

The Essential WOILd

H I S T O R Y

Volume To 1800

# THE ESSENTIAL WORLD HISTORY

**VOLUME I: TO 1800** 

# THE ESSENTIAL WORLD HISTORY

**VOLUME I: TO 1800** 

#### **EIGHTH EDITION**

WILLIAM J. DUIKER

The Pennsylvania State University

JACKSON J. SPIELVOGEL

The Pennsylvania State University



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TO YVONNE,
FOR ADDING SPARKLE TO THIS BOOK, AND TO MY LIFE
W.J.D.

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TO DIANE,
WHOSE LOVE AND SUPPORT MADE IT ALL POSSIBLE
J.J.S.

#### **BRIEF CONTENTS**

DOCUMENTS XVII

MAPS XX

FEATURES XXII

PREFACE XXIII

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS XXXI

THEMES FOR UNDERSTANDING WORLD HISTORY XXXIII

A NOTE TO STUDENTS ABOUT LANGUAGES

AND THE DATING OF TIME XXXIV

## The First Civilizations and the Rise of Empires (Prehistory to 500 c.e.) 2

- 1 EARLY HUMANS AND THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS 4
- 2 ANCIENT INDIA 32
- 3 CHINA IN ANTIQUITY 57
- 4 THE CIVILIZATION OF THE GREEKS 86
- 5 THE ROMAN WORLD EMPIRE 114

## II New Patterns of Civilization (500–1500 c.e.) 142

- 6 THE AMERICAS 144
- 7 FERMENT IN THE MIDDLE EAST: THE RISE OF ISLAM 168
- 8 EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN AFRICA 195

- 9 THE EXPANSION OF CIVILIZATION IN SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA 220
- 10 THE FLOWERING OF TRADITIONAL CHINA 249
- 11 THE EAST ASIAN RIMLANDS: EARLY JAPAN, KOREA, AND VIETNAM 276
- 12 THE MAKING OF EUROPE 301
- 13 THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND CRISIS AND RECOVERY IN THE WEST 328

## III THE EMERGENCE OF NEW WORLD PATTERNS (1500–1800) 352

- 14 NEW ENCOUNTERS: THE CREATION OF A WORLD MARKET 354
- 15 EUROPE TRANSFORMED: REFORM AND STATE-BUILDING 380
- 16 THE MUSLIM EMPIRES 405
- 17 THE EAST ASIAN WORLD 431
- 18 THE WEST ON THE EVE OF A NEW WORLD ORDER 458

GLOSSARY 486 INDEX 493

### DETAILED CONTENTS

DOCUMENTS XVII  MAPS XX  FEATURES XXII  PREFACE XXIII  ACKNOWLEDGMENTS XXXI  THEMES FOR UNDERSTANDING WORLD  HISTORY XXXIII	The Rise of New Empires 24  The Assyrian Empire 24  The Persian Empire 26  OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS  THE GOVERNING OF EMPIRES: TWO APPROACHES 27  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 29		
A NOTE TO STUDENTS ABOUT LANGUAGES  AND THE DATING OF TIME XXXIV	2 ANCIENT INDIA 32		
PART I THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS AND THE RISE OF EMPIRES (PREHISTORY TO 500 C.E.) 2	The Emergence of Civilization in India: Harappan Society 33  A Land of Diversity 33  Harappan Civilization: A Fascinating Enigma 34  The Aryans in India 36		
1 EARLY HUMANS AND THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS 4	From Chieftains to Kings 36  COMPARATIVE ESSAY  WRITING AND CIVILIZATION 37		
The First Humans 5  The Emergence of Homo sapiens 5  The Hunter-Gatherers of the Paleolithic Age 5  The Neolithic Revolution, ca. 10,000–4000 B.C.E. 7  COMPARATIVE ESSAY  FROM HUNTER-GATHERERS AND HERDERS TO FARMERS 8	The Mauryan Empire 38 Caste and Class: Social Structures in Ancient India 3 Daily Life in Ancient India 42 The Economy 43  Escaping the Wheel of Life: The Religious World of Ancient India 44		
The Emergence of Civilization 9	Brahmanism 44 Popular Religion 46		
Civilization in Mesopotamia 10  The City-States of Ancient Mesopotamia 10  Empires in Ancient Mesopotamia 12  The Culture of Mesopotamia 14	OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE SEARCH FOR TRUTH 47 Buddhism: The Middle Path 48  The Rule of the Fishes: India After the Mauryas 50		
Egyptian Civilization: "The Gift of the Nile" 15  The Importance of Geography 16  The Importance of Religion 17  The Course of Egyptian History: The Old, Middle, and New Kingdoms 18  Society and Daily Life in Ancient Egypt 19  The Culture of Egypt: Art and Writing 20	The Exuberant World of Indian Culture 52 Literature 52 Architecture and Sculpture 52 Science 53 CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE • CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 54		
The Spread of Egyptian Influence: Nubia 21  New Centers of Civilization 21  Nomadic Peoples: Impact of the Indo-Europeans 22  Territorial States in Western Asia: The Phoenicians 22  The "Children of Israel" 22	3 CHINA IN ANTIQUITY 57  The Dawn of Chinese Civilization 58 The Land and People of China 58 The Shang Dynasty 59		

The Zhou Dynasty 61 Political Structures 61 COMPARATIVE ESSAY THE USE OF METALS 62 Economy and Society 63 The Hundred Schools of Ancient Philosophy 65 OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS A DEBATE OVER GOOD AND EVIL 68  The First Chinese Empire: The Qin Dynasty 70 Political Structures 72 Society and the Economy 73 Beyond the Frontier: The Nomadic Peoples and the Great Wall 73	The Great Peloponnesian War and the Decline of the Greek States 96 The Culture of Classical Greece 97 COMPARATIVE ESSAY THE AXIAL AGE 100 Greek Religion 101 Daily Life in Classical Athens 102 The Rise of Macedonia and the Conquests of Alexander 102 Alexander 102 OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS WOMEN IN ATHENS AND SPARTA 103 FILM & HISTORY ALEXANDER (2004) 106
The Glorious Han Dynasty 74  Confucianism and the State 74  The Economy 76  Imperial Expansion and the Origins of the Silk Road 77  The Decline and Fall of the Han 78	The World of the Hellenistic Kingdoms 107  Political Institutions and the Role of Cities 107  Culture in the Hellenistic World 107  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •
Daily Life in Ancient China 78  The Role of the Family 78  Lifestyles 79  Cities 79	5 THE ROMAN WORLD EMPIRE 114
The Humble Estate: Women in Ancient China 80  Chinese Culture 80  Metalwork and Sculpture 80  Language and Literature 82  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 83	Early Rome and the Republic 115  Early Rome 116  The Roman Republic 116  The Roman Conquest of the Mediterranean (264–133  B.C.E.) 118  The Decline and Fall of the Roman Republic (133–31  B.C.E.) 120
THE CIVILIZATION OF THE GREEKS 86  Early Greece 87  Minoan Crete 87  The First Greek State: Mycenae 89  The Greeks in a Dark Age (ca. 1100–ca. 750 B.C.E.) 89	The Roman Empire at Its Height 121  The Age of Augustus (31 B.C.E14 C.E.) 121  The Early Empire (14-180) 122  Culture and Society in the Roman World 125  OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS  WOMEN IN THE ROMAN AND HAN EMPIRES 128  FILM & HISTORY  GLADIATOR (2000) 130
The Greek City-States (ca. 750–ca. 500 B.C.E.) 91 The Polis 91 Colonization and the Growth of Trade 91 Tyranny in the Greek Polis 92	Crisis and the Late Empire 131 Crises in the Third Century 131 The Late Roman Empire 131
Sparta 93 Athens 94 The High Point of Greek Civilization: Classical	Transformation of the Roman World: The Development of Christianity 132  COMPARATIVE ESSAY RULERS AND GODS 133
Greece 95 The Challenge of Persia 95 The Growth of an Athenian Empire in the Age of Pericles 96	A Comparison of the Roman and Han Empires 135  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 138

**DETAILED CONTENTS** 

PART II New Patterns of Civilization (500–1500 c.e.) 142	Islamic Civilization 182 Political Structures 183 The Wealth of Araby: Trade and Cities in the Middle East 184
6 THE AMERICAS 144	COMPARATIVE ESSAY TRADE AND CIVILIZATION 185 Islamic Society 186
The Peopling of the Americas 145 The First Americans 145	The Culture of Islam 186  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •
Early Civilizations in Central America 145  The Olmecs: In the Land of Rubber 145  The Zapotecs 146  Teotihuacán: America's First Metropolis 146  The Maya 148  The Aztecs 152	8 EARLY CIVILIZATIONS IN AFRICA 195
The First Civilizations in South America 156 Caral 157 Moche 157 Wari and Chimor 158 COMPARATIVE ESSAY HISTORY AND THE ENVIRONMENT 159 The Inka 160	The Emergence of Civilization 196  The Land 196  The First Farmers 196  Axum and Meroë 198  The Sahara and Its Environs 199  East Africa 200  The Coming of Islam 200  COMPARATIVE ESSAY
Stateless Societies in the Americas 163  The Eastern Woodlands 163  Cahokia 163  The Ancient Pueblo Peoples 164  South America: The Arawak 164  Amazonia 164  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 165	THE MIGRATION OF PEOPLES 201  African Religious Beliefs Before Islam 202  The Arabs in North Africa 203  The Kingdom of Ethiopia: A Christian Island in a Muslim Sea 204  East Africa: The Land of the Zanj 204  The States of West Africa 205  States and Noncentralized Societies in Central and Southern Africa 209
FERMENT IN THE MIDDLE EAST: THE RISE OF ISLAM 168	The Congo River Valley 209 Zimbabwe 210 Southern Africa 210
The Rise of Islam 169 The Role of Muhammad 169 FILM & HISTORY THE MESSAGE (MUHAMMAD: THE MESSENGER OF GOD) (1976) 171 The Teachings of Muhammad 171	Africa: A Continent Without History? 210  African Society 211  Urban Life 211  Village Life 212  The Role of Women 212
The Arab Empire and Its Successors 172  Creation of an Empire 175  The Rise of the Umayyads 175  The Abbasids 177  The Seljuk Turks 178  The Crusades 180	Slavery 212  African Culture 214  Painting and Sculpture 214  Music 214  Architecture 215  Literature 215

