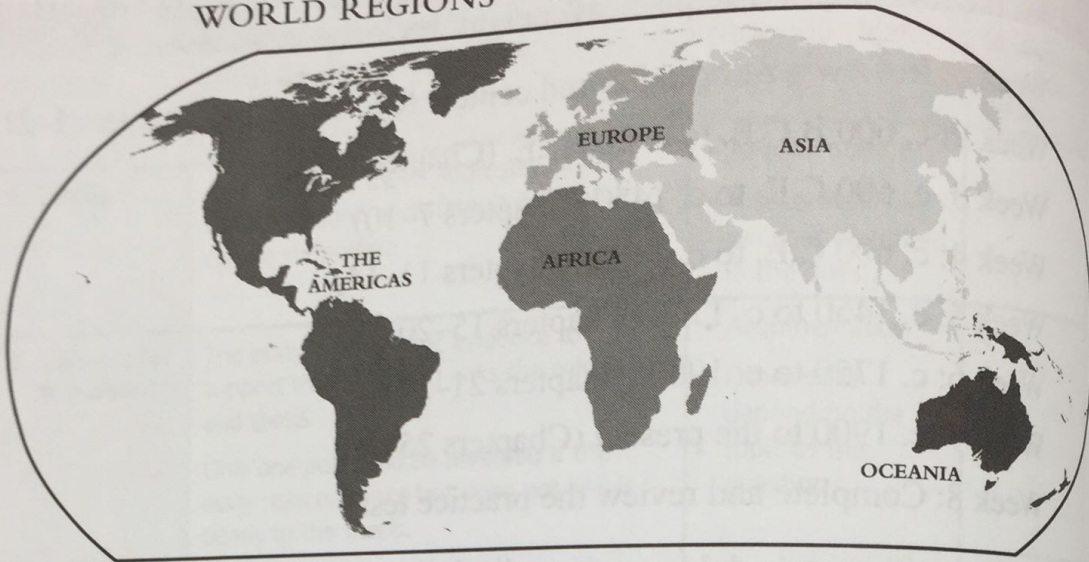


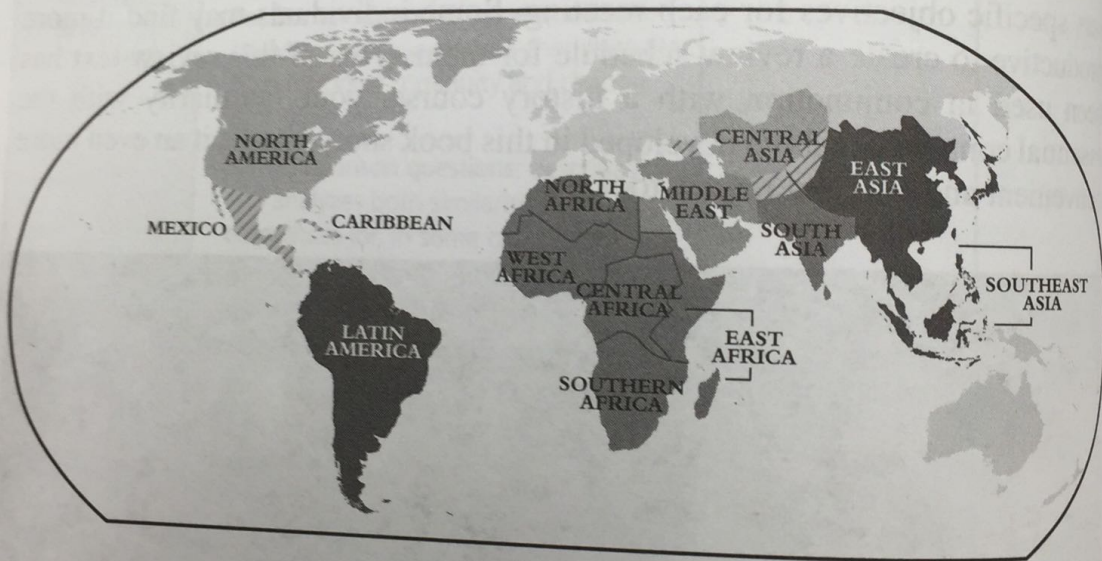
Geographic Regions

Exam questions often ask about specific regions of the world. These regions are shown on the following maps:

WORLD REGIONS — A BIG PICTURE VIEW



WORLD REGIONS — A CLOSER LOOK



Source: AP[®] World History Curriculum Framework, 2016–2017

PERIOD I: Technological and Environmental Transformations, to c. 600 B.C.E.

