What in the World Happened?

Perspectives on the History of Man

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Introduction

About the Author

Bob Ring is retired from the aerospace industry, where he worked for 35 years as both a technical contributor and a manager. Sparked by family genealogy research, Bob and his brother Al have written three historical nonfiction books:

Ruby, Arizona – Mining, Mayhem, and Murder	(with Tallia Cahoon)
Frontier Lady of Letters – The Heroic Love Story of Ines Fraser	(with Tallia Cahoon)

Detour to the California Gold Rush: Eugene Ring's Travels in South America, California, and Mexico, 1848-1850 (with Steven Ring)

For three years, Bob (with brother, Al and Tallia Cahoon) wrote a newspaper column, "Along the Ruby Road," for the *Green Valley News & Sun*. Since October 2008, Bob has written a monthly human interest newspaper column for the *Arizona Daily Star* Foothills Regional Section. In April/May 2009 the *Star* published Bob's five-part series on the History of the Catalina Foothills and the Tanque Verde Valley. Bob is a Professional member of the Society of Southwest Authors.

Find out more on Bob's Web site, <u>http://ringbrothershistory.com</u>. If you have comments on this electronic book, e-mail ringbob1@aol.com.

Author's Introduction

I started this very ambitious project simply to learn more about the subject, but was so intrigued at what I found, that I wanted to write it down. It's not that I discovered new facts - I was after a better understanding and perspective on what was happening in various parts of the world, in different civilizations, during the **same** time periods.

The inspiration for my approach – and a primary resource – is the "World History Chart," a time map covering the last 3,000 years of world history, with supporting text and notes, compiled by Andreas Nothiger. This chart is specifically geared to enable the reader to "hold simultaneously in mind … what was happening in widely separated parts of the earth." You can view this fantastic resource at <u>http://www.hyperhistory.com</u>.

A second primary resource was Frank Smitha's exhaustive writings on world history, frequently linked to the World History Chart. See <u>http://www.fsmitha.com</u> for this critical source.

Content

I included a series of world and continental maps at the beginning of the book for handy reference. The maps reflect today's country borders; in the history, when I talk about ancient places, I try to identify what country that would be today.

Part 1 of the world history addresses the start of the Universe through the formation of the earth, development and early migrations of humans, and prehistory to the year 3500 BC. Part 2 covers the history of man's earliest civilizations from 3500 BC to 1000 BC. Parts 3-7 then discuss civilizations in 500-year increments from 1000 BC to AD 1500. Part 8 covers from AD 1500 to AD 1900. Part 9 discusses AD 1900 to AD 2010. The write-up on each history period includes a summary of world-wide civilization activity, major events, culture and religion, major inventions, and influential people.

The book concludes with Part 10, my speculation about the future of man. This includes a discussion of problems that carryover from today, technology advances that open up almost unimagined opportunities for betterment of life and human growth, and serious risks to man's future.

Technical Notes:

a. To compile this summary of world history, I borrowed liberally from Andreas Nothiger's World History Chart booklet and from Frank Smitha's history documentation. I hereby acknowledge my debt to Mr. Nothiger and Mr. Smitha.

b. Throughout this book I used the *Anno Domini* (BC/AD) calendar notation system rather than the more modern, but equivalent, Common Era (BCE/ACE) system.

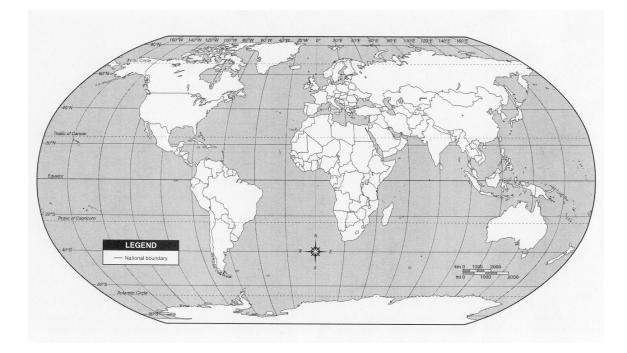
c. I wrote this book in a non-academic, newspaper-column-like style because I originally planned on this material being published as a newspaper series.

Primary Sources

Anatomically Modern Humans and Archaic Homo Sapiens, Brief History of Civilization and Urbanization, The Cosmic Timeline, History Timelines and Articles, The Human Family Tree, **Macro History and World Report**, Recent African Origin of Modern Humans, A Timeline of the Ancient World, Wikipedia, **World History Chart**, WorldHistorySite.com, The 100 – A Ranking of the Most Influential Persons in History.

Additional Web sites: Adherents, Future of Major Religions, Future Technology Predictions, Future of Evolution, Future of Education, Future of Entertainment, and Education Place - Outline Maps.

World



Central and Southwest Asia



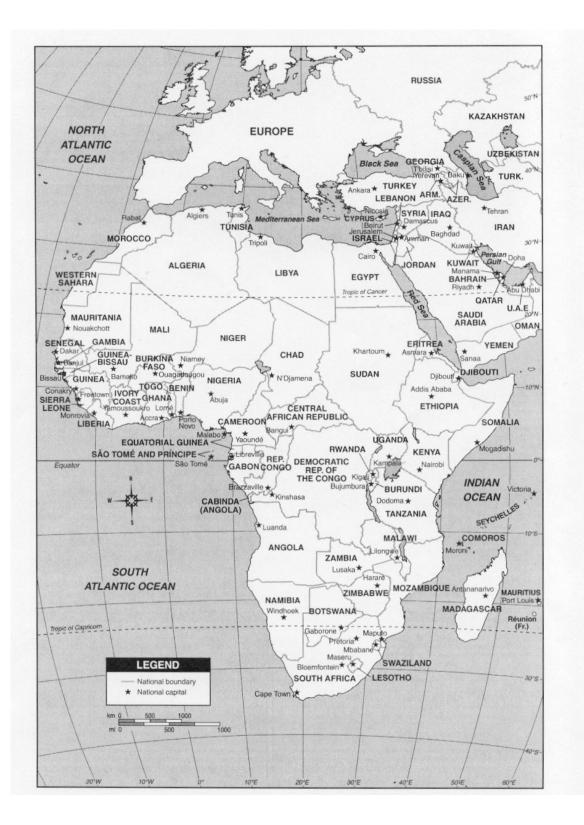
Asia and the South Pacific



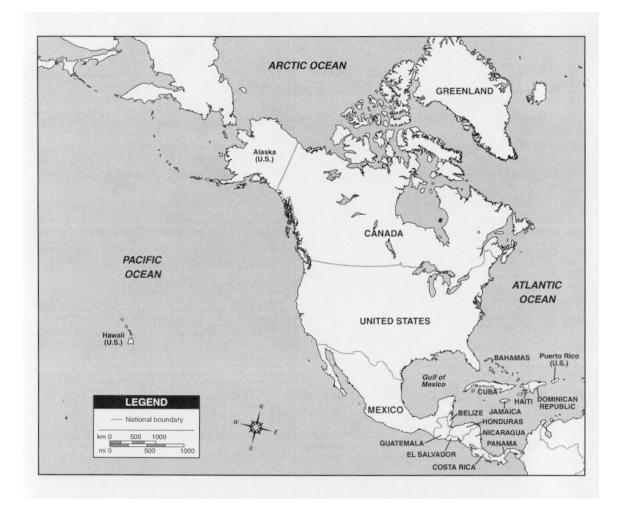
Europe



Africa and Asia



North America



South America



What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 1 – The Beginnings: Big Bang to 3500 BC

Cosmological Perspective

According to current astrophysical theory, our Universe began about 13.7 billion years ago (BYA) - literally with a "Big Bang" expansion from an extremely dense and hot state, and continues to expand today.

The late astronomer, Carl Sagan (1934-1996), was the first to characterize the history of the Universe in terms of a one-year "cosmic calendar." Imagine that the 13.7 billion year age of the Universe is compressed into one year – with the Big Bang occurring in the first second of New Year's Day and the present time in the last second of December 31st (midnight).

Then consider these cosmological events that are important to us humans:

		<u>Cosmic</u>
Event	Time	<u>One-Year</u> Calendar
Big Bang (origin of Universe)	13.7 BYA	January 1
Formation of Earth	4.5 BYA	September 24
Earliest Life (microbes)	3.8 BYA	September 25
Mammals Evolve	200 MYA	December 26
Dinosaurs Extinct	65 MYA	December 28
Earliest Humans	2.2 MYA	December 31
		~10:30pm

So mankind in its earliest forms, began barely an hour-and-a-half ago on the cosmological calendar. And as we'll see, the unbroken line of humanoid form that survives today as modern man has been walking the earth for a much shorter time.

Development of Man and Early Migrations

The story of the development of human life on Earth is complex, not yet totally understood, and certainly very controversial. What follows is a summary of the near-consensus position of the scientific community.

The earliest known human-like species (*Homo habilis*) existed in equatorial east Africa from approximately 2.2 to 1.6 million years ago (MYA). [Note: *Homo* is the genus (classification of living and fossil organisms) that includes modern humans and their close relatives.] Scientists believe that this first human-like species evolved from ape-like creatures present in Africa more than 4 MYA.

About 1.9 MYA early members of the *Homo* genus migrated from east Africa and dispersed throughout Africa, Europe, and Asia, reaching as far as Southeast Asia. Fossil records show the use of stone tools like crude hand axes. *Homo erectus* may have been the first species to use and control fire, enabling life in colder climates.

The *Homo sapiens* species also originated in east Africa. *Homo sapiens* evolved to anatomically modern humans solely in east Africa between 200 and 100 thousand years ago (TYA) – only five-to-ten minutes ago on the cosmological calendar. Amazingly, genetic studies show that today's human race has descended entirely from a single female who lived between 200 and 150 TYA and a single male who lived about 60 TYA.

Around 70 TYA *Homo sapiens* began to migrate out of east Africa, crossing the Red Sea to the Near East. From there humans spread east to South Asia by 50 TYA and Australia by 40 TYA, for the first time reaching territory never reached by *Homo erectus*. *Homo sapiens* reached Europe by 40 TYA and East Asia by 30 TYA. The date of migration to North America is still disputed - from 30 to 14 TYA.

It is not clear what happened to the *Homo erectus* population as *Homo sapiens* migrated into *Homo erectus* territory and beyond. Possibilities include *Homo erectus* dying out due to climate changes or competition with *Homo sapiens*, or gradually being assimilated into the Homo *sapiens* species. Over time however, *Homo sapiens* gradually replaced the earlier *Home erectus* inhabitants of the Earth.

Stone Age Man

Stone Age people lived in packs, in clans of extended families, or a grouping of clans in a tribe. There were no permanent settlements. They moved about, scavenging, gathering food that grew wild, and hunting game. There was no food surplus; they lived day to day. Tools included sticks, bones, stones and twine. They communicated with a world of magic-endowed spirits through shamans.

Evidence for first use of clothing 75 TYA has been found. By 50 TYA stone tools show regular patterns that are reproduced with more precision. Tools made of bone and antler appear for the first time. Cave paintings that date to 45 TYA have been found. The ritual burying of the dead begins about the same time.

By 10,000 BC humans had spread into virtually all habitable places on earth.

Agricultural Revolution

In the northern hemisphere between the years 10,000 and 8,000 BC the last of the continental glaciers retreated. Agriculture began to replace or supplement the older hunting cultures. Farming began in the Middle East between 9,000 and 8,000 BC in an area called the Fertile Crescent which includes present day Israel, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, northern Iraq, and western Iran. The plough was invented there about 4000 BC. The first small permanent settlements appeared.

By 4500 BC farming had appeared in Greece, Egypt (along the Nile River), India (along the Indus River), China (along the Yellow River), Europe, and Africa, south of the Sahara in the Niger Basin in the West.

Around 6000 BC agriculture was developing independently among hunter-gatherers in southern Mexico.

For the first time there were food surpluses and domesticated animals. Village life was becoming more sustainable and common. With agriculture came gods of fertility.

Irrigation farming made it possible to support the first cities and man's first civilizations.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 2 – Earliest Civilizations: 3500 BC to 1000 BC

Man's earliest civilizations developed along some of the great rivers and seashores of the world. The first civilizations, in the Middle East, began in the "cradle of civilization" along the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. Egypt's incredible civilization was born along the Nile River. Greece grew among the islands of Crete, Cyprus, islands in the Aegean Sea, and the shores of Asia Minor. India's civilization started along the Indus River. China began along the banks of the Yellow River.

Middle East

Mesopotamia (means land between the rivers) is the name for the ancient lands in the eastern Mediterranean, corresponding to today's Iraq, northeastern Syria, southeastern Turkey, and southwestern Iran. By 4500 BC people were farming and raising stock animals near where the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers emptied into the Persian Gulf. Around 4000 BC people called Sumerians moved into Mesopotamia.

Bronze Age Mesopotamia saw the development of Sumerian city-states (3500-1950 BC), the Akkadian Empire (ca 2200-2100 BC), the ancient city-state of Babylonia (1900-1750 BC), the Hittite Kingdom (1750-1180 BC), and Ancient Assyria (2000-1000 BC).

These cultures were typically characterized by small territories ruled by kings, periodic inter-region wars to assume total control of a region's cities, occasional empire-building wars to expand the boundaries of geographical control, and invasions from outside forces - sometime repulsed, sometimes not.

Ancient Mesopotamian cities were agricultural places, were walled, and sometimes reached a population of 25,000 people. Enough food was produced to support people with non-farming occupations such as the priesthood, pottery making, weaving, and carpentry. People worshiped spirit gods of agriculture and the sun, moon, and stars – attributing human characteristics to them. Mesopotamians built seaworthy ships and developed an extensive commerce by land and sea.

Sumerians produced two of the world's most important inventions: the wheel, first used for transportation on chariots (around 3200 BC), and ideographic writing (around 3100 BC). Ideographs were symbols that represented a thing or idea, developed to produce written records for the first government and religious bureaucracies, and could only be mastered by professional scribes. Alphabetical writing that helped produce a literate population would not be developed until the about 1700 BC in multiple places around the eastern Mediterranean.

Sumerians also first used money to support their commerce – making individual wealth more easily measured and stored.

Sumerians wrote arithmetic based on units of ten – the number of fingers on both hands. They mapped the stars and divided a circle into sixty units, from which our own system of numbers, seconds, and minutes, are derived.

The Akkadian Empire briefly interrupted the rule of the Sumerians when Sargon the Great conquered the Sumerians around 2200 BC. He built the city of Akkad and proclaimed himself king. Sargon built a unified state that included upper Mesopotamia and part of Syria, creating an empire that ranged from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean. However, by 2100 BC Sargon's empire had become a memory and the Sumerians reclaimed their lands.

Babylon was the most important Middle Eastern city during the reign of Hammurabi (1792 -1750 BC), remembered for the earliest known public declaration of laws by a ruler. The Code of Hammurabi included sections on social, moral, religious, commercial, and civil law, and was the origin of today's well-known phrase, "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth."

The Hittite Kingdom reached its height in the 14th century BC, encompassing most of today's Turkey, northwestern Syria, and eastward into northern Mesopotamia. The Hittites were famous for their skill in building chariots which gave then military superiority. Civil war, rival claims to the throne, and threats from seafaring raiders caused the kingdom to collapse around 1180 BC.

Ancient Assyria, in the form of city-states and small kingdoms in northern Mesopotamia, saw its influence rise and wane with numerous conquests, but survived for a thousand years to later become the earth's first true empire. Recent excavations have demonstrated that the city of Damascus was inhabited as early as 10,000-8,000 BC, making it the oldest continuously occupied city in world history.

Egypt

Ancient Egypt evolved from irrigated farming communities along the Nile River to southern and northern kingdoms, with organized, permanent settlements.

These separate kingdoms were united around 3100 BC, the beginning of consolidation of absolute power under Egyptian kings or pharaohs. Menes was the king of the first Egyptian dynasty, thereby establishing the kingdom that was to play such a long and glorious role in the history of human civilization. Egyptian hieroglyphs came into existence about this time, a little after Sumerian writing, perhaps with Sumerian influence.

During Egypt's Old Kingdom (ca 2755-2255 BC), the great pyramids were built as tombs for Egyptian pharaohs. Over 80 pyramids were built on the Nile's west bank in a

continuous chain 35 miles long to the south and north of Memphis, Egypt's capital at the time. The Great Pyramid at Gaza, built by the Egyptian King Khufu as his tomb, was one of the seven wonders of the ancient world. The Great Sphinx of Gaza, now the national symbol of Egypt, was sculpted at about the same time.

During the Middle Kingdom (ca 2055-1570 BC), Egyptians started to build the fantastically beautiful temple complex at Karnak. This is the largest temple complex ever constructed by man – built and expanded over a 1300-year period.

Egypt's New Kingdom (ca 1570-1070 BC) was the greatest period of the Egyptian empire. Egypt's control extended as far as the Euphrates River in the Middle East. Sixty-three royal tombs were dug underground on the Nile's west bank in the Valley of the Kings, near Thebes, the capital then. Similar accommodations were provided for Egyptian queens and nobles. An elaborate 70-day mummification process and substantial mortuary and cult temples exemplify Egyptian preoccupation with burial and the hereafter. Important pharaohs included Hatshepsut, the only women pharaoh; Amenotep IV, who lead a religious revolution; Tutankhaman (King Tut), the boy king; and Ramses II, great warrior and builder.

Greece

Civilization came to Greece later than it did to the Middle East and Egypt. Between 2300-2000 BC, Europeans from the north moved south into Greece. Around 1500 BC those called Mycenae Greeks established fortifications on a hilltop, 50 miles south of today's Athens. From there, assuming the role of superior beings, they dominated much of southern Greece, populated by people who had migrated there many centuries before.

Meanwhile, on the island of Crete, 100 miles south of Greece, the Minoan civilization had been established, with roots almost as old as Egypt's. It was a commercial society of sea-going tradesmen, with people differing greatly in wealth, ruled by the wealthy, and governed by a well-organized bureaucracy. Wealthy Minoans lived in palaces with plastered walls, decorated with art.

The Mycenae Greeks acquired their alphabet from the Minoans and learned to write. They also learned seafaring, shipbuilding and other crafts.

