

COMBINED  
VOLUME

MyHistoryLab™



# World Civilizations

SEVENTH EDITION

**The Global Experience**

STEARNS ■ ADAS ■ SCHWARTZ ■ GILBERT



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The Global Experience

Combined Volume

Seventh Edition

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# Preface

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World history explores the human past, around the globe, to help us understand the world we live in today. It seeks to identify how major forces have developed over time, like patterns of migration or world trade. It explores the cultures and political institutions of different regions, to help explain commonalities and differences. World history builds on a growing amount of historical scholarship, some of which has truly altered the picture of the past. It involves a rich array of stories and examples of human variety, intriguing in themselves. It helps develop skills that are vital not just to the history classroom, but to effective operation in a global society—skills like comparing different societies, appreciating various viewpoints, identifying big changes and continuities in the human experience. Always, however, it uses the past as a prologue to the present. World historians argue that no one society, past or present, can be understood without reference to other societies and to larger global forces. They argue, even more vigorously, that the present—which clearly involves relationships that embrace the whole world—cannot be grasped without a sense of the global historical record.

From its first edition, *World Civilizations: The Global Experience* has aimed at capturing a truly global approach by discussing and comparing major societies and focusing on their interactions. The goal is to present a clear factual framework while stimulating analysis about global contacts, regional patterns, and the whole process of change and continuity on a world stage. This kind of world history, focused on the development over time of the forces that shape the world today, helps students make sense of the present and prepare to meet the challenges of the future. It is hard to imagine a more important topic.

Embracing the whole world's history obviously requires selectivity and explicit points of emphasis. This text gains coherence through decisions about time, about place, and about topic. In all three cases, the book encourages analysis, relating facts to vital issues of interpretation. Through analysis and interpretation students become active, engaged learners, rather than serving as passive vessels for torrents of historical facts. Underpinning analysis, the issues of time, place, and topic are the three keys to an intelligible global past.

## DECISIONS ABOUT TIME: PERIODIZATION

This text pays a great deal of attention to periodization, or the identification of major points of change in the global experience. This is an essential requirement for coherent presentation—going well beyond the one-thing-after-another type of chronology—and ultimately a precondition of relating the past to the present.

*World Civilizations: The Global Experience* identifies six periods in world history. Each period is determined by three basic criteria: a geographical rebalancing among major civilizational areas, an increase in the intensity and extent of contact across civilizations (or, in the case of the earliest period, cross-regional contact), and the emergence of new and roughly parallel developments in many major civilizations. The book is divided into six parts corresponding to these six major periods of world history. In each part, basic characteristics of each period are referred to in chapters that discuss the major societies in the Middle East, Africa, Asia, Europe, and the Americas, and in several cross-cutting chapters that address larger world trends. Each period offers a distinctive set of themes, or Big Concepts, that are defined in general terms and then explored in terms of particular regions. Part introductions identify the fundamental new characteristics and new levels of interaction that define each period.

Part I, *Early Human Societies, 2.5 Million–600 B.C.E.: Origins and Development*, sketches the hunting-and-gathering phase of human existence, then focuses on the rise of agriculture and the emergence of civilization in parts of Asia, Africa, Central America, and southeastern Europe—the sequence of developments that set world history in motion from the origin of the human species until about 3000 years ago.

Part II, *The Classical Period, 600 B.C.E.–600 C.E.: Uniting Large Regions*, deals with the growing complexity of major civilizations in several areas of the world. During the classical period, civilizations developed a new capacity to integrate large regions and diverse groups of people through overarching cultural and political systems. Yet many regions and societies remained unconnected to the increasingly complex centers of civilization. Coverage of the classical period of world history, then, must consider both types of societies.

The period covered in Part III, *The Postclassical Period, 600–1450: New Faith and New Commerce*, saw the emergence of new commercial and cultural linkages that brought most civilizations into contact with one another and with nomadic groups. The decline of the great classical empires, the rise of new civilizational centers, and the emergence of a network of world contacts, including the spread of major religions, are characteristics of the postclassical era.

Developments in world history over the three centuries from 1450 to 1750 mark a fourth period in world history, which is covered in Part IV, *The Early Modern Period, 1450–1750: The World Shrinks*. The rise of the West, the intensification of global contacts, the growth of trade, and the formation of new empires define this period and separate it from the preceding postclassical period.

Part V, *The Dawn of the Industrial Age, 1750–1900*, covers the period of world history dominated by the advent of industrialization in western Europe and growing European imperialism.

The increase and intensification of commercial interchange, technological innovations, and cultural contacts all reflected the growth of Western power and the spread of Western influence.

*The Newest Stage of World History: 1900–Present*, the focus of Part VI, defines the characteristics of this period as the retreat of Western imperialism, the rise of new political systems such as communism, the surge of the United States and the Soviet Union, and a variety of economic innovations, including the achievements of Japan, China, Korea, and the Pacific Rim. Part VI deals with this most recent period of world history and some of its portents for the future.

## UNDERLYING ISSUES

Two related themes and one standard historical complexity rise above the six-stage world history periodization. The first involves the interaction between tradition and change—and in recent periods, modern change. Many societies established key ideas and institutions early on, at least by the classical period. These traditions would then condition responses to change and modernity. Elements of this interplay become visible from the post-classical period onward; the tradition-change encounter remains vivid in the 21st century, though in forms very different from a thousand years ago. Each world history period involves important shifts in the interaction between change and tradition.

Theme two involves divergence and convergence. Societies emerged separately in many parts of the world, though the process was almost always affected by some wider contacts. This is part of the first phase of the human experience. Separation, or divergence, did not always mean difference, for many societies solved key problems in similar ways; but it did tend to produce separate identities. With growing contacts over time, opportunities and pressures produced various forms of imitation and convergence. The interplay between divergence and convergence is lively in the 21st century, but its shape has changed greatly over time. Here, too, each period involves a different statement of the balance between divergence and convergence.

Periodization emphasizes change, including changes in the basic frameworks in which traditions interacted with new forces and in which separate identities confronted new levels of convergence. Always, however, change must be complicated by recognition of key continuities from the past. At various points in human history, including recently, huge new forces prompt some people to claim that “everything has changed.” In fact, strong traces of the past always linger. The challenge is to figure out how the balance works.

## PLACE: REGIONS AND CIVILIZATIONS

Usable world history requires decisions about coherence in place as well as time. Even in the present day, and certainly in the past, key developments did not occur evenly across the whole globe: regional conditions always come into play. At the same time, not every definable society can be encompassed—early hunting-and-gathering

bands of humans, after all, could number no more than sixty people. No world history survey can even approach that level of detail. World history seeks legitimate ways to define larger regions and societies that serve as the basis for meaningful contacts and reactions to global forces.

Major regions of the world depend on a combination of geography and historical developments in the form of shared institutions and beliefs. This book uses several regions as frameworks for discussing patterns of activity and larger interactions: east Asia; south and southeast Asia; the Middle East, ultimately with the addition of north Africa; sub-Saharan Africa; Europe, often with some division between eastern and western; and the Americas. Australia and key island groups, and also patterns in central Asia, must be added in as well.

In several regions, beginning in key cases several thousand years ago, major civilizations helped organize and define regional characteristics. East Asia, to take one example, would be profoundly shaped by emerging features of Chinese civilization. Civilizations used economic surpluses, beyond basic survival needs, to generate relatively elaborate political institutions, cities, and trading networks. They also emphasized particular kinds of institutional arrangements and value systems that would provide a recognizable identity, differentiating their civilization from other societies. Using, but also debating, the concept of civilization helps organize the geographical foundation of world history by introducing not only key regions but regional characteristics and identities. Civilizations provide the basis for key comparisons, with each other and in terms of regional reactions to larger forces for change. The internal developments in major civilizations, along with mutual interaction and responses to broader factors like migration or missionary religions, form much of the stuff of world history for the past 5000 years. At the same time, other types of societies, including nomadic groups, played a vital role throughout world history, particularly as they long dominated strategically vital regions like central Asia. Most of these other societies were smaller than civilizations, in terms of population, but they played crucial functions in world history and developed successful cultural and institutional forms.