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •

CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 218

The Mongols 180

Andalusia: A Muslim Outpost in Europe 181

## 9 THE EXPANSION OF CIVILIZATION IN SOUTH AND SOUTHEAST ASIA 220

The Silk Road 221

India After the Mauryas 222

The Gupta Dynasty: A New Golden Age? 222

The Transformation of Buddhism 224

The Decline of Buddhism in India 225

When Did the Indians Become Hindus? 226

The Arrival of Islam 227

The Empire of Mahmud of Ghazni 227

The Delhi Sultanate 229

Tamerlane 229

Society and Culture 231

Religion 231

**COMPARATIVE ESSAY** 

CASTE, CLASS, AND FAMILY 233

Economy and Daily Life 234

The Wonder of Indian Culture 235

The Golden Region: Early Southeast Asia 237

Paddy Fields and Spices: The States of Southeast

Asia 238

Daily Life 241

World of the Spirits: Religious Belief 242

Expansion into the Pacific 245

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •

CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 246

## 10 THE FLOWERING OF TRADITIONAL CHINA 249

China After the Han 250

China Reunified: The Sui, the Tang, and the Song 250

The Sui Dynasty 251

The Tang Dynasty 251

The Song Dynasty 252

Political Structures: The Triumph of Confucianism 253

**OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS** 

ACTION OR INACTION: AN IDEOLOGICAL DISPUTE IN MEDIEVAL

CHINA 254

The Economy 255

**COMPARATIVE ESSAY** 

THE SPREAD OF TECHNOLOGY 257

Society in Traditional China 258

Explosion in Central Asia: The Mongol Empire 260

Mongol Rule in China 262

#### FILM & HISTORY

THE ADVENTURES OF MARCO POLO (1938) AND MARCO POLO (2007) 265

The Mongols' Place in History 266

The Ming Dynasty 266

The Voyages of Zheng He 266

In Search of the Way 268

The Rise and Decline of Buddhism and Daoism 268

Neo-Confucianism: The Investigation of Things 269

The Apogee of Chinese Culture 270

Literature 270

Art 271

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •

CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 273

#### 11 THE EAST ASIAN RIMLANDS: EARLY JAPAN, KOREA, AND VIETNAM 276

Japan: Land of the Rising Sun 277

A Gift from the Gods: Prehistoric Japan 278

The Rise of the Japanese State 278

#### **COMPARATIVE ESSAY**

FEUDAL ORDERS AROUND THE WORLD 283

Economic and Social Structures 285

In Search of the Pure Land: Religion in Early Japan 287

FILM & HISTORY

RASHOMON (1950) 288

Sources of Traditional Japanese Culture 289

Japan and the Chinese Model 291

Korea: Bridge to the East 292

The Three Kingdoms 293

The Rise of the Koryo Dynasty 293

Under the Mongols 294

Vietnam: The Smaller Dragon 294

The Rise of Great Viet 295

Society and Family Life 297

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •

CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 298

### 12 THE MAKING OF EUROPE 301

The Emergence of Europe in the Early Middle Ages 302

The New Germanic Kingdoms 302

The Role of the Christian Church 302

Charlemagne and the Carolingians 304

The World of Lords and Vassals 304

#### xii DETAILED CONTENTS

## 14 NEW ENCOUNTERS: THE CREATION OF A WORLD MARKET 354

An Age of Exploration and Expansion 355
Islam and the Spice Trade 355
The Spread of Islam in West Africa 356
A New Player: Europe 357

The Portuguese Maritime Empire 359

En Route to India 359

The Search for Spices 359

New Rivals Enter the Scene 359

The Conquest of the "New World" 362

The Voyages 362

The Conquests 362

Governing the Empires 364

The Competition Intensifies 366

Christopher Columbus: Hero or Villain? 366

Africa in Transition 366

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS
THE MARCH OF CIVILIZATION 367
COMPARATIVE ESSAY

COMPARATIVE ESSAY
THE COLUMBIAN EXCHANGE 368

Europeans in Africa 369
The Slave Trade 369
Political and Social Structures in a Changing
Continent 373

Southeast Asia in the Era of the Spice Trade 374

The Arrival of the West 374

State and Society in Precolonial Southeast Asia 374

Society 376

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •

## 15 EUROPE TRANSFORMED: REFORM AND STATE-BUILDING 380

CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 377

The Reformation of the Sixteenth Century 381

Background to the Reformation 381

Martin Luther and the Reformation in Germany 383

The Spread of the Protestant Reformation 385

Europe in the High Middle Ages 307

Land and People 307

The New World of Trade and Cities 309

FILM & HISTORY

THE LION IN WINTER (1968) 310

**OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS** 

Two Views of Trade and Merchants 311

**COMPARATIVE ESSAY** 

CITIES IN THE MEDIEVAL WORLD 313

Evolution of the European Kingdoms 314 Christianity and Medieval Civilization 319 The Culture of the High Middle Ages 321

Medieval Europe and the World 323

The First Crusades 323

The Later Crusades 324
What Were the Effects of the Crusades? 324
CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •
CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 325

## 13 THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND CRISIS AND RECOVERY IN THE WEST 328

From Eastern Roman to Byzantine Empire 329
The Reign of Justinian (527–565) 329
A New Kind of Empire 331

The Zenith of Byzantine Civilization (750–1025) 334

The Beginning of a Revival 335

The Macedonian Dynasty 336

Women in the Byzantine Empire 337

The Decline and Fall of the Byzantine Empire (1025–1453) 338

New Challenges and New Responses 338

Impact of the Crusades 338

The Ottoman Turks and the Fall of Constantinople 340

The Crises of the Fourteenth Century 340

The Black Death: From Asia to Europe 340

**COMPARATIVE ESSAY** 

THE ROLE OF DISEASE IN HISTORY 342
OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS

CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH: CONTEMPORARY VIEWS 343
Economic Dislocation and Social Upheaval 344
Political Instability 344

Recovery: The Renaissance 345

The Intellectual Renaissance 346

The Artistic Renaissance 346

The State in the Renaissance 348

The Decline of the Church 345

xiii

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS  A REFORMATION DEBATE: CONFLICT AT MARBURG 386  The Social Impact of the Protestant Reformation 387  The Catholic Reformation 387  COMPARATIVE ESSAY  MARRIAGE IN THE EARLY MODERN WORLD 388	Society Under the Mughals: A Synthesis of Cultures 425 Mughal Culture 426 CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE • CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 427  THE EAST ASIAN WORLD 431		
Europe in Crisis, 1560–1650 390  Politics and the Wars of Religion in the Sixteenth Century 390  Economic and Social Crises 391  Seventeenth-Century Crises: Revolution and War 394	China at Its Apex 432 The Later Ming 432 The Greatness of the Qing 433		
Response to Crisis: The Practice of Absolutism 396 France Under Louis XIV 396 Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe 397	Changing China 438  The Population Explosion 439  COMPARATIVE ESSAY THE POPULATION EXPLOSION 440		
England and Limited Monarchy 398  Conflict Between King and Parliament 399  Civil War and Commonwealth 399	Seeds of Industrialization 441 Daily Life in Qing China 441 Cultural Developments 442 Tokugawa Japan 444		
Restoration and a Glorious Revolution 399  The Flourishing of European Culture 400  Art: The Baroque 400  Art: Dutch Realism 400  A Golden Age of Literature in England 402  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 402	The Three Great Unifiers 445  Opening to the West 445  The Tokugawa "Great Peace" 447  Life in the Village 449  Tokugawa Culture 450  OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS  SOME CONFUCIAN COMMANDMENTS 451		
16 THE MUSLIM EMPIRES 405  The Ottoman Empire 406  The Rise of the Ottoman Turks 406  Expansion of the Empire 406	Korea and Vietnam 454  Korea: In a Dangerous Neighborhood 454  Vietnam: The Perils of Empire 454  CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE •  CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 455		
COMPARATIVE ESSAY THE CHANGING FACE OF WAR 407 The Nature of Turkish Rule 410 Religion and Society in the Ottoman World 411 The Ottoman Empire: A Civilization in Decline? 413	18 THE WEST ON THE EVE OF A NEW WORLD ORDER 458  Toward a New Heaven and a New Earth: An		
Ottoman Art 413  The Safavids 414 Safavid Politics and Society 416 Safavid Art and Literature 418	Intellectual Revolution in the West 459 The Scientific Revolution 459 Background to the Enlightenment 461 The Philosophes and Their Ideas 461 COMPARATIVE ESSAY		
The Grandeur of the Mughals 418 The Founding of the Empire 418 Akbar and Indo-Muslim Civilization 420	THE SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION 462 Culture in an Enlightened Age 464  Economic Changes and the Social Order 466		
Akbar's Successors 420 The Impact of European Power in India 422	New Economic Patterns 466		

#### xiv **DETAILED CONTENTS**

The Mughal Dynasty: A "Gunpowder Empire"? 424

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE CAPTURE OF PORT HOOGLY 423 European Society in the Eighteenth Century 467

Colonial Empires and Revolution in the Americas 468

British North America 468

French North America 468 The American Revolution 468

Toward a New Political Order and Global Conflict 469

Prussia 469

The Austrian Empire of the Habsburgs 470
Russia Under Catherine the Great 471
Enlightened Absolutism Reconsidered 471
Changing Patterns of War: Global Confrontation 471

The French Revolution 472

Background to the French Revolution 473

FILM & HISTORY

MARIE ANTOINETTE (2006) 474

From Estates-General to National Assembly 475
Destruction of the Old Regime 475
The Radical Revolution 476

**OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS** 

THE NATURAL RIGHTS OF THE FRENCH PEOPLE: TWO VIEWS 477

Reaction and the Directory 479

The Age of Napoleon 480

Domestic Policies 480 Napoleon's Empire 481

CHAPTER SUMMARY • CHAPTER TIMELINE • CHAPTER REVIEW • SUGGESTED READING 483

GLOSSARY 486 INDEX 493

#### **DOCUMENTS**

#### CHAPTER 1

THE CODE OF HAMMURABI (The Code of Hammurabi) 13

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NILE RIVER AND THE PHARAOH (Hymn to the Nile and Hymn to the Pharaoh) 16

THE COVENANT AND THE LAW: THE BOOK OF EXODUS (Exodus 19:1–8 and Exodus 20:1–3, 7–17) 25

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE GOVERNING OF EMPIRES: TWO APPROACHES (King Sennacherib [704–681 B.C.E.] Describes His Siege of Jerusalem [701 B.C.E.], King Ashurbanipal [669–627 B.C.E.] Describes His Treatment of Conquered Babylon, and The Cyrus Cylinder) 27

#### CHAPTER 2

**SOCIAL CLASSES IN ANCIENT INDIA** (The Law of Manu) 40

THE POSITION OF WOMEN IN ANCIENT INDIA (The Law of Manu) 43

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE SEARCH FOR TRUTH (The Rig Veda and The Mundaka Upanishad) 47

**HOW TO ACHIEVE ENLIGHTENMENT** (The Sermon at Benares) 51

#### CHAPTER 3

THE WIT AND WISDOM OF CONFUCIUS (The Confucian *Analects*) 66

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS A DEBATE OVER GOOD AND EVIL (The Book of Mencius and The Book of Xunzi) 68

THE DAOIST ANSWER TO CONFUCIANISM (The Way of the Tao) 70

THE ART OF WAR (Sections from Sun Tzu) 71

A PRESCRIPTION FOR THE EMPEROR ("People Are in Every Way the Root") 75

#### CHAPTER 4

HOMER'S IDEAL OF EXCELLENCE (Homer, *Iliad*) 90 THE LYCURGAN REFORMS (Plutarch, *Lycurgus*) 94

#### OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS WOMEN IN ATHENS AND

**SPARTA** (Xenophon, *Oeconomicus*; Xenophon, *Constitution of the Spartans*; Aristotle, *Politics*; and Plutarch, *Lycurgus*) 103

**RELATIONS BETWEEN GREEKS AND NON-GREEKS** (Letter to Zenon and Letter to Dionysios) 109

#### CHAPTER 5

CINCINNATUS SAVES ROME: A ROMAN MORALITY TALE (Livy, The Early History of Rome) 117

THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF AUGUSTUS (Augustus, *Res Gestae*) 123

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS WOMEN IN THE ROMAN AND HAN EMPIRES (Gaius Musonius Rufus, "That Women Too Should Study Philosophy" and Ban Zhao, Admonitions for Women) 128

ROMAN AUTHORITIES ON CHRISTIANITY (An Exchange Between Pliny and Trajan) 136

#### CHAPTER 6

THE CREATION OF THE WORLD: A MAYA VIEW

(Popul Vuh: The Sacred Book of the Maya) 150

MARKETS AND MERCHANDISE IN AZTEC

MEXICO (Bernal Díaz, The Conquest of New Spain) 154

**AZTEC RELIGION THROUGH SPANISH EYES** (Diego Duran, *The Aztecs: The History of the Indies* 

of New Spain) 156

VIRGINS WITH RED CHEEKS (Huaman Poma, Letter to a King) 162

#### CHAPTER 7

"DRAW THEIR VEILS OVER THEIR BOSOMS"

(Qur'an, Chapter 24: "The Light") 173

THE SPREAD OF THE MUSLIM FAITH (The Qur'an, Chapter 47: "Muhammad, Revealed at Medina") 174

**SAGE ADVICE FROM FATHER TO SON** (Letter of Tahir ibn Husayn) 183

LOVE FOR A CAMEL (The Ode of Tarafah) 190

xvii

#### CHAPTER 8

A CHINESE VIEW OF AFRICA (Chau Ju-kua on East Africa) 202

ROYALTY AND RELIGION IN GHANA
(Al-Bakri's Description of Royalty in Ghana) 208

WOMEN AND ISLAM IN NORTH AFRICA

(Leo Africanus, The History and Description of Africa) 213

**A WEST AFRICAN ORAL TRADITION** (*The Epic of Son-Jara*) 217

#### CHAPTER 9

A PORTRAIT OF MEDIEVAL INDIA (Fa Xian, *The Travels of Fa Xian*) 223

THE ISLAMIC CONQUEST OF INDIA (A Muslim Ruler Suppresses Hindu Practices) 232

THE KINGDOM OF ANGKOR (Chau Ju-kua, Records of Foreign Nations) 240

**CHINESE TRADERS IN THE PHILIPPINES** (A Description of Barbarian Peoples) 243

#### CHAPTER 10

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS ACTION OR INACTION: AN IDEOLOGICAL DISPUTE IN MEDIEVAL CHINA (Biography of a Great Man and Han Yu, Essentials of the Moral Way) 254

**PROPER ETIQUETTE IN TANG DYNASTY CHINA** (Song Ruozhao, *Analects for Women*) 261

A LETTER TO THE POPE (A Letter from Kuyuk Khan to Pope Innocent IV) 263

**TWO TANG POETS** (Li Bo, "Quiet Night Thoughts"; Li Bo, "Drinking Alone in Moonlight"; and Du Fu, "Spring Prospect") 271

#### CHAPTER 11

THE EASTERN EXPEDITION OF EMPEROR JIMMU (The Chronicles of Japan) 279

THE SEVENTEEN-ARTICLE CONSTITUTION (The Chronicles of Japan) 281

JAPAN'S WARRIOR CLASS (The Way of the Samurai) 284

A PLEA TO THE NEW EMPEROR (Le Tac, Essay on Annam) 296

#### CHAPTER 12

THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF CHARLEMAGNE (Einhard, Life of Charlemagne) 305

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS TWO VIEWS OF TRADE AND MERCHANTS (Life of Saint Godric and Ibn Khaldun, Prolegomena) 311

A MUSLIM'S DESCRIPTION OF THE RUS (Ibn Fadlan, Description of the Rus) 318

UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AND VIOLENCE AT OXFORD (A Student Riot at Oxford) 321

#### CHAPTER 13

A BYZANTINE EMPEROR GIVES MILITARY ADVICE (Maurice, Strategikon) 335

A WESTERN VIEW OF THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE (Liudprand of Cremona, *Antapodosis*) 337

CHRISTIAN CRUSADERS CAPTURE
CONSTANTINOPLE (Geoffrey de Villehardouin, *The*Conquest of Constantinople) 339

**OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS CAUSES OF THE BLACK DEATH: CONTEMPORARY VIEWS** (Giovanni
Boccaccio, *Decameron*; On Earthquakes as the Cause of Plague; and Herman Gigas on Well Poisoning) 343

#### CHAPTER 14

**THE GREAT CITY OF TIMBUKTU** (Leo Africanus, History and Description of Africa) 357

THE PORTUGUESE CONQUEST OF MALACCA (The Commentaries of the Great Afonso de Albuquerque, Second Viceroy of India) 361

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE MARCH OF CIVILIZATION (Gonzalo Fernández de Ovieda, Historia General y Natural de las Indias and Bartolomé de Las Casas, The Tears of the Indians) 367

A PLEA BETWEEN FRIENDS (A Letter to King João) 372

#### CHAPTER 15

**OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS A REFORMATION DEBATE: CONFLICT AT MARBURG** (The Marburg Colloquy, 1529) 386

QUEEN ELIZABETH I: "I HAVE THE HEART OF A KING" (Queen Elizabeth I, Speech at Tilbury) 392

A WITCHCRAFT TRIAL IN FRANCE (The Trial of Suzanne Gaudry) 393

THE BILL OF RIGHTS (The Bill of Rights) 401

xviii DOCUMENTS

#### CHAPTER 16

THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE (Kritovoulos, Life of Mehmed the Conqueror) 408

A TURKISH DISCOURSE ON COFFEE (Katib Chelebi, *The Balance of Truth*) 414

THE RELIGIOUS ZEAL OF SHAH ABBAS THE GREAT (Eskander Beg Monshi, "The Conversion of a Number of Christians to Islam") 417

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE CAPTURE OF PORT HOOGLY (The Padshahnama and John Cabral, Travels of Sebastian Manrique, 1629–1649) 423

#### CHAPTER 17

THE ART OF PRINTING (Mateo Ricci, The Diary of Matthew Ricci) 434

THE TRIBUTE SYSTEM IN ACTION (A Decree of Emperor Qianlong) 439

A PLEA FOR WOMEN'S EDUCATION (Chen Hongmou, Jiaonu yigui) 443

#### TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI EXPELS THE

**MISSIONARIES** (Toyotomi Hideyoshi, Letter to the Viceroy of the Indies) 448

OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS SOME CONFUCIAN
COMMANDMENTS (Kangxi's Sacred Edict and Maxims
for Peasant Behavior in Tokugawa Japan) 451

#### CHAPTER 18

THE RIGHTS OF WOMEN (Mary Wollstonecraft, Vindication of the Rights of Woman) 465

**BRITISH VICTORY IN INDIA** (Robert Clive's Account of His Victory at Plassey) 472

### OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS THE NATURAL RIGHTS OF THE FRENCH PEOPLE: TWO VIEWS

(Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, and Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen) 477

#### NAPOLEON AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WARFARE (Napoleon Bonaparte, Proclamation to French Troops in Italy [April 26, 1796]) 480

xix

### MAPS

MAP 1.1	The Spread of Homo sapiens sapiens 6	MAP 8.2	Ancient Ethiopia and Nubia 199
MAP 1.2	The Ancient Near East 11	SPOT MAP	The Spread of Islam in Africa 203
SPOT MAP	Hammurabi's Empire 13	<b>SPOT MAP</b>	The Swahili Coast 204
MAP 1.3	Ancient Egypt 17	MAP 8.3	Trans-Saharan Trade Routes 206
MAP 1.4	The Israelites and Their Neighbors in the First	<b>MAP 8.4</b>	The Emergence of States in Africa 209
	Millennium B.C.E. 23	MAP 9.1	The Kushan Kingdom and the Silk Road 221
MAP 1.5	The Assyrian and Persian Empires 26	MAP 9.2	The Gupta Empire 224
MAP 2.1	Ancient Harappan Civilization 34	MAP 9.3	The Spread of Religions in Southern and
SPOT MAP	Alexander the Great's Movements in Asia 38		Eastern Asia, 600–1400 C.E. 226
MAP 2.2	Writing Systems in the Ancient World 38	MAP 9.4	India, 1000–1200 228
MAP 2.3	The Empire of Ashoka 50	MAP 9.5	The Empire of Tamerlane 230
MAP 3.1	Neolithic China 59	MAP 9.6	Southeast Asia in the Thirteenth Century 238
SPOT MAP	Shang China 60	SPOT MAP	Chang'an Under the Sui and the Tang 251
MAP 3.2	China During the Warring States Period 72	MAP 10.1	China Under the Tang 252
SPOT MAP	The Qin Empire, 221–206 B.C.E. 73	SPOT MAP	The Mongol Conquest of China 262
MAP 3.3	The Han Empire 77	MAP 10.2	Asia Under the Mongols 264
MAP 4.1	Ancient Greece (ca. 750–338 B.C.E.) 88	MAP 11.1	Early Japan 277
SPOT MAP	Minoan Crete and Mycenaean Greece 89	MAP 11.2	Japan's Relations with China and Korea 280
SPOT MAP	The Great Peloponnesian War (431-404	SPOT MAP	Korea's Three Kingdoms 293
	B.C.E.) 97	<b>SPOT MAP</b>	The Kingdom of Dai Viet, 1100 295
MAP 4.2	The Conquests of Alexander the Great 105	MAP 12.1	The Germanic Kingdoms of the Old Western
MAP 4.3	The World of the Hellenistic Kingdoms 108		Empire 303
MAP 5.1	Ancient Italy 115	SPOT MAP	Charlemagne's Empire 304
SPOT MAP	Roman Roads in Italy 118	MAP 12.2	Europe in the High Middle Ages 316
MAP 5.2	Roman Conquests in the Mediterranean,	MAP 12.3	The Migrations of the Slavs 317
	264–133 B.C.E. 119	SPOT MAP	The Byzantine Empire in the Time of
MAP 5.3	The Roman Empire from Augustus Through		Justinian 330
	Trajan (14–117) 124	SPOT MAP	The Byzantine Empire, ca. 750 332
SPOT MAP	Location of Constantinople, the "New	SPOT MAP	The Byzantine Empire, 1025 336
MAD ( 1	Rome" 131	SPOT MAP	The Strait of Malacca 355
MAP 6.1	Early Mesoamerica 146	MAP 14.1	The Songhai Empire 356
MAP 6.2	The Maya Heartland 151	SPOT MAP	The Spice Islands 359
MAP 6.3	The Valley of Mexico Under Aztec Rule 153	MAP 14.2	European Voyages and Possessions in the
MAP 6.4	Early Peoples and Cultures of Central and South America 157	CDOT MAD	Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries 360
MAP 6.5	The Inka Empire About 1500 c.e. 160	SPOT MAP	1
MAP 7.1	The Middle East in the Time of	SPOT MAP	The Arrival of Hernando Cortés in Mexico 362
	Muhammad 170	MAP 14.3	Latin America from ca. 1500 to 1750 364
MAP 7.2	The Expansion of Islam 176	MAP 14.4	
MAP 7.3	The Abbasid Caliphate at the Height of Its	WAF 14.4	Patterns of World Trade Between 1500 and 1800 365
	Power 177	MAP 14.5	The Slave Trade 370
MAP 7.4	The Turkish Occupation of Anatolia 179	MAP 15.1	Europe in the Seventeenth Century 395
SPOT MAP	Spain in the Eleventh Century 181	MAP 16.1	The Ottoman Empire 409
MAP 8.1	Ancient Africa 197		The Ottoman Empire 407

MAP 16.2	The Ottoman and Safavid Empires, ca. 1683 416	MAP 17.3 MAP 18.1	Tokugawa Japan 446 Global Trade Patterns of the European States in
MAP 16.3	The Mughal Empire 419		the Eighteenth Century 467
MAP 16.4	India in 1805 424	<b>MAP 18.2</b>	Europe in 1763 470
MAP 17.1	China and Its Enemies During the Late Ming Era 435	MAP 18.3	Napoleon's Grand Empire 482
MAP 17.2	The Qing Empire in the Eighteenth Century 437		

#### **FEATURES**

#### **OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS**

The Governing of Empires: Two Approaches 27

The Search for Truth 47

A Debate over Good and Evil 68

Women in Athens and Sparta 103

Women in the Roman and Han Empires 128

Action or Inaction: An Ideological Dispute in Medieval China 254

Two Views of Trade and Merchants 311

Causes of the Black Death: Contemporary

Views 343

The March of Civilization 367

A Reformation Debate: Conflict at Marburg 386

The Capture of Port Hoogly 423

Some Confucian Commandments 451

The Natural Rights of the French People: Two Views 477

#### **COMPARATIVE ESSAY**

From Hunter-Gatherers and Herders to Farmers 8 Writing and Civilization 37 The Use of Metals 62

The Axial Age 100

Rulers and Gods 133

History and the Environment 159

Trade and Civilization 185

The Migration of Peoples 201

Caste, Class, and Family 233

The Spread of Technology 257

Feudal Orders Around the World 283

Cities in the Medieval World 313

The Role of Disease in History 342

The Columbian Exchange 368

Marriage in the Early Modern World 388

The Changing Face of War 407

The Population Explosion 440

The Scientific Revolution 462

#### **FILM & HISTORY**

Alexander (2004) 106

Gladiator (2000) 130

The Message (Muhammad: The Messenger of God)

(1976) 171

The Adventures of Marco Polo (1938) and Marco Polo

(2007) 265

Rashomon (1950) 288

The Lion in Winter (1968) 310

Marie Antoinette (2006) 474

#### **PREFACE**

FOR SEVERAL MILLION YEARS after primates first appeared on the surface of the earth, human beings lived in small communities, seeking to survive by hunting, fishing, and foraging in a frequently hostile environment. Then suddenly, in the space of a few thousand years, there was an abrupt change of direction as human beings in a few widely scattered areas of the globe began to master the art of cultivating food crops. As food production increased, the population in those areas rose correspondingly, and people began to congregate in larger communities. They formed governments to provide protection and other needed services to the local population. Cities appeared and became the focal point of cultural and religious development. Historians refer to this process as the beginnings of civilization.

For generations, historians in Europe and the United States pointed to the rise of such civilizations as marking the origins of the modern world. Courses on Western civilization conventionally began with a chapter or two on the emergence of advanced societies in Egypt and Mesopotamia and then proceeded to ancient Greece and the Roman Empire. From Greece and Rome, the road led directly to the rise of modern civilization in the West.

There is nothing inherently wrong with this approach. Important aspects of our world today can indeed be traced back to these early civilizations, and all human beings the world over owe a considerable debt to their achievements. But all too often this interpretation has been used to imply that the course of civilization has been linear in nature, leading directly from the emergence of agricultural societies in ancient Mesopotamia to the rise of advanced industrial societies in Europe and North America. Until recently, most courses on world history taught in the United States routinely focused almost exclusively on the rise of the West, with only a passing glance at other parts of the world, such as Africa, India, and East Asia. The contributions made by those societies to the culture and technology of our own time were often passed over in silence.

Two major reasons have been advanced to justify this approach. Some have argued that it is more important that young minds understand the roots of their own heritage than that of peoples elsewhere in the world. In many cases, however, the motivation for this Eurocentric approach has been the belief that since the time of

Socrates and Aristotle Western civilization has been the sole driving force in the evolution of human society.

Such an interpretation, however, represents a serious distortion of the process. During most of the course of human history, the most advanced civilizations have been not in the West, but in East Asia or the Middle East. A relatively brief period of European dominance culminated with the era of imperialism in the late nineteenth century, when the political, military, and economic power of the advanced nations of the West spread over the globe. During recent generations, however, that dominance has gradually eroded, partly as a result of changes taking place within Western societies and partly because new centers of development are emerging elsewhere on the globe—notably in Asia, with the growing economic strength of China and India and many of their neighbors.

World history, then, has been a complex process in which many branches of the human community have taken an active part, and the dominance of any one area of the world has been a temporary rather than a permanent phenomenon. It will be our purpose in this book to present a balanced picture of this story, with all respect for the richness and diversity of the tapestry of the human experience. Due attention must be paid to the rise of the West, of course, since that has been the most dominant aspect of world history in recent centuries. But the contributions made by other peoples must be given adequate consideration as well, not only in the period prior to 1500 when the major centers of civilization were located in Asia, but also in our own day, when a multipolar pattern of development is clearly beginning to emerge.

Anyone who wishes to teach or write about world history must decide whether to present the topic as an integrated whole or as a collection of different cultures. The world that we live in today, of course, is in many respects an interdependent one in terms of economics as well as culture and communications, a reality that is often expressed by the phrase "global village." The convergence of peoples across the surface of the earth into an integrated world system began in early times and intensified after the rise of capitalism in the early modern era. In growing recognition of this trend, historians trained in global history, as well as instructors in the growing number of world history courses, have now begun to speak

and write of a "global approach" that turns attention away from the study of individual civilizations and focuses instead on the "big picture" or, as the world historian Fernand Braudel termed it, interpreting world history as a river with no banks.

On the whole, this development is to be welcomed as a means of bringing the common elements of the evolution of human society to our attention. But this approach also involves two problems. For the vast majority of their time on earth, human beings have lived in partial or virtually total isolation from each other. Differences in climate, location, and geographic features have created human societies vastly different from each other in culture and historical experience. Only in relatively recent times (the commonly accepted date has long been the beginning of the age of European exploration at the end of the fifteenth century, but some would now push it back to the era of the Mongol Empire or even further) have cultural interchanges begun to create a common "world system," in which events taking place in one part of the world are rapidly transmitted throughout the globe, often with momentous consequences. In recent generations, of course, the process of global interdependence has been proceeding even more rapidly. Nevertheless, even now the process is by no means complete, as ethnic and regional differences continue to exist and to shape the course of world history. The tenacity of these differences and sensitivities is reflected not only in the rise of internecine conflicts in such divergent areas as Africa, India, and eastern Europe, but also in the emergence in recent years of such regional organizations as the African Union, the Association for the Southeast Asian Nations, and the European Union.

The second problem is a practical one. College students today are all too often not well informed about the distinctive character of civilizations such as China and India and, without sufficient exposure to the historical evolution of such societies, will assume all too readily that the peoples in these countries have had historical experiences similar to ours and will respond to various stimuli in a similar fashion to those living in western Europe or the United States. If it is a mistake to ignore those forces that link us together, it is equally a mistake to underestimate those factors that continue to divide us and to differentiate us into a world of diverse peoples.

Our response to this challenge has been to adopt a global approach to world history while at the same time attempting to do justice to the distinctive character and development of individual civilizations and regions of the world. The presentation of individual cultures is especially important in Parts I and II, which cover a time

when it is generally agreed that the process of global integration was not yet far advanced. Later chapters begin to adopt a more comparative and thematic approach, in deference to the greater number of connections that have been established among the world's peoples since the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Part V consists of a series of chapters that center on individual regions of the world while at the same time focusing on common problems related to the Cold War and the rise of global problems such as overproduction and environmental pollution.

We have sought balance in another way as well. Many textbooks tend to simplify the content of history courses by emphasizing an intellectual or political perspective or, most recently, a social perspective, often at the expense of sufficient details in a chronological framework. This approach is confusing to students whose high school social studies programs have often neglected a systematic study of world history. We have attempted to write a well-balanced work in which political, economic, social, religious, intellectual, cultural, and military history have been integrated into a chronologically ordered synthesis.

#### Features of the Text

To enliven the past and let readers see for themselves the materials that historians use to create their pictures of the past, we have included **primary sources** (boxed documents) in each chapter that are keyed to the discussion in the text. The documents include examples of the religious, artistic, intellectual, social, economic, and political aspects of life in different societies and reveal in a vivid fashion what civilization meant to the individual men and women who shaped it by their actions. Questions at the end of each source aid students in analyzing the documents.

Each chapter has a **lengthy introduction** to help maintain the continuity of the narrative and to provide a synthesis of important themes. Anecdotes in the chapter introductions dramatically convey the major theme or themes of each chapter. A **timeline** at the end of each chapter enables students to see the major developments of an era at a glance and within cross-cultural categories, while the more **detailed chronologies** reinforce the events discussed in the text.

Maps and extensive illustrations serve to deepen the reader's understanding of the text. Map captions are designed to enrich students' awareness of the importance of geography to history, and numerous spot maps enable students to see at a glance the region or subject being discussed in the text. Map captions also include a question to guide students' reading of the map. To facilitate

understanding of cultural movements, illustrations of artistic works discussed in the text are placed near the discussions. Chapter outlines and focus questions, including critical thinking questions, at the beginning of each chapter give students a useful overview and guide them to the main subjects of each chapter. The focus questions are then repeated at the beginning of each major section in the chapter to reinforce the main themes. A glossary of important terms (boldfaced in the text when they are introduced and defined) is provided at the back of the book to maximize reader comprehension. A guide to pronunciation is provided in parentheses in the text following the first mention of a complex name or term.

Comparative Essays, keyed to the seven major themes of world history (see p. xxxvi), enable us to more concretely draw comparisons and contrasts across geographic, cultural, and chronological lines. Some new essays have been added to the eighth edition. Comparative illustrations, also keyed to the seven major themes of world history, continue to be a feature in each chapter. Both the comparative essays and the comparative illustrations conclude with focus questions to help students develop their analytical skills. We hope that the comparative essays and the comparative illustrations will assist instructors who wish to encourage their students to adopt a comparative approach to their understanding of the human experience.

The **Film & History** feature, now appearing in many chapters, presents a brief analysis of the plot as well as the historical significance, value, and accuracy of popular films. New features have been added on films such as *Lawrence of Arabia, Triumph of the Will*, and *The Iron Lady*.

The **Opposing Viewpoints** feature presents a comparison of two or three primary sources to facilitate student analysis of historical documents. This feature has been expanded and now appears in almost every chapter. Focus questions are included to help students evaluate the documents.

End-of-chapter elements, first added in the seventh edition, provide study aids for class discussion, individual review, and/or further research. The **Chapter Summary** is illustrated with thumbnail images of chapter illustrations and combined with a **Chapter Timeline**. A **Chapter Review**, which includes **Upon Reflection** essay questions and a list of **Key Terms**, assists students in studying the chapter. **Suggested Readings** (annotated bibliographies) at the end of each chapter highlight the most recent literature on each period and also give references to some of the older, "classic" works in each field.

#### **New to This Edition**

After reexamining the entire book and analyzing the comments and reviews of many colleagues who have found the book to be a useful instrument for introducing their students to world history, we have also made a number of other changes for the eighth edition.

We have continued to strengthen the global framework of the book, but not at the expense of reducing the attention assigned to individual regions of the world. New material has been added to most chapters to help students be aware of similar developments globally, including new comparative sections.

The enthusiastic response to the primary sources (boxed documents) led us to evaluate the content of each document carefully and add new documents throughout the text, including new comparative documents in the Opposing Viewpoints features.

The **Suggested Reading** sections at the end of each chapter have been updated and are organized under subheadings to make them more useful. New illustrations were added to every chapter. **Chapter Notes** have now been placed at the end of each chapter.

A new focus question entitled **Connections to Today** has been added at the beginning of each chapter to help students appreciate the relevance of history by asking them to draw connections between the past and the present.

New historiographical subsections (often marked by headings in question format) have also been added to examine how and why historians differ in their interpretation of specific topics. To keep up with the ever-growing body of historical scholarship, new or revised material has been added throughout the book on many topics (see specific notes below).

## Chapter-by-Chapter Content Revisions

**Chapter 1** New material on religion in Neolithic society, on the role of ritual in ancient Egypt, and on Akhenaten; new Opposing Viewpoints feature, "The Governing of Empires: Two Approaches"; new boxed document, "The Covenant and the Law: The Book of Exodus."

**Chapter 2** Added material on early currency; new boxed document, "Social Classes in Ancient India."

**Chapter 3** New chapter introduction on the "First Emperor of Qin"; new information on early writing and currency; new boxed document, "A Prescription for the

Emperor"; incorporation of material on Han Dynasty (moved from Chapter 5).

**Chapter 4** New and revised material on role of phalanx and colonies in rise of democracy in Greece, on helots and women in Sparta, and on role of Hellenistic cities; new boxed document, "Relations Between Greeks and Non-Greeks."

**Chapter 5** New spot map on "Roman Roads"; new material on the struggle of the Roman orders, on early Christianity, especially Roman women, and on trade with China and India, focusing on the Silk Road and contact between Romans and Chinese; new subsection, "The Nature of Roman Imperialism"; new section, "A Comparison of the Roman and Han Empires"; new boxed document, "The Achievements of Augustus"; new Opposing Viewpoint feature, "Women in the Roman and Han Empires"; new Comparative Illustration, "Emperors, West and East."

**Chapter 6** Revised chapter introduction on the arrival of the first Americans; new boxed document, "Aztec Religion Through Spanish Eyes"; new material on early civilizations in South America.

**Chapter 7** Revised chapter introduction on Muhammad; two new boxed documents, "Love for a Camel" and "The Spread of the Muslim Faith."

**Chapter 8** New material on the kingdom of Kush; two new boxed documents, "A Chinese View of Africa" and "A West African Oral Tradition."

**Chapter 9** Added material on the introduction and early exploitation of cotton and sugar in India; reworked material on Chinese and Indian influence in Southeast Asia; new boxed document, "Chinese Traders in the Philippines."

**Chapter 10** Revised section on the voyages of Zheng He; two new boxed documents, "Proper Etiquette in Song China" and "Two Tang Poets."

**Chapter 11** Revised section on the early history of Korea; two new boxed documents, "The Expedition of Emperor Jimmu" and "A Plea to the New Emperor."

**Chapter 12** New historiographical subsection, "What Was the Significance of Charlemagne?"; new material on roles of peasant women, on women in medieval cities, and on commercial capitalism; new Opposing Viewpoints feature, "Two Views of Trade and Merchants."

**Chapter 13** New subsection, "Women in the Byzantine Empire"; new subsection, "Europe and the World"; two new boxed documents, "A Byzantine Emperor Gives Military Advice" and "Christian Crusaders Capture Constantinople."

**Chapter 14** Revised introduction to Part II; revised material on cartography, navigation, and triangular trade; two new boxed documents, "The Portuguese Conquest of Malacca" and "A Plea Between Friends."

**Chapter 15** New material on Martin Luther and the Peasants' War, on Queen Elizabeth I, on Gian Lorenzo Bernini, and on Judith Leyster; new boxed document, "Queen Elizabeth I: 'I Have the Heart of a King'"; new historiographical subsection, "Was There a Military Revolution?"

**Chapter 16** New historiographical subsection, "The Ottoman Empire: A Civilization in Decline?"; new boxed document, "The Conquest of Constantinople."

**Chapter 17** Two new boxed documents, "A Plea for Women's Education" and "Toyotomi Expels the Missionaries."

**Chapter 18** New material on a consumer revolution in the eighteenth century and on the finances of the French court.

**Chapter 19** New material on the world economy and on business history and entrepreneurs.

**Chapter 20** New material on the lower classes and prostitution and on Romanticism, especially Caspar David Friedrich; new boxed document, "Flaubert and an Image of Bourgeois Marriage."

**Chapter 21** Two new boxed documents, "The Effects of Dutch Colonialism in Java" and "Tragedy at Caffard Cove."

**Chapter 22** Revised section on the Chinese economy; new Opposing Viewpoints document, "Practical Learning or Confucian Essence: The Debate over Reform"; two new boxed documents, "The Roots of Rebellion" and "The Charter Oath."

**Chapter 23** New material on women in the war effort and on the Great Depression.

**Chapter 24** Revised section on Chinese economy; new boxed document, "The Zionist Case for Palestine"; new Film & History feature, "Lawrence of Arabia."

**Chapter 25** New historiographical subsection, "The Retreat from Democracy: Did Europe Have Totalitarian States?"; new material on totalitarianism, especially on favorable view of radicalized politics, and on collectivization of agriculture in the Soviet Union; new boxed document, "Heinrich Himmler: 'We Had the Moral Right.'"

**Chapter 26** Reworked part introduction for Part V; reworked section on the Vietnam War; revised boxed document, "A Plea for Peaceful Coexistence"; new Opposing Viewpoints feature, "Confrontation in Southeast Asia"; new Film & History feature, "Dr. Strangelove."

**Chapter 27** Reworked sections on "Riding the Tiger" and "Back to Confucius"; updated material on Chinese political situation; two new boxed documents, "Václav Havel: A Call for a New Politics" and "Make Revolution."

**Chapter 28** New section on "The West and Islam"; new material on France, Germany, Russia, the United States, and Latin America; new Film & History feature, "The Iron Lady"; new boxed document, "A Child's Account of Sarajevo."

**Chapter 29** New chapter introduction on Islamic radicalism in West Africa; updated material on current situations in Africa and the Middle East; revised sections on "The Politics of Islam" and "Economics and Islam"; new boxed document with speech by Osama bin Laden, "I Accuse"; new boxed document, "The Arab Case for Palestine."

**Chapter 30** Revised sections on Pakistan and Japan; updated discussion on all countries; Film & History feature "Gandhi" moved here from Chapter 24; two new boxed documents, "Japan Renounces War" and "Return to the Motherland."

**Epilogue** New material on the global economy.

#### **Instructor Resources**

MindTap<sup>TM</sup> MindTap for *The Essential World History* 8e is a personalized, online digital learning platform providing students with an immersive learning experience that builds critical thinking skills. Through a carefully designed chapter-based learning path, MindTap allows students to easily identify the chapter's learning objectives, improve their writing skills by completing unit-level essay assessments, read short, manageable sections from the eBook, and test their content knowledge with a Chapter Test that employs Aplia<sup>TM</sup> (see Chapter Test description below).

- Setting the Scene: Each chapter of the MindTap begins
  with a brief video that introduces the chapter's major
  themes in a compelling, visual way that encourages
  students to think critically about the subject matter.
- Review Activities: Each chapter includes reading comprehension assignments designed to cover the content of each major heading within the chapter.
- Chapter Test: Each chapter within MindTap ends with
  a summative Chapter Test. It covers each chapter's
  learning objectives and is built using Aplia critical
  thinking questions. Aplia provides automatically
  graded critical thinking assignments with detailed, immediate explanations on every question. Students can

- also choose to see another set of related questions if they did not earn all available points in their first attempt and want more practice.
- Reflection Activity: Every chapter ends with an assignable, gradable reflection activity, intended as a brief writing assignment through which students can apply a theme or idea they've just studied.
- Unit Activities: Chapters in MindTap are organized into multichapter units. Each unit includes a brief set of higher-stakes activities for instructors to assign, designed to assess students on their writing and critical thinking skills and their ability to engage larger themes, concepts, and material across multiple chapters.
- Classroom Activities: MindTap includes a brief list of inclass activity ideas for instructors that are designed to increase student collaboration, engagement, and understanding of selected topics or themes. These activities, including class debate scenarios and primary source discussion guides, can enrich the classroom experience for both instructors and students.

MindTap also includes a variety of other tools that will make history more engaging for students:

- ReadSpeaker reads the text aloud to students in a voice they can customize.
- Note taking and highlighting are organized in a central location that can be synced with Evernote on any mobile device a student may have access to.
- Questia allows professors to search a database of thousands of peer-reviewed journals, newspapers, magazines, and full-length books; all assets can be added to any relevant chapter in MindTap.
- Kaltura allows instructors to insert inline video and audio into the MindTap platform.
- ConnectYard allows instructors to create digital "yards" through social media, all without "friending" students.

MindTap for *The Essential World History* 8e goes well beyond an eBook and a homework solution. It is truly a personal learning experience that allows you to synchronize the reading with engaging assignments. To learn more, ask your Cengage Learning sales representative to demo it for you—or go to www.Cengage.com/MindTap.

Instructor Companion Website This website, accessible through Cengage.com/login with your faculty account, is an all-in-one resource for class preparation, presentation, and testing for instructors. It includes an Instructor's Manual, PowerPoint presentations (descriptions below), and test bank files (please see Cognero® description).

*Instructor's Manual* This manual contains for each chapter: learning objectives, chapter outlines and summaries, lecture suggestions, suggested research topics, discussion questions for primary source documents, and suggested readings and resources.

PowerPoint® Lecture Tools These presentations are ready-to-use, visual outlines of each chapter that are easily customized for your lectures. There are presentations of only lecture or only images, as well as combined lecture and image presentations. Also available is a per chapter JPEG library of images and maps.

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#### THEMES FOR UNDERSTANDING WORLD HISTORY

**AS THEY PURSUE** their craft, historians often organize their material on the basis of themes that enable them to ask and try to answer basic questions about the past. Such is our intention here. In preparing the eighth edition of this book, we have selected several major themes that we believe are especially important in understanding the course of world history. Thinking about these themes will help students to perceive the similarities and differences among cultures since the beginning of the human experience.

In the chapters that follow, we will refer to these themes frequently as we advance from the prehistoric era to the present. Where appropriate, we shall make comparisons across cultural boundaries or across different time periods. To facilitate this process, we have included a comparative essay in each chapter that focuses on a particular theme within the specific time period covered by that chapter. For example, the comparative essay in Chapter 6 deals with the human impact on the natural environment during the premodern era, while the essay in Chapter 30 discusses the same issue in the contemporary world. Each comparative essay is identified with a particular theme, although many essays touch on multiple themes.

We have sought to illustrate these themes through the use of comparative illustrations in each chapter. These illustrations are comparative in nature and seek to encourage the reader to think about thematic issues in cross-cultural terms, while not losing sight of the unique characteristics of individual societies. Our seven themes, each divided into two subtopics, are listed below.



1. Politics and Government The study of politics seeks to answer certain basic questions that historians have about the structure of a society: How were people governed? What

was the relationship between the ruler and the ruled? What people or groups of people (the political elites) held political power? What actions did people take to guarantee their security or change their form of government?



2. Art and Ideas We cannot understand a society without looking at its culture, or the common ideas, beliefs, and patterns of behavior that are passed on from one gener-

ation to the next. Culture includes both high culture and popular culture. High culture consists of the writings of a society's thinkers and the works of its artists. A society's popular culture encompasses the ideas and experiences of ordinary people. Today, the media have embraced the

term popular culture to describe the current trends and fashionable styles.



3. Religion and Philosophy Throughout history, people have sought to find a deeper meaning to human life. How have the world's great religions, such as Hinduism,

Buddhism, Judaism, Christianity, and Islam, influenced people's lives? How have they spread to create new patterns of culture in other parts of the world?



**4.** Family and Society The most basic social unit in human society has always been the family. From a study of family and social patterns, we learn about the different social classes that

make up a society and their relationships with one another. We also learn about the role of gender in individual societies. What different roles did men and women play in their societies? How and why were those roles different?



5. Science and Technology For thousands of years, people around the world have made scientific discoveries and technological innovations that have changed our world. From the

creation of stone tools that made farming easier to advanced computers that guide our airplanes, science and technology have altered how humans have related to their world.



6. Earth and the Environment Throughout history, peoples and societies have been affected by the physical world in which they live. Climatic changes alone have been an

important factor in human history. Through their economic activities, peoples and societies, in turn, have also made an impact on their world. Human activities have affected the physical environment and even endangered the very existence of entire societies and species.



7. Interaction and Exchange Many world historians believe that the exchange of ideas and innovations is the driving force behind the evolution of human societies. Knowl-

edge of agriculture, writing and printing, metalworking, and navigational techniques, for example, spread gradually from one part of the world to other regions and eventually changed the face of the entire globe. The process of cultural and technological exchange took place in various ways, including trade, conquest, and the migration of peoples.

xxxiii

## A NOTE TO STUDENTS ABOUT LANGUAGES AND THE DATING OF TIME

One of the most difficult challenges in studying world history is coming to grips with the multitude of names, words, and phrases in unfamiliar languages. Unfortunately, this problem has no easy solution. We have tried to alleviate the difficulty, where possible, by providing an English-language translation of foreign words or phrases, a glossary, and a pronunciation guide in parentheses in the text. The issue is especially complicated in the case of Chinese because two separate systems are commonly used to transliterate the spoken Chinese language into the Roman alphabet. The Wade-Giles system, invented in the nineteenth century, was the most frequently used until recent years, when the pinyin system was adopted by the People's Republic of China as its own official form of transliteration. We have opted to use the latter, as it appears to be gaining acceptance in the United States.

In our examination of world history, we also need to be aware of the dating of time. In recording the past, historians try to determine the exact time when events occurred. World War II in Europe, for example, began on September 1, 1939, when Adolf Hitler sent German troops into Poland, and ended on May 7, 1945, when Germany surrendered. By using dates, historians can place events in order and try to determine the development of patterns over periods of time.

If someone asked you when you were born, you would reply with a number, such as 1997. In the United States, we would all accept that number without question, because it is part of the dating system followed in the Western world (Europe and the Western Hemisphere). In this system, events are dated by counting backward or forward from the birth of Christ (assumed to be the year 1). An event that took place 400 years before the birth of Christ would commonly be dated 400 B.C. (before Christ). Dates after the birth of Christ are labeled as A.D. These letters stand for the Latin words *anno domini*, which mean "in the year of the Lord" (or the year of the birth of Christ). Thus, an event that took place 250 years after the birth of Christ is written A.D. 250, or in the year of the Lord 250. It can also be written as 250,

just as you would not give your birth year as A.D. 1997, but simply as 1997.

Some historians now prefer to use the abbreviations B.C.E. ("before the common era") and C.E. ("common era") instead of B.C. and A.D. This is especially true of world historians who prefer to use symbols that are not so Western or Christian oriented. The dates, of course, remain the same. Thus, 1950 B.C.E. and 1950 B.C. are the same year, as are A.D. 40 and 40 C.E. In keeping with the current usage by many world historians, this book will use the terms B.C.E. and C.E.

Historians also make use of other terms to refer to time. A decade is 10 years; a century is 100 years; and a millennium is 1,000 years. The phrase "fourth century B.C.E." refers to the fourth period of 100 years counting backward from 1, the assumed date of the birth of Christ. Since the first century B.C.E. would be the years 100 B.C.E. to 1 B.C.E., the fourth century B.C.E. would be the years 400 B.C.E. to 301 B.C.E. We could say, then, that an event in 350 B.C.E. took place in the fourth century B.C.E.

The phrase "fourth century C.E." refers to the fourth period of 100 years after the birth of Christ. Since the first period of 100 years would be the years 1 to 100, the fourth period or fourth century would be the years 301 to 400. We could say, then, for example, that an event in 350 took place in the fourth century. Likewise, the first millennium B.C.E. refers to the years 1000 B.C.E. to 1 B.C.E.; the second millennium C.E. refers to the years 1001 to 2000.

The dating of events can also vary from people to people. Most people in the Western world use the Western calendar, also known as the Gregorian calendar after Pope Gregory XIII, who refined it in 1582. The Hebrew calendar, on the other hand, uses a different system in which the year 1 is the equivalent of the Western year 3760 B.C.E., considered by Jews to be the date of the creation of the world. Thus, the Western year 2015 is the year 5775 on the Jewish calendar. The Islamic calendar begins year 1 on the day Muhammad fled from Mecca, which is the year 622 on the Western calendar.

# THE ESSENTIAL WORLD HISTORY

**VOLUME I: TO 1800** 

PART

## The First Civilizations and the Rise of Empires (Prehistory to 500 c.E.)

- 1 EARLY HUMANS AND THE FIRST CIVILIZATIONS
- 2 ANCIENT INDIA
- 3 China in Antiquity
- 4 THE CIVILIZATION OF THE GREEKS
- 5 THE ROMAN WORLD EMPIRE

FOR HUNDREDS OF THOUSANDS of years, human beings lived in small groups or villages, seeking to survive by hunting, fishing, and foraging in an often hostile environment. Then, in the space of a few thousand years, an abrupt change occurred as people in a few areas of the globe began to master the art of cultivating food crops. As food production increased, the population in these areas grew, and people began to live in larger communities. Cities appeared and became centers of cultural and religious development. Historians refer to these changes as the beginnings of civilization.

How and why did the first civilizations arise? What role did cross-cultural contacts play in their development? What was the nature of the relationship between these permanent settlements and nonagricultural peoples living elsewhere in the world? Finally, what brought about the demise of these early civilizations, and what legacy did they leave for their successors in the region? The first civilizations that emerged in Mesopotamia, Egypt, India, and China in the fourth and third millennia B.C.E. all shared a number of basic characteristics. Perhaps most important was that each developed in a river valley that was able to provide the agricultural resources needed to maintain a large population.

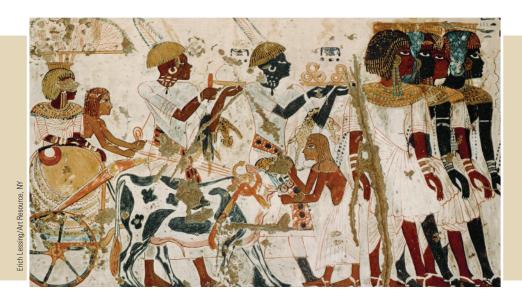
The emergence of these sedentary societies had a major impact on the social organizations, religious beliefs, and ways of life of the peoples living in them. As

the population increased and cities sprang up, centralized authority became a necessity. And in the cities, new forms of livelihood arose to satisfy the growing demand for social services and consumer goods. Some people became artisans or merchants; others became warriors, scholars, or priests. In some cases, the early cities reflected the hierarchical character of the society as a whole, with a central royal palace surrounded by an imposing wall to separate the rulers from the remainder of the urban population.

Although the emergence of the first civilizations led to the formation of cities governed by elites, the vast majority of the population consisted of peasants or slaves working on the lands of the wealthy. In general, rural peoples were less affected by the changes than their urban counterparts. Farmers continued to live in simple mud-and-thatch huts, and many continued to face legal restrictions on their freedom of action and movement. Slavery was common in virtually all ancient societies.

Within these civilizations, the nature of social organization and relationships also began to change. As the concept of private property spread, people were less likely to live in large kinship groups, and the nuclear family became increasingly prevalent. Gender roles came to be differentiated, with men working in the fields or at various specialized occupations and women remaining in the home. Wives were less likely to be viewed as partners than as possessions under the control of their husbands.

These new civilizations were also the sites of significant religious and cultural developments. All of them gave birth to new religions that sought to explain and even influence the forces of nature. Winning the approval of the gods was deemed crucial to a community's success, and a professional class of priests emerged to handle relations with the divine world.



Writing was an important development in the evolution of these new civilizations. Eventually, all of them used writing as both a means of communication and an avenue of creative expression.

From the beginnings of the first civilizations around 3000 B.C.E., the trend was toward the creation of larger territorial states with more sophisticated systems of control. This process reached a high point in the first millennium B.C.E. Between 1000 and 500 B.C.E., the Assyrians and Persians amassed empires that encompassed large areas of the Middle East. The conquests of Alexander the Great in the fourth century B.C.E. created an even larger, if short-lived, empire that soon divided into four kingdoms. Later, the western portion of these kingdoms, along with the Mediterranean world and much of western Europe, fell subject to the mighty empire of the Romans. At the same time, much of India became part of the Mauryan Empire. Finally, in the last few centuries B.C.E., the Qin and Han Dynasties of China created a unified Chinese empire.

At first, these new civilizations had relatively little contact with peoples in the surrounding regions. But evidence is growing that a regional trade had started to take hold in the Middle East, and probably in southern and eastern Asia as well, at a very early date. As the population increased, the volume of trade rose with it, and the new civilizations moved outward to acquire new lands and access needed resources. As they expanded, they began to encounter peoples along the periphery of their empires.

Little evidence has survived to know the nature of these first encounters, but it is likely that the results varied widely according to time and place. In some cases, the growing civilizations found it relatively easy to absorb the isolated communities of agricultural or food-gathering peoples that they encountered. Such was the case in southern China and southern India. But in other instances, notably among the nomadic or seminomadic peoples in the central and northeastern parts of Asia, the problem was more complicated and often resulted in bitter and extended conflict.

Over a long period of time, contacts between these no-madic or seminomadic peoples and settled civilizations gradually developed. Often the relationship, at least at the outset, was mutually beneficial, as each needed goods produced by the other. As early as 3000 B.C.E., nomadic peoples in Central Asia also served as an important link for goods and ideas transported over distances between sedentary civilizations. Overland trade throughout southwestern Asia was already well established by the third millennium B.C.E.

Eventually, the relationship between the settled peoples and the nomadic peoples became increasingly tense. Where conflict occurred, the governments of the sedentary civilizations used a variety of techniques to resolve the problem, including negotiations, conquest, or alliance with other pastoral peoples to isolate their primary tormentors.

In the end, these early civilizations collapsed not only as a result of nomadic invasions but also because of their own weaknesses, which made them increasingly vulnerable to attacks along the frontier. Some of their problems were political, and others were related to climatic change or environmental problems.

The fall of the ancient empires did not mark the end of civilization, of course, but rather served as a transition to a new stage of increasing complexity in the evolution of human society.

снартек 1

## Early Humans and the First Civilizations



Excavation of Warka showing the ruins of Uruk

## CHAPTER OUTLINE AND FOCUS QUESTIONS

#### The First Humans

How did the Paleolithic and Neolithic Ages differ, and how did the Neolithic Revolution affect the lives of men and women?

#### The Emergence of Civilization

What are the characteristics of civilization, and where did the first civilizations emerge?

#### Civilization in Mesopotamia

How are the chief characteristics of civilization evident in ancient Mesopotamia?

#### Egyptian Civilization: "The Gift of the Nile"

What are the basic features of the three major periods of Egyptian history? What elements of continuity are evident in the three periods? What are their major differences?

#### **New Centers of Civilization**

What was the significance of the Indo-Europeans?
How did Judaism differ from the religions of
Mesopotamia and Egypt?

#### The Rise of New Empires

What methods and institutions did the Assyrians and Persians use to amass and maintain their respective empires?

#### CRITICAL THINKING

In what ways were the civilizations of Mesopotamia and North Africa alike? In what ways were they different? What accounts for the similarities and differences?

#### **CONNECTIONS TO TODAY**

What lessons can you learn from the decline and fall of early civilizations in Mesopotamia, Egypt, Assyria, and Persia, and how do those lessons apply to today's civilizations?

IN 1849, A DARING YOUNG ENGLISHMAN made a hazardous journey into the deserts and swamps of southern Iraq. Braving high winds and temperatures that reached 120 degrees Fahrenheit, William Loftus led a small expedition southward along the banks of the Euphrates River in search of the roots of civilization. As he said, "From our childhood we have been led to regard this place as the cradle of the human race."

Guided by native Arabs into the southernmost reaches of Iraq, Loftus and his small band of explorers were soon overwhelmed by what they saw. He wrote, "I know of nothing more exciting or impressive than the first sight of one of these great piles, looming in solitary grandeur from the surrounding plains and marshes." One

of these piles, known to the natives as the mound of Warka, contained the ruins of Uruk, one of the first cities in the world and part of the world's first civilizations.

Southern Iraq, known to the ancient Greeks as Mesopotamia, was one of the areas in the world where civilization began. In the fertile valleys of large rivers—the Tigris and Euphrates in Mesopotamia, the Nile in Egypt, the Indus in India, and the Yellow River in China—intensive agriculture became capable of supporting large groups of people. In these regions, civilization was born. The first civilizations emerged in western Asia (now known as the Middle East) and Egypt, where people developed organized societies and created the ideas and institutions that we associate with civilization.

Before considering the early civilizations of western Asia and Egypt, however, we must briefly examine our prehistory and observe how human beings made the shift from hunting and gathering to agricultural communities and ultimately to cities and civilization.

#### The First Humans



**FOCUS QUESTION:** How did the Paleolithic and Neolithic Ages differ, and how did the Neolithic Revolution affect the lives of men and women?

The earliest humanlike creatures—known as hominids—lived in Africa some 3 to 4 million years ago. Called Austral-opithecines (aw-stray-loh-PITH-uh-synz), or "southern ape men," by their discoverers, they flourished in eastern and southern Africa and were the first hominids to make simple stone tools. Australopithecines may also have been bipedal—that is, they may have walked upright on two legs, a trait that would have enabled them to move over long distances and make use of their arms and legs for different purposes.

In 1959, Louis and Mary Leakey discovered a new form of hominid in Africa that they labeled *Homo habilis* ("skilled human"). The Leakeys believed that *Homo habilis*, which had a brain almost 50 percent larger than that of the Australopithecines, was the earliest toolmaking hominid. Their larger brains and ability to walk upright allowed these hominids to become more sophisticated in searching for meat, seeds, and nuts for nourishment.

A new phase in early human development occurred around 1.5 million years ago with the emergence of *Homo erectus* ("upright human"). A more advanced human form, *Homo erectus* made use of larger and more varied tools and was the first hominid to leave Africa and move into Europe and Asia.

#### The Emergence of Homo sapiens

Around 250,000 years ago, a crucial stage in human development began with the emergence of *Homo sapiens* (HOH-moh SAY-pee-unz) ("wise human being"). The first anatomically modern humans, known as *Homo sapiens sapiens* ("wise, wise human being"), appeared in Africa between 200,000 and 150,000 years ago. Recent evidence indicates that they began to spread outside Africa around 70,000 years ago. Map 1.1 shows probable dates for different movements, although many of these are still controversial.

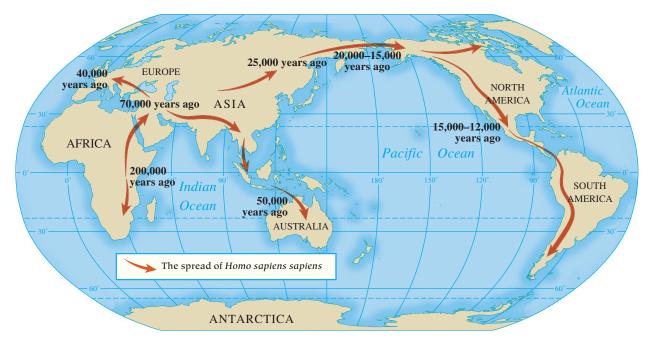
These modern humans, who were our direct ancestors, soon encountered other hominids, such as the Neanderthals, whose remains were first found in the Neander Valley in Germany. Neanderthal remains have since been found in both Europe and western Asia and have been dated to between 200,000 and 30,000 B.C.E. Neanderthals relied on a variety of stone tools and were the first early people to bury their dead. By 30,000 B.C.E., *Homo sapiens sapiens* had replaced the Neanderthals, who had largely become extinct.

THE SPREAD OF HUMANS: OUT OF AFRICA OR MULTIREGIONAL? The movements of the first modern humans were rarely sudden or rapid. Groups of people advanced beyond their old hunting grounds at a rate of only two to three miles per generation. This was enough, however, to populate the world in some tens of thousands of years. Some scholars who advocate a multiregional theory have suggested that advanced human creatures may have emerged independently in different parts of world, rather than in Africa alone. But the latest genetic, archaeological, and climatic evidence strongly supports the out-of-Africa theory as the most likely explanation of human origin. In any case, by 10,000 B.C.E., members of the Homo sapiens sapiens species could be found throughout the world. By that time, it was the only human species left. All humans today, whether Europeans, Australian Aborigines, or Africans, belong to the same subspecies of human being.

## The Hunter-Gatherers of the Paleolithic Age

One of the basic distinguishing features of the human species is the ability to make tools. The earliest tools were made of stone, and so this early period of human history (ca. 2,500,000–10,000 B.C.E.) has been designated the **Paleolithic Age** (*paleolithic* is Greek for "old stone").

For hundreds of thousands of years, humans relied on gathering and hunting for their daily food. Paleolithic



MAP 1.1 The Spread of Homo sapiens sapiens. Homo sapiens sapiens spread from Africa beginning about 70,000 years ago. Living and traveling in small groups, these anatomically modern humans were hunter-gatherers.

Given that some diffusion of humans occurred during ice ages, how would such climate change affect humans and their movements, especially from Asia to Australia and Asia to North America?

peoples had a close relationship with the world around them, and over a period of time, they came to know which plants to eat and which animals to hunt. They gathered wild nuts, berries, fruits, and a variety of wild grains and green plants. Around the world, they captured and consumed various animals, including buffalo, reindeer, and fish.

The gathering of wild plants and the hunting of animals no doubt led to certain patterns of living. Paleolithic people probably lived in small bands of twenty or thirty. They were nomadic, moving from place to place to follow animal migrations and vegetation cycles. Over the years, their tools became more refined and more useful. The invention of the spear and later the bow and arrow made hunting considerably easier. Harpoons and fishhooks made of bone increased the catch of fish.

Both men and women were responsible for finding food—the chief work of Paleolithic people. Since women bore and raised the children, they generally stayed close to the camps, but they played an important role in acquiring food by gathering berries, nuts, and grains. Men hunted for wild animals, an activity that often took them far from camp. Because both men and women played important roles in providing for the band's

survival, many scientists believe that a rough equality existed between men and women.

Some groups of Paleolithic people found shelter in caves, but over time, they also created new types of shelter. Perhaps the most common was a simple structure of wood poles or sticks covered with animal hides. The systematic use of fire, which archaeologists believe began around 500,000 years ago, made it possible for the caves and human-made structures to have light and heat. Fire also enabled early humans to cook their food, which made it taste better, last longer, and, in the case of some plants such as wild grain, easier to chew and digest.

The making of tools and the use of fire—two important technological innovations of Paleolithic peoples—remind us how crucial the ability to adapt was to human survival. But Paleolithic peoples did more than just survive. The cave paintings of large animals found in southwestern France and northern Spain bear witness to the cultural activity of Paleolithic peoples. A cave discovered in southern France in 1994 contains more than three hundred paintings of lions, oxen, owls, bears, and other animals. Most of these are animals that Paleolithic people did not hunt, which suggests that the paintings were made for religious or even decorative purposes.

## The Neolithic Revolution, ca. 10,000–4000 B.C.E.

The end of the last ice age around 10,000 B.C.E. was followed by what is called the **Neolithic Revolution**, a significant change in living patterns that occurred in the New Stone Age (*neolithic* is Greek for "new stone"). The name *New Stone Age* is misleading, however. Although Neolithic peoples made a new type of polished stone axes, this was not the most significant change they introduced.

A REVOLUTION IN AGRICULTURE The biggest change was the shift from gathering plants and hunting animals for sustenance (food gathering) to producing food by systematic agriculture (food production). The planting of grains and vegetables provided a regular supply of food, while the domestication of animals, such as sheep, goats, cattle, and pigs, added a steady source of meat, milk, and fibers such as wool for clothing. The growing of crops and the taming of food-producing animals created a new relationship between humans and nature, which historians like to speak of as an agricultural revolution (see the Comparative Essay "From Hunter-Gatherers and Herders to Farmers" on p. 8). Revolutionary change is dramatic and requires great effort, but the ability to acquire food on a regular basis gave humans greater control over their environment and enabled them to give up their nomadic ways of life and live in settled communities. The increase in food supplies also led to a noticeable expansion of the population.

Systematic agriculture developed independently in different areas of the world between 8000 and 5000 B.C.E. Inhabitants of the Middle East began cultivating wheat and barley and domesticating pigs, cattle, goats, and sheep by 8000 B.C.E. From the Middle East, farming spread into southeastern Europe and by 4000 B.C.E. was well established in central Europe and the coastal regions of the Mediterranean. The cultivation of wheat and barley also spread from western Asia into the Nile Valley of Egypt by 6000 B.C.E. and soon spread up the Nile to other areas of Africa. In the woodlands and tropical forests of Central Africa, a separate farming system emerged, based on the cultivation of tubers or root crops such as yams. The cultivation of wheat and barley also moved eastward into the highlands of northwestern and central India between 7000 and 5000 B.C.E. By 5000 B.C.E., rice was being cultivated in Southeast Asia, and from there it spread into southern China. In northern China, the cultivation of millet and the domestication of pigs and dogs seemed well established by 6000 B.C.E. In the Western Hemisphere, Mesoamericans (inhabitants of present-day

Mexico and Central America) domesticated beans, squash, and maize (corn) as well as dogs and fowl between 7000 and 5000 B.C.E.

#### CONSEQUENCES OF THE NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION

The growing of crops on a regular basis gave rise to more permanent settlements, which historians refer to as Neolithic farming villages or towns. Although Neolithic villages appeared in Europe, India, Egypt, China, and Mesoamerica, the oldest and most extensive ones were located in the Middle East. Çatal Hüyük (chaht-ul hoo-YOOK), located in modern Turkey, had walls that enclosed thirty-two acres, and its population probably reached six thousand inhabitants during its high point from 6700 to 5700 B.C.E. People lived in simple mud-brick houses that were built so close to one another that there were few streets. To get to their homes, people had to walk along the rooftops and enter the house through a hole in the roof.

Religious shrines housing figures of gods and goddesses have been found at Çatal Hüyük, as have a number of female statuettes. Molded with noticeably large breasts and buttocks, these "earth mothers" perhaps symbolically represented the fertility of both "our mother" earth and human mothers. The shrines and the statues point to the important role of religious practices in the lives of these Neolithic peoples.

The Neolithic agricultural revolution had far-reaching consequences. Once people settled in villages or towns, they built houses for protection and other structures for the storage of goods. As organized communities stored food and accumulated material goods, they began to engage in trade. People also began to specialize in certain crafts, and a division of labor developed. Pottery was made from clay and baked in a fire to make it hard. The pots were used for cooking and to store grains. Stone tools became more refined as flint blades were used to make sickles and hoes for use in the fields. Vegetable fibers from such plants as flax and cotton were used to make thread that was woven into cloth. Many of the food plants consumed today began to be cultivated in the Neolithic Age.

The change to systematic agriculture in the Neolithic Age also had consequences for the relationship between men and women. Men assumed the primary responsibility for working in the fields and herding animals, jobs that kept them away from the home. Women remained behind, grinding grain into flour, caring for the children, weaving clothes, and performing other household tasks that required considerable labor. In time, as work outside the home was increasingly perceived as more important

### From Hunter-Gatherers and Herders to Farmers



About ten thousand years ago, human beings began to practice the cultivation of crops and the domestication of animals. The first farmers undoubtedly used

simple techniques and still relied primarily on other forms of food production, such as hunting, foraging, and pastoralism (herding). The real breakthrough came when farmers began to cultivate crops along the floodplains of river systems. The advantage was that crops grown in such areas were not as dependent on rainfall and therefore produced a more reliable harvest. An additional benefit was that the sediment carried by the river waters deposited nutrients in the soil, enabling a farmer to cultivate a single plot of ground for many years without moving to a new location. Thus, the first truly sedentary (nonmigratory) societies were born.

The spread of river valley agriculture in various parts of Asia and Africa was the decisive factor in the rise of the first civilizations. The increase in food production in these regions made possible a significant growth in population, while efforts to control the flow of water to maximize the irrigation of cultivated areas and to protect the local inhabitants from hostile forces outside the community led to the first steps toward cooperative activities on a large scale. The need to oversee the entire process brought about the emergence of an elite that was eventually transformed into a government.

We shall investigate this process in the next several chapters as we explore the rise of civilizations in the Mediterranean, the Middle East, South Asia, China, and the Americas. We shall also raise a number of important questions: Why did human communities in some areas that had the capacity to support agriculture not take the leap to farming? Why did other groups that had managed to master the cultivation of crops not take the next step and create large and advanced societies? Finally, what happened to the existing communities of hunter-gatherers who were overrun or driven out as the agricultural revolution spread throughout the world?

Over the years, a number of possible explanations, some of them biological, others cultural or environmental in nature, have been advanced to answer such questions. According to Jared Diamond, in *Guns, Germs, and Steel: The Fates of Human Societies*, the ultimate causes of such differences lie not within the character or cultural values of the resident population but in the nature of the local climate and topography. These influence the degree to which local crops and animals can be put to human use and then be transmitted to adjoining regions. In Mesopotamia, for example, the widespread availability of edible crops, such as wheat and barley, helped promote the transition to agriculture in the region. At the same time, the absence of land barriers between

Mesopotamia and its neighbors to the east and west facilitated the rapid spread of agricultural techniques and crops to climatically similar regions in the Indus River Valley and Egypt.



What role did agriculture play in the emergence of civilization?

**Women's Work.** This rock painting from a cave in modern-day Algeria, dating from around the fourth millennium B.C.E., shows women harvesting grain.



than work done at home, men came to play the more dominant role in society, which gave rise to the practice of **patriarchy** (PAY-tree-ark-ee), or a society dominated by men, a basic pattern that has persisted to our own times.

Other patterns set in the Neolithic Age also proved to be enduring elements of human history. Fixed dwellings, domesticated animals, regular farming, a division of labor, men holding power—all of these are part of the human story. For all of our scientific and technological progress, human survival still depends on the growing and storing of food, an accomplishment of people in the Neolithic Age. The Neolithic Revolution was truly a turning point in human history.

Between 4000 and 3000 B.C.E., significant technical developments began to transform the Neolithic towns. The invention of writing enabled records to be kept, and the use of metals marked a new level of human control over the environment and its resources. Already before 4000 B.C.E., artisans had discovered that metal-bearing rocks could be heated to liquefy metals, which could then be cast in molds to produce tools and weapons that were more useful than stone instruments. Although copper was the first metal to be used for producing tools, after 4000 B.C.E., metalworkers in western Asia discovered that combining copper and tin formed bronze, a much harder and more durable metal than copper alone. Its widespread use has led historians to speak of the Bronze Age from around 3000 to 1200 B.C.E.; thereafter, bronze was increasingly replaced by iron.

At first, Neolithic settlements were hardly more than villages. But as their inhabitants mastered the art of farming,

more complex human societies gradually emerged. As wealth increased, these societies began to develop armies and to wall off their cities for protection. By the beginning of the Bronze Age, the concentration of larger numbers of people in river valleys was leading to a whole new pattern for human life.



**Statue from Ain Ghazal.** This lifesize statue made of plaster and bitumen was discovered in 1984 in Ain Ghazal, an archaeological site near Amman, Jordan. Dating from 6500 B.C.E., it is among the oldest known statues of the human figure. Although it appears lifelike, the features are too generic to be a portrait of a particular individual. The purpose and meaning of this sculpture may never be known. (Erich Lessing/Art Resource, NY)

## The Emergence of Civilization

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**FOCUS QUESTION:** What are the characteristics of civilization, and where did the first civilizations emerge?

As human societies grew and developed greater complexity, civilization came into being. A **civilization** is a complex culture in which large numbers of people share a variety of common elements. Historians have identified a number of basic characteristics of civilization, including the following:

- An urban focus. Cities became the centers for political, economic, social, cultural, and religious development.
- New political and military structures.
   An organized government bureaucracy arose to meet the administrative demands of the growing population, and armies were organized to gain land and power and for defense.
- 3. A new social structure based on economic power. While kings and an upper class of priests, political leaders, and warriors dominated, there also existed large groups of free common people (farmers, artisans, craftspeople) and, at the very bottom of the social hierarchy, a class of slaves.
- 4. The development of more complexity in a material sense. Surpluses of agricultural crops freed some people to work in occupations other than farming. Demand among ruling elites for luxury items encouraged the creation of new products. And as urban populations exported finished goods in exchange for raw
- materials from neighboring populations, organized trade grew substantially.
- 5. A distinct religious structure. The gods were deemed crucial to the community's success, and a professional priestly class, serving as stewards of the gods' property, regulated relations with the gods.