE), and so was his successor Sardur (Seduri II), father of King Ispuinis who chose the rock of Van for his residence and as the holy seat of the god Chaldis. Ispuinis was the contemporary of Adadnirari IV of Assyria - son of Shalmaneser III whom he fought successfully, these successes enabling him to found a Chaldian colony at Musasir, west of the pass of Kelishina. A bilingual Chaldian and Assyrian inscription was erected by Ispuinis upon this occasion.

Menuas, his son, was the mightiest and most successful of the Chaldian rulers. His greatest work is the aqueduct (the so-called Shamiramisu "river of Semiramis") more than 75 km. in length, irrigating the plain of Van and bringing drinkable water to the eastern borders of Lake Van (whose water is undrinkable), thus enabling him to found a "Menuas-city." Menuas was succeeded by Argistis I, a son, who left records of 14 years of his reign and his

successful wars, on the outer walls of the set of chambers hewn into the solid rock of Van. His son Sardur III, contemporary of Assurnirari (755 - 745 BCE) and of Tiglath-pileser III (745 - 727) of Assyria, was defeated by the latter, who destroyed the Menuas-city (735).

Rusas I (714 BCE), son of a Sardur, belonging to a side line of the dynasty, removed the capital to a hill called Toprakkalah in modern times, after digging an artificial lake, the outflow of which irrigated the side of the hill and the plain where he founded the Rusas-city. All this he recorded in a stela set up only a few years after the traditional date of the founding of Rome (754 BCE). Rusas I was a most energetic enemy of Sargon II of Assyria (722 - 705 BCE) against whom he summoned a coalition of the states of western Asia, of which Mardukabaliddin of Babylonia (the Merodach-Baladan of the Bible) probably was one. In a bilingual stela erected over against the capital of Musasir, which had developed into a sort of independent buffer state, Rusas commemorated his feats against Assyria in re-establishing Chaldian sovereignty and the petty king Urzana in Musasir.

But in 714 the Cimmerians, breaking into the north of Urartu through the passes of the Caucasus, drove Rusas to suicide. Sargon had made a raid into Urartu and on his return had conquered Musasir, robbing its temple and overthrowing and mutilating Rusas I's stela, which, however, was later re-erected, evidently by Rusas II, the grandson of Rusas I who once more restored the power of Chaldia. Rusas II used Cimmerian mercenaries in his combats with Esarhaddon of Assyria (680 - 668 BCE) and succeeded in getting rid of the bulk of the Cimmerians who went on to the west of Asia Minor. Rusas III, son of Erimenas, finished the temple of Chaldis on Toprakkalah. Sargon's sculpture of the temple of Musasir shows its front adorned with ornamented shields, a custom which the Chaldians had in common with the Cretans of Minoan times. Such shields, with inscriptions chiefly of Rusas III, were excavated in Toprakkalah. Their circular friezes are divided into semicircles upon which the animals are going in different directions so as to prevent any one appearing to stand on its head, a peculiarity only recurring on Cretan shields of the archaic period. The royal residence at Toprakkalah and the temple of Chaldis were evidently destroyed under Rusas III. The Medes must have overrun Urartu before they crossed arms with the Lydians on the Halys (May 28, 585 BCE).

The Chaldians must have come from more western parts of Asia Minor where they were in touch with elements of Minoan culture; their culture is principally western with only minor traces of Assyrian influence; they influenced archaic Greek art in their turn, and had peculiar relations to the Etruscans which were probably based on a former relatively close proximity. When the Armenians invaded Urartu, the Chaldians withdrew into the mountains keeping up their warlike spirit and their metallurgic accomplishments. They were also called Chalybes, probably from the name of the steel which they were the first to produce. The region south of Trebizond was one of the last resorts of the Chaldians.