Attention to the major regions of the world does more than set the stage for comparative analysis in each of the chronological periods in world history. It also promotes a sense of geographic balance that is vital to the field. Many earlier historical efforts understandably focused on developments in one’s own society, assuming that the rest of the world was unimportant or somehow revolved around what was happening nearer home. Until recently, many Americans were urged to pay primary attention to the history of western Europe and the expansion of Western civilization across the Atlantic. These remain valid themes, but in the world history context they become only a part of a larger and more complicated civilizational pattern. The transition from Western to world history is still under discussion, but the global context gains ground steadily because it more accurately mirrors the world around us today. This book, paying attention to Western developments as part of the larger world story, and showing their interaction with other societies and other influences, strives to distribute appropriate attention to all the major regions and to their changing roles in the larger global story.

## TOPICS AND THEMES

A final way to focus world history, intersecting with decisions about time and place, involves the kinds of human and social activities that are highlighted. The first theme follows obviously from the uses of periodization and the need to deal coherently with world history over time: *World Civilizations: The Global Experience* deals consistently with change and continuity and with the causes of basic changes in global dynamics from one period to the next.

Interactions among the major regions and societies, the second theme, focus attention on the ways individual regions and civilizations were shaped by contacts with other areas. Contacts include trade, of course, but also war, diplomacy, and international organizations from religious entities to the multinational companies and global agencies of more modern times.

A cluster of factors deal with economic activities and population patterns as they affect people, societies, and the environment. Technology has a key role here, but also population structures and disease, labor systems, migrations, plus manufacturing and agriculture. Each civilization must be discussed with these patterns in mind, as well as the broader diffusion of trade, technologies, and population exchange as they formed core parts of the larger patterns of interaction.

Each society featured characteristic social and gender structures that organized and tried to justify various systems of inequality. Dealing with how social systems changed over time and comparing them from one region to the next are core features of world history; social systems could also be affected by changing patterns of contact.

The fifth thematic area clusters around culture—belief systems, values, and artistic styles—as these emerged in religions, intellectual systems, and science. Here too, change over time and the results of interactions among societies form key elements in the cultural dynamics of world history.

Finally, politics demands emphasis: the functions and structures of states, as they formed and changed, along with ideas about politics and political identity (political culture). In modern centuries, this topic embraces the emergence of nation states and also their limitations in global context.

The topical themes of this book help organize discussions of change over time but also the possibility of developing comparisons from one society to the next. Interactions among the themes—how new trading patterns affected, and were affected by, cultural systems, for example—help structure more challenging analytical efforts.

### What Is New to This Edition?

The seventh edition of *World Civilizations: The Global Experience* has been revised to reflect the latest developments in historical research and benefits from the addition of a host of new features to assist student learning. The most significant pedagogical innovation has been the seamless integration of documents, maps, videos, illustrations, and other resources from MyHistoryLab into the textbook. A new pedagogically driven design highlights a clear learning path through the material and offers a visually stunning learning experience in print or on a screen. With the Pearson eText, featuring a new streamlined design for tablet devices, students can transition

directly to MyHistoryLab resources such as primary source documents, videos, and maps.

Learning Objective questions have been added to each chapter to highlight central themes and ideas. Each question is linked to one of the chapter's main sections. Critical Thinking Questions were added at the end of each chapter to reinforce important concepts covered in the chapter and to serve as possible essay or class discussion topics. Further Readings were updated in most chapters, bringing the scholarship for the new edition up-to-date. In many chapters, the authors reference cultural regions that were underrepresented in earlier editions of the book—particularly the Middle East and Oceania.

Specific changes in the content of this edition are as follows:

- In Chapter 1, there are new sections on animism and pastoralism and the section on first cities has been expanded.
- In Chapter 3, there is an increased focus on environmental factors.
- Chapter 4 features an increased emphasis on the impact of political and technical change on the environment. Also, there are extensive changes in the Further Readings.
- Chapter 5 includes expanded treatment of Persia.
- In Chapter 7, there is now a comparison of Roman and Chinese empires. Coverage of Rome's development has been expanded and there is new coverage of Rome's environmental impact. Finally, there is a new section called Cities of the World: Rome
- Chapter 8 now includes an explanation of the Mayan system of assigning dates to events and features expanded coverage of Chavín culture.
- In the Chapter 9 Further Readings, scholarship on New Zealand has been added or updated.
- In Chapter 10, the section on the Spread of World Religions has been expanded.
- Chapter 12, the discussion of Sufis and their roles in science and philosophy has been expanded.
- Chapter 14 includes increased coverage of the Byzantine Empire. Also, there are new sections titled Cities in World History: Kiev and Global Connections and Critical Themes: Eastern Europe and the World.
- Chapter 16 features a stronger, more effective comparison of Aztecs and Incas.
- Chapter 18 includes new coverage of the importance of women in Vietnamese resistance movements and in society in general.
- In Chapter 19, the Further Readings have been expanded.
- Chapter 20 includes expanded coverage of the fifteenth century as a transition. There is a new section called The Structure of Transregional Trade. Coverage of critical themes of the Italian Renaissance has been revised. And there is new coverage of the impact of the Mongol era.
- In Chapter 22, there is expanded coverage of changes during the early modern period and an explanation of cultural changes during the 18th century.
- Chapter 23 now has added material on the Columbian exchange and the early Caribbean.
- Chapter 24 features expanded sections on slaves and sugar plantations. There is new coverage of Africans in the



Americas and African actions in era of emancipation. Data on the African slave trade has been updated.

- Chapter 25, formerly Chapter 23 in the sixth edition, has been relocated to facilitate comparison with other gunpowder empires. Also, there is expanded coverage of Russian societal changes.
- In Chapter 26, the new edition includes a greater emphasis on flourishing cities and there are further efforts to avoid the outdated Ottoman decline refrain.
- Chapter 27 has an expanded section on the Jesuits' influence with the Qing emperors and their eventual failure to convert. There is a new section on the Tokugawa system of controlling allied and vassal daimyos.
- Chapter 28 expands the definition of the Industrial Revolution and includes a discussion on the Second Industrial Revolution.
- Chapter 29 now contains more information on technology and militaries and emphasizes the role of soldiers that Europeans recruited in colonies from Vietnam to India.
- In Chapter 31, several section titles were changed to clarify or bring them into accord with recent scholarship.
- In Chapter 33, the introduction to the Document has been revised with additional information.
- Chapter 34 includes expanded information on Stalin.
- Chapter 35 features further clarification on World War II and the Cold War as well as expanded coverage of key points throughout the chapter.
- Chapter 37 has expanded coverage of leadership in Cuba and Brazil. There is also expanded coverage of female leadership in Latin America. The population table has been updated and there are updates on the political situation in Cuba, Mexico, and Brazil. Finally, there is a closer examination of Latin America's leftward swing.
- In Chapter 38, coverage of environmental factors and the impact of massive population increase and migration to urban centers has been expanded.
- Chapter 39 has a new short section on U.S. efforts to promote Japanese reconstruction in the era of the Korean and Vietnam wars as well as enhanced coverage of U.S./China relations through the present. There is expanded information on China's environment and population and the regime-made famine linked to the Great Leap Forward.
- In Chapter 40, the world events timeline has been updated and there is new coverage of the Arab Spring.
- Chapter 41 features new and expanded sections on Globalization and Global Industrialization. There are new sections on the Global Environment and Global Disease and there is new information on global environmental issues.

## FEATURES

The features in *World Civilizations: The Global Experience* have been carefully constructed and honed over the course of seven editions. Our aim has been to provide students with tools to help them learn how to analyze change and continuity.