Chapter 1 From Hunter-Foragers to Settled Societies

Chapter 2 The First Civilizations

Period Overview

From their origins in East Africa, nomadic humans slowly migrated across the earth, hunting and foraging for food. The development of farming and herding around 8000 B.C.E. (10,000 years ago) was revolutionary. With a more dependable food supply, villages grew into cities, people specialized in jobs, powerful states emerged, and people developed the first writing systems. Trade expanded, spreading new goods and ideas more rapidly than before. By 600 B.C.E., Mesopotamia, India, Egypt, China, Mesoamerica, and the Andes had impressive civilizations that would provide the core of later civilizations in their regions.

Key Concepts

I.1 Big Geography and the Peopling of the Earth

- I. Archeological evidence indicates that during the Paleolithic era, hunting-foraging bands of humans gradually migrated from their origin in East Africa to Eurasia, Australia, and the Americas, adapting their technology and cultures to new climate regions.

I.2 The Neolithic Revolution and Early Agricultural Societies

- I. Beginning about 10,000 years ago, the Neolithic Revolution led to the development of new and more complex economic and social systems.
- II. Agriculture and pastoralism began to transform human societies.

I.3 The Development and Interactions of Early Agricultural, Pastoral, and Urban Societies

- I. Core and foundational civilizations developed in a variety of geographical and environmental settings where agriculture flourished, including Mesopotamia in the Tigris and Euphrates River Valleys, Egypt in the Nile River Valley, Mohenjo-daro and Harappa in the Indus River Valley, Shang in the Yellow River or Huang He Valley, Olmecs in Mesoamerica, and Chavín in Andean South America.
- II. The first states emerged within core civilizations in Mesopotamia and the Nile Valley.
- III. Culture played a significant role in unifying states through laws, language, literature, religion, myths, and monumental art.

From Hunter-Foragers to Settled Societies

"Civilizations take ages to be born, to settle, and to grow."

—Fernand Braudel, *A History of Civilizations*

Achieving an understanding of early human history is difficult. But even though prehistoric peoples did not have a written language, they left evidence of how they lived in their bones and in their *artifacts*, objects made by people in the past. For example, the size and composition of skeletons can suggest how well nourished people were. Chipped stones indicate they made tools with sharp edges. The remains of burnt logs show they used fire. And since prehistoric people often buried their dead with jewelry and religious tokens, they left clues about what they considered valuable. By studying these physical remains, people today can trace the movements of the earliest humans across the globe, understand how they traded with each other, and learn about the new technologies they developed.

Migrating Across the Globe

Modern humans, the group *Homo sapiens sapiens*, first appeared in East Africa between 200,000 and 100,000 years ago. They survived by hunting animals and foraging for seeds, nuts, fruits, and edible roots, so they are labeled as *hunter-foragers* or hunter-gatherers. Always on the search for food, they migrated from place to place, gradually expanding the region of human settlement. If the population became too dense in one area or if the climate shifted, they might be pushed to move. Other times, they might be pulled to a new region by new sources of food or fresh water. As people encountered new climates and environments, they developed new cultural patterns and new forms of technology.

One force pushing migration was climate change. As the climate warmed and cooled, animal and plant habitats shifted. People adjusted by following the animals and plants. Each time the climate cooled—a dip in the average daily temperature of several degrees—habitats would shift toward the equator and glaciers would grow, covering up land. As the climate warmed, habitats would shift away from the equator and more land would open up for occupation. As the animals and plants moved, so did people.