Around 1400 BC the Mycenae Greeks invaded and conquered Crete. They also colonized the island of Cyprus in the eastern Mediterranean, established themselves on other islands in the southern Aegean Sea, and settled on the shores of Asia Minor (today's Turkey). The Mycenae Greeks maintained a luxurious life style. They traded in spices, tin, copper, and amber - reaching west to Italy, east to the Black Sea, and then northwest up the Danube River into central Europe.

Greek Mythology (supported by some archeological evidence) recounts the Trojan War in the 13th or 12th century BC, when the Greeks attacked the city of Troy, believed to have been in western Turkey, near the straits that led to the Black Sea. This event was immortalized in many subsequent works of Greek literature, including the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* by Homer.

Around 1200 BC, Dorian Greeks from just north of Greece, began a series of invasions that destroyed the prosperity and cohesion of Greece, initiating two centuries of economic and cultural inactivity known as the Dark Ages.

India

About 6000 BC nomadic herding people settled into villages in the mountainous region just west of the Indus River in today's eastern Pakistan and northern India. They began farming and by 4000 BC had begun trading beads and shells with distant peoples in central Asia.

Around 2600 BC a civilization as grand as that in Mesopotamia and Egypt began on the Indus Plain, the drainage area of the Indus River.

By 2300 BC this civilization had reached maturity and was trading with Mesopotamia. Seventy or more cities were built, two of them, Mohenjo-daro and Harappa, had populations as high as 40,000 people. These were the first cities to show planned development – areas were designated for specific economic activities. Each city had a grand market place. Being agricultural people, their religions focused on the fertility of the earth.

Incredibly, around 1700 BC this civilization all but vanished, possibly due to declining rainfall.

Between 1500-1200 BC, with rainfall increased again, tribal herdsmen, called Aryans, migrated from the northwest, perhaps from present day central Russia or Iran, onto the Indus Plain. The intruders slowly spread out and mingled with local people.

Aryans were storytellers with centuries of traditions of sacred hymns and oral histories. Thus began India's Vedic Age, named for Vedas, or religious hymns, composed by the Aryans.

During this period, Aryans were semi-nomadic, subsisting on large herds of domesticated cattle and farm animals. With the gradual rise in population, they settled down as farmers. The early Vedic religion was based on nature worship. The sun, moon, wind, rain and other natural phenomena were worshiped as gods.

China

By 5000 BC agricultural communities had spread through much of what is now called China. The North China Plain, surrounding the Yellow River, became the largest area of relatively dense population.

The invention of silk is credited by Chinese legend to Lady Hsi-Ling, wife of the mythical Yellow Emperor, who was said to have ruled China in about 3000 BC.

Also according to Chinese legend (no historical records), the first civilization in the North China Plain was the Xia Dynasty, beginning about 2200 BC.

The first Chinese civilization supported by historical evidence is the Shang Dynasty, believed to have begun about 1500 BC, with the unification of the people along the North China Plain. As they conquered city by city, the Shang family built an empire by leaving behind a garrison force to police local people, by turning a local king into a subservient ally free to manage local matters, and by taxing the conquered.

Shang dynasty communities along the Yellow River had canals for irrigating crops and drains that ran water out of town. They extended their trading, both locally and to distant lands, and used money in the form of cowry shells.

Shang emperors sent out armies to repulse invaders and to extend their own domains by plundering and capturing foreign peoples needed as slaves or for sacrifice to their gods. Shang people worshiped numerous gods of nature who they believed used magic.

In 1045 BC the Zhou people to the west, and their allies, conquered the Shang, beheaded the emperor, and began ruling the Shang civilization. Zhou emperors divided the lands into regions and assigned family members, trusted friends, or close allies to rule each region in their name. Zhou dynasty emperors believed that heaven was occupied by their supreme god, "Lord on High," and claimed that they ruled by divine right.

Other Civilizations

Africa. Ancient Nubia, also known as the Kingdom of Kush, stretched for 500 miles along the Nile River, south of Egypt. Nubian civilization dates from 3100 BC, developed in parallel with the Egyptian civilization, and survived centuries of interaction with Egypt – including colonization by Egypt from 1550-1100 BC.

Americas. The Olmec civilization emerged around 1400 BC in the tropical lowlands of today's south-central Mexico, matured comparatively quickly, and laid many of the foundations for civilizations that followed. The Olmecs dense concentrated population triggered the rise of an elite class that provided the social basis for the production of symbolic and sophisticated luxury artifacts – like jade, obsidian, and magnetite - that define Olmec culture. The Olmec civilization lasted until about 400 BC and is best known today for the aptly-named colossal heads (up to ten feet tall) that the Olmecs carved in stone.

The Mayans, present since approximately 1800 BC, developed in today's southern Mexico and Guatemala at a slower pace than the Olmecs, but were to last a lot longer. The early civilization was characterized by sedentary communities, and the introduction of pottery and clay figurines.

Europe. The burial monument Stonehenge was built by prehistoric peoples over a period of about 1500 years, from 3100 BC to 1600 BC in today's England. Stonehenge is composed of earthworks surrounding a circular setting of large standing stones and its ruins remain today.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 3 – Emergence of Four Major World Civilizations: 1000 BC to 500 BC

Distinctive civilizations began to take shape in the Middle East, Greece, India, and China. The Middle East saw a progression of increasingly powerful empires. Greece emerged with a far-reaching civilization and a new philosophy. India saw the birth of both spiritual and social attitudes that shaped its civilization. New dynasties and new religions influenced the development of China.

Middle East

For a thousand years Assyria, Babylonia, and Egypt had struggled for supremacy, frequently warring on each other. This period came to abrupt end about 1200 BC with the invasion of nomadic tribes from the north. Still using Bronze-Age weapons, the Middle Eastern powers were no match for the northern barbarians who used superior Iron-Age weapons.

The downfall of the great powers provided an opportunity for smaller kingdoms like Syria, Phoenicia, and Palestine to assert their local independence.

Seafaring Phoenicians set up trading colonies around the Mediterranean and sailed around Africa to explore its eastern shore. The largest of the trading colonies, Carthage, in today's North Africa, was established around 814 BC. The Phoenicians were the first state-level society to make extensive use of the alphabet that is believed to be the ancestor of almost all modern alphabets.

In Palestine, on the southeastern shore of the Mediterranean, Hebrew tribes, who had migrated from Egypt a few centuries before, were united around 1000 BC under the leadership of King David and his successor King Solomon in order to defend themselves from would-be conquerors. After Solomon died, a civil war led to a split in the Israelite nation – Jerusalem became the capital of the southern kingdom of Judea, while ten of the northern tribes formed the new kingdom of Israel.

Hebrew prophets reshaped their religion from worship of tribal deities to an almighty universal god. This set the Hebrews apart from all other peoples of the Middle East who worshiped many gods.

Assyria was the first of the great ancient powers to recover from the northern invasions. Around 900 BC, Assyrian armies, now armed with iron weapons, began to restore Assyrian traditional territory, took Damascus, conquered Babylonia, and continued south and west to conquer Israel and assume control over Egypt. Assyria became the world's first true empire, reaching a peak in about 650 BC. Assyrians established the first effective government to rule over a widespread dominion, dividing the land into territories administered by local governors, responsible to the King. Among other firsts, Assyria was the first civilization to use paved roads, use locks and keys, establish a postal system, establish libraries, and keep time based on units of sixty.

But around 625 BC, Babylonia, aided by neighbors to the north and east, violently revolted and overthrew the Assyrian empire. Jerusalem was destroyed and its people deported to Babylon. The Babylonian Empire rose to great splendor under King Nebuchadnezzar II, who enlarged the city of Babylon, building a legendary network of canals, aqueducts, and reservoirs. Nebuchadnezzar also built the fabulous Hanging Gardens, considered to be one of the seven wonders of the ancient world.

About 550 BC, Cyrus the Great, King of the adjacent Persian Empire (today's Iran) that had just emerged, took over Babylon in an almost bloodless coup at the request of local priests, looking for alternative backing for their religious beliefs. Cyrus went on to conquer the rest of the Babylonian empire and unite the entire Middle East. Palestine became part of the Persian Empire and many of the deported Jews returned to Jerusalem.

Under King Darius I, the Persian Empire became the greatest empire the world had yet seen, including Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, Persia and lands to the north and east, extending to parts of India. Great arterial roads, including the almost 1700-mile Royal Road running east to west, helped to hold the empire together. Separate civilizations began to merge into a new cosmopolitan Middle Eastern style of life in the sixth century BC.

A Persian prophet by the name of Zoroaster initiated a new religious movement that quickly took hold in the empire. Zoroaster preached a message of cosmic strife between gods of Good and Evil, with man having the power to choose his own destiny. This dualism, part of an evolution towards monotheism, became the first world religion, Zoroastrianism.

Greece

In about 900 BC Greece began a renaissance, recovering from the invasions of the Dorian Greeks two hundred year earlier. The use of iron spread and iron tools increased productivity in both agriculture and manufacturing.

Refugees from the Greek mainland established a series of new settlements in southern Italy, on the island of Sicily, all across the Aegean, along the coast of Asia Minor, around the perimeter of the Black Sea, and on the North African coast in what is now Libya.

On the mainland, Greek settlements around the ancient Mycenaean castles led to the formation of Greek city-states. Athens became one of the leading centers of prosperity and trade. From 650 BC, Sparta rose to become the dominant military land power in the region.

Greeks learned the alphabet from Phoenicians and by 890 BC had improved it by adding vowels. The first Olympic Games – a series of athletic competitions – were held at Olympia around 776 BC. Sometime before 700 BC the Greek poet Homer wrote the epic poems the *lliad*, recounting the Mycenaean Greek war with Troy, and the *Odyssey*, which tells the story of Odysseus' long return journey home, following the fall of Troy.

Greeks saw their gods as experiencing the same blessings and misfortunes experienced by humans. Still familiar today are ancient Greek gods such as Zeus, lord of the heavens, the father of other gods and of humankind; Athena, goddess of war and peace, of wisdom, and patron of arts and crafts; Eros, god of love; Aphrodite, goddess of fertility; and Apollo, god of life, light, knowledge and laws.

The seventh and sixth centuries BC was a period of major social and political change for the Greeks. Increasingly wealthy property owners deprived kings of their power. The continuous competing efforts by old-rich and new-rich aristocratic politicians to obtain the support of the lower classes resulted finally in development of democracy, where all citizens had an opportunity to participate in the government.

Greeks of this period introduced the supremacy of mind into the affairs of men, developing a philosophy which attempted to explain the world and man through laws of nature, instead of magical forces that ruled the minds of most of the rest of the world. Thales was the first of the Greek natural philosophers. Thales noted that loadstone attracts iron because of an internal property (later called magnetism), not by the action of a god.

Pythagoras - best known today for his famous theorem about right-triangles, taught that the order of the world was to be discovered with the aid of mathematics, physics, acoustics, and astronomy.

Towards the end of this period, the Greeks lost control of their settlements along the coast of Asia Minor to the expanding Persian Empire, due to civil war between city-states.

India

Having already established themselves on the Indus River Plain, Aryans continued to migrate – southeast to the Ganges River Valley, where they cleared land and began to grow rice, and south along both the western and eastern coasts, all the way to southern India.

By around 700 or 600 BC, the migrations of the Aryans ended, and with their new successes in agriculture and increasing population, they began to abandon their tribal culture to create cities. In the 600s BC, Aryans began trading with great empire of Assyria and with China. By 600 BC numerous cities had arisen in northern India.

Along the Ganges River, sixteen small territorial states or kingdoms emerged. By 500 BC, after a century of fighting among themselves, the kingdom of Magadha had gained the upper hand over the others. A hereditary form of kingship evolved, where kings would be succeeded by their sons.

During this period two great epics were written that dealt with social, political, and religious aspects of life. These epics established the broad principals of the Hindu religion, an amalgamation of Aryan and local hymns, rituals and nature worship, including the doctrine of reincarnation (rebirth). Hindus believe in an immense unifying force that governs all existence and cannot be completely known by humanity. A pantheon of individual gods and goddesses are personifications of this cosmic force.

The Aryans developed complex hierarchy of social classes - the institution of caste. At the top were two classes, the priests and warrior-aristocrats. Beneath them came Aryans who tended cattle and workers who served the top classes in other ways. The lowest class were the conquered, darker-skinned, non-Aryans who were the servants of the Aryans.

In the sixth century BC, a prominent spiritual teacher named Siddhārtha Gautama began preaching the unorthodox doctrine of Buddhism that taught that serenity, or nirvana, could be obtained through self-discipline, without obedience to Hindu priests.

Around 600 BC the practices of yoga were written down for the first time. Yoga, which had originated in India much earlier, taught the suppression of all activity of body, mind, and will in order that the self may realize its distinction from them and attain liberation. Yoga evolved to today's system of exercises for attaining bodily or mental control and well-being

China

The Zhou dynasty established in 1045 BC continued as a vast feudal system of little kingdoms along the Yellow River with loose allegiance to an emperor.

As in India, over time there was a mixing of religions of the conquering Zhou rulers and the previous Shang dynasty emperors. Gods of grain, rain, agriculture, and a god of the Yellow River continued to be worshipped. Zhou civilization people tried to appease their gods by giving them gifts and sacrificing animals. The sacrifice of humans diminished from what had been practiced in the Shang dynasty, but Zhou emperors had their wives or friends join them in their graves; the Zhou dynasty also practiced limited sacrifices in gifts to the river god.

Following a barbarian attack from the northern steppes, the authority of the Zhou emperors weakened and rival local princes fought for power. By the 6th century BC, the Zhou feudal system had crumbled and most small states had disappeared, to be replaced by a few large and powerful principalities that dominated China.

Around 500 BC the Chinese philosopher Confucius, trying to make sense of the previous warring age of confusion, started teaching that virtue, deference, and respect for ancient rites were the answer to how good men could live in a bad and divided world. Moreover, Confucianism taught that education could enable talented men to rise to the top of the social ladder. This of course conflicted with the hereditary aristocracy of earlier times.

A rival school of thought – Taoism – which sprang up at the same time, preached a stoical indifference to the powers of the world and a return to the simple ways of the past.

The official-minded and conservative north of China became Confucian in thought and spirit while skeptical, artistic, and experimental southern China became Taoist.

Other Civilizations

Africa. Nubia gained its independence from Egypt and for a short time actually controlled Egypt in about 700 BC. As Egyptian civilization declined in this time period – being conquered first by Assyria and then by Persia - the Kingdom of Kush remained independent and preserved elements of Egyptian civilization into the future.

Americas. The Mayans in southern Mexico and Guatemala continued the development of their civilization, producing and trading jade, obsidian, and chocolate.

The Chavin culture developed in the northern Andean highlands of Peru about 900 BC. Chavin people cultivated crops and domesticated llamas to use as pack animals, for fiber, and for meat. Llama jerky for trade was the main economic source. Chavin people were advanced for their time in metallurgy, soldering, and temperature control – and developed beautiful, artistic gold. This culture lasted until about 200 BC.

The Paracas culture emerged in approximately 600 BC on the southern coast of Peru. They were an agricultural and fishing culture, best known today for the fabulous textiles found on mummies buried in large underground chambers. Paracas civilization lasted until about 175 BC.

Europe. The Celts emerged from a Bronze-Age culture that peaked in 1200 BC to dominate western and central Europe during this time period. Celtic society was made up of individual tribes, divided into classes of aristocrats, farmers and craftsmen, and slaves. Celtic craftsmen were very skilled workers in iron, bronze, and gold. The most learned class among the Celts were the Druids who acted as priests, judges, and teachers, and whose principal doctrine was that the soul was immortal and passed at death from one person to another.

Italy. The Etruscan civilization in ancient Italy, and the island of Corsica to the west, developed after about 800 BC, from roots established much earlier. The mining and commerce of metal, especially copper and iron, led to Etruscan influence in the western Mediterranean Sea. Etruscan culture was influenced by Greek traders and Greek neighbors in southern Italy.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 4 – Empires Built on Conquests: 500 BC to AD 1

Five major world civilizations expanded their territory and developed their empires through conquest. Greece's shining Classical Period was followed by the amazing, if short-lived, conquests of Alexander the Great. Rome emerged from a local Italian town to the brink of a world-wide empire. Parthia in the Middle East expanded its dominion, bringing Parthia into conflict with Rome. India saw its first empire founded on internal conquests. A united Chinese empire emerged from internal wars to transform China into a Far Eastern power.

Greece

As this time period started, Greek city-states along the seaboard of Asia Minor revolted against Persian rule. The revolt was put down and mighty Persia invaded the Greek homeland as punishment. Against all odds, newly-allied Greek states were victorious in the Persian Wars that lasted until 479 BC.

Then began the Classical Period when Greeks excelled in drama, philosophy, architecture, and sculpture. Athens predominated in cultural and political matters. Pericles rebuilt Athens from Persian ruins; the crowning glory was the Parthenon, the temple of the Greek goddess Athena, the most important (still) surviving building of Classical Greece. Socrates and Plato began to speculate about the nature of man and the definition of ideas. Aristotle collected all knowledge of his time into disciplines of learning – organized science began.

During the fourth century BC, Greece joined with the kingdom of Macedonia to the north of the Greek heartland, to form a Greek-Macedonian confederacy against Persia – again dominating Greek cities in Asia Minor. In 334 BC the young Macedonian Alexander led an army into Asia and systematically began the conquest of the Persian Empire. In every area he conquered he championed Greek ways and founded numerous cities, the most important of which was Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile River in Egypt. He subdued lands to the easternmost reaches of the Persian Empire, even invading northwestern India, but on his return trip home in 323 BC, he died suddenly of a fever at age thirty three.

Immediately after Alexander's death, his vast empire fell apart, amid quarreling of his generals about how to divide up the territory. A century of warfare later, three monarchies emerged, each ruled by a Macedonian general's descendants – in Egypt, Asia, and Macedonia. These Hellenistic (Greek word for themselves) civilizations were the zenith of Greek influence in the ancient world. But by 200 BC continuing battles for mastery had brought these Hellenistic monarchies to a standstill and opened the way for conquest by outsiders in the second and first centuries BC.

A most important contribution of the Hellenic Age was the creation of the great library of Alexandria about 315 BC, housing over 100 scholars. One of those scholars was the extraordinary mathematician Euclid, who wrote a textbook on geometry, *Elements*, that has been used for more than 2,000 years. The library was an encyclopedic storehouse of wisdom, with a book-copying organization and a center for anatomy that provided a basis for advanced surgery. In 235 BC there were almost half-a-million manuscripts in the library.

Rome

Rome began as a small trading city with a Latin-speaking population ruled by Etruscan kings. In 510 BC the Etruscan kings were expelled and Rome became a republic, ruled by an elite minority as members of the Senate. As leader of a federation of Latin cities, Rome slowly expanded its territory until most of Italy was under Roman control by 265 BC.

Roman expansion toward the Island of Sicily led to a conflict for control of the western Mediterranean with perhaps the greatest city in the world, the Phoenician city of Carthage in North Africa. From 262-146 BC the two powers fought the bloody Punic Wars, with Rome finally prevailing, destroying Carthage, and extending its influence west to Spain and later to France.

Meanwhile the Roman republic was also expanding towards the east. As Carthage fell, Rome was conquering Macedonia, annexing Greece, and invading parts of Asia Minor along the eastern seaboard of the Aegean.

In 63 BC Rome made Syria and Palestine, including Judea, a single Roman province. The homeland of the Jews had lost its independence – not to be regained until more than 2,000 years later in AD 1948.

Like others, Romans saw themselves as a people blessed by their gods who extended benevolence only to them. Also like others, they had numerous gods – representing every force of nature, the most important of whom was Jupiter, the god of sunshine and rain, and critically, their protector.

Conquests across the world yielded numerous slaves. Most Romans saw slavery as a natural way of life, a result of their being favored by the gods, and defeat and slavery - the fate of inferior peoples.

Continuous wars and conquests had transformed Rome's military from part-time farmers into a professional fighting force whose loyalties centered on the legion commanders, not the state of Rome. For more than a century the leaders of the legions fought for mastery of the Roman world. These civil wars culminated in 47 BC in a military dictatorship under Julius Caesar.

In 44 BC Caesar was assassinated by a Roman political faction that feared the end of the old aristocratic republic. This act plunged the Roman world into another round of civil war, from which Caesar's adopted son, Octavian emerged victorious, following a final battle with his chief rival - former friend and Roman consul, Marc Antony - and Antony's ally and consort, Cleopatra, then queen of Egypt. Following Cleopatra's suicide in 30 BC, Egypt became a province of Rome.

In 29 BC the Roman Senate gave Octavian the title, Augustus Caesar, and Octavian began his rule as Emperor Augustus, the first of the Roman emperors.

Middle East

In 247 BC a nomadic tribe called the Parni, located between the Caspian and Aral seas, invaded northern Iran and established the Parthian kingdom. They replaced the Hellenistic Greek Empire that had been established after Alexander's great conquest.

The Parthians expanded their domination over all of Iran and Mesopotamia, bringing them into conflict with Rome. The superiority of the Parthian mounted bowmen led to a great victory in a battle with invading Roman legions in today's southeast Turkey. This victory halted further eastward expansion of the Roman Empire.

The Parthian Empire was made up of numerous tributary (but otherwise independent) states – not a single coherent state. Over time, the empire was both economically and military weakened by the incessant infighting of its nobility.

India

In the kingdom of Magadh, spread across a large area of the Ganges River plains, large deposits of iron enabled the making of weapons and agricultural implements. More land was turned into farms and Magadh controlled large stretches of the Ganges River which became an important trade route.

In 321 BC, two years after the Macedonian Alexander had left India, Chandragupta Maurya overthrew Magadh, moved northwest to conquer the Indus River plains (weakened by battles against Alexander), and formed India's first empire, the Mauryan Empire. The empire was prosperous and stable with great economic and military power - political influence and trade extended across Western and Central Asia and Europe. Mauryan India also enjoyed an era of social harmony and expansion of the sciences and of knowledge.

Chandragupta's son and grandson extended the empire by conquest both northward and south to include most of the Indian peninsula, but his grandson, Asoka, became so disgusted by the cruelty of war that he renounced it and adopted the peaceful doctrine of Buddhism. He converted his foreign policy from expansion to co-existence and peace with his neighbors.

In 185 BC the Mauryan Empire began to disintegrate because of violent internal political upheavals followed by centuries of invasions from the northwest, which included both remnants of Hellenistic Greece, and nomadic tribes from Central Asia.

China

In 476 BC the widely dispersed states that survived the collapse of the Zhou dynasty and barbarian attacks from the north began a series of wars, where regional warlords annexed smaller states around them and consolidated their rule. In 221 BC the most militaristic of these "warring states," Qin, conquered the others, and under its leader Shi Huang-ti, named First Emperor, the Qin dynasty began.

Shi Haung-ti unified China with merciless brutality, including conquering parts of southern China. He renounced Confucianism – which sought to confine the emperor to governing according to traditional rites – going as far as destroying all written documents of Confucianism. He built broad, tree-lined highways to connect the vast areas of his empire. He fought vigorously against the Huns from the northern deserts and completed the Great Wall of China, the largest structure man has ever built (5500 miles long with all its branches), to set limits on Hun incursions.

The short-lived Qin dynasty ended soon after Shi Haung-ti's death. In 206 BC the Han dynasty emerged from a revolt against forced labor on imperial building projects. The Han dynasty soon established authority over all of China and was to last for about 400 years. The early Han emperors reversed the Qin despotism and Confucianism became the state doctrine.

The outstanding ruler of the Han dynasty was Han Wu-ti, who transformed China into a Far Eastern Power. China reached its largest territorial expansion from Korea to Indo-China. The Huns were driven out of Eastern Turkestan, the Tarim Basin in northwestern China swarmed with Chinese settlers, and caravans started to move westward with silk (along what became known as the 4000-mile Silk Road) and lacquer to trade for the gold and silver of Rome and Parthia. Peace and prosperity were established throughout much of Asia.

Other Civilizations

Africa. The Kush kingdom in Nubia, along the Nile River south of Egypt, continued to survive, maintaining some of the culture of the Egyptian civilization. Just after Egypt became a province of Rome in 30 BC, Nubia was able to negotiate a treaty with Rome that halted further Roman expansion to the south.

Americas. The Mayans in southern Mexico and Guatemala continued to develop in the preclassic period of their civilization. The huge settlement of El Mirador in Guatemala, with a population of perhaps a hundred thousand people, reached its height from the third century BC to the first century AD. Massive constructions, with many large causeways linking them, are characteristics of El Mirador. Mid-sized communities began to emerge

in the northern Mayan highlands. The first written inscription in Mayan hieroglyphics dates to about 250 BC.

Europe. The Celts in western and central Europe reached the highpoint of their power from the 5^{th} -1st century BC. During the 1st century BC the Celts were caught between the expansion of the Roman Republic from the south and invasion of Germanic tribes from the east - and their world began to decline.

Japan. From 13,000 to 300 BC the inhabitants of the Japanese islands were gatherers, fishers and hunters. Around 100 BC the rice culture was imported into Japan. With the introduction of agriculture, social classes started to evolve and parts of the country began to unite under powerful land owners.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 5 – The End of the Ancient World: AD 1 to AD 500

For over four hundred years, two great powers – Rome and China – dominated the world. But, in the second century AD the central government of both powers weakened and nomads from the Eurasian steppes started to press against the frontiers of these widelyseparated empires. Middle East civilizations struggled to survive against repeated raids by Arabs from the south and Asian tribes from the east. Southern India prospered, but the north suffered continual attacks from nomadic Asian tribes.

Rome

The beginning of the relatively peaceful Augustan age in Rome saw an outburst of art and architecture. Monumental Roman architecture responded to practical needs, for example the astonishing waterworks of Rome, where eleven aqueducts (partially above ground) brought water from the hills to the city to supply the villas of the wealthy and over 900 public baths. Another example is the stupendous Roman Coliseum, an elliptical amphitheater completed in AD 80 that was capable of holding 50,000 spectators.

The economy of the large Roman Empire depended on a slave system, supplied by captives from Roman conquests. The slaves spoke many different languages, with no solidarity to resist oppression. Some slaves were chained at night and whipped to work during the day. Other learned slaves worked as artisans, secretaries, or tutors. There were even armed slaves who worked as bodyguards and who sometimes fought in the Coliseum as gladiators.

The Roman Empire continued fighting on its frontiers to expand its territory. Roman armies pushed north to conquer parts of Germany (to the Rhine and Danube Rivers) and northwest to acquire Britain. The Roman Empire also took over east-central Europe and Mesopotamia. By the end of the second century AD, the expansion of the empire was over.

The third century was a disaster for the Roman Empire. The army used its influence in politics, making and unmaking emperors for cash, and ceased to be an effective fighting force. Barbarians from the north invaded and plundered Roman territory. Pestilence, in addition to war, greatly diminished the population.

To make the vast Roman Empire easier to control, Emperor Diocletian (AD 286-305), split the empire into two halves, western and eastern. The capital of the eastern empire was established at Byzantium (later Constantinople). Gradually, cooperation between the two halves of the empire lessened and in the western empire there was a relentless economic decline with raging inflation. Meanwhile the Germanic tribes beyond the border were growing stronger and stronger.

While the western empire was facing its troubles, a new religion was taking hold. Jesus Christ (ca 4 BC – ca AD 30), born during the reign of Augustus, taught a new and profound doctrine – namely that there was a universal God, that the Kingdom of Heaven was coming, and that there were no chosen people – all were beloved sons and daughters of the divine Father. The Christian religion spread steadily through the Roman world, largely due to the missionary work of the apostle Paul and his writings which included a large part of the Christian Bible's New Testament. As the great Roman Empire began to decay, people everywhere were attracted by the religious reassurances and the firm promise of salvation that Christianity offered. The power for administrative and spiritual leadership of the new Christian church became seated in the bishop (Pope) of Rome.

As emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire, Constantine adopted Christianity shortly before his death in AD 337. In AD 380 Christianity was established as the Roman Empire's official religion.

The Jewish religion was not faring as well as Christianity. In AD 70 and AD 132, the Romans crushed two fierce revolts in Judea. Jews were henceforth prohibited from entering Jerusalem under penalty of death, and the Jewish Diaspora (dispersal) era began. Many Jews went to Babylon, some to Persia and India, and others settled all over the Roman Empire when they were granted citizenship in AD 212.

In the fifth century the Western Roman Empire collapsed piecemeal under the continued assaults of Germanic tribes from the north. Finally in AD 476, the last western Roman emperor was deposed by the German Odoacer, thus ending the Western Roman Empire.

Theodoric the Goth became King of Rome in AD 493. Theodoric, who was a Christian, recognized the dignity and position of the Bishop of Rome, and the Church allied itself with Theodoric's rule.

The emperors at Constantinople still ruled over Greece, Asia Minor, Palestine, and Egypt.

Middle East

To the east, the Parthian Empire, established in Mesopotamia and Iran in the third century BC by nomadic tribes invading from the north, struggled to maintain central control over its rebellious states.

In AD 226 one such rebel, Ardashir, from the Persian Sassanian family, overthrew the Parthian monarchy entirely to establish the Sassanid empire, sometimes called the Neo Persian Empire, as a successor to Persia's imperial past, before the time of Alexander's conquest.

One important link to the past was the recall of Persia's ancient religion of Zoroastrianism, which became the new state religion of the Sassanid Empire. Besides preaching that life is a conflict between Good and Evil, whose outcome is decided by every man's choice, Zoroastrianism tenets also included resurrection of the dead and a Day of Judgment.

The Sassanids promoted urbanization and they created an extensive bureaucracy to link the crown and the provinces. This stronger base and an effective border guard against the nomads permitted the Sassanids to take a firm stand against Rome in repeated wars, and at the same time, expand their empire.

In the mid third century the Sassanids conquered the western portion of the Kushan Empire in India. In the fourth century the Sassanids defeated rampaging Arabs from the south to secure the southern areas of the empire. They also crushed central Asian tribes who were raiding on the eastern borders of the empire, interfering with trade along the Silk Road from China, secured new territory there, and completed the conquest of the area now known as Afghanistan.

But by the fifth century, eastern Persia was under frequent attack from the Hephthalites (White Huns) and other nomadic groups. At first the Sassinids successfully repelled the invaders, but by the end of the fifth century, the Huns returned to defeat Sassinid armies, invaded and plundered parts of eastern Persia for two years, and exacted heavy tribute for some years thereafter.

India

The invasions of Greek-related peoples and nomadic Asian tribes into northwest India that had started in the second century BC - continued for centuries. In the middle of the first century AD a tribe of Kushans from the north pushed into northwest India. Gradually wresting control from other invaders, the Kushans expanded south to the center of the Ganges River Valley and along the Indus River to the Arabian Sea.

In the mid third century the western part of the Kushan Empire was subjugated by the Persian Sassinid Empire, while the balance of the Kushan state lasted until the mid fourth century, when it was overthrown by a local ruler, Chandra Gupta, in the Ganges River Valley.

By conquest and intermarriage, the Gupta Empire expanded its power over northern India. While Rome was being overrun and the western half of the Roman Empire was disintegrating, the Gupta Empire prospered in agriculture, crafts, and trade - India experienced its golden age. Sanskrit became the official language of the subcontinent. Hinduism benefited from the support of Gupta rulers. The royal court patronized artists, musicians, astrologists, doctors, and scientists.

At the end of the fifth century, the White Huns who were plaguing the eastern Sassinid Empire, attacked and plundered northern India and soon added it (and Afghanistan) to their temporary empire. Although the golden age ended under Barbarian invasions, the impact of Gupta India was felt throughout East Asia, much the same as Hellenism had influenced Western Eurasia.

Meanwhile, beginning in the first century in the southern part of the Indian subcontinent, a handful of kingdoms dominated affairs. The south benefited from expanded economic and cultural contacts with the world outside India and an expanded trade with West Asia and the Roman Empire. The south became the most prosperous part of India. They had diplomatic contacts with Rome, Persia and Han China and for several centuries were at the center of exchanges between the East and the West.

China

The Han dynasty maintained its powerful position into the second century AD, with only Parthia between the big world powers Rome and China. China's trade, especially in silk, reached a new height. And in return China received glass, jade, horses, precious stones, tortoise shells, and fabrics. A member of the Chinese imperial court, Ts'ai Lun, invented paper in about AD 105. Other Chinese inventions in this period included printing, a water clock, a chain water pump for irrigation, and a seismograph to measure the intensity of earthquakes.

In the late second century AD, the power of the central government weakened, local landowners increasingly assumed control over their neighborhoods, and there were a series of unsuccessful revolts due to economic and social unrest.

Early in the third century AD, unified China temporarily split into three separate kingdoms. Against a background of decreasing economic activity, and of different warlords fighting each other, Mongolian nomads poured into northern China. A rapidly changing group of Hunnish, Mongolian, and Turkish rulers tried to maintain the advanced civilization they conquered, but many of the previous Chinese government officials fled to south China, where Chinese traditions were maintained.

As the Romans found their religious answer in Christianity in the difficult period of uncertainty following the decay of their great empire, the Chinese, with the breakdown of the Han Empire, turned to Buddhism, which found its way into China from India over the Silk Road. The message of Buddhism, which stressed escape from the troubles of the world, gradually replaced Confucianism, which stressed political duties. Buddhism was made the state religion in China in AD 379.

Other Civilizations

Africa. The Sudanese culture from the Nubian civilization along the upper Nile River began to spread across the Savannah to West Africa. The Kingdom of Axum in today's northern Ethiopia and Eritrea, with seaports on the Arabian Sea, achieved prominence in the first century AD as a trading center between India and the Mediterranean.

Americas. In about AD 250, the Mayan civilization in southern Mexico and Guatemala entered its Classic Period, which saw the peak of large-scale construction and urbanization, with numerous agriculturally-intensive independent city-states, the

recording of monumental inscriptions, and significant intellectual and artistic development.

The city-state of Teotihuacan in central Mexico, approximately 25 miles northeast of today's Mexico City, reached its zenith between AD 150 and AD 450. Although the city's origins are still debated, the earliest buildings date to about 200 BC. Teotihuacan - known for its large pyramids and colorful murals - became one of the largest cities in the pre-Columbian Americas.

Three additional early cultures flourished in Peru during this time period and lasted until almost AD 1000 – the Moche culture in northern Peru; the Nazca culture beside Peru's southern coast; and Tiahuanaco, in Peru's southern central Andes. All three of these civilizations are known for monumental constructions, impressive aqueduct and irrigation systems, and colorful textiles and jewelry. The Nazca culture produced the famous, still visible today, Nazca lines, large drawings (up to 660-feet across) on the ground – accomplished by sweeping away rocks on a high arid plateau - depicting hundreds of individual figures, ranging in complexity from simple lines to stylized hummingbirds, spiders, monkeys, fish, sharks or orcas, llamas, and lizards.

The Hopewell culture - an interaction among a number of different cultures in the eastern woodlands of North America – was active between 200 BC and AD 400. They lived and farmed along rivers and major waterways, and are best known today for their massive burial mounds.

By AD 100, the Anasazi people – the ancestors of the Navajo – had moved into Arizona and begun farming.

Europe. In the fourth and fifth centuries AD, both during and after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, numerous Germanic tribes, under pressure from population growth and invading Asian tribes, began migrating en masse into Europe, reaching to England, Spain and North Africa. Germanic kingdoms across Europe succeeded the Roman Empire.

Japan. Yamato Japan developed as a center of power in the fertile Kinai Plain and the country was united in about AD 400. Heavily influenced by China, writing and paper making were soon introduced into Japan. The rich and powerful men of the era were buried in vast tombs called "kofun."

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 6 – Religious Zealotry, Invasions, and Conquests: AD 500 to AD 1000

This very dynamic period of human history was driven by religious zealotry, territorial conquests, and invasions by Vikings and barbarian nomads. First the Middle East, and then much of the rest of the world, were turned upside down by the rise of the Islamic religion and Moslem conquests. The Eastern Roman Empire was decimated, but persevered. European development lagged behind the rest of the world due to internal political fighting and invasions from the north and east. India remained divided and weak under the onslaught of repeated barbarian invasions and internal strife. Only China was able to resist its invaders and emerge as the richest empire in the world.

Eastern Roman Empire

The Eastern Roman Empire, later to be called the Byzantine Empire, with its capital at Constantinople, preserved much of the intellectual heritage of antiquity. The mostly Greek-speaking civilization drew on the wealth and manpower of the urbanized East to remain one of the most powerful economic, cultural, and military forces in the world. The people were united by their common Roman citizenship and their Christian faith.

At the beginning of the sixth century AD, the Byzantine Empire included Greece, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine and Egypt – tied together with trade with Gaul (France), Spain, Africa, India, and China. The emperor Justinian (AD 527-565) saw himself as both head of state and the head of Christianity through the Catholic Church. He aspired to restore the entire Roman Empire and re-conquered North Africa, southern Spain, and parts of Italy from the Germanic tribes that had taken over in those regions during the past two hundred years. However, these conquests would not last.

After Justinian's death, the financially exhausted empire suffered a century of civil war, made worse by attacks from Asian tribes from the north and Sassinids from the east. While this costly struggle was going on, a new storm was gathering in the deserts of Arabia, where the Prophet Mohammed was uniting the Arabs around a new and powerful faith. Arab armies soon swept over the hotly contested areas and by AD 650 the Byzantine empire was reduced to Asia Minor, the southern Balkans, and parts of Italy. Still, the Byzantine empire survived for another 800 years.

Middle East

For over a hundred years the Sassinid Empire warred inconclusively with the Byzantine empire over territorial rights. In addition Persia turned its attention to the Hephthalites on its eastern border, and with the help of Turkish peoples in the east, destroyed them. But the exhausting years of warfare, economic decline, and a rapid turnover of rulers sapped the strength of the Sassinids so much that they were easy prey for a new Middle Eastern power, the Arabs.

While both Persia and Constantinople were becoming weaker, a new religion and political force was rising on the Arabian Peninsula: Islam. Arabia, a land of few towns, had long been divided mainly among warlike nomadic tribes who believed in many spirit gods. The Prophet Mohammed (AD 570-632) began to preach in his hometown of Mecca the omnipotence of the one god Allah, the impending Day of Judgment, and the necessity of complete obedience to Allah's will – literally the meaning of Islam. The appeal of Islam was its straightforward theology based on Muhammad's sayings and its insistence on the equality before God of all believers, whatever their color, origin, or status.

After Mohammed's death, there was disagreement as to who should succeed Mohammed as caliph, or leader of the Moslems. An assembly of Moslems chose Mohammed's father-in-law and close advisor Abu Bekr, who was succeeded by his friend Omar, who in turn initiated a long lasting hereditary Caliphate (Omayyads). Mohammed's cousin and son-in-law, Ali, thought he was the rightful heir to Mohammed, but he was unable to break the power of the Omayyads. (Note: This schism between Orthodox (Sunni) and Alid (Shiite) Islam continues today.)

Arab armies united all of Arabia under the banner of Islam. Then, inspired with a conviction that God was with them, and the belief that death in battle assured a life in Paradise, the Arabs challenged the large but spiritless armies of the great empires. Arab forces quickly overran Syria, Mesopotamia, and Persia, then Palestine (including Jerusalem), Egypt and North Africa, and finally conquered Spain and India's Indus Valley. The Moslem advance was only stopped in France by the Franks and at Constantinople by the still powerful and stubborn Byzantines.

By the mid eighth century AD, the Arabs had established their capital in Baghdad. Mecca retained importance as a pilgrimage center. Because it was the language of the Koran – the collection of Mohammed's teachings – the Arabic language spread until it replaced Greek as the language of educated men in the Moslem world. A golden age of world trade, mariners, and intellectualism dawned. The brilliant Moslem civilization stood in stark contrast to that in Europe at this time.

But it was difficult to control such a far flung empire. Islamic civilization, suffering unrelenting pressure of external invasions and constant internal revolts, split into three rival Caliphates, based in Spain, the Middle East, and Egypt. The Middle East Caliphate found it harder and harder to defend itself successfully against Turkish nomads from the North. The first revolt to succeed occurred in AD 969 when the Fatimids conquered Egypt, where they were to rule for 200 years.

Europe

By AD 711 Arabs and Berbers in North Africa had converted to Islam; a raiding party crossed the Strait of Gibraltar to intervene in a civil war among Christian Germanic tribes in Iberia (Spain). By AD 718 the Muslims dominated most of the peninsula and continued advancing towards Europe to the north until they ran into the Franks.

The Frankish Kingdom was the most successful of the Germanic states to emerge from the demise of the Western Roman Empire. Its founder was Clovis who began as a regional king in Belgium and ended with his realm stretching all the way across Germany and France. Clovis established his capital in Paris and adopted the Roman Catholic religion.

In AD 732 Frankish armies won an important victory over the Moslems at Tours, southwest of Paris, and stopped the further advance of Islam into Western Europe.

Two generations later Frankish power reached its peak under Charlemagne who conquered all of Germanic and Roman Europe (including a large part of Italy) - except for Scandinavia and England. Charlemagne's rule involved continuous warfare. His power with the sword gave him influence with the Church; the Roman Pope, Leo III, crowned Charlemagne Emperor of the Romans, thus beginning the Holy Roman Empire.

Charlemagne's empire was more rural and thinly populated that the civilizations ruled by Constantinople or Islam – a result of low prosperity. Charlemagne was illiterate himself, but inaugurated a literary renaissance by maintaining a palace school that encouraged intellectual pursuits. He encouraged trade and improved agriculture.

Soon after Charlemagne's death, the Frankish empire fell apart and was divided into the West and East Frankish kingdoms, which evolved into France and Germany respectively. Meanwhile the border areas of the Frankish realms were bothered by savage raids from Moslems along the Mediterranean coast, Slavs to the east, and Vikings along the North Sea coast.

Starting in the late eighth century AD, Vikings from the deep inlets of Scandinavia began to raid along all the European coasts down to Spain and along the rivers deep into Europe. The Vikings had developed the shallow draught, keeled long-boat that enabled them to sail far up rivers and ride out the fiercest storms of the Atlantic Ocean. Viking mariners braved the northern seas until they reached and settled Iceland, and reached Greenland. Norseman Leif Ericson extended the Viking reach to Newfoundland to discover America around AD 1000.

The Frankish rulers were unable to mount an effective united defense against the raiders. In the 900s leadership passed into the hands of local lords and men-at-arms, who equipped themselves as heavily armored cavalry or knights. Villages all over Western Europe began to rely more and more upon professional fighting knights for protection. After a century of relentless raiding, some of the invaders settled permanently where they could find good harbors or farming lands. Viking Norsemen populated northern coastal France and became known as Normans. Semi-nomadic tribes settled east of Germany and started the transformation to becoming the Christian kingdoms of Hungary and Poland.

In England, Angle peoples from Denmark and Saxons from northern Germany had invaded in the middle of the fifth century AD. This was the time of the legendary King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table, who led the defense against the Saxon raiders. What had been Roman-ruled Britain was divided among illiterate, Anglo-Saxon kings who worshipped spirits and magic. Though political unity was not achieved, Christianity began to take hold as the preferred religion.

The British Isles were also the object of conquest by the Vikings from Denmark and Norway. Early in the 9th century AD, Norsemen overran the north and west of Scotland, the Danes the center two thirds of England, in an area that became known as Danelaw. From this point, the Vikings changed from roving war-bands to landowners concerned with the safety of their own lands.

While Turkish infiltrations contributed to the weakening of the Islamic Middle Eastern Caliphate, the Arabs of Spain were building the western branch of Islamic civilization. In 929 Abd Ar-Rahman III proclaimed himself Caliph, started to make Islamic Spain a cultural center of the world, and his capital Cordoba, the largest city in Europe. Spain began to profoundly affect European life, particularly medical education, and from Cordoba, Christendom acquired its knowledge of ancient literary works and achievements in mathematics and astronomy.

India

In the early 500s the Hephthalites advanced from northwest India into the Ganges Valley in search of plunder. They ruined cities, towns, trading centers, and Buddhist monasteries. The Hephthalites withdrew from the Ganges Valley, but continued to hold territory in northwest India, and with the Gupta Empire gone, they became the superpower in Middle Asia.

But this did not last long; in the late 550s the Hephthalites were defeated by a coalition of Persians and Turks, and vanished from history. India was divided into numerous small kingdoms, and suffered military weakness and economic problems. Trade with the Roman Empire had ended and trade with Persia declined. However, it was during this time period that the game of chess originated.

In the 600s the warrior-king Harsha Vardhana managed to unify much of India's far north, but his attempts to control all of India failed when he was defeated in battles with southern kingdoms. After Harsha Vardhana's death, India once again became a land of several kingdoms, which were frequently at war with each other. In the 800s the Hindu intellectual Shankara traveled across India, working to strengthen the concepts of the Hindu religion, but however much he succeeded in unifying Hindu ideology, politically India remained divided. However, one of the most important mathematical inventions of all time, the decimal numeral system, was created during these years.

In the late 900s raiders once again invaded India from the northwest - this time Muslim Turks from the independent kingdom of Ghazni.

China

In the late 500s nomadic invaders in the north were driven out and China was united for the second time under a brutal dictatorship, beginning the short-lived Sui dynasty. Sui emperors conscripted more than a million men for enormous construction projects, the most important of which was the Grand Imperial Canal that linked the Yellow and Yangtze River systems. The Canal integrated the north and south, and formed the basis for a unified economy.

But the Sui dynasty was overly ambitious and in AD 618 an uprising against the oppressive regime was led by the prince of Tang, who became the founder of a brilliant dynasty. Over 80 peoples, from Korea to Vietnam and Tibet, acknowledged the feudal authority of the Chinese. Although the Tang dynasty lasted only until AD 907, it began a thousand year period when China was the most powerful, most sophisticated, and wealthiest country in the world.

Chang-an, the cosmopolitan capital, became the most splendid metropolis in Asia, with more than two million inhabitants. Calligraphy, mathematics, and music were taught there. The shelves of the imperial library held more than 200,000 volumes. This was the age of incredible Tang poetry, with almost 50,000 poems written by over 2,000 poets!

The Tang dynasty reached its peak in 750 and then gradually weakened. The decline of central power, however, did not seriously hamper the economic development of China and the skill of its artisans led to many inventions hundreds of years before they were adopted in the West - including printing with wooden blocks, porcelain, regular mail service, printed newspapers, and gunpowder. Drama, painting, and philosophy flowered.

By 900 Tang rulers had lost their power. Tax revenues had diminished and provincial governors were challenging royal power. Fifty years of civil war erupted with local warlords fighting for power until order was restored in 960 by the Sung emperors.

Other Civilizations

Africa. North Africa suffered invasion by nomadic tribes from the north (late 400s), the Byzantines (early 500s), and the Arabs (early 600s). Meanwhile, trans-Saharan camel trade stimulated growth of civilizations south and west of the Sahara Desert. Camel trade enabled these civilizations to ship gold, ivory, and salt resources of the region to the north

and east to population centers in exchange for manufactured goods. With the Arab invasion, most of North Africa converted to Islam; Ethiopia remained Christian but it was cut off from Europe by the Muslims. Coffee beans were first cultivated in the Ethiopian highlands about AD 900.

Americas. The Mayan civilization in southern Mexico and Guatemala continued to thrive in its Classic Period. The most notable monuments were stepped pyramids they built in their religious centers and the accompanying palaces of their rulers. Mayans participated in long distance trade with many of the other Mesoamerican cultures, including Teotihuacan. For reasons that are still debated, the Maya centers of the southern lowlands went into decline during the eighth and ninth centuries and were abandoned shortly thereafter. In the 900s many Mayans migrated to Yucatan, where a New Empire emerged.

The Toltecs were a diverse people that appeared from 800 to 900 AD about 50 miles north of Mexico City. The Toltecs were among the first to use, and become experts in, metallurgy (metal sculpture) using copper and gold. They were also masters at architecture, building temples and pyramids for their gods. The Toltec civilization collapsed about 1200 AD due to conflicting ideologies, plague, and stress from outside immigration.

Japan. The Japanese continued to import every aspect of Chinese culture that they could. In the Nara period (710-782), Japanese emperors created a miniature model of the great Tang court in China, but the much cruder style of life, sustained by aristocratic barons in their provincial castles, assured Japan's cultural independence. During the Heian period that started in 794, Chinese influence lessened and Japanese feudalism began to resemble the feudalism of early medieval Europe. The code of the Samurai, as the Japanese warriors were called, emphasized strict loyalty to a chosen leader. The Samurais grouped themselves into war clans to fight in local wars and the power of the imperial authority succumbed to powerful aristocratic warlords.

Korea. Three kingdoms had emerged between the 2^{nd} and 4^{th} centuries AD. Heavily influenced by Chinese civilization, Buddhism was introduced into Korea in the 4^{th} century. In 668 the kingdom of Silla completed its conquest of the other two kingdoms and unified Korea. Korea was still largely a tribal society with strict hierarchy, serfs and nobles. Following the Chinese example, a university was formed, where Confucian classics were taught. In the 10th century, the Silla kingdom broke down due to arguments over succession to the throne, local warlords rebelled, and Goryeo emerged as the ruler of a new kingdom.

Oceania. Around AD 300 Samoans ventured across 2,000 miles of ocean - on twinhulled sailing craft sixty feet in length - to the Marquesas Islands. By 500 AD Polynesians had migrated from the Marquesas to the Society Islands, including Tahiti, and to Easter Island. By 1000 AD Polynesians had reached the Hawaiian Islands. **Russia**. In the late ninth century, invading Vikings forged local Slav inhabitants into a nation centered on the city of Kiev. The new nation was called Rus and in time its Viking rulers adopted native customs and language and were assimilated into Russian society. Meanwhile in southern Russia, starting in the sixth century, an independent state of Turks had emerged, the Khzar state. By the second half of the eighth century this empire had reached its peak, declined afterwards, and was finally crushed by the Russian rulers of Kiev.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 7 – Turbulent Changes: AD 1000 to AD 1500

The Middle East suffered invasions by Turks, Christians, Mongols, and more Turks as the Eastern Roman Empire was finally obliterated. Europe experienced religiouspolitical power struggles, pestilence, internal wars, and a cultural renaissance to emerge as a world power. India continued to suffer invasions by Moslem Turks from the north and prolonged internal rebellions. Though still the richest nation in the world, China slowly changed from an aggressive international power to isolationism and defense of its frontiers.

Middle East

The dominance of the Arabs came to a sudden end in the mid 11th century with the arrival of the Seljuk Turks, migrating south from their homelands in Central Asia, who conquered Persia, Iraq (capturing Baghdad in 1055), Syria, Palestine and western Saudi Arabia. Egypt held out under the Fatimid caliphs until 1169 when it too fell to the Turks. The Seljuks also defeated the Byzantine military in the 11th century and settled in Asia Minor, effectively ending the influence of the Byzantine Empire in the region, though Constantinople survived with the last remnants of the Eastern Roman Empire.

The Turks plowed under three centuries of Arab achievements and prosperity. Turkish became the cultivated language of Islam, forcing Arabic back into the deserts of the south. Rather than the independence of thought that had been the hallmark of the Islamic enlightened ninth century, Turkish culture imposed conservatism and formality on Islamic theology, consistent with their autocratic rule.

The Seljuks ruled most of the Middle East for 200 years, but their empire soon broke up into a number of smaller sultanates. This fragmentation of the Turkish Empire allowed Western Europe's economically revitalized Christian Frankish Empire to enter the region.

In 1095 Pope Urban II, responding to pleas from the flagging Byzantine Empire, summoned European aristocracy to recapture the Holy Land for Christianity. The knights of the First Crusade captured Jerusalem, which remained under Frankish occupation until 1187, when the Turkish leader of Egypt, Saladin, defeated forces of the Third Crusade to recapture the city. Crusades from Western Europe continued well into the 13th century, but they failed to stop the Turkish advance.

While the ineffectual Crusades were going on, far more momentous events were underway in Asia. A group of nomadic Mongol tribes to the north of China built a military confederation under Genghis Khan and in the early 13th century achieved a series of conquests that included China and Russia. Hulagu Khan, in the mid 13th century, swept through the Middle East, conquering Persia and Syria.

The Mongols accepted Islam and rapidly assimilated themselves to the more cultivated Turkish community.

The Mongol advance was stopped forcibly by the Turkish Mamluk Sultanate in Egypt, which defeated the Mongols completely in a battle in Palestine in 1260. After that disaster, Mongol domination fell into a number of separate states, with Egypt emerging as the power in the Middle East, with control of Palestine and Syria, and other Turkish sultans controlling Iraq and Asia Minor - until the arrival of the Ottomans.

One of the consequences of the early Mongol conquests was to drive the Ottoman Turks out of their homeland in Turkestan into Asia Minor. Turkish warriors flocked to the service of the Ottoman sultan from all over the Moslem world to join his holy war against the Byzantine Christians. The Ottoman Empire, established in 1301, advanced rapidly until it spread all the way from the Euphrates to the Danube. The conquered territory was divided into military fifes and administered by pashas.

In 1453 the Ottomans brought cannons to the gate of Constantinople, and in a siege that lasted 54 days, finally stormed the Christian capital. The fall of Constantinople marks the end of the Middle Ages.

Europe

In 1066, at the Battle of Hastings, Normans from northern France invaded England. The leader of the invaders, William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy and a French subject, became king of England, beginning four centuries of conflict between France and England, as England repeatedly tried to set themselves up as rightful kings of France.

If the 11th century was the age of ascendancy of the Seljuk Turks in the Middle East, the 12th century was the age of papal ascendancy in Europe. Governmental power was in the hands of a feudal aristocracy, but the Roman Catholic Church, with the keys to heaven and hell, enjoyed increasing power, even to the ability to influence the choices of heads of state.

Between 1096 and 1270 powerful Christian Popes called for war against Islam and even the Greek-speaking Byzantine Empire. Though the Crusades were unsuccessful in restoring the Holy Land to Christianity, they were more effective in weakening the already tottering Byzantine Empire that began to lose increasing amounts of territory to the Ottoman Turks.

There was growing antagonism between popes and kings over authority in both religious and political matters, intensified by the accumulation of wealth by the Church, in many European countries owning as much as a fourth of the land. People began to doubt the authority of the church. This struggle between European monarchies and popes in Rome was a turning point in history, as the prestige of the Papacy was badly shattered, ending the era of papal domination in the early 15^{th} century.

But there were other important issues that heavily influenced Europe in this time period. Two incidents in England spoke of the rising concern about individual rights. In 1215 in the middle of a civil war, King John was forced to accept the Magna Carta that established the important principle that English kings could not rule arbitrarily – they had to obey English laws and no free man could be arrested, imprisoned or dispossessed without the lawful judgment of his peers or without due process of law.

In 1381 there was a widespread rebellion amongst English peasants, marking the beginning of the end of serfdom in medieval England. Though the revolt was a failure, it led to the reform of feudalism in England and increases in personal freedom.

The Black Death or Bubonic Plague, a disease spread by fleas on infected rodents, swept Europe from 1347 until 1354. This incredibly horrible scourge killed over 25 million people – one third of the population. For a time cultivation became impossible because of a shortage of hands.

Meanwhile the Christian Church had been adopting an increasingly hostile attitude towards Jews, stirring the passions of the populace. The first great prosecution of the Jews – including indiscriminate massacres by Christian rulers - took place during the age of the Crusades. Then the Black Death was blamed on the Jews. One by one the rulers of Western Europe expelled them totally from their realms. After 1497 there were hardly any Jews left in Western Europe – the centers of Jewish population were located in parts of Italy, a few cities in Germany, and especially in Poland and Lithuania.

France and England fought a series of conflicts that began in 1357 and ended in 1453, called the 100 Years' War, over English territorial rights in France and English rights to the French throne. The war ended with England losing most of its territory on the continent. England was left as an island – a fact which profoundly affected its outlook for more than 500 years.

Historically, the 100 Years' War was important because it strengthened English national consciousness; English culture became distinct from the French. It also marked the decline of feudalism, the rise of French unity, and support for strong central authority across Europe.

Another change-factor in Europe was the Renaissance cultural movement that started in Italy in the 14th century and soon spread to the rest of Europe, lasting into the 17th century. There was a resurgence of learning based on classical sources, widespread educational reform, and great artistic development. This was the age of Leonardo da Vinci, the Italian genius, painter, sculptor, inventor, architect, engineer, and scientist; and Michelangelo, the supreme Italian sculptor, painter, and architect. This was also the time of German printer Johann Gutenberg, the inventor of movable-type mechanical printing which led to mass production of books and truly initiated the information age.

European countries on the Iberian Peninsula prospered. Portugal weathered Germanic tribe (5th century) and Islamic (8th century) invasions and takeovers, and then squabbles with it neighbors, to emerge in the 12th century as an independent Christian state. In the 15th century Portugal became a maritime nation, building great sailing ships for trade. In 1498 an expedition led by Vasco da Gama sailed around Africa to reach India, opening an important trading route from Europe that was not blocked by Moslems in the Middle East.

Christians had been present in Spain since the first century AD, but were overrun by Muslim invaders in the 8th century AD. Between the 9th and 11th centuries Christian kingdoms emerged in northern Spain. These kingdoms gradually expanded south, helped by the disunity among the Muslims, until 1492 when the last Muslim stronghold in southern Spain was defeated and Spain was united under King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella.

Also in 1492 Isabella and Ferdinand backed Italian navigator Christopher Columbus's dream of reaching India by sailing west. Columbus failed in this mission, but instead reached the West Indies. With this and three subsequent voyages to the Americas, Columbus enabled Spain to begin to build an empire in North and South America. A new age was dawning.

India

Mahmud of Ghanzi established the first Turkish Muslim Empire (999) in Afghanistan and then began a series of predatory raids into northern India. Mahmud and his successors continued these disruptive invasions for almost 200 years – while northern India's civilization stagnated and suffered economic decline, and both Hinduism and Buddhism were persecuted. Finally in 1206 the Turks established permanent rule in Delhi, with access to both the Ganges Valley and central India.

The Turkish Delhi Sultanate lasted until the 16th century, withstanding repeated raids by Mongols, starting around 1296, and rebellions by independence-minded sultanates in the 15th century. Finally in 1526 the Delhi Sultanate was overrun by Muslim Timurids (descended from earlier Mongols) led by Genghis Khan descendent, Babur, who founded a new empire called the Mughal empire.

Meanwhile in southern India another empire arose. The city of Vijayanagar was founded in 1336 and by 1346 became the capital of what was to be the greatest empire in southern India. The empire led a religious and political revival of Hinduism and provided a barrier against invasion by the Moslem sultanates of the north. Sanskrit scriptures served as a unifying force, and regional literature thrived. The country flourished in unexampled peace and prosperity until 1565 when the Hindus were defeated by the Muslim Mughal Empire.

China

During the Sung dynasty that had begun in 960, China's economy boomed. Irrigation was extended and agriculture improved. Trade and commerce prospered, and towns and cities grew much larger. Industries like iron, silk, lacquer, and paper making flourished. Overseas trade also grew; China was probably the richest country in the world.

Buddhism declined in popularity because it was a foreign (from India) religion; Confucianism underwent a revival.

Sung China was not militarily strong. Their foreign policy was characterized by appeasing the Mongols to the north by surrendering territory.

Finally, early in the 13th century, the Mongols, under their leader Genghis Khan, invaded China to begin the conquest that resulted in the creation of the Yuan dynasty in 1280. Kublai Khan, a grandson of Genghis Khan, became the first emperor. The splendor of his court became famous in the West because of the writings of the Italian Marco Polo who visited there. Kublai Khan made Buddhism the state religion.

Unlike previous invaders, the Mongols stood aloof and did not accept Chinese customs. The country became less prosperous and the population fell.

In 1368 Mongol rule provoked a rebellion among the native people, which brought the Ming dynasty to power. Under the Ming emperors, China once again became prosperous and powerful. Between 1406 and 1421, Emperor Yang Lo built the Forbidden City, a fabulous palace surrounded by a 22-foot wall and a 145-foot wide moat.

Early in the Ming period, naval expeditions opened new trade routes to Southeast Asia and the Persian Gulf. But mindful of previous Mongol invasions, the Mings turned their attention to the security of the empire, trading became secondary, and all naval expeditions were stopped. The Mings rebuilt the Great Wall that defended the northern frontier. Confucian influence increased at court. Ming China, which lasted until the middle of the 17th century, reacted to the advances of the Europeans and the incursions of the Mongols with increased isolationism.

Other Civilizations

Africa. After the Arab invasions in the late 5th century, Islamic states dominated west Africa. The most important of the early Moslem empires was Mali at the midcourse of the Niger River. In east Africa, Christian Nubia succumbed to Moslem conquerors and Arab nomads began to move from Nubia all the way across the continent, and a number of states along the southern edge of the Sahara began to emerge. Meanwhile Arabs sailed down the east coast of Africa to found such states as Mogadishu and also settled on the Island of Zanzibar. During the 1300s and into the 1400s, Zimbabwe was the richest state on Africa's eastern coast. During the 1400s, Portuguese sailors reached the mouth of the

Congo River in southwestern Africa (1445), and sailed around the Cape of Good Hope (1488). Trade between Africans and Europeans was on the rise, in slaves as well as gold.

Americas. The New Empire of the Maya in Mexico's Yucatan Peninsula continued to flourish as a united empire until a revolt in 1450 caused the civilization to degenerate into competing city-states. Each city-state built its own pyramid temple and many of these impressive structures are still visible today.

The Aztecs, a race of nomadic warriors, migrated into the Valley of Mexico (Mexico City today) during the 12th century. The Aztecs took on some aspects of the Toltec civilization they encountered, and in 1325 built their capital, Tenochtitlan, on two islands in Lake Texcoco. They turned Tenochtitlan into a great city with a population of over 100,000 people. In a series of bloody campaigns, the Aztecs subjugated neighboring tribes and made them vassals until the empire stretched form the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific Ocean. Aztecs believed that their gods needed to be "fed" with human hearts; therefore war was conducted frequently to secure captives to be sacrificed by having their hearts cut out.

The Inca civilization began as a city-state around Cuzco in the highlands of Peru in the 12th century. After repelling invaders in 1438, the Incas began an expansion of their own. They came to rule a vast empire including most of Peru and parts of Chile, Ecuador, Bolivia, and northwest Argentina. Inca craftsmen made objects of gold, silver, and copper. Huge Inca stone bricks for building fitted so closely that they did not need mortar to hold them together. The Incas created an efficient network of roads and also made rope suspension bridges.

North of the Rio Grande River, now separating the United States and Mexico, other cultures were present. The Inuits had established themselves in Alaska, fishing and hunting. The Mississippi Culture had replaced the Hopewell Culture, farming around the Mississippi River. The most remarkable of the Mississippi Culture settlements was Cahokia, across the Mississippi River from today's city of St. Louis. Cahokia was the largest urban center north of the great Mesoamerican cities in Mexico, with a peak population in 1250 of 40,000 people, and built 120 earthen burial and ritual mounds, the largest of which, Monks Mound, was a massive ten stories tall, the largest man-made earthen mound north of Mexico.

There was a Glades Culture in southern Florida, known for its pottery, and on the plains, forerunners of the Blackfeet, Crow, and other tribes hunted buffalo on foot. In the northeastern U.S., forerunners of the Algonquian and Iroquois were hunting, gathering food, and fishing. In the southwestern US were the Navajos, Zuni, Hopi, and others, battling severe draughts to farm and hunt.

Japan. In 1185 the leader of the Minamoto clan got the emperor to name him hereditary Shogun, supreme military commander. For a period feudal Japan was governed by a Shogun and his vassals, while the emperor nominally remained the ruler. In 1274 and again in 1281, Japan was invaded by the Mongols, who in both cases were forced to

abandon their bridgeheads due to freakish weather, including a typhoon. In the 13th and 14th centuries, towns and trade in Japan grew and merchants became wealthy. Zen Buddhism, emphasizing meditation, became popular. By the end of the 15th century, central authority had virtually disappeared and Japan was afflicted by a long series of civil wars as rival landowners, called daimyos, fought for power.

Korea. The Goryeo kingdom was attacked by Mongols in 1231 and by 1258 the royal family had surrendered, but was allowed to remain puppet rulers. The 13th century was the age of exquisite celadon pottery. In 1392 a general led a revolt to take over Korea as the new king and initiate the Joseon dynasty that would last until 1910. Seoul became the capital in 1394. Confucianism was made the official religion of Korea. The Joseon dynasty consolidated its absolute rule over Korea, imported and adapted Chinese culture, and saw the height of classical Korean culture, trade, science, literature, and technology.

Oceania. Voyagers from Polynesia probably reached New Zealand around 1280 AD.

Russia. In the 11th century Rus broke up into a federation of princedoms. The economic importance of Rus declined and European trade shifted to Germany and Italy. The Russians continued to quarrel among themselves until the mid 13th century when the Mongols stormed into Eastern Europe. For over two hundred years most of Russia was under the control of the Mongol Golden Horde, whose capital was at Kazan on the Volga River. The Mongols used dukes of Moscow to collect taxes for them. It was eventually a Moscow-led alliance that broke the power of the Mongols in 1480, when the advent of artillery and guns made the Mongol cavalry and archers ineffective. Ivan III renounced his allegiance to the Mongols and assumed the title of czar; Moscow had become the capital of an independent Russian state.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 8 – The Rise of Nationalism: AD 1500 to AD 1900

The Middle East was overrun by the Turkish Ottomans, whose power and influence gradually waned. A Renaissance of learning, a Reformation of religion, a Scientific Revolution, and an Industrial Revolution enabled Europe to transform itself into the world's greatest power. Russia rapidly transformed itself from an agricultural society into an industrial country, joining the countries of Western Europe as an important power. India experienced rule under Turkish Mongols and then became virtually a possession of the British Empire. After years of isolationism, China was forced to endure the nationalist influences of European powers. A democracy was born in North America and the United States of America quickly grew to rival Europe as a world power.

Middle East

Egypt held the Turkish Ottomans out of the Middle East for a century, but in the early 16th century the Ottomans began the systematic conquest of the region, occupying Iraq in 1515, Syria in 1516, and Palestine and Egypt in 1517. The Ottomans united the region under one ruler, and kept control of it for 400 years.

The Ottomans also conquered Greece, the Balkans, and most of Hungary. The empire reached its peak in the 16th century, was the largest and most influential of the Muslim empires of the modern period, and seemed poised to establish a European presence.

But Europe was rapidly expanding in power and influence, and by the 17th century, had overtaken the Muslim world in wealth, population, and most importantly – technology. By 1700 the Ottomans had been driven out of Hungary and the balance of power along the frontier had shifted decisively in favor of the West. From 1700 to 1918, the Ottomans steadily retreated, and the Middle East fell further and further behind Europe, becoming increasingly inward-looking and defensive.

More and more, the Ottoman Empire was under the financial control of the European powers; domination soon turned to conquest. The French annexed Algeria in North Africa in 1830 and Tunisia in 1878. The British occupied Egypt in 1882, though it remained under nominal Ottoman sovereignty. The British also established effective control of the Persian Gulf and the French extended their influence into Lebanon and Syria.

In 1869 a French company, headed by Ferdinand de Lesseps, completed the Suez Canal, a sea-level waterway, connecting the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. This important link allowed water transportation between Europe and Asia.

Europe

Within 41 years of Christopher Columbus's first voyage to the Americas in 1492, Spanish conquistadors had easily conquered the Aztecs in Mexico (Hernando Cortès in 1519) and the Incas in Peru (Francisco Pizarro in 1533). This opened the way for the creation of a vast Spanish land empire.

Spain deliberately blocked the commercial enterprises of the Portuguese, English, and Dutch in the New World. Attempting to establish its superiority, Spain assembled an enormous fleet of 130 ships in order to overwhelm England. The defeat of the Spanish Armada by the English in 1588 signaled the arrival of England as a colonial power.

England suffered a civil war from 1642 to 1648 over authority of the monarchy versus the Parliament. Charles I, the king of England, was beheaded for treason to his people and revolutionary leader Oliver Cromwell ruled England under a military dictatorship from 1653 to 1658. After Cromwell's death the monarchy was restored in 1660, but sovereignty remained with the Parliament. Politicians developed a cabinet government, which derived its power from a party system of alliances among members of Parliament.

By 1763 England, which after the union with Scotland became Great Britain, won decisive victories overseas in India and Canada, and the British Empire, ruled by Parliament, was born.

Besides the United Kingdom (England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland), the British Empire grew to include the crowned republics of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and South Africa, as well as many other crown colonies and other possessions throughout the Caribbean, Africa, Asia, and the Far East. At the end of the 19th century the British Empire comprised almost a quarter of the earth's land surface and included more than a quarter of world's population.

Continental Europe was also changing. During the religious Reformation (1517-1575), the northern nations revolted against the domination of Rome and the German Martin Luther defied the Roman Catholic Church to help establish Protestantism as a branch of Christianity. The Thirty Years War (1618-1648), involving Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Denmark, Sweden, and France, persuaded everybody that neither the Protestants nor the Catholics could be completely victorious and that dreams of an Empire, united under a Catholic Church, had to be abandoned. For more than two hundred years, Germany remained divided under local rulers and France emerged as the dominant great power in Europe.

Meanwhile Europe was being transformed into a world (and worldly) power. The Renaissance of learning that had begun in the 14th century, continued into the 17th century. A Scientific Revolution began in the 17th century. This was the age of Englishman Isaac Newton (1642-1727), one of the greatest and most influential scientists who ever lived, with major contributions in optics, mathematics, and mechanics. Europe began to pull ahead of the other world civilizations – not only in matters technological

and military, but also in science, philosophy, and scholarship. The rise of the West to world dominance had begun.

In the late 18th century, Europe saw the beginning of a democratic revolution (1789-1795) when the people of Paris revolted against the injustices and heavy taxation under the monarchy, a republic was proclaimed, and King Louis XVI was tried and executed for treason to his people. The insurrection spread rapidly throughout France, and with French military support, across Europe; everywhere kings were expelled and republics set up.

But in 1799 French general Napoleon Bonaparte overthrew the government and proclaimed himself emperor. French armies conquered Italy and Spain, defeated Prussia and Austria, and dominated all of Europe west of Russia. However, Napoleon suffered a conclusive defeat by the English at Trafalgar in 1805. After a disastrous invasion of Russia in 1812, a coalition of European powers invaded France and Napoleon was forced to abdicate. The French monarchy was restored and a revolutionary era came to an end.

Victorious allies in the Congress of Vienna (1815) reduced France to its former borders and restored the political conditions that had existed before the French Revolution. But the new international order did not extinguish revolutionary ideas of political and social justice and the stage was set for unrest and revolt in many European countries during the first half of the 1800s.

At the time of the French Revolution that changed the political landscape of Europe, an Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain that altered the economic life of the Western World. A series of inventions introduced machines to do work previously done by hand, such as James Watt's efficient steam-engine developed in 1769 to drive the textile industry. A new process was invented to use coal (instead of wood) for smelting iron ore. In 1825 the first railway was opened for traffic.

In the second half of the 1800s, Europe saw the rise of chemical industry, exemplified by the production of alkali and sulfuric acid, enabling the mass production of consumer goods such as paper, soaps, textiles, and fertilizer. Application of electrical technologies led to advancements such as the incandescent-filament lamp, alternating current for the efficient transmission of electricity, and new manufacturing techniques.

Individual invention more and more gave way to systematic research by large staffs of engineers and scientists. Germany was the most successful nation to organize industrial growth, highlighted by the development of the internal combustion engine in 1886.

Europeans took advantage of their new-found power to surge into every habitable part of the globe, and for a few decades European empires extended over nearly all of Africa and much of Asia.

Liberal and revolutionary aspirations remained alive in Europe. However, popular uprisings in the independent group of German and Italian states failed to create a united

Germany or Italy. Revolutionary leadership included the German Karl Marx who in 1848 proclaimed his vision of socialism, creating the theoretical basis of Communism and other forms of socialism. But Marx's ideas proved difficult to realize and most socialist parties that emerged after his death became as nationalist as the governments they tried to replace.

From the 1850s through the 1870s, Austria, Prussia, France, Russia, and other independent states in Germany and Italy fought with each other to realize their nationalist objectives. In 1861 a united Italy emerged as a constitutional monarchy under the King of Sardinia. In 1871, after Prussia under Count Otto von Bismarck defeated France, Germany, excluding Austria, was united, and William I was proclaimed emperor.

For the next 43 years Germany was the leading power on the European continent. France sought to correct her own weaknesses by a close alliance with Russia, and Germany linked herself with the Austria-Hungary Empire. Great Britain was gradually forced into a close association with the Franco-Russian group by the aggressive development of a great German navy. These competing alliances divided Europe into two rival camps.

Russia

In 1552 Russian Czar Ivan IV captured the old Mongol capital of Kazan and conquered an enormous territory from the Urals to the Caspian Sea. With the Mongol danger removed, the Russian nobles (boyars) began to strive for more autonomy. Ivan IV acquired the title, the Terrible, through bloody violence with which he destroyed boyar opposition to his autocratic rule.

Slowly the Russian government directed the boundless energy of Cossacks from southwestern Russia eastwards as a weapon against the dwindling power of the Mongol nomads. In 1584 the Moslem Khanate of Sibir (Siberia) was conquered and in 1638 the Cossacks reached the Pacific Ocean at Okhotsk.

Russia found it more difficult to expand in the west, enduring years of military struggles with Poland, Sweden, and the Turks. In 1721 Czar Peter I defeated Sweden, securing a coastline on the Gulf of Finland. Peter the Great traveled abroad, was impressed with Europe, endeavored to westernize Russia with despotic energy, and was a major factor in turning Russian into a great power. Although later wars with the Turks proved to be inconclusive, Russia did annex part of the Black Sea coast and occupied a large part of Poland.

The westward advance of her borders brought Russia into direct contact with European affairs and she joined France, England, and Germany as one of the great European powers. At the end of the 19th century the Industrial Revolution reached Russia, rapidly transforming her from an agricultural society into an industrial country. Building the trans-Siberian railway from Moscow to Vladivostok began in 1891 and was completed in 1905.

India

The Mughal Empire of Turkish Mongols, which had overthrown the Delhi sultanate in 1526, ruled the greater part of India until the 18th century. Akbar the Great (1556-1605) inaugurated the most splendid age in Indian history. Akbar instituted religious tolerance and the Islamic aristocracy adopted many Indian customs, resulting in a fusion of Persian and Hindu traditions. The most famous result of this cultural fusion is the Taj Mahal mausoleum in Agra, built between 1630 and 1652.

In the early 1700s, religious tolerance was repudiated under the fanatical Moslem ruler Aurangzeb, who organized severe persecutions of Hindus. The Hindus revolted and seemingly endless guerrilla warfare began, supported by the Marathi hill tribes in central India. In the mid 1700s, India was invaded by fierce Afghan forces from the north, leading to general chaos, and together with the continuing internal warfare, led to the disintegration of the Mughal empire.

Meanwhile, after 1600, European trading companies had established themselves in India. To protect themselves from the disruptive ongoing warfare in India, English and French companies formed armies and enlisted Indian soldiers. Local rulers began hiring these superior-trained armies to advance their own particular interests. In 1756 an all-out struggle was joined between France and Great Britain; the British in India won a decisive victory and the French were excluded from further participation in Indian affairs.

Over a period of decades the British East India Company eliminated French influence and began to subdue the entire country of India. Indian states were forced to accept British "protection." By 1819 the East India Company was in control of most of India except the northwest.

After an unsuccessful mutiny by Indian soldiers against the British in 1857, the English Parliament suppressed the East India Company and substituted direct rule through a Viceroy appointed by the government in London (1858). In the late 19th century the British created a network of railways and built new roads. India was still an agricultural society, unable as yet to compete with cheap, mass-produced British goods.

In 1885 the Indian National Congress was organized and began to press for Indian selfgovernment.

China

In the 1630s the Ming dynasty began to break down. China was struck by famine and epidemics. Rebellions occurred and the government was unable to suppress them.

In 1644 invaders from Manchuria swept away the Ming dynasty and established Manchurule. By 1660 the Manchus controlled all of China. They extended Chinese rule to Taiwan (1683), Mongolia (1697), and Tibet (1720). Industry boomed in China; the iron-

making business prospered and vast quantities of cotton and porcelain were made. An increasing amount of tea was exported to Britain.

The Manchu dynasty had established trade restrictions, whereby international trade could only be conducted in Canton by imperially-sanctioned monopolies. China-British trade became dominated by high-value luxury items such as tea (from China to Britain) and silver (from Britain to China). But Britain found it increasingly costly to supply silver, given that they were on the gold standard and had to purchase silver from other European countries.

So Britain began to pay for Chinese tea with opium which the Chinese more and more opposed. Years of isolationism and falling behind in military technology left China unable to forcibly resist British influence in Chinese affairs. In two Opium Wars (1839-1842 and 1856-1860)) the British – in the form of the East India Trading Company - used their navy and superior weapons to defeat the Chinese. Britain ended the monopoly of trading in the Canton System, won the island of Hong Kong, and China was forced to accept humiliating terms, including Britain's right for its citizens to be protected by British laws while in China. Other nations soon demanded and received most of the rights that the British had won.

Manchu rule was further weakened by internal unrest. Widespread famine led to a peasant uprising – the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864) – in which as many as 20 million people may have died.

In 1860 Russia seized a large stretch of land on China's northern border. French possession of Indo-China (1885) and British control over Burma (1886) cut off regions which had been regarded by the Chinese as dependencies. Japan took advantage of Chinese weakness by defeating them in battle (1894) to increase Japan's influence in Korea, a country that China had long dominated. By the end of the 19th century, Russia, Germany, France, and Britain had each acquired a sphere of influence in China.

The constant failures of the imperial government led the Chinese people to a growing belief that the Manchu dynasty had lost the mandate of heaven.

North America

In the 15th century French, Dutch and British adventurers began to establish colonies to the north of the Spanish-American dominions. The absolutist effort of the English kings had the effect of driving out from England a great number of freedom-minded Protestants. In 1584 Walter Raleigh established the first English settlement in Virginia. In 1620 the English ship Mayflower arrived off Massachusetts to establish the first colony in New England. The Dutch settled in what would become New York, but because of their smaller numbers, soon succumbed to the British. British power was established along the east coast from Georgia to Newfoundland.

The French founded Quebec in 1608 and had settlements in Montreal to the north and at New Orleans in the south, plus possessed vast unexplored territory in America, west of the Mississippi River (Louisiana Territory). In the French and Indian War, the British advanced to the Great Lakes and seized Montreal, forcing France in 1763 to surrender Canada to the victorious British. In the west a Russian naval expedition had discovered Alaska and Russian fur traders began to establish settlements along the Pacific Northwest coast. This stimulated the British Hudson's Bay Company to explore and lay claim to all of Canada west of the Rockies (1789). Spain reacted to the Russian advance by pushing further up the west coast from Mexico to San Francisco and Vancouver Island.

After the costly British-French colonial war, Britain tried to pay off its war debt by heavily taxing the English colonies in America. The colonists rejected the English Parliament's authority to tax them and declared their independence from Britain on July 4, 1776. In the Revolutionary War (1775-1783), America defeated the British and created a republic, with an elected head of state (first president was George Washington) in which supreme power resided in a body of citizens entitled to vote. In the years ahead, the Declaration of Independence and Constitution of the United States (1787) would be used as models for democracy by other peoples of the world.

The United States of America quickly expanded across the North American continent. Major land acquisitions included the Louisiana Purchase (1803), from France; Florida (1819), ceded by Spain; Texas (1845), annexed from Mexico; Oregon Country (1846), by treaty with the United Kingdom; California, Nevada, Utah, and Arizona (1848), by Mexican cessation after the Mexican War; and southern Arizona (1854), by purchase from Mexico. (Alaska was purchased from Russia in 1867; Hawaii was annexed at the request of the Hawaiian government in 1898.)

The rapid growth of the US into a vast unified nation was aided by new means of transportation and communication, including steamboats (1807) and the electric telegraph (1837). From 1830 on, railroads made the inland regions readily accessible.

There were also non-unifying forces at work, causing a split between the southern and northern states of the Union. The southern states' major economic product was cotton; southerners used African slaves to cultivate the critically important crop. As a growing number of immigrants from Europe began to swell the population of the northern states, an anti-slavery movement began to agitate for abolition of slavery. The cotton-growing South stressed the importance of states rights and began to talk about secession from the Union.

The conflict was resolved in a bitter Civil War (1861-1865) that pitted the slave-holding southern states against the rest of the country. The victory of the northern forces under President Abraham Lincoln led to the elimination of slavery and saved the Union from being torn apart.

Westward expansion after the Civil War increasingly brought the new, predominantly white settlers into contact with Native Americans, who vigorously resisted the encroachment into their homelands. From the 1860s to the 1880s, a series of wars were fought, with Native Americans suffering defeat after defeat because of the superior numbers and weapons of the easterners. The remaining Native Americans were forced to move onto reservations, where conditions were often appalling – with inadequate rations and rampant disease. (Note: From the beginning of European conquests in the Americas in the early 1500s, natives had suffered terribly from diseases that they had not been exposed to previously, such as smallpox, measles, and chicken pox. The result was a severe depopulation of native peoples.)

After the Civil War, railways spread across the continent, integrating the expansive US territory. Industry, business and capital expanded, with the US becoming the fastest growing industrial nation in the world. Soon after 1900 the US was first in production of iron, coal, copper and silver; and steam power was giving way to electricity. American agriculture continued to boom.

The US was also beginning to show its military power internationally, when it helped Cuba secure its independence, defeating Spain (1898), gaining the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Guam.

In Canada in the late 1700s, British possessions consisted of the thinly populated coastal river and lake regions and a great hinter land of wilderness in which the only settlements were the fur-trading stations of the Hudson Bay Trading Company. Canada was troubled by dissension between its French and British inhabitants; there were several serious revolts, and it was only in 1867 that a new democratic government relieved its internal strains. Individual provinces were federated into the Dominion of Canada, the Hudson Bay Territory was ceded to the Union, and a strong central government ruled from Ottawa, the new capital. The first prime minister of Canada was Sir John Macdonald.

Confederation made possible the construction of transcontinental railways and they enabled Canada, just like the US, to expand westwards and in spite of extensive growth, to remain one nation with common interests.

Other Civilizations

Africa. In the 16th century Europeans began to transport slaves across the Atlantic to the Americas. Enslaved people were generally obtained from west or central Africa through coastal trading with Africans, though some were captured by European slave traders through raids and kidnapping. The horrible slave trade that lasted into the 19th century would have been impossible without the cooperation of Africans, many of whom grew rich in the process.

The Dutch established a Cape Colony at the southern tip of Africa in 1652. In the early 1800s the British gained control and the descendents of the early Dutch settlers (Boers) moved to the inland parts of South Africa to set up independent republics. In the late 1800s the British decided that control of all of South Africa was vital to their empire and

after a hard-fought war (1899-1902), the Boers were defeated and had to accept British rule.

European penetration into most of Africa remained very modest until the late 1800s, when the entire continent – with the exception of Liberia and Ethiopia – came under European rule. Belgium, Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Portugal, and Spain all had territorial interests in Africa. Imperial quarrels among the European nations contributed greatly to international tensions as the 19th century ended.

Japan. Civil wars among land owners continued throughout the 16th century until finally in 1615 Japan was united under the Tokugawa family who ruled as shoguns until 1868. The Tokugawa government went to great lengths to maintain order and rigorous seclusion. In 1638 all Europeans were expelled from Japan and the ports closed for foreign trade. For over 200 years Japan remained completely cut off from the rest of the world.

By the mid 1800s Japan's isolationism could no longer be enforced because Japan's shore defenses were insufficient to stop well-armed warships. Japan was humiliated intensely when American gun-boat diplomacy forced her in 1854 to re-open the ports and to sign a trade treaty.

In 1868 there was a short civil war in Japan, with pro-emperor forces fighting pro-shogun forces. Pro-emperor forces won, and Emperor Meiji took the throne, determined to modernize Japan. The new Japanese government reversed years of seclusion and set out to learn the Westerner's technical and political secrets. They quickly transformed the country from a feudal state into a modern industrial nation. As Japan increased its military strength, it participated in imperialist ventures, including the war in 1894 with China over authority in Korea.

Korea. The Joseon dynasty that had come to power in the late 14th century was severely weakened during the late 16th and early 17th centuries, when invasions by neighboring Japan and Manchuria virtually overran the peninsula, leading to an increasingly harsh isolationist policy. Korea fell behind other countries in technology and industry.

After 1880, Joseon rulers attempted reform, but the conservative Confucian state religion made change difficult. In the late 19th century, Korea signed trade treaties with Japan, America, Britain, Germany, Russia, and France. For centuries Korea was a tributary state of China; Chinese influence was now ended and after Japan's victory over China in 1894, Japan sought to dominate Korea.

Latin America. In the early 1500s, the complete collapse of the Aztec and Inca empires opened the way for creation of a vast (predominantly Roman Catholic) Spanish land empire that by 1770 included most of South America, all of Mexico and Central America, and southwestern North America. The Portuguese established themselves in Brazil. The material wealth of the Spanish and Portuguese empires was based on the exploitation of rich gold and silver mines in Mexico, Peru, Bolivia and Brazil and sugar cane plantations

in Brazil and the Caribbean. (Note: Slavery in the Americas started in 1562 with the introduction by the Spanish of black slaves kidnapped from Africa to work in silver mines in South America. Up to the year 1800, approximately 11 million slaves were imported to the Americas – most to the Portuguese colony of Brazil and the Caribbean. About the same number died en route.)

During the early 1800s, the Spanish colonies in Latin America followed the example of the United States and broke their connection with Europe. In the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, Spain had lost most of its fleet (1805), undermining Spain's ability to defend and hold on to its empire. The later intrusion of Napoleonic forces into Spain (1808) cut off effective communication with the empire. But it was internal tensions that ultimately ended the empire in America.

Paraguay was the first to achieve its independence from Spain 1811. In 1816 Jose San Martin helped organize a rebel army to win Argentina's independence. Chile succeeded in its independence movement in 1818. In 1819 Simon Bolivar led an army to a stunning victory over the Spanish in Columbia. San Martin and Bolivar later joined forces to help liberate Peru (1821) and Ecuador from Spanish rule. Bolívar also contributed decisively to the independence of Venezuela, Panama, and Bolivia by 1825. Central America declared its independence from Spain in 1821. Brazil achieved its independence from Portugal in 1825.

The United States discouraged re-conquests of newly independent nations and further extension of European political influence in the Western Hemisphere (which would be regarded as hostile acts) with the Monroe Doctrine in 1823, backed by British sea power.

Dreams of a single United States of South America never materialized. The people in South America, dispersed over the continent, separated by great mountain chains and forests, did not achieve a union. They became a constellation of republics, very prone at first to revolutions and wars among themselves.

Mexican rebellion against the Spanish broke out in 1810, leading to Mexico becoming independent under a constitutional monarchy in 1821. Spain tried to re-conquer Mexico in 1829 but its army was defeated by the Mexicans. In 1836 settlers in Mexican Texas rebelled and defeated a Mexican army to win their independence. Mexico lost the balance of its North American territories to the United States in the treaty following the Mexican War (1848) and the Gadsden Purchase (1854).

Benito Juarez led a liberal Mexican movement to curtail the power of the Catholic Church and the military, while trying to create a modern civil society and capitalist economy like the US. Juarez became president of Mexico in 1858 and led the liberal side to victory in the Mexican War of Reform against conservatives who favored a monarchy and military dominance.

In 1863, with the US distracted by its Civil War, France sent troops to Mexico, captured Mexico City, and installed Emperor Maximilian. But, in 1867, with US encouragement

and arms support, Juarez and Mexican resistance fighters defeated Maximilian's forces and executed Maximilian.

Mexico became a republic again, but in 1876 Porfirio Diaz staged a coup and became dictator. By the late 19th century many Mexicans continued to live in poverty; their resentment would soon boil over into revolution.

Oceania. Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan was the first to lead a successful expedition to circumnavigate the earth (1519-1522). Captain James Cook - a British explorer, navigator and cartographer – made the first European contact with Australia (1770) and the Hawaiian Islands (1778).

The first British colonists – mostly convicts deported from England – arrived in Australia in 1788. The population of Australia as a British possession grew steadily as European settlement spread across the continent, which over the years suffered from convict rebellions, wars with the native Aborigines, gold miner rebellions, and notorious outlaws. By the end of the 19th century the different states in Australia had agreed to form a federation.

What in the World Happened? Perspectives on the History of Man

Part 9 – The March towards Globalization: AD 1900 to AD 2010

Europe suffered through two world wars to emerge in the 21st century as a (combined) economic superpower. Russia transformed itself into a union of like-minded Communist states, became a military superpower, but declined after Communism failed. The United States grew from an isolationist nation to the protector of democracy worldwide, the world's leading economic superpower, and the only remaining military superpower.

The Islamic states of the Middle East finally achieved independence from Ottoman and European domination only to find themselves struggling economically and a hotbed of radical nationalism and nuclear proliferation ambitions. With long sought independence, India was split into Hindu India and Moslem Pakistan, and although achieving great economic promise, still suffers internal political turmoil and conflicts with its geographical neighbors. China emerged from isolation and division to be united under a Communist regime, now the world's most populace nation and a rapidly growing economic superpower. Japan's imperialistic objectives were curbed in World War II; then Japan was dramatically transformed into a pacifist economic superpower.

The decolonization and emergence of Third World nations in Africa, Asia, and Latin America – with their inherent instability, corruption, poverty, and radicalism – plus a reawakening of Islamic world religious fervor, present huge challenges for the future of civilization.

Europe

With military alliances in place and tensions building, arguments over who instigated the assassination of the heir to the Austrian throne in the summer of 1914 were the sparks that began the conflagration that would become World War I. Carefully laid mobilization plans quickly turned into marching troops as Germany and Austria struck at France, Russia, and Serbia, with the German armies marching through Belgium. Britain immediately came into the war on the side of Belgium, bringing in Japan as her ally, and very soon Turkey followed on the German-Austrian side.

Soon the opposing forces were stalemated, facing each other across trenches in long lines across Europe, unable to advance without enormous losses. In the summer of 1917, Russia, weary of war, and undergoing governmental revolution at home that brought the world's first communist state to power, withdrew from the war. Russia's withdrawal coincided with America's entry into the war – responding to Germany's unrestricted submarine warfare and fearful of Germany's organizing a European government unfriendly to the US. After a final German offensive failed to bring victory, Germany and its allies surrendered in November 1918. It is estimated that up to fifteen million men died in World War I.

From March 1918 to June 1920, Europe and the entire world suffered from a horrible, virulent influenza epidemic that killed an estimated 50 to 100 million people worldwide. During the later years of World War I, the transport of large numbers of troops across oceans and international boundaries, and the close-barracking of soldiers, probably helped to transmit the deadly influenza virus.

After the end of World War I, the world saw many changes. Revolutionary movements toppled the German, Austrian, and Ottoman empires. Previous Western alliances also broke up. A coup d'etat in Italy in 1922 brought a Fascist regime to power under Benito Mussolini. In 1922 Russia absorbed its empirical states into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. In 1929 the Great Depression started; panic spread from country to country, leaving mass unemployment in its wake.

In 1932 in Germany, the Nazi party emerged from this period of economic uncertainty as the largest political party and Adolph Hitler was appointed chancellor in 1933. In the mid 1930s Hitler declared that the Versailles Treaty ending World War I had ceased to exist, began rearming Germany, formed an alliance with Italy and militaristic Japan - which had been preying on its neighbors since 1931 - and began his persecution of Jews that would lead to the extermination of approximately six million Jews in death camps in the 1940s. While the world watched with inaction, Germany invaded Austria, occupied Czechoslovakia, and became emboldened for continued expansion.

In 1939 Germany started World War II by invading Poland, with France and Britain then declaring war on Germany because of an alliance with Poland. Germany won several victories with their mechanized blitzkrieg tactics, conquering Denmark, Norway, France, Yugoslavia, and Greece. In the summer and autumn of 1940, in the Battle of Britain, the German air force tried to gain air superiority over Britain prior to a planned land invasion, but Prime Minister Winton Churchill rallied his people and the Royal Air Force prevented the Germans from achieving their objectives – a crucial turning point in the war. On land in late 1941, the Russians repelled a German invasion near Moscow in the dead of winter - the first great German military defeat.

The German retreat from Moscow coincided with Japan's attack of the US fleet in Hawaii on December 7, 1941. The US immediately declared war on Japan and a few days later on Germany, and Italy, but it wasn't until the fall of 1942 that the tide turned, with American war production having a major impact and the halting of the Japanese advances in the Pacific.

Since 1940 Italy had been fighting against the British in North Africa and East Africa to expand its possessions there. Italy suffered defeat after defeat, even when its forces were commanded by the esteemed German General Erwin Rommel. In July 1943 Sicily fell to the Allies; a combined British-American force then invaded Italy which finally surrendered in the spring of 1945. Trying to escape to freedom, Benito Mussolini was executed by Italian partisans.

Meanwhile Russia pressed the Germans from the east while the Allies landed on the coast of Normandy on June 6, 1944 and began to press the Germans from the west. In April 1945 Russian and American troops met in Germany; Hitler seeing imminent defeat killed himself in the ruins of Berlin, where a week later Germany surrendered. Japan surrendered in September after two US atomic bombs obliterated the cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki. Estimates of deaths in World War II range between forty and fifty million people.

The United States and the Soviet Union emerged from World War II as the two dominant powers of the globe. Europe came to be divided into spheres of influence between the USSR and the West, including the partitioning of Germany. The USSR set up coalition regimes in the part of Eastern Europe overrun by their armies in 1944-45. In response the Americans felt themselves called upon to halt the spread of communism. In the resulting Cold War, the US concluded that withdrawal of its troops from Europe would have to wait until communism had been "contained" or "rolled back."

In Western Europe, American infusion of capital under the Marshall Plan stimulated local economies back to prosperity. Ironically, Germany, the European loser of World War II, and not participating in the costly nuclear arms race, began to emerge as the dominant force within the European Economic Community (1958-1993). The East European states lacked the flexibility to respond to consumer demand of a modern society, and the secretive nature of their regimes did not allow for a free flow of information. This situation came to a head in 1989 with the reunification of Germany and the start of a number of regime changes in many Eastern European countries to embrace capitalism. A particularly brutal conflict occurred from 1992-1995 when Yugoslavia broke up into the independent states of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

In 1993 the European Union was established to develop a single market through a standardized system of laws ensuring free movement of people, goods, services, and capital. Today the combined economy of the European Union countries exceeds that of any single country in the world.

Starting in the 1950s, the far flung British Empire began to diminish rapidly due to world wide decolonization, the granting of independence to previously subservient states. Of particular note: India achieved complete independence in 1947; Canada and Australia gradually became more autonomous, severing all constitutional ties with Britain by the 1980s, but remaining British Commonwealth countries. The UK retains sovereignty over 14 small territories outside the British Isles which were renamed the British Overseas Territories in 2002. Some are uninhabited except for transient military or scientific personnel; the others are self-governing to varying degrees and are reliant on the UK for foreign relations and defense.

Russia

In the early 1900s Russia tried to increase its influence in the Pacific region, leasing bases in Manchuria. Not leaving at the request of other powers, the Russians were attacked by

the Japanese in 1904, suffered humiliating defeats on both land and sea, and by 1905 had retreated, ceding southern Manchuria to Japan.

In 1917 in the middle of World War I, with Russia under attack from the Germans and suffering terrible losses, the Czarist regime was overthrown. Power was seized by Bolshevik socialists under an ardent disciple of Karl Marx, Vladimir Lenin, who established Communism in Russia.

Following World War I in 1918-1920, Russia endured civil wars as its empirical republics struggled to gain their freedom. Nationalist movements in the Ukraine and Caucasus eventually failed; those regions were incorporated into the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, established in 1922. In Finland, the Baltic States, and Poland, however, nationalist efforts prevailed to produce independent states.

When Lenin died in 1924, he was succeeded by Joseph Stalin, the Secretary of the Communist Party. The year 1929 marks the beginning of Stalin's autocratic dictatorship; a wave of terrorism began as Stalin consolidated his power over his opposition. Hundreds of thousands of people were sent to their deaths by public trials and many millions of people vanished in a vast gulag prison system – a legacy that would haunt Russia for generations. Estimates of the total number of people killed in Stalin's purges range up to thirty million!

Despite a non-aggression pact, Germany attacked Russia in June 1941 in their World War II imperialistic quest. And despite Stalin having purged his army of most of its officers, the Russian army performed heroically to stop the German advance near Moscow in December 1941 and began a counterattack. The strength of Russian industry and substantial material aid from Britain and the US enabled the Russians to steadily push the Germans westward until the Russians entered Berlin in April 1945.

After World War II, Stalin supported Communist movements in Europe and other parts of the world. Russia became the world's second superpower, with their Cold War rival, the United States. Soviet scientific achievements included development of their own atomic bomb in 1949, the launch of the world's first artificial, globe-circling satellite in 1957, and having the first man in space in 1961.

In the 1970s Soviet economic growth slowed and by 1980 had virtually halted. From 1979-1989 the Soviets fought an interminable and inconclusive war in Afghanistan, supporting the Marxist government against Islamic resistance. The war further depleted Soviet resources.

In 1989 Communism collapsed in Europe in favor of capitalism and independence movements gained force in the Soviet homeland. An attempted (unsuccessful) Soviet governmental coup in August 1991 triggered the end of Communist rule and the break up of the USSR by December 1991 into Russia and 14 other independent republics, which now operate as the Russian Federation. Since the 1990s Russia has experienced a painful transition to capitalism. Russia has also been plagued by armed separatist conflicts, including Chechnya, Dagestan, Georgia, Ossetia, and Abkhazia. High oil prices and increasing domestic demand, consumption, and investments have lately helped Russia's economy grow to alleviate the people's standard of living and increase Russia's clout on the world stage.

United States of America

The US began the 20th century with two far-reaching engineering achievements, the construction of the world's first successful airplane by brothers Orville and Wilbur Wright (1903) and the building of the Panama Canal (1904-1914), a key conduit for international maritime trade between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

When the First World War began in 1914, the US remained neutral, but by early 1917 German submarine attacks on American shipping could no longer be tolerated and the US declared war on Germany in April 1917. In 1918 American troops under the US Commander General John J. Pershing helped push back the Germans, leading to their surrender.

After World War I, the US withdrew from active concern with Europe and turned inward to increase prosperity with such developments as widespread electric lighting, electrical appliances, radios, and automobiles. Americans enjoyed the highest standard of living in the world. Until the outbreak of World War II, America remained isolated and withdrawn from world affairs.

The economic boom of the 1920s came to a sudden end in 1929 with a stock market crash and the start of the Great Depression. As Hitler came to power in 1933 in Germany, the US elected President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, whose "New Deal," an economic mobilization of public works and efforts to regulate prices – though it didn't end unemployment – provided relief against starvation and poverty.

During World War II, the US mobilized all its resources. Industrial output doubled and by 1943 there was full employment. Ironically, it was a Jewish German immigrant, Albert Einstein, who first developed the theory for, and then encouraged the development of, the atomic bomb – a weapon that was used twice against the Japanese to end the war in the Pacific.

Following World War II in October 1945, the United Nations was founded as an international organization to maintain peace and promote cooperation in solving economic, social, and humanitarian problems. The headquarters of this world-wide group is in New York City.

In 1947, then US president Harry Truman announced the Truman Doctrine to financially support free peoples who were resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures. The US gave money to both Greece and Turkey and provided massive

aid for war-devastated Europe with the Marshall Plan (1948-1951), named after Secretary of State, George Marshall.

At the end of World War II, Korea had been partitioned into two states, North and South Korea, along the line between opposing Japanese and Soviet forces when peace was declared. In 1950 North Korea invaded South Korea and the US and United Nations forces intervened on the side of the South. Then the People's Republic of China came to the aid of the North. The Korean War ended in 1953 with an uneasy truce that restored the end-of-World-War-II boundary between the two parts of Korea.

On a global scale also, the world was divided into two hostile Cold War camps, the US and the Soviet Union. A precarious balance of power was sustained by an alarming competition in the development of nuclear arms. The two superpowers dominated the world political and military scene.

Superpower competition also extended to space. The US trailed the Soviet Union by a year with their first orbiting man in space in 1962, but was the first (and only so far) nation to land a man on the moon in 1969.

Meanwhile the US faced two military crises in the 1960s. The Cuban Missile Crisis (1962) occurred when the Soviets stationed long range nuclear missiles in communist Cuba, only about 100 miles from the US coast. The confrontation was cooled quickly; the Soviets agreed to dismantle the missiles when US President John Kennedy threatened to invade Cuba. From 1961 to 1973 the US fought an unpopular war in Vietnam, another state partitioned into Communist (North Vietnam) and democratic (South Vietnam) states. The US fought with South Vietnam against invading guerillas from North Vietnam. By 1967 the US had half a million troops in Vietnam, the war had expanded greatly, the mission was less and less clear, and opposition to the war in the US grew steadily. The US withdrew its troops in 1973, leaving Vietnam partitioned as before.

Political and social issues also dramatically affected the US in this period. President John Kennedy was assassinated in 1963 by a lone gunman, who was himself murdered before he could explain his reasons for the presidential assassination. Kennedy's death brought to the presidency Vice President Lyndon Johnson, who helped spearhead the Civil Rights Act of 1968 that outlawed racial discrimination against African Americans, culminating in the Civil Rights Movement that had been active since the mid 1950s.

In 1990 and 1991 the US and United Nation coalition forces (mostly US with leading contributors Saudi Arabia, the United Kingdom, and Egypt) fought the Gulf War to expel Iraqi forces from Kuwait after its invasion and annexation by Iraq on August 2, 1990. After aerial bombardment that began early in 1991, coalition forces won a quick, decisive victory in a ground assault.

While much of the world, particularly the US, was engaged in prosperous global capitalism, that very success generated resentment in less developed parts of the world, specifically in many Islamic nations such as Afghanistan, Iraq, and Iran. Numerous

zealous groups emerged with a missionary fervor to fight back at was regarded as intrusive Western influence, resulting in a wave of international terrorism.

New York City and Washington DC were attacked on September 11, 2001 and the War on Terror began in earnest. A US War in Afghanistan (2001-present) was widely supported because that nation had steadily provided a haven for terrorist camps. In 2003 the US (backed by British forces and smaller participation by Australia, Denmark, Poland, and Spain) invaded Iraq to disarm Iraq of their supposed weapons of mass destruction and end Iraq's support for terrorism. This war, though much less widely supported (partly because no weapons of mass destruction were found) did result in the deposing of Iraq's radical president and the transformation of Iraq into a parliamentary republic in 2005.

As the 21st century dawned, the US remained the world's only superpower and possessed the world's largest economy. Continuing issues include economic competition from rising economic powers like China and India, illegal traffic into the country of immigrants and drugs, low-cost and plentiful energy, and improving the environment. A severe challenge faces the US from radical Islamic terrorism and third world poverty, corruption and nuclear ambitions that threaten democracy worldwide.

Middle East

Europe continued to dominate the Middle East at the start of the 20th century. In 1912 Italy seized Libya and the Dodecanese Islands just off the coast of the Ottoman homeland in Turkey. The Ottomans turned to Germany to protect them from the Western powers, formed an alliance with Germany, and fatefully, joined Germany and Austria-Hungary in World War I.

After the defeat of Germany and its partners in World War I in 1918, the Ottomans left the Middle East and retreated to Turkey, where they embarked on a modernization program that made Turkey culturally part of Europe. Maintaining its predominant Islamic religion, Turkey became a parliamentary republic in 1923.

Britain and France soon established control and partitioned the Middle East to suit themselves. Syria became a French protectorate. The Christian coastal areas were split off to become Lebanon, another French protectorate. Egypt was a British protectorate. Iraq and Palestine became British mandated territories. Palestine was split in half, with the eastern half becoming Jordan. Most of the Arabian Peninsula came under British protection as Saudi Arabia. Iran resisted British efforts to "protect" them and maintained it sovereignty.

During and after World War II, with British, French, and Soviet forces having departed, many Middle East states achieved independence: Lebanon (1943), Syria (1944), Jordan (1946), Iraq (1947), and Egypt (1947).

In Palestine there were conflicting forces of Arab and Jewish nationalism. In 1948, when the British Mandate expired, the United Nations planned to partition Palestine into a Jewish and an Arab state. The Arabs did not agree with the plan, but Jewish leaders did, and declared that the State of Israel existed. Armies of Egypt, Syria, Jordan, Lebanon, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia intervened but were defeated by Israel in the Arab-Israeli War that immediately followed. The "Palestinian problem" – including authority over Jerusalem has been the source of continuing conflict in the Middle East, with Arab-Israeli wars occurring frequently to the present time.

Oil had been discovered in Iran in 1908, Saudi Arabia in 1938, and then in other Persian Gulf States, Libya, and Algeria. It turned out that the Middle East possessed the world's largest, easily accessible reserves of crude oil - the most important commodity of the 20th century industrial world – and this would greatly affect future history. Mass production of oil began around 1945.

The departure of the European powers from direct control of the region, the establishment of Israel, and the increasing importance of the oil industry marked the creation of the modern Middle East. These developments led to a growing presence of the United States in the region. The US was the ultimate guarantor of the stability of the region, and from the 1950s, the dominant force in the oil industry.

During the Cold War, the Middle East was a theater of ideological struggle between the two superpowers, the US and the Soviet Union, as they competed to influence regional allies. When the Soviet Union fell with the collapse of Communism, former Soviet-associated states turned increasingly to Arab nationalism as a substitute for socialism.

Revolutions in Egypt, Syria, Iraq, Libya, and Iran - bringing radical anti-western regimes to power; plus the continuing Arab-Israeli wars; and a prolonged war between Iraq and Iran in the 1980s over border disputes and Sunni-Shiite Islamic tensions kept the region in turmoil. Radical regimes gained popular support through their promises to destroy the state of Israel, defeat the US and other western imperialists, and to bring prosperity to the Arab masses.

Other events kept the pot boiling in the Middle East. The Persian Gulf War in 1990 and 1991 to expel Iraq from Kuwait - and its aftermath - brought about a permanent US presence in the Gulf – causing great offense to many Muslims. Iran incessantly talked of destroying Israel, and started developing nuclear weapons to accomplish that goal.

The Middle East as a whole fell behind the rest of the developed world in terms of market economies, production, trade, education, communications and virtually every other criterion of economic and social progress. These factors combined in the opening years of the 21st century, to raise Middle East conflicts to a new height, with emerging radical Islamic organizations such as al-Qaida and the Taliban movement that spread terrorism across the globe.

India

Early in the 20th century, under British sovereignty, India's nationalist feelings grew stronger. After World War I, protests against the British rule increased; public opinion was embittered by the Amritsar Massacre in 1919 in which hundreds of people were killed in a protest against recent British legislation.

Leadership of the Indian National Congress was assumed by Mahatma Gandhi, who organized massive non violent civil disobedience campaigns in which he rallied widespread support for the independence movement. After the Second World War in 1947, when independence finally came, continuing antagonism between Indian Hindus and Moslems caused the British to partition the country into an independent Moslem Pakistan (Islamic Republic) and a Hindu India (parliamentary democracy).

Gandhi was assassinated in 1948 by a Hindu zealot, but Gandhi's Congress political party ruled India, with the exception of two brief periods in the 1970s and 1980s, until late in the 20th century. India has suffered a tumultuous political history with several assassinations of heads of state.

In the 1950s a series of five-year plans were targeted at boosting irrigation, agriculture, and industry. India's population grew rapidly, but poverty and illiteracy remained common.

In the 1960s and 1970s India fought three wars. The first was with China in 1962, where China successfully reclaimed disputed border areas that India occupied. The second war was with Pakistan in 1965, an inconclusive conflict over border issues. In 1971, with Pakistan divided into West and East Pakistan, India helped East Pakistan break away from West Pakistan and become the independent state Bangladesh.

Starting in the 1980s, the Indian government deregulated industry and since 1991, introduced economic reforms. India was transformed into one of the fastest growing economies in the world; however it still suffers from high levels of poverty, illiteracy, disease, and malnutrition. As the second most populated nation in the world (second to China), India is a rising Asian economic power.

India's relations with Pakistan remain troubled. Both countries have developed nuclear weapons. Also, both countries have been subject to terrorist attacks in the early 21st century. The US war in Afghanistan against terrorist camps and training facilities spills over into Pakistan regularly. There is great potential for increased military conflict in the region.

China

Early in the 20th century, the Manchu dynasty attempted reforms to improve China's poor economy and to ease the burden of European influence in their country. But the limited

reforms satisfied nobody and in 1912 the Manchu dynasty was swept away with little fighting to be replaced a Chinese Republic.

The central government had little power and warlords controlled the provinces. Civil wars afflicted China throughout the period between World Wars I and II, complicated by a revival of Japanese expansion, with their occupation of Manchuria in 1932 and their invasion of mainland China in 1937. This Sino-Japanese War did not end until 1945, with Japan's surrender to end World War II. Conflict in China did not cease until the Communist victory in 1949, when Mao Tze-tung united the country, after a century of division, under the People's Republic of China.

For twenty years, under a series of five-year plans, China experienced rapid development in industry, progress in education, and great strides in health care. However a Great Leap Forward program to greatly increase output of farming and industry stalled in the late 1950s and early 1960s – it was difficult to transform a poor agricultural country into a rich industrial one in a few years.

China assisted Korea in the Korean War in the early 1950s and fought a war with India in 1962 to reclaim disputed border areas.

Between 1966 and 1976 China experienced the Cultural Revolution, a period of widespread social and political upheaval, resulting in nation-wide chaos and economic disarray. Mao himself officially declared the Cultural Revolution to have ended in 1969, but the power struggles and political instability continued to Mao's death in 1976.

China's economy grew very rapidly in the last years of the 20th century and by the mid 1990s, much of China had become an affluent society. There was a huge increase in Chinese industrial output and great improvement in the Chinese standard of living.

Today, China is an important international nation, an economic superpower with the world's third largest economy, and over 1.3 billion people, approximately one-fifth of the world's population. Its government is a socialist republic – a people's democratic dictatorship – ruled by the Communist Party. Buddhism remains the largest organized religion in China, since its introduction from India in the 1^{st} century. China's issues for the future include a rapidly aging population, due to a one-child policy; a widening rural-urban income gap, and environmental degradation.

Japan

Emperor Meiji transformed Japan into an industrialized world power that embarked on a number of military conflicts to expand the nation's influence. Japan defeated Russia in 1904 over influence in Manchuria and annexed Korea in 1910. The Japanese joined World War I on the side of the victorious Allies and gained control of German colonies in Asia. Japan occupied Manchuria in 1931, receiving international condemnation for expansionist actions, but not deterred, Japan invaded northeastern China in 1937, initiating a war that lasted until the end of World War II in 1945.

After the Japanese attacked the United States naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii in late 1941, they had military success for about a year and a half, capturing Singapore, the Philippines, and most of Indonesia. The tide turned in a naval battle with the US fleet at Midway Island in the Pacific in May 1942, where Japan lost four aircraft carriers. Japan was gradually defeated by the US's overwhelming industrial strength and finally surrendered unconditionally in mid 1945 after the US used atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

In 1947 Japan adopted a new pacifist constitution emphasizing liberal democratic practices. Since 1947 Japan has maintained a constitutional monarchy with an emperor and an elected parliament. From the 1950s, except for infrequent recessions, the Japanese economy boomed, particularly in the export of electronic good and automobiles. Today Japan is a major economic power with the world's second largest economy and a very high standard of living.

Other Civilizations

Africa. Independence movements against European colonization gained momentum following World War II. In the late 1950s and the 1960s most African countries became independent, with Mozambique and Angola following in 1975. Though South Africa was one of the first African countries to gain independence, it remained under the Apartheid rule of its white settler population, until 1994.

Today, Africa contains 53 independent and sovereign countries. African states have frequently been hampered by instability, corruption, violence, authoritarianism, and economic mismanagement. Many states remain poor. Few states have been able to sustain democratic governments and many have cycled through a series of coups producing military dictatorships. Border and territorial disputes are also common. The most devastating military conflict in modern independent Africa was the Second Congo War; by 2008 this conflict and its aftermath had killed 5.4 million people. Since 2003 there has been an ongoing conflict in Darfur which has become a humanitarian disaster. AIDS also remains a prevalent issue in post-colonial Africa.

Australia. On 1 January 1901 the six Australian colonies became a federation and the Commonwealth of Australia was formed. In 1907 it became a dominion of the United Kingdom. Britain's Statue of Westminster in 1931 formally ended most of the constitutional links between Australia and the UK. The final constitutional ties between Australia and the UK were severed with the passing of the Australia Act in 1986, ending any role in the government of the Australian states, and ending judicial appeals to the UK.

Today the Commonwealth of Australia is a constitutional democracy based on a federal division of powers. Government is a constitutional monarchy, with Britain's Queen Elizabeth II as head of state, and utilizes a parliamentary system. Australia remains a Commonwealth realm of the United Kingdom and is a developed country with a

prosperous multicultural society. Australia has been a formal military partner of the United States since 1951. There has been an increasing focus on the expansion of ties with its Pacific Rim neighbors.

Canada. Since 1867 when Canada was federated into the Dominion of Canada under the United Kingdom, a process of increasing autonomy – much like that of Australia - transpired. In 1931 The Statute of Westminster founded the Commonwealth of Canada, providing virtual political independence from Britain. This was culminated in the Canada Act of 1982 which severed the vestiges of legal dependence on the British parliament.

Today Canada is comprised of ten provinces and three territories. Canada is both a parliamentary democracy and a constitutional monarchy, with Queen Elizabeth II as its head of state. It is a multicultural country with both English and French as official languages. One of the world's highly developed countries, Canada has a diversified economy that is reliant upon it abundant natural resources and upon trade – particularly with the United States.

Korea. The Joseon Dynasty ended in 1910 when Japan annexed Korea and occupied the country. Japan imposed its culture and language on Korea in an attempt to eradicate Korean national identity. Japan's brutal occupation of Korea lasted until Japan's defeat in World War II in 1945, when the United Nations assigned the Soviet Union to administer the Korean peninsula north of the 38th parallel and the United States was assigned to administer the south. The politics of the Cold War resulted in the 1948 establishment of two separate governments, communist North Korea and democratic South Korea. The North Korean invasion of South Korea in 1950, using Soviet tanks and weaponry, resulted in the Korean War (1950-1953) that ended in a stalemate; the 38th parallel once again became the border between the two countries.

Since the Korean War, South Korea has seen steady development, with its economy being transformed from a poor, relatively undeveloped country into a thriving and rich economy. Today South Korea is a prosperous and thriving nation.

With a great deal of financial aid from the USSR, North Korea was transformed from a poor agricultural country into an industrial one. But a severe famine in the 1990s and a very repressive and isolated political regime have left North Korea far behind the rest of the world in economic development. A key issue for the future is North Korea's desire to develop nuclear weapons.

Latin America. South America, like many other continents, became a battlefield of the Cold War in the 20th century. In the 1960s and 1970s, the governments of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay were overthrown or displaced by US-aligned military dictatorships. Revolutionary movements and right-wing military dictatorships were common, but starting in the 1980s a wave of democratization occurred and democratic rule took hold. In recent years South American governments have drifted to the left with

socialist leaders being elected in Chile, Bolivia, Brazil, and Venezuela, and a leftist president in Argentina and Uruguay.

Despite the move to the left, South America is still largely capitalist. With the founding of the Union of South American Nations in 2008, South America has started down the road of economic integration, with plans for political integration similar to the European Union. At present Brazil has the world's tenth largest economy. Issues for the future include international relations – using oil as a bargaining chip - of some of the leftist dictators, such as Venezuela's Hugo Chávez.

Despite the failure of a lasting political union, the concept of Central American reunification rises from time to time. In 1907 a Central American Court of Justice was created. In 1960 Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua established the Central American Common Market (CACM). Costa Rica, because of its relative economic prosperity and political stability, chose not to participate. The project was an immediate success but was abandoned after the 1969 war between El Salvador and Honduras over immigration issues. A Central American Parliament has operated as a purely advisory body since 1991 to the original CACM members plus Panama and the Dominican Republic.

In Mexico President Porfiro Diaz's government lost support in 1910, beginning a period of civil war that lasted until 1917, resulting in a new government and constitution. In the late 20th century, Mexico began to industrialize rapidly, helped by the discovery of oil off the coast in 1976. In 1994 Mexico joined the North American Trade Agreement with the United States and Canada. Today Mexico has the world's 13th largest economy; one of Mexico's main industries is tourism. Key current and future issues include illegal Mexican immigration and a large drug trade across the international border to the US.

The most successful communist insurgency in Latin America occurred on the island of Cuba, where the Cuban Revolution led by Fidel Castro succeeded in 1959. That restrictive government survives today, making for difficult international relations with the US.

What in the World Happened Will Happen? Speculation on the Future of Man

Part 10 – Problems, Opportunities, and Risks: AD 2010 - ?

The history of the world and man's civilizations that preceded this last chapter of the book is based upon facts, what really happened to the best of our knowledge. Here, I get to speculate about the future – not predict the future, that would be presumptuous and foolhardy, but offer some personal opinions, at least identify some of the "big swinger" issues, and ask some questions that may help us focus on what's important and what, if anything, we can do about it.

The Footprints of Civilization

Three factors help define man's civilizations: government, economics, and religion. The familiar three forms of government are anarchy, absence of organized government – like tribalism; authoritarian, rule of the few - like monarchies, dictatorships, and communism; and democracy, the rule of the many - like the US's constitutional republic. Would it be too simplistic to observe that over the course of man's history so far, that government started with anarchy (Stone Age tribes), experienced authoritarian rule as civilizations developed, and evolved to democracy as civilizations matured? Noting today's exceptions – a few monarchies, dictatorships, and communist states - will the general trend towards democracy continue and will rule of the many prevail in the future world?

And where are we headed with economic systems? "Hands off" market economies, such as capitalism, are usually associated with rule-of-the-many government systems, while "hands on" planned economies, such as socialism, usually go along with authoritarian governments. Mixed economies have some features of both. It might be argued that today's trend is towards adding more and more planned approaches, regulations, and controls to free-market economies. Fear of continued or new financial depressions will make it harder in the future to sustain free-market economies.

Religion has evolved from worship of spirits, nature, and astrological entities to the current major world religions of Christianity (2.1 billion adherents), Islam (1.5 billion – split 85% Sunni, 15% Shia), Hinduism (900 million), traditional Chinese religion of Confucianism, Taoism, Chinese Buddhism (394 million), and Buddhism (376 million). Judaism is practiced by 14 million people and 1.1 billion people world wide are nonreligious.

Notwithstanding religion's value to billions of people as a source of belief, comfort, faith, and salvation, world history provides many illustrations of religious fervor causing great political turmoil, violence, and suffering. A few examples include the Islamic territorial conquests of the 7th and 8th centuries AD; the Crusades in the 12th and 13th centuries AD, where Christians tried to reclaim the Holy Land from Moslems; Roman Catholic political interference in Europe in the 14th century AD; the continuing disputes between Sunni

and Shiite Muslims; and the almost continuous persecution of Jews by many religions and political states. Arab (Islamic) fanatical desire to destroy (Jewish) Israel and radical Islamic Jihads against "infidels," leading to increasing world terrorism, are particularly difficult religion-related issues for the world's near term future.

Problems that Carry Over from Today

Thousands of years of human history have left us with significant problems and challenges for the future. For purposes of discussion, let me classify these carryover problems as Wars and Violence, Resources and Environment, and Quality of Life.

Wars and violence issues include military actions, proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMDs), and terrorism. One constant of man's history seems to be continual wars against his fellow men – for reasons of religion, politics, or greed. Today smaller countries like North Korea and Iran think they can gain world respect by creating WMDs and brandishing them before the world as evidence of their power. Terrorism is a tool being used increasingly as a weapon by ambitious radical nations or groups to force their will on civilization.

It's hard to see that man's tendency to military action won't continue in the future. Violence seems to be part of our nature – even in entertainment, from the Gladiator fights in the Roman Coliseum to TV's Ultimate Fighting Championships of today.

Resources and Environment issues are key to the world's near term future. How are we going to replace our depleting natural resources such as oil to provide energy to keep the world running? Are we going to allow "drilling" closer to man's habitats in order to reach the last of the oil reserves? Are we going to restrict or stop altogether using still plentiful energy sources like coal and natural gas, because of fears that we're polluting or scaring our environment? Do we have the patience and financial wherewithal to develop alternative energy sources like solar, nuclear, or wind power systems? Are fears of global warming going to hobble our efforts to provide efficient, lower-cost power sources? And where is the energy-environment balance in all this – how do we find our way through this network of seemingly mutually exclusive paths?

Quality of Life carryover problems for us to address in the future world include gut issues like hunger, poverty, and disease. These continue to be serious issues in (at least part of) all developed countries, let alone in undeveloped states. Achieving adequate world-wide food, life support, and healthcare seems like a gigantic challenge, but the more difficult challenge may be to find the political solutions that allow these improvements to be realized.

Other aspects of Quality of Life are associated with how people deal with each other as earth's population continues to explode and the life-quality gap between rich and poor increases. How prevalent will crime be in our future world? Will there be quick and fair justice available to address crime? Will we find ways to deal with illegal immigration? Can we deal with drugs, both illegal traffic across international borders, and recreational use of illegal drugs? Should we legalize all drugs? Can human rights and civil liberties be preserved, and can privacy be maintained?

Opportunities from New Technology

Technology advances in the future will certainly affect our lives and the lives of our descendents, and could offer some solutions to today's problems.

Experts predict that within 50 years, biotechnology developments will permit extended human life, repairing or manipulating DNA and genes to prevent disease and produce designer bodies or designer babies, organ replacement, personalized drugs, and even human cloning.

Electronics developments will yield intelligent computers – equivalent to the human brain, instant information, wireless everything, and a single small mobile device that does it all. Robotics improvements will allow construction of working, care-giving, cleaning, and personal companion robots.

Nanotechnology – controlling matter at the atomic scale – should produce intelligent/adaptable materials and tiny self-replicating machines (nanobots) that among other applications could be introduced into the human body to deliver drugs, make targeted diagnoses, or perform microsurgery.

Transportation advances will lead to self-driving cars on smart highways that control traffic and ensure safety.

Optimistic technologists predict that we will be able to control the earth's weather, provide abundant food and water, and unlimited renewable energy with eco-friendly fuel. Surely, we will learn how to inexpensively desalinate ocean water, which covers three-quarters of the earth, and further, convert the fresh water into its constituents, hydrogen and oxygen. And how about the polar icecaps as a source of fresh water? Mining deep into the earth's mantle could provide fuel for our future world. These opportunities seem very challenging, but should be achievable.

Society will enjoy digital-cashless money transactions by computers and instant language translators. In a population explosion environment, future cities could be vertical skyscraper farms, underground or underwater, or moving/floating on the seas of the world.

On-line education will become standard, accomplished virtually, with schools becoming tutoring centers and access points for courses rather that disseminators of instruction. An iTunes-like system will emerge that will allow individuals and companies to easily create and distribute courses on every topic imaginable.

Future entertainment will be provided by nano-size electronics inside "active contact lenses" that will receive TV, video games, internet, and phone calls, and display images

directly onto the retina, initially tuned by a pocket keyboard and later, with thought control via micro-size nanobots communicating with the brain, creating simulated realities indistinguishable from the real world. Your imagination will become reality.

Futurists also predict that we will develop space elevators to deliver material to earth orbit along a cable or strong structure reaching up from the earth's surface, inter solar system space travel, and eventually space travel to other star systems. Can we rule out advancements portrayed in the fictional Star Trek timeframe (24th century AD) of electronic transport, interstellar space voyages, and time travel?

The Nature of Man?

Since early Biblical times, the Christian Church has recognized (immoral) fallen man's tendency to sin. The Church educates and instructs its followers concerning the so-called Seven Deadly Sins: lust, gluttony (overindulgence), greed, sloth (laziness or indifference), wrath, envy, and pride. The Roman Catholic Church also recognizes seven virtues that are the opposites of each sin: chastity, temperance, charity, diligence, patience, kindness, and humility. Do these tendencies to sin define the unchangeable nature of man? Will the virtues be more easily attainable in the future world?

Human Evolution

Will the human race keep evolving to change human appearance and characteristics? Old clichés like human heads evolving to a larger size to hold their advanced, enlarged brains, or man evolving to lose the arguably extraneous pinky finger, have generally been discarded by paleontologists. If left untouched, humans will probably converge in appearance as populations mix.

However, genetic engineering could redirect our evolution. We could in theory modify our genes and DNA, and over time scientists may uncover genes underlying intelligence, health, athletic prowess, longevity and other desirable traits. New species of humans might emerge.

Some futurists speculate about transhumans, where humans merge with machines. Biotechnologies, robotics, nanotechnologies, and electronics would all contribute to this vision of bionic man. Perhaps the ultimate future genus of man is to be *homo cyborgus*.

Risks to Civilization

We must acknowledge certain risks to the continuing future of our world (current age about 4.5 billion years). Cosmologists predict that in about 5 billion years from now, our sun will exhaust its core hydrogen and become a red giant star, starting a sequence of events that will extinguish all life on earth and drag our earth into the sun within 8 billion years. Well before that occurs, the earth could suffer a catastrophic meteor impact; indeed in the last 100 millions years, the earth has been struck by several large meteorites. Other low-probability potential cosmological disasters include a close

encounter in our solar system with a star, large planet, or black hole. Some futurists see extraterrestrial life as a possible threat to mankind.

A super volcano could destroy all life on earth. A mega tsunami, produced by a meteorite impact, a super volcano eruption, or a horrendous earthquake could wreak havoc with the earth.

A global pandemic is another risk to civilization. For example, if the HIV virus were to mutate and become as transmissible as the common cold, the consequences would be disastrous. In our history, pandemics like the Bubonic Plague (14th century AD) and Influenza (early 20th century AD) killed millions of people.

Finally there are risks to continued civilization from man himself. These risks include destroying life on earth with out-of-control WMDs, unchecked world population growth that leads to agricultural or resource crisis, ecological disasters caused by global warming or other man-made actions, and super intelligent machines that could out-compete humanity.

Conclusions

What can we possibly make of all this? Can we do anything to influence how our future world takes shape? There are so many variables, so many possible choices and paths mankind could take.

Are we going to adopt the pessimistic view – that our world-future glass is half empty, that so much of our past history and current state is depressing, and that there is little we can do to redirect our future? Or are we going to adopt a more optimistic view – that our world-future glass is half full, that the failings of the past and the problems we face today, do not necessarily foretell our future, that we may have learned some things to allow us to as the old cliché says, "make a better world?"

If we agree that no one can accurately predict the future of the world, then why not take the optimistic view – that man can positively influence his future. There are obviously some things that we can't control, like cosmological disasters, but let's figure out what kind of future world we would like to have and then determine what we could do to get us on, and keep us on, a promising road. This classic psycho-cybernetic mind-body approach means setting positive goals, visualizing the positive outcome, and working to make the desired outcome a reality.