## Part Introductions

Part introductions, reviewed for this edition, discuss the conditions that set the stage for the developments that define each new period in world history. They identify the characteristics of the period of world history covered in the part, and recap the continuities that exist from one period to the next. Two world maps at the beginning of each part introduction provide a graphic reference for the major changes of the period. Part timelines list the major events of the chronological period covered.

**PART I**  
The Dawn of the Industrial Age, 1750–1900

**THE OVERVIEW**  
M ore than a social story for the “long” 19th century, a period whose characteristics are seen from the 16th century to 1900, a century that led to the industrial revolution, the dawn of the modern world, and the beginning of the modern era, this part of the world in what began to be called the industrial revolution. The industrial revolution was a period of rapid technological and scientific advancement, which transformed the world and gave rise to a new era of global interconnectedness. It was a time when the world was transformed by the power of the steam engine, the factory, and the mass production of goods. The industrial revolution was a period of rapid technological and scientific advancement, which transformed the world and gave rise to a new era of global interconnectedness. It was a time when the world was transformed by the power of the steam engine, the factory, and the mass production of goods. The industrial revolution was a period of rapid technological and scientific advancement, which transformed the world and gave rise to a new era of global interconnectedness. It was a time when the world was transformed by the power of the steam engine, the factory, and the mass production of goods.

**PART OUTLINE**

Chapter 28: The Emergence of Industrial Society in the West, 1750–1814	Chapter 31: Collaboration in Asia: The Opium Empire, the Opium Wars, and the Rise of China
Chapter 29: Industrialization and Imperialism: The Making of the Modern World Order	Chapter 32: Russia and Japan Industrialize Outside the West
Chapter 30: The Consolidation of Latin America, 1800–1900	

## End-of-Part Analysis

Following the final chapter in each part is an essay that revisits the dominant cross-civilizational (or cross-regional) contacts and divisions that occurred during the era under examination. These sections encourage analysis of the dominant contact patterns in the period as well as the relationship to them of major individual societies.

**PART IV**  
REVISITING  
The Early Modern Period

**CONTACTS AND THEIR LIMITS**  
I n the course of world history, after the basic changes during the early modern period passed their peak, the world began to see a new era of global interconnectedness. This era was characterized by a new wave of global interconnectedness, which was driven by the power of the steam engine, the factory, and the mass production of goods. The industrial revolution was a period of rapid technological and scientific advancement, which transformed the world and gave rise to a new era of global interconnectedness. It was a time when the world was transformed by the power of the steam engine, the factory, and the mass production of goods.

## Chapter Introductions

Each chapter introduction tells a compelling story about a particular pattern, individual, or incident to spark students' interest and introduce chapter material in an engaging and dramatic way. The opening story concludes with an explanation of how the story relates to the chapter content and the key themes and analytical issues that will be examined in the chapter.

# 14 Civilization in Eastern Europe: Byzantine and Orthodox Europe

**LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

- 14.1 Analyze the role of the Eastern Roman Empire in the development of Byzantine and Orthodox Europe.
- 14.2 Analyze the role of the Eastern Roman Empire in the development of Byzantine and Orthodox Europe.
- 14.3 Analyze the role of the Eastern Roman Empire in the development of Byzantine and Orthodox Europe.
- 14.4 Analyze the role of the Eastern Roman Empire in the development of Byzantine and Orthodox Europe.
- 14.5 Analyze the role of the Eastern Roman Empire in the development of Byzantine and Orthodox Europe.

**Watch the Video Series on MyHistoryLab**

Learn about some key topics related to this chapter with the MyHistoryLab video series in World History.

Second, check on what's found in Russia, too. Vladimir had knowledge of Islam, Judaism, Western Catholicism, and Byzantine, or Orthodox, Christianity, yet he chose to reject Islam because it was not associated with a strong state. He rejected Catholicism because of its rejection of the emperor as the head of the church. He chose Byzantine Christianity because of its emphasis on the emperor as the head of the church.

Vladimir's decision was not without its own problems. The Byzantine empire was a vast, multi-ethnic empire, but it was not a unified state. It was a collection of different peoples, each with its own language and customs. Vladimir had to choose between the different peoples of the empire. He chose the Byzantine people because of their strong state and their emphasis on the emperor as the head of the church.

Vladimir's decision was not without its own problems. Additional Byzantine influences from the East had been in contact with the Slavic peoples of Eastern Europe. Byzantine missionaries had been working in the region for centuries. They had been successful in converting some of the Slavic peoples to Christianity. Vladimir's decision to adopt Byzantine Christianity was a continuation of this process.

**CIVILIZATION IN EASTERN EUROPE**

14.1 What was the relationship between the Byzantine Empire and the other Eastern European and West European empires and empires?

14.2 How did the Byzantine Empire influence the development of Eastern European and West European empires and empires?

14.3 How did the Byzantine Empire influence the development of Eastern European and West European empires and empires?

14.4 How did the Byzantine Empire influence the development of Eastern European and West European empires and empires?

14.5 How did the Byzantine Empire influence the development of Eastern European and West European empires and empires?



**CHAPTER 14 Civilization in Eastern Europe: Byzantine and Orthodox Europe 491**

# 22.4 VISUALIZING THE PAST Versailles

**View the Closer Look on MyHistoryLab: Versailles**



**QUESTIONS**

- What kinds of intentions on the part of Louis and his advisors does this building represent?
- How can Versailles be interpreted as a statement of absolute monarchy?
- What would the palace represent to an ordinary French person? To an aristocrat?

The palace at Versailles.

## Timelines

In addition to the timeline in each part introduction, each chapter includes a timeline that orients the student to the period, countries, and key events of the chapter.

21.1	21.2	21.3	21.4
<b>1400 c.e.</b>	<b>1500 c.e.</b>	<b>1600 c.e.</b>	<b>1700 c.e.</b>
<b>1394–1460</b> Life of Prince Henry the Navigator <b>1433</b> China ends its great expeditions <b>1484</b> Portugal extends expeditions along west African coast <b>1488</b> Portuguese round Cape of Good Hope <b>1492</b> Columbus's first expedition <b>1497–1498</b> Vasco da Gama sails to India	<b>1509</b> First Spanish colonies on Latin American mainland <b>1514</b> Portuguese expedition to Indonesia <b>1519–1521</b> Magellan circumnavigates the globe <b>1534</b> First French explorations in Canada <b>1542</b> Portuguese reach Japan <b>1562</b> Britain begins its slave trade <b>1571</b> Ottoman fleet defeated in Battle of Lepanto <b>1588</b> British defeat Spanish Armada <b>1597</b> Japan begins isolation policy	<b>1607</b> First permanent British colony in Virginia <b>1608</b> First French colonies in Canada; England gains first trading concession in India <b>1641</b> Dutch begin conquests of Java (Indonesia) <b>1652</b> Dutch launch colony in southern Africa	<b>1744</b> French–British wars in India <b>1756–1763</b> Seven Years War in Europe, India, and North America <b>1763</b> British acquire New France <b>1775–1783</b> American Revolution <b>1756</b> “Black hole” of Calcutta <b>1764</b> East India Company controls Bengal

## Learning Objectives

Each of the main chapter headings is followed by a Learning Objective for the section that follows. These Learning Objectives also appear on the first page of the chapter, giving students an idea of important concepts they will encounter when reading the chapter.

## Section-Opening Focal Points

Focal points listed next to each of the main chapter headings identify for the student the principal points to be explored in the section.

## Visualizing the Past

The Visualizing the Past feature of each chapter supports visual literacy by showing students how to read and analyze visual material such as maps, charts, graphs, tables, or photos to interpret historical patterns. Text accompanying the illustrations provides a level of analysis, and a series of questions draws the students into providing their own analyses.

## Documents

Substantial excerpts from selected original documents put students in contact with diverse voices of the past, and many have been revised for this edition. We share a firm commitment to include social history involving women, the non-elite, and experiences and events outside the spheres of politics and high culture. Each document is preceded by a brief scene-setting narration and followed by probing questions to guide the reader through an understanding of the document and to encourage interpretive reflections and analysis.

# DOCUMENT Western Conquerors: Tactics and Motives

**DOCUMENT**

**Western Conquerors: Tactics and Motives**

In 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed to the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas.

**DOCUMENT**


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**DOCUMENT**

**Western Conquerors: Tactics and Motives**

In 1492, Christopher Columbus sailed to the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas. He was the first European to reach the Americas.



**FIGURE 21.4** British naval power showed its might in 1759, when it defeated the French fleet in the Battle of the Clouds. The British fleet was the largest in the world at the time.

**CHAPTER 21 The World Since 1500 499**

## Thinking Historically

Each chapter contains an analytical essay on a topic of broad application related to the chapter's focus but extending across chronological and geographical boundaries. Critical thinking questions at the end of each essay prompt the reader to think beyond the “who, what, where, and when” of historical events and consider instead the far-reaching implications of historical developments.



# Supplementary Instructional Materials

## FOR INSTRUCTORS

## FOR STUDENTS

**Break Through to Improving Results with MyHistoryLab** ([www.myhistorylab.com](http://www.myhistorylab.com)) MyHistoryLab helps students better prepare for class, quizzes, and exams—resulting in more dynamic experiences in the classroom and improved performance in the course. And, the immersive Pearson eText—with videos and interactive activities just a click away—truly engages students in their study of history, and fosters learning within and beyond the classroom.

**Instructor's Resource Center** [www.pearsonhighered.com/irc](http://www.pearsonhighered.com/irc) This website provides instructors with additional text-specific resources that can be downloaded for classroom use. Resources include the Instructor's Resource Manual, PowerPoint presentations, and the Test Item File. Register online for access to the resources for *World Civilizations*, Seventh Edition.

**CourseSmart** [www.coursemart.com](http://www.coursemart.com) CourseSmart eTextbooks offer the same content as the printed text in a convenient online format—with highlighting, online search, and printing capabilities. For more information, or to purchase access to the CourseSmart eTextbook, visit [www.coursemart.com](http://www.coursemart.com)

**Instructor's Resource Manual** Available at the Instructor's Resource Center, at [www.pearsonhighered.com/irc](http://www.pearsonhighered.com/irc), the Instructor's Resource Manual contains learning objectives from the text, chapter outlines, chapter summaries that cover each section in the text, key terms from the text, lecture suggestions, and class discussion questions. It also contains a MyHistoryLab syllabus and suggestions for integrating MyHistoryLab into your course.

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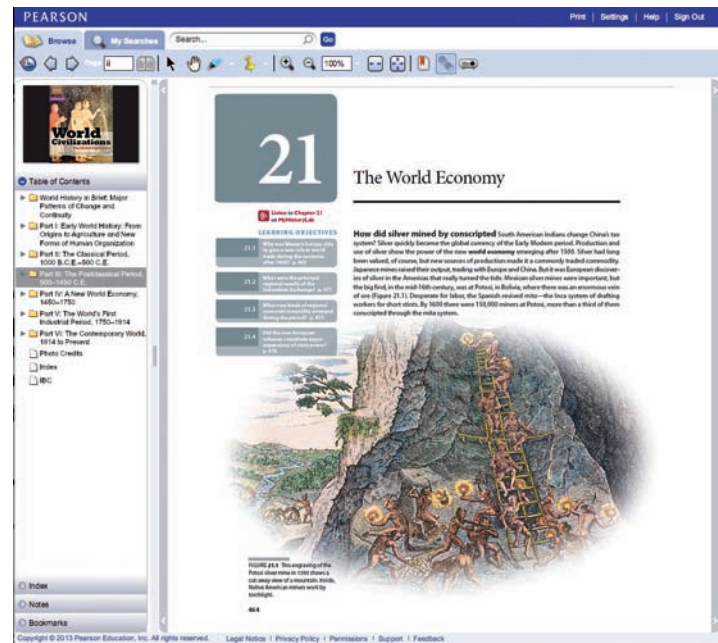
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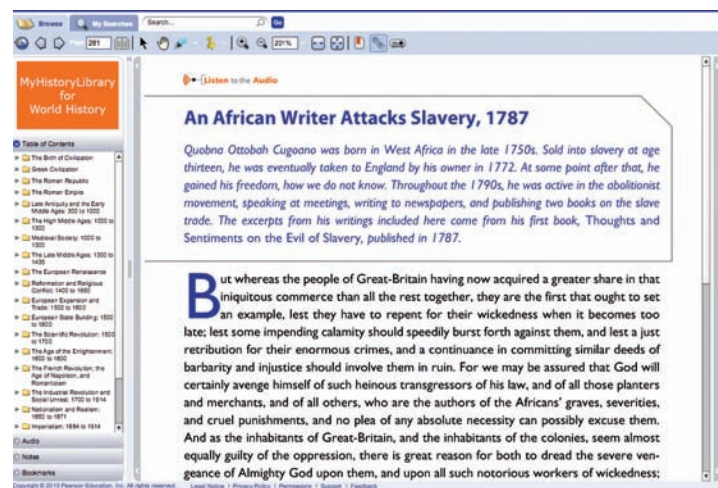
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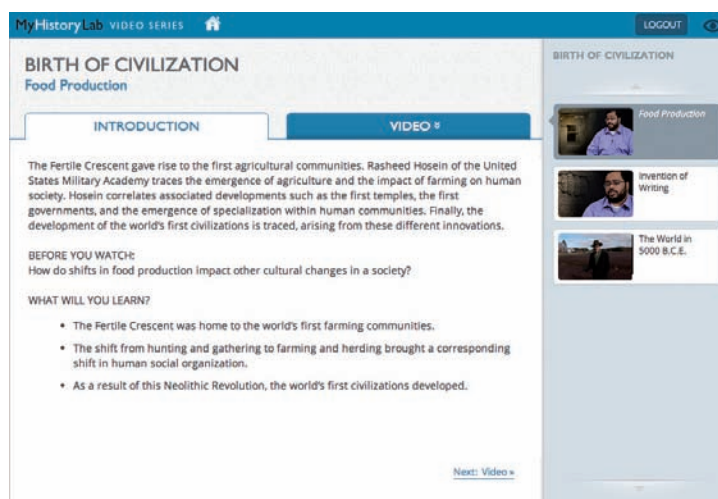
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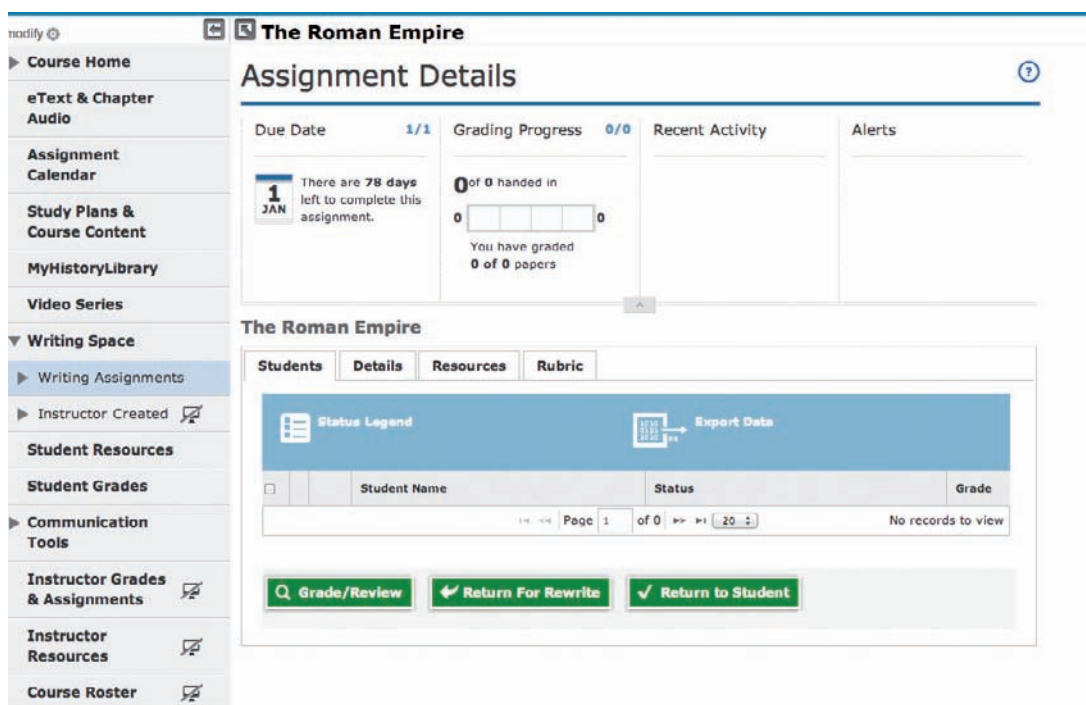
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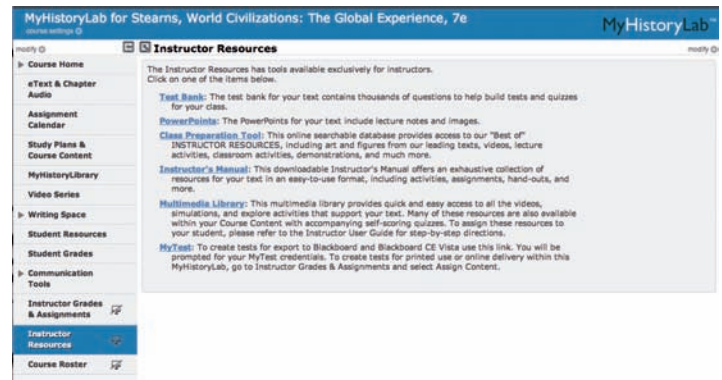
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Stuart B. Schwartz was born and educated in Springfield, Massachusetts, and then attended Middlebury College and the Universidad Autonoma de Mexico. He has an M.A. and Ph.D. from Columbia University in Latin American history. He taught for many years at the University of Minnesota and joined

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# World Civilizations

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# Prologue

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The study of history is the study of the past. Knowledge of the past gives us perspective on our societies today. It shows different ways in which people have identified problems and tried to resolve them, as well as important common impulses in the human experience. History can inform through its variety, remind us of some human constants, and provide a common vocabulary and examples that aid in mutual communication.

The study of history is also the study of change. Historians analyze major changes in the human experience over time and examine the ways in which those changes connect the past to the present. They try to distinguish between superficial and fundamental change, as well as between sudden and gradual change. They explain why change occurs and what impact it has. Finally, they pinpoint continuities from the past along with innovations. History, in other words, is a study of human society in motion.

World history has become a subject in its own right. It involves the study of historical events in a global context. It does not attempt to sum up everything that has happened in the past. World history focuses on two principal subjects: the evolution of leading societies and the interaction among different peoples around the globe.

## THE EMERGENCE OF WORLD HISTORY

Serious attempts to deal with world history are relatively recent. Many historians have attempted to locate the evolution of their own societies in the context of developments in a larger “known world”: Herodotus, though particularly interested in the origins of Greek culture, wrote also of developments around the Mediterranean; Ibn Khaldun wrote of what he knew about developments in Africa and Europe as well as in the Muslim world. But not until the 20th century, with an increase in international contacts and a vastly expanded knowledge of the historical patterns of major societies, did a full world history become possible. In the West, world history depended on a growing realization that the world could not be understood simply as a mirror reflecting the West’s greater glory or as a stage for Western-dominated power politics. This hard-won realization continues to meet some resistance. Nevertheless, historians in several societies have attempted to develop an international approach to the subject that includes, but goes beyond, merely establishing a context for the emergence of their own civilizations.

Our understanding of world history has been increasingly shaped by two processes that define historical inquiry: detective work and debate. Historians are steadily uncovering new data not just about particular societies but about lesser-known contacts. Looking at a variety of records and artifacts, for example, they

learn how an 8th-century battle between Arab and Chinese forces in central Asia brought Chinese prisoners who knew how to make paper to the Middle East, where their talents were quickly put to work. And they argue about world history frameworks: how central European actions should be in the world history of the past 500 years, and whether a standard process of modernization is useful or distorting in measuring developments in modern Turkey or China. Through debate come advances in how world history is understood and conceptualized, just as the detective work advances the factual base.

## WHAT CIVILIZATION MEANS

Humans have always shown a tendency to operate in groups that provide a framework for economic activities, governance, and cultural forms such as beliefs and artistic styles. These groups, or societies, may be quite small; hunting-and-gathering bands often numbered no more than 60 people. World history usually focuses on somewhat larger societies, with more extensive economic relationships (at least for trade) and cultures.

One vital kind of grouping is called civilization. The idea of civilization as a type of human society is central to most world history, though it also generates debate and though historians are now agreed that it is not the only kind of grouping that warrants attention. Civilizations, unlike some other societies, generate surpluses beyond basic survival needs. This in turn promotes a variety of specialized occupations and heightened social differentiation, as well as regional and long-distance trading networks. Surplus production also spurs the growth of cities and the development of formal states, with some bureaucracy, in contrast to more informal methods of governing. Most civilizations have also developed systems of writing.

Civilizations are not necessarily better than other kinds of societies. Nomadic groups have often demonstrated great creativity in technology and social relationships, and some were more vigorous than settled civilizations in promoting global contacts. Moreover, there is disagreement about exactly what defines a civilization—for example, what about cases like the Incas where there was no writing?

Used carefully, however, the idea of civilization as a form of human social organization, and an unusually extensive one, has merit. Along with agriculture (which developed earlier), civilizations have given human groups the capacity to fundamentally reshape their environments and to dominate most other living creatures. The history of civilizations embraces most of the people who have ever lived; their literature, formal scientific discoveries, art, music, architecture, and inventions; their most elaborate social,

political, and economic systems; their brutality and destruction caused by conflicts; their exploitation of other species; and their degradation of the environment—a result of changes in technology and the organization of work.

The study of civilizations always involves more, however, than case-by-case detail. World history makes sense only if civilizations are compared, rather than treated separately. Equally important, civilizations (and other societies) developed important mutual

contacts, which could have wide impact in reshaping several societies at the same time. And civilizations responded to still wider forces, like migration, disease, or missionary activity, that could reshape the frameworks within which they operated. Civilizations in these wider contexts—as they changed through internal dynamics, mutual interactions, and responses to broader forces—form the basic patterns of world history for the past 5000 years.



# Early Human Societies, 2.5 million–600 B.C.E.: Origins and Development



These prehistoric paintings of animals, on the wall of a cave in Lascaux, France, date from 15,000 to 10,000 B.C.E. They show the centrality of meat, hides, and bones taken from wild animals in the economy and symbolism of hunting and gathering peoples.

## PART OUTLINE

- Chapter 1** The Neolithic Revolution and the Birth of Civilization
- Chapter 2** The Rise of Civilization in the Middle East and Africa

- Chapter 3** Asia's First Civilizations: India and China



## THE OVERVIEW: MIGRATIONS AND REVOLUTIONARY CHANGES IN HUMAN ECONOMY AND ORGANIZATION

The earliest known, fully human species lived in east Africa about 2.5 million years ago. Gradually, humans developed a more erect stance and greater brain capacity. Early humans lived by hunting and gathering. Because hunting-and-gathering economies require a great deal of space—on average about 2.5 square miles per person—populations remained small, and people lived in small groups. Even a modest population increase in a hunting-and-gathering group required part of the group to migrate in search of new game. Tens of thousands of years ago, the most advanced of the human species, *Homo sapiens sapiens*, migrated from Africa into the Middle East, then into Europe and Asia, and later into Australia and the Americas. Early humans developed tools, first using stones, sticks, and other natural objects. Gradually, people learned to fashion tools and weapons from stone, bone, and wood.

Domestication of animals and techniques of crop growing ultimately created alternatives to the hunting-and-gathering economy. Herding activities constituted one option, but agriculture was the more important innovation. Agriculture began at different times in different places, from about 10,000 years ago onward. It developed independently in at least three regions and perhaps more. The top map on the next page shows the early centers of food production. Gradually, agriculture spread widely, although not universally, from these initial centers.

The development of agriculture was a radical change in humans' way of life. By providing a dependable source of food, it allowed people to live in larger groups. Later on, toolmaking technology advanced with the discovery of metalworking, which in turn further increased agricultural production. Increased production freed some members of the society to perform other kinds of work. This in turn encouraged a further series of organizational changes we call civilization.

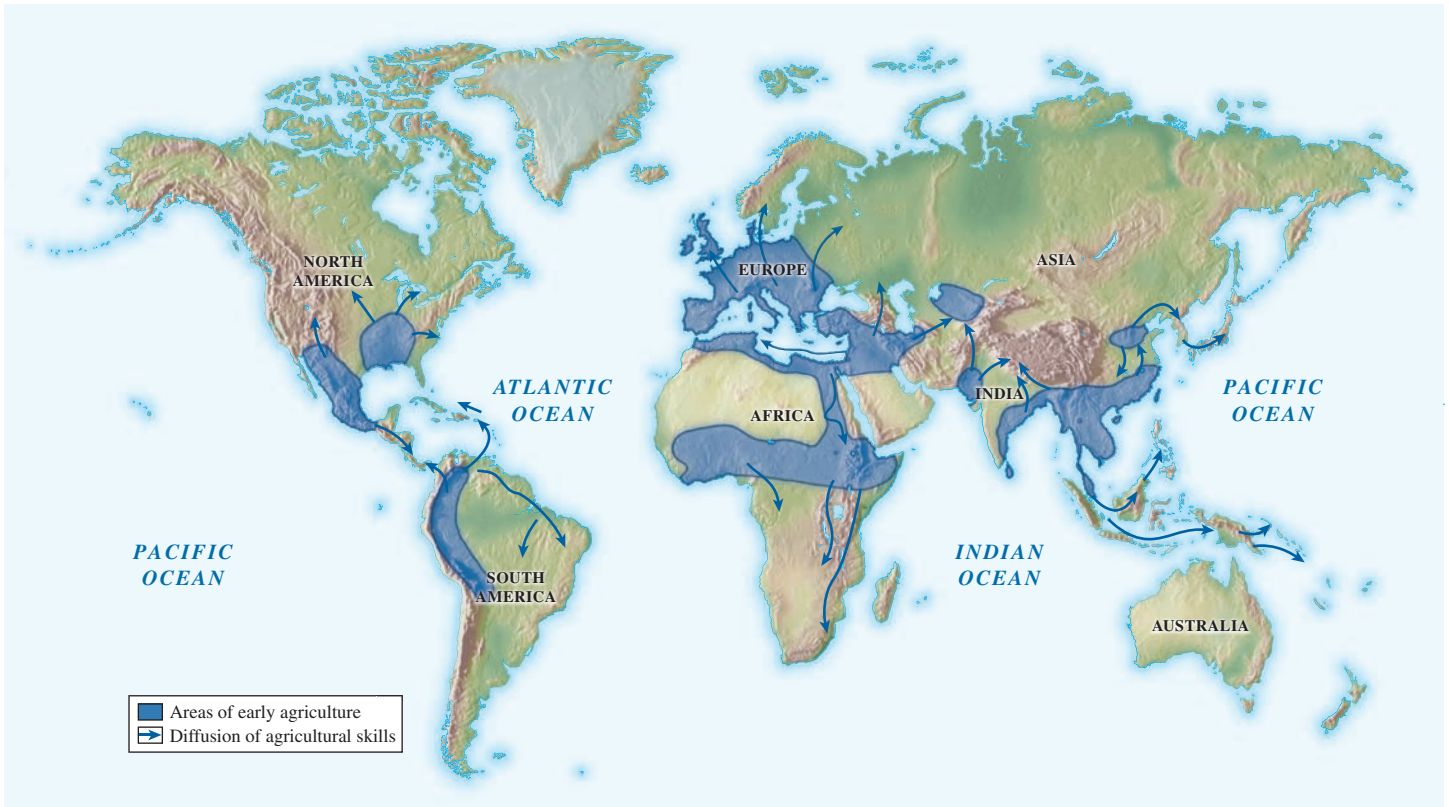
Early civilizations arose in several different sites, four of them along the fertile shores of great rivers. Most of these early civilizations arose independently of each other. The map of early civilizations on the bottom of the next page makes another point clear: large parts of the world were not involved in these developments. Early world history focuses on agricultural civilizations, but it must also pay attention to regions that developed different kinds of economies and different organizational structures.

### Big Concepts

Each of the key phases of the long period of early human history (2.5 million B.C.E.–1000 B.C.E.) can be characterized by a central topic or Big Concept. The first of these is the development of human hunting skills, the adaptation of those skills to the shifting geography and climate of the ice age, and above all the patterns of human migration that brought humans to so many different areas. The second Big Concept is the rise of agriculture and the changes in technology associated with the Neolithic revolution (9000 and 4000 B.C.E.). These changes set in motion the agricultural phase of the human experience that lasted until just a few centuries ago. The final Big Concept is the appearance of increasingly distinctive human societies through agriculture or nomadic pastoralism, and the earliest contacts among these first societies, particularly after 3500 B.C.E. when larger and more formally organized societies,



Bone tools show the increasing intentionality of tool use among hunting and gathering peoples, as implements were shaped for various purposes.



Initial Centers and Spread of Agriculture



Early Centers of Civilization

often with early cities as well, emerged and began to develop more consistent patterns of interregional trade.

## TRIGGERS FOR CHANGE

The key story in the long early phases of human history focuses on adaptation to environments, and particularly the search for adequate food supplies. Humans still react to their environment, but the process was more apparent in earlier periods, when human ability to control aspects of the environment was less well developed. The early changes in human history—evolutionary development, more advanced tool-making, and the extensive migrations—all occurred within the context of a hunting-and-gathering economy.

About ten thousand years ago, in the Black Sea region, hunting became less productive. With the end of the ice age, climate changes may have reduced big game animals in the region. Perhaps a human population increase led to excessive hunting, depleting the supply of animals. Hunting groups sometimes deliberately killed off too much game, far more than needed, with the unintended consequence of producing a food crisis; human impact on the environment began early. Whatever the causes of the shortage, people were forced to look for new sources of food. Women, as gatherers, had undoubtedly become aware of the possibility of deliberately

planting seeds and harvesting grain. Thus the rise of agriculture was under way.

Even the advent of new social organizations associated with civilization involved efforts at greater environmental control. Early civilizations provided social structures that could coordinate projects like irrigation. Early civilizations also emerged after the invention of new kinds of tools. The wheel and metal hand tools, initially of bronze, could increase agricultural production and transport. But they also depended on new manufacturing skills. Greater specialization and greater productivity alike encouraged the kind of organization that early civilization involved. New technology helped shape another new stage in world history.

## THE BIG CHANGES

Agriculture offered a very different set of opportunities and problems than hunting and gathering, and these had far-reaching consequences. Agriculture altered family forms, for example, by encouraging higher birth rates, both because more food was available and because more labor was needed. Permanent settlements arose fairly quickly, reducing local movements of people. By creating a surplus of food in most years, agriculture permitted a portion of the population to engage in occupations other than food production. This led to

2.5 million B.C.E.	1.25 million B.C.E.	150,000 B.C.E.	30,000 B.C.E.	10,000 B.C.E.
<p><b>2.5 million</b> Emergence of <i>Homo sapiens</i> in eastern Africa</p>	<p><b>1 million</b> Emergence of <i>Homo erectus</i>, an upright, tool-using human</p> <p><b>600,000</b> Wide spread of human species across Asia, Europe, Africa; control of fire</p>	<p><b>120,000</b> Emergence of <i>Homo sapiens sapiens</i>, which displaces other human species</p>	<p><b>30,000–25,000</b> Passage of first people to Americas</p> <p><b>15,000–12,000</b> Domestication of dogs</p>	<p><b>8500–6500</b> Domestication of sheep, pigs, goats, cattle</p> <p><b>8500–3500</b> Neolithic Age; development of farming in Middle East</p>



the development of unprecedented levels of social inequality, including heightened inequality between men and women. Agriculture altered the environment, sometimes resulting in overcultivation that depleted the soil. It encouraged humans to live in larger groups, and by doing so it created new vulnerability to communicable diseases. While agriculture clearly generated a mixture of advantages and disadvantages, its greater food production allowed more population growth. This in turn helps explain why agriculture tended to spread and why many people were willing to change basic aspects of their lives to accommodate to this new economy.

In the most fertile areas, agricultural centers ultimately developed the organizational forms associated with civilization, most notably formal political structures and cities. Not all did so: Stateless, loosely organized agricultural societies persisted in quite a few places until relatively modern times. But more formal political structures—states—plus larger urban centers—cities—as places to exchange goods and ideas could further the direction of agricultural economies. It was no accident that the first four centers of civilization developed along river valleys, with their opportunities for irrigation: Civilization resulted from the prosperity of this kind of agriculture but also responded to its organizational needs, for it took coordination to run irrigation systems. Civilizations also helped direct many of the surpluses of agricultural economies to upper-class groups—rulers, landlords, and sometimes priests. As with agriculture,

although to a lesser extent, the arrival of civilizations had wider consequences. Most early civilizations, for example, developed monumental buildings often associated with religion and more formal art and culture were standard features of this final great innovation in early human history.

## CONTINUITY

While the development of agriculture brought enormous changes, it is important to remember that major continuities persisted as well. Changes took place very slowly. It took thousands of years for humans to develop New Stone Age technologies such as fashioning tools rather than simply picking up suitably shaped objects, such as rocks.

The slow pace of change had two causes. First, inventing fundamentally new devices took time. In some cases, it never occurred at all: Impressive agricultural societies flourished without ever developing the wheel or metal tools. In addition, many people remained attached to old ways. Because the food supply was so precarious, the risk of innovation probably seemed dangerous. This was one reason why agriculture, although it did fan out from its initial centers, took so long to spread widely. People cherished the habits long associated with local migrations. Many men valued the challenge of hunting. Many groups held out against agriculture, even when they knew of it.

8000 B.C.E.	6000 B.C.E.	5000 B.C.E.	4000 B.C.E.	2000 B.C.E.
<p><b>7000</b> First town at Jericho</p>	<p><b>5600</b> Beans domesticated in Western Hemisphere</p>	<p><b>5000</b> Domestication of maize (corn)  <b>5000–2000</b> Yangshao culture in north China</p>	<p><b>4000–3000</b> Development of writing, bronze metalworking, wheel, plow in Middle East  <b>3500–1800</b> Sumerian civilization  <b>3100–1087</b> Founding and flowering of Egyptian civilization  <b>25600–1300</b> Indus civilization in south Asia  <b>1500</b> Beginning of Polynesian migrations in Pacific</p>	<p><b>1850</b> Origins of Shang kingdom in China  <b>1800</b> Formation of Babylonian Empire in Middle East  <b>1700–1300</b> Rise of village culture in Mesoamerica  <b>1600</b> Beginning of Indo-European invasions of India and parts of the Mediterranean and Middle East  <b>1600</b> Spread of civilization to Crete (Minoan)  <b>1500–800</b> Olmec Civilizations in Central America  <b>1250</b> Moses and Jewish exodus from Egypt (according to Jewish belief)  <b>1200–700</b> Vedas composed (India)  <b>1122–770</b> Zhou Kingdom in China  <b>900</b> Beginning of Maya (Central America)  <b>850</b> Beginnings of Chavin culture (Andes)  <b>800</b> Beginnings of Bantu migration in Africa  <b>800</b> Initial Greek city states  <b>760–600</b> Meroe (Kush) rules Egypt</p>

Even as change occurred, it could produce efforts to preserve older values in new ways. In hunting-and-gathering societies, men and women both had key productive roles; the roles were very different, but they generated some mutual respect. With agriculture, men took on functions that probably seemed rather feminine, because they were linked to food gathering, which had been women's responsibility before. Men had far less time to hunt or to enjoy the masculine rituals associated with hunting. So men looked for ways within agriculture to emphasize manhood. One common response was to claim new levels of superiority over women. This was a key change in gender relations, but it can also be seen as a kind of compensation. To this extent, men could feel that not all traditions were being lost. Polytheistic religions in many agricultural societies also preserved older emphases, with gods and goddesses dedicated to the hunt, even as they added rituals linked to planting and harvesting.

Once established, agriculture generated its own impulses toward continuity. Many peasant farmers clung fervently to traditional techniques and village structures, regarding further change with great suspicion. Thus, a tension between change and continuity was built into early human experience.

## IMPACT ON DAILY LIFE: CHILDREN

Children are an important part of any human society. Some aspects of children's lives are doubtless natural, part of human experience at any time, in any place. But the arrival of agriculture had huge implications for children. Hunting-and-gathering societies depended on a relatively low birth rate, with few children per family. Too many children would overwhelm resources; and no family could easily transport more than one young child during migrations. So hunters and gatherers limited births, mainly by breast-feeding each child for up to four or five years, which created chemical changes in women's bodies that reduced the chances of new conception.

With agriculture, however, more children could be supported, and indeed children became a vital part of the family labor force. Infants began to be weaned at about 18 months on average, a huge change from earlier human patterns. Birth rates shot up—agricultural families usually averaged five to seven children, although some would die because infant mortality rates were high. Childhood began to be defined in terms of work. Even young children had obligations. And by the time they were teenagers, their families depended on their labor.

This was a dramatic redefinition of childhood, even as children became more numerous in the population at large.

Civilization, as an organizational form, had less impact on children, but it added its own changes. Most civilizations developed written language, although only a minority could afford the time to learn to write. As a result, the vast majority of children worked, but an elite minority were sent to school. Also, civilizations used codes of law and other prescriptions to emphasize the duties of children to their families. All agricultural civilizations emphasized the authority of parents over children and children's obligation to obey their parents. In this way, civilizations tried to instill in children a willingness to work for the benefit of their families. An early Chinese saying stated simply: "No parent is ever wrong." Children could be loved and could flourish, but there was a distinctive tone of strict discipline and obedience in agricultural civilizations that bolstered the necessity of children's labor.

Small wonder that some hunting-and-gathering or herding groups, when they encountered civilizations, were shocked at how rigorously children were handled. Many American Indians were appalled by the harsh physical discipline European immigrants dealt out to their children. Here was an example of agriculture's profound impact on daily life.

## SOCIETIES AND TRENDS

Chapter 1 focuses on the development of agriculture and the ways in which it changed the lives of early humans. It then describes how farming led, in fertile river valleys, to the development of civilization, and what was new in this form of human organization. It also notes the limits of these developments—the many regions that continued living by hunting and gathering as well as the different trajectory that was followed by societies whose people lived by herding animals rather than farming. Chapters 2 and 3 focus on the early civilizations in the river valley centers, in Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Indus valley (India), and the Yellow River valley (China), and also on early civilization centers in the Americas. The similarities suggest why people found these new organizational forms useful and how the forms responded to needs and opportunities within agriculture, but each also had its own flavor and specific history. This distinctiveness helped set in motion enduring differences among the world's civilizations. Chapters 2 and 3 thus also emphasize opportunities to compare the early civilizations. ■



# 1

## The Neolithic Revolution and the Birth of Civilization

**One day about 10,000 years ago**, in a rock shelter near the Pecos River, an early human inhabitant of what is today west Texas inserted the bloom stalk of a yucca plant into one of several holes worn into a fire-starting stick and, holding the stalk upright, twirled it between her hands, as depicted in the artist's recreation on this page. After much effort on the part of the young woman, the friction between the spinning stalk and the stick produced wisps of smoke, then sparks, then glowing embers. The woman used the embers to set fire to a small pile of dried yucca leaves that she had gathered. Yucca leaves have thin tendrils that, when dry, catch fire readily. Carefully tended, the leaves could be used to kindle a steady fire that provided not only warmth, but the means for cooking a meal. And, importantly, stalks, fire-sticks, and leaves could easily be carried by migratory groups of early humans.

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### LEARNING OBJECTIVES

What were the major concerns and activities of early humans and in what ways might these explain the very slow development of early human societies? p. 9 **1.1**

Why has sedentary agriculture been so critical to the rise and persistence of civilizations as they are defined in the chapter that follows? p. 14 **1.2**

In what ways did the rise of towns promote contacts and ongoing linkages between different human communities both within particular regions and across regional boundaries? p. 19 **1.3**

**FIGURE 1.1** Crouching against a wall to shelter the first sparks from wind, a Neolithic woman spins a dried yucca stalk against a much-used fire-starter to generate heat that will kindle a fire on the dried plant material she has placed under the fire-starting stick.

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Several yucca-based fire-starter kits, some including bows used in the place of hands to turn the yucca stalk, have been found across the American Southwest. These Neolithic (New Stone Age) kits send us a number of messages about early world history. Most obviously, early men and women were tool users. They not only deliberately selected branches, stones, and other natural objects from the environment, they crafted them into weapons, utensils, and tools that could be used to ward off animal and human enemies, hunt, trap, fish, prepare food, and construct shelters. This capacity to fashion tools distinguishes human beings from all other animals. Although a number of other animals, including apes, are tool users, only human beings invent and craft their tools. By this time, humans had known how to make and use fire for thousands of years—another discovery unique to humans. The use of fire for cooking allowed early humans to eat a wider variety of foods, particularly animal protein.

The toolmakers of the American Southwest lived far from eastern Africa, where human beings first evolved. Just decades ago, it was believed that the first humans migrated from northeast Asia into what is now Alaska only 12,000 years ago. Vastly improved archeological techniques have recently revealed that the crossing had been made at least as early as 25,000 B.C.E. and that the migrants spread out quickly, probably traveling both overland and by boat along the Pacific Coast, from Alaska to Chile.

Finally, we know our early ancestors could talk. Human beings had developed what some call the “speech gene” about 70,000 years earlier, vastly improving the species’ capacity to communicate, beyond the sounds and gestures common to a number of animal groups. Neolithic humans were what we sometimes call “primitive,” but they had already experienced a number of fundamental changes and, in some places, they were poised to introduce some more. ■

The creation of fire-starters and other tools, including weapons, proved critical to the survival of early humans and to the development of ever-larger communities and eventually whole societies. In the chapter that follows we will trace the successive stages of the early material and social development of the human species. We will explore the technological and organizational innovations that made it possible for what became the great majority of humans to move from tiny bands of wandering hunters and gatherers to sedentary village dwellers and then the builders of walled cities with populations in the thousands. More than any other factor, these transformations were made possible by the development of agriculture that increased and made more secure the supply of food by which more and more humans could be sustained.

The domestication of animals and the shift to agriculture were accompanied by major changes in the roles and relationships between men and women and patterns of childrearing. They also led to increasing social stratification, new forms of political organization, increasingly elaborate means of artistic expression, and more lethal ways of waging war. During the millennia of transition farming communities occupied only small pockets of the earth’s land area and only rarely ventured out on the sea or large rivers. *Pastoral* peoples who depended on herds of domesticated animals for their livelihood occupied a far greater share of the space where there was a human presence. An uneasy balance between the peoples who followed these two main adaptations to the diverse ecosystems in which humans proved able to survive was a dominant feature of the history of the species and the planet until five or six centuries ago.

Late Paleolithic	Transition Phase	Neolithic Age		Metal Age	
15,000 B.C.E.	10,000 B.C.E.	8000 B.C.E.	6000 B.C.E.	4000 B.C.E.	2000 B.C.E.
<b>18,000–100,000</b> Central Russian mammoth bone settlements <b>15,000–12,000</b> Domestication of dogs <b>10,500–8000</b> Natufian settlements	<b>8500</b> Domestication of sheep <b>8500–5000</b> Development of farming in the Middle East	<b>7500–6500</b> Domestication of pigs, goats, cattle <b>7000</b> Full-fledged town at Jericho <b>6250–5400</b> Çatal Hüyük at its peak	<b>5600</b> Beans domesticated <b>5000–2000</b> Yangshao culture in north China <b>5000</b> Domestication of maize (corn)	<b>4000–3000</b> Age of innovation in the Middle East: introduction of writing, metalworking, wheel, plow <b>3500</b> Llama domesticated <b>3500–2350</b> Civilization of Sumer <b>c. 3100</b> Rise of Egyptian civilization <b>2500–1500</b> Indus valley civilization in south Asia	2000 Kotosh culture in Peru <b>c. 1766</b> Emergence of Shang kingdom in China <b>1700–1300</b> Rise of village culture in Mesoamerica <b>1000–500</b> Olmec civilization in Mesoamerica <b>400</b> Potatoes domesticated

## HUMAN LIFE IN THE ERA OF HUNTERS AND GATHERERS

### 1.1

What were the major concerns and activities of early humans and in what ways might these explain the very slow development of early human societies?

A group of historians currently working on what they call Big History point out that the human experience is only a brief moment in the larger history of the earth itself and the origins of various forms of life. Big History furthers a discussion of when and how the human species emerged and what impact its arrival would have, over time, on the physical environment and on other species. In this approach human history fits into a larger pattern of terrestrial change.

By the late Paleolithic Age (Old Stone Age) in 12,000 B.C.E., humans had evolved in physical appearance and mental capacity to roughly the same level as today. Our species, *Homo sapiens*, had been competing with increasing success for game and campsites with other humanlike creatures for nearly 100,000 years. *Homo sapiens*' large brain, critical to the survival of all branches of the genus *Homo*, was almost the same size as that of modern humans. As Figure 1.2 shows, the erect posture of Stone Age humans and related humanoids freed their hands. The combination of these free hands with opposable thumbs and a large brain enabled different human species to make and use tools and weapons of increasing sophistication. These implements helped to offset the humans' marked inferiority in body strength and speed to rival predators, such as wolves and wild cats, as well as to many of the creatures that humans hunted. A more developed brain ultimately allowed humans to transform cries and grunts into the patterned sounds that make up language. Language greatly enhanced the possibilities for cooperation and for cohesion within the small bands that were the predominant form of human social organization. By the end of the Paleolithic Age, these advantages had made *Homo sapiens* a species capable of changing its environment.

During the course of human evolution, one other interesting change occurred. In contrast to the great apes and other mammals, human children did not develop mature teeth until well after weaning. For human children to survive, their parents or other adults had to devote a much longer period to providing food. Family structures had to develop accordingly.

### Paleolithic Culture

By the late Paleolithic Age, human groups survived by combining hunting and fishing with the gathering of wild fruits, berries, grains, and roots. They had created many tools, such as those shown in Figure 1.3, for these purposes. Tools of wood and bone have perished; surviving stone tools such as these are our main evidence of the technology of this age. Early tools, crafted by species from which humans evolved, have been found at sites well over 2 million years old. These early species made tools by breaking off the edges of stones to create crude points or rough cutting surfaces. By the late Paleolithic Age, their fully human descendants had grown much more adept at working stone. They

Hunting and gathering economies dominated human history until 9,000 B.C.E. These economies helped propel migration over most of the lands on earth.

***Homo sapiens*** The humanoid species that emerged as most successful at the end of the Paleolithic period.