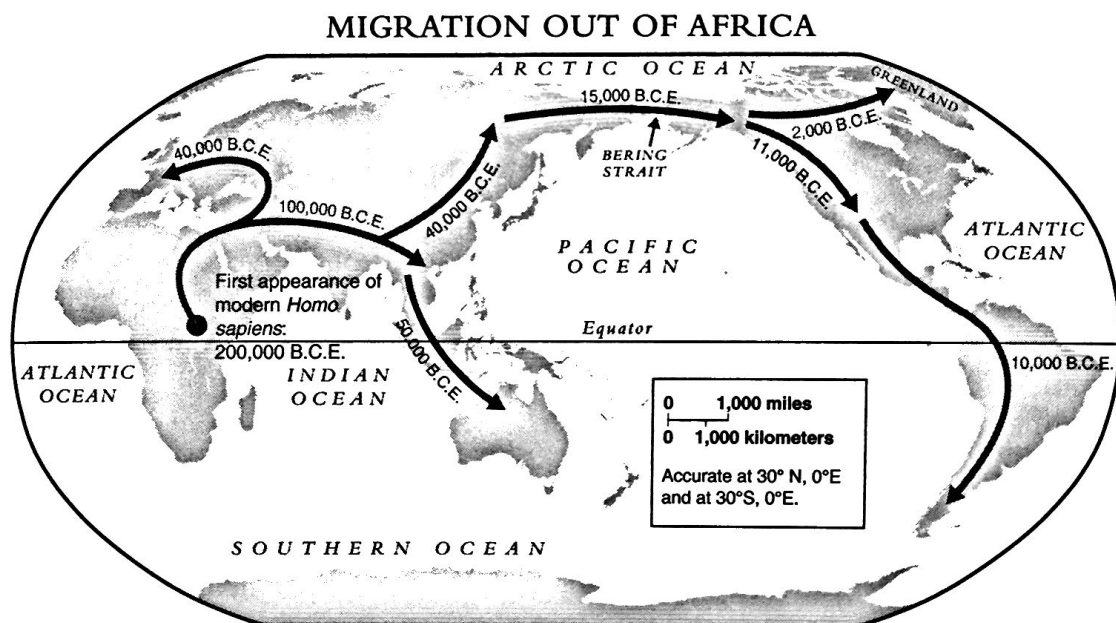
During one cooler period, so much water froze into ice that the ocean levels fell as much as 400 feet below today's level. The level was low enough that land connected northeastern Asia and what is now Alaska. This land, now submerged under the Bering Strait, provided a bridge between Asia and the Americas. Nomadic hunters followed herds of animals that wandered across this land. When temperatures increased and ocean levels rose, these people, the first Americans, were cut off from their Asian ancestors. Over time, they slowly moved farther south along the coast.

By 10,000 B.C.E., possibly far earlier, humans lived on every continent except Antarctica. In each region, people developed distinctive cultures.

The Paleolithic Period

The early years of human history are part of the *Paleolithic Period*, which began 2.5 million years ago and ended about 10,000 years ago (8000 B.C.E.). Because humans used stone tools and weapons in this period, it is often called the Stone Age. In addition to stone, people made tools from wood, animal bones, and antlers. Many of their tools included a sharp point or blade. For example, they had digging sticks for uncovering roots they could eat, and they had spears, harpoons, and arrows for killing animals.

Adapting to the Environment As people migrated in search of animals and edible plants, they found certain tools to be particularly useful in the new environment they encountered. For example, as they moved into cooler climates as far north as the tundra, they needed scrapers for cleaning the flesh off of animals' skins they wore for warmth. In the warmer regions such as the tropics, nets for catching fish were particularly valuable. As they reached the coasts of the Mediterranean Sea and the Pacific Ocean, they built strong rafts to venture out onto the water. In forested areas, they used axes to cut down trees to make shelters. People adapted technology to new conditions.



Control of Fire One of the greatest accomplishments of people in the Paleolithic Period was to learn to control fire. It changed their lives by providing

- light to allow them to see better after the sun went down
- heat so they could live in colder climates than before
- protection against wild animals
- smoke to pacify bees, which made obtaining honey easier
- help in hunting by scaring animals to race to their death over a cliff

Possibly the most influential use of fire was to prepare food. Cooking made protein-rich and starchy foods (both hunted and foraged) easier to digest and, hence, more nutritious.

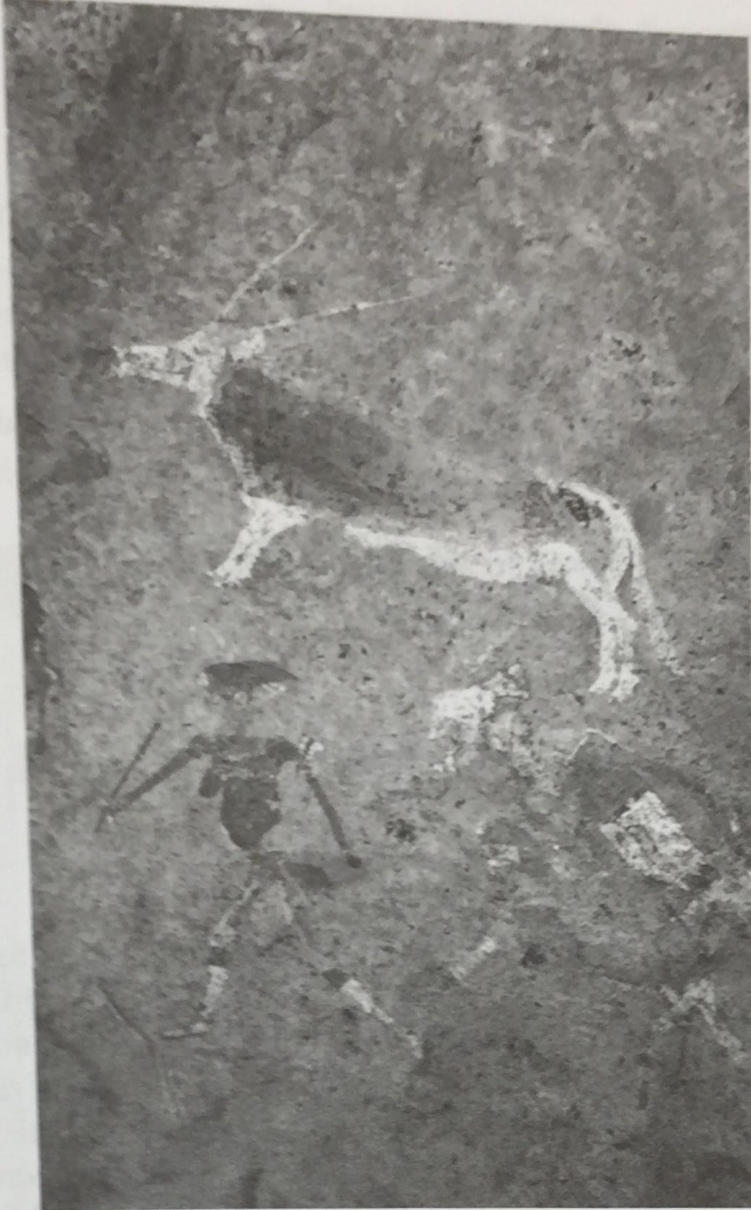
Hunter-Forager Society As early humans developed new technology, they also established more complex social structures. At the center of society was the nuclear family, which then expanded outward to include ties between related families. Several related families that moved together in search of food were called a *kinship group*. A typical group might include 20 to 40 people. Smaller groups might have difficulty finding enough food. Larger groups would use up the food supply of an area more quickly, which would require more frequent moving. Kinship groups were often nearly self-sufficient. They could make most or all of what they needed to survive.

Though kinship groups traveled on their own and were close to self-sufficient, they were not isolated. They were often part of a larger group of relatives called a *clan*. And sometimes multiple clans combined into still larger units called a *tribe*. An individual did not have to be related to other members to be considered part of a tribe. The tribes were formed for purposes of group hunting or mutual defense from enemies and were usually led by chiefs and priests.

Between groups at each level of organization—kinship group, clan, and tribe—people were also tied together by trade. Besides trading goods such as tools and clothing, they also traded people. A person from one group might join another group to help balance out the size of each group. Through these trades in goods and people, ideas spread. People learned new methods for making tools, new thoughts about religion, and new information about the world.

Roles in Society Since early people did not leave written records, most modern knowledge of them comes from the study of artifacts. However, in modern times, anthropologists have also studied hunter-forager groups whose way of life probably resembles that of earlier nomads. From these modern studies, scholars have inferred that Paleolithic groups probably were relatively egalitarian. They did not have many layers of leaders, and only small differences separated the poorest and the wealthiest individuals in a kinship group.

Functions in hunter-forager societies were often divided by gender. These societies were *patriarchal*, ones dominated by men. Paleolithic males took charge of hunts, warfare, and heavy labor. Paleolithic women gathered and



Source: iStockphoto

The oldest known paintings were created about 40,000 years ago..

prepared food and looked after the children. Anthropologists believe that the women breast-fed their children for as long as five years, a practice that provided high nutrition for the children as well as a very rudimentary form of family planning. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph connecting early hunter-forager groups with such groups in Russia. Read about the Slavic peoples on page 137)

Religion and Art Paleolithic people developed a system of religious beliefs centered around the worship of gods they associated with the forces of nature. The belief that animals, rivers, and other elements of nature embody spirits is called *animism*. The first religious leaders were probably *shamans*, people believed to have special abilities to cure the sick and influence the future. Ritual sacrifices to these gods and evidence of burial practices suggest a belief in the afterlife that dates back 100,000 years. Evidence of artistic expression has been found in the form of cave paintings, which date back to 32,000 years ago, and musical instruments, such as flutes, dating to 30,000 years ago. Paleolithic art may have been connected to religious ceremonies.

Neolithic Revolution

Around 10,000 years ago (8000 B.C.E.), as the climate was warming up from an Ice Age, a collection of social and political developments coalesced into what is called the *Neolithic Revolution*, a set of dramatic changes in how people lived based on the development of agriculture. These changes are sometimes called the Agricultural Revolution. This “revolution” did not happen instantaneously, nor did it occur everywhere at the same time, nor did it affect everyone directly. For example, the Neolithic Revolution in China dates to 5000 B.C.E., whereas in the Middle East, it can be dated to around 8000 B.C.E. It can be characterized by several major developments:

1. agriculture
2. pastoralism
3. specialization of labor
4. towns and cities
5. governments
6. religions
7. technological innovations

Agriculture Taking advantage of a warmer global climate following the end of the last Ice Age, some hunter-forager cultures learned to grow crops by putting seeds of wild plants into the ground. They gave up their nomadic way of life to stay in one place and take up *agriculture*, the practice of raising crops or livestock on a continual and controlled basis. As they learned to plant, tend, and harvest crops, people found they often had a *surplus*, or more than they needed for themselves. The development of agriculture occurred first in lands just east of the Mediterranean Sea. It also occurred independently at several other places and from these places spread throughout the world.

These early farmers domesticated the crops that were already growing wild in their region: wheat and barley in Southwest Asia, millet in Northern China, rice in Southeast Asia, and maize (corn) in Mesoamerica. As cultivation of these crops spread, the natural diversity of plants in a region decreased. With that change came reductions in the diversity of insects and animals that depended on the other crops.

The availability of these farmed crops also made the diets of people less diversified. Usually people in an area would grow just one or two crops, and they would eat foods prepared with those crops at every meal. People continued to hunt animals and to gather wild fruits and nuts when seasonably available, but overall the farmers’ diets lacked the variety of full-time hunter-foragers. By cultivating just one or two plants, they eliminated other plants that had been part of people’s diets.

Pastoralism Even before people settled down as farmers, people in Africa, Europe, and Asia had begun to tame wild animals so they could be brought up to live with humans, a process called *domestication*. The first animal that

people domesticated was the dog. Initially, humans employed dogs to assist with hunting and to provide warnings about the approach of dangerous animals. Goats were domesticated next. They provided both meat and milk. Other animals were domesticated soon after—cattle, horses, sheep, pigs, and chickens—that provided labor or food. As people began to keep larger herds of animals, they began to lead them from one grazing land to another. Their way of life is called *nomadic pastoralism*, or simply *pastoralism*, because it was based on people moving herds of animals from pasture to pasture. Like hunters and foragers, pastoralists were mobile. Like farmers, pastoralists controlled their food supply. Pastoralism first emerged in grassland regions of Africa and Eurasia.

Domestication of Plants and Animals

Area	18,000 to 15,000 B.C.E.	15,000 to 12,000 B.C.E.	12,000 to 9,000 B.C.E.	9,000 to 6,000 B.C.E.	6,000 to 3,000 B.C.E.	3,000 to 1 B.C.E.
Europe	• Dogs			• Sheep • Pigs • Goats • Cattle	• Wheat	
Middle East			• Cattle • Barley • Wheat	• Goats • Sheep		
Africa				• Cattle	• Sorghum	• Rice
Asia			• Rice • Pigs	• Millet • Cattle		
Americas				• Maize • Squash	• Beans	

Like farmers, pastoralists made the shift away from hunting-foraging hoping to create a more dependable food supply for themselves. And like farmers, pastoralists affected the environment dramatically. At times, pastoralists would allow their animals to graze an area so heavily that the animals would destroy the grass. When rains came, without grass to hold the soil in place, the soil would wash away and the land became infertile.

However, pastoralists were unlike farmers in one important way: While farmers settled in one place, pastoralists moved regularly. Hence, while farmers accumulated belongings, pastoralists usually owned very little. And while farmers had only a little contact with people in other communities, pastoralists were in contact with new items and new ideas. Over the past

10,000 years, pastoralists have played an important role in spreading ideas and trading goods among people. (Test Prep: Create a chart comparing Paleolithic pastoralists with later pastoralists such as the Mongols. See page 241.)

Specialization of Labor The growth of agriculture and pastoralism reduced plant and animal diversity, but the surpluses of food they produced led to dramatic changes. For the first time in history, some workers were free to focus on tasks other than producing food. Some people became *artisans*, people who made objects people needed, such as woven clothe or pottery. Others became *merchants*, people who buy and sell goods for a living. Still others became soldiers, religious leaders, or politicians. This process of allowing people to focus on limited tasks is called the *specialization of labor*.

The impact of specialization of labor was far-reaching. Freed from work on the farms, artisans made weapons, tools, and jewelry. A merchant class, engaged with trading these objects, emerged. The surplus of food and goods, combined with the needs of religious ceremonies and a rudimentary system of taxation, led to the invention of writing, which was first used to keep records about trades and tax payments. People later began to use writing to communicate with one another, to record descriptions of events, and to write down religious stories. The development of writing marked the transition from prehistory to history.

Growth of Villages, Towns, and Cities The food surplus encouraged both a growth in population and an opportunity to do work not related to producing food. Permanent dwellings and villages and towns multiplied as tribes abandoned their nomadic lifestyles and, eventually, some cities emerged. With the change in food production came *social stratification*. This means that some people accumulated wealth in the form of jewelry and other coveted items and by building larger and better decorated houses. The idea of private property became increasingly important. People with more wealth or more power to control the surplus formed an elite. In general, the elites were men.

One of humankind's first cities was *Jericho*, which was built on the west bank of the Jordan River. The oldest evidence of human settlement there dates from about 9000 B.C.E. Another ancient city, *Catal Huyuk*, in present-day Turkey, was founded in 7500 B.C.E. along a river that has since dried up. The city existed for about 2,000 years, but its well-preserved remains have helped modern people understand life long ago. Although both cities were significant population centers, and while Jericho has tremendous significance in the Judeo-Christian tradition, neither city became a major site of an emerging civilization.

Governments The surplus of food also led to the creation of governmental institutions. People had to work together to clear land and, in many places, provide irrigation to water the crops. To coordinate these efforts required a government. And if the community produced a surplus, powerful leaders were required to supervise how it was used, and soldiers were needed to protect it from other groups. Priests were needed, not only to supervise religious ceremonies, but also to explain how the behavior and rulings of leaders were based on religious doctrine.

The leaders of farming communities and towns developed the earliest forms of government. Those who owned the most land or livestock became the wealthiest and thus the most powerful. They became the leaders of local governments.

Religions Given the unpredictable nature of weather and longer-term climate changes, Neolithic farmers experienced temporary interruptions and problems, just as farmers do today. Moreover, agricultural land could lose its fertility through *overfarming* unless it was left fallow or it was fertilized, usually by the spreading of animal manure. Pastures could erode due to *overgrazing*, or the continual eating of grasses or their roots, without allowing them to regrow. As people tried to persuade the spirits of nature to help with their crops and herds, religious ceremonies became more elaborate. These ceremonies became so important and elaborate, a special class of *priests* and *priestesses* developed to conduct them.

In some regions, new religious beliefs became highly organized before 600 B.C.E. For example, along the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea, the Hebrews emerged under the leadership of Abraham. They were among the first religious groups to worship only one deity, a practice called *monotheism*. In South Asia, the Vedic religion included a variety of deities and a heavy emphasis on rituals. In what is now Iran, a teacher named Zoroaster inspired the religion of Zoroastrianism, which focused on the eternal battle between two forces, one good and one evil.

Technological Innovations Societies advanced as people adopted new tools and skills. In some cases, these advances were probably made in one place. In other cases, they were made in several places independently. Either way, most people learned about new technology through trade, war, or other forms of contact with other societies:

- To store food and carry water, they invented waterproof clay pots. People shaped pots out of wet clay and then hardened them in fire. Sometimes people decorated the pots before firing by etching designs on them. Since these pots are one of the artifacts that has lasted thousands of years, they provide insight into how people lived and what they thought was important.
- People improved on the drilling stick, creating a plow. The plow could be pulled by oxen or other animals, which made cultivating crops much easier. In addition, turning over the soil disrupted the growth of weeds, which enabled crops to grow better and increased their yield.
- The development of the wheel with an axle revolutionized transportation and trade. A wheeled cart could transport a load with about 3 percent of the effort needed to drag it. People could transport everything more easily, from grain for overseas trade to stones for building monumental architecture. Adding wheels to a plow made planting crops easier.

- The production of *textiles*, items made of cloth, included several steps. Weavers, who were usually women, learned to spin hair from animals or fibers from plants into threads and then weave the threads into cloth. Workers would often decorate the textiles by dyeing the threads and making patterns. All of this work was usually done in the home.
- People gradually learned *metallurgy*, the science of the study of metals. They replaced their stone tools and weapons with ones made from metal. A process made easier as they learned to heat metals with fire. They first used *copper*, which they found in a pure state in the ground. Through experimentation, they learned that melting tin and copper together made a stronger metal, *bronze*. This metal marked such an advance that it gave the period a new name: the *Bronze Age*, which began at different locations at different times but generally between 3300 and 2300 B.C.E.

The First Civilizations

The seven developments of the Neolithic Revolution that began around 8000 B.C.E. created the foundation for a new form of human society to emerge over several thousand years. This new form is *civilization*, a large society with cities and powerful states. In early civilizations, many people continued to hunt and forage, often mixing those activities with farming or herding.

Trends that began to emerge in the Neolithic Revolution became even stronger in the early civilizations. For example, society became more stratified into clearly different socio-economic classes, human impact on the environment became more intense, government and religious and military institutions became larger and more complex, and trade increased. Elites grew more powerful as they became increasingly wealthy. The gap between the rich and the poor grew wider, and the relative power of men and women in society diverged more noticeably. Most societies became *patriarchies*, ones ruled by men. (Test Prep: Write a paragraph comparing the Neolithic Revolution with the Industrial Revolution. See pages 421–433.)

The first four civilizations that grew out of the Neolithic Revolution developed independently in river valleys scattered around the earth. The first one was in Southwest Asia, in the valleys of the Tigris and the Euphrates, a region called Mesopotamia. The next three were in the Nile River valley in Egypt, the Huang He (Yellow) River valley in China, and the Indus River valley in India. Two other early civilizations, in Mesoamerica and the Andes Mountains, were not tied closely to a major river valley.

All six of these civilizations developed ways of life, such as language, religious beliefs, and economic practices, that would heavily influence successor civilizations in their regions. Because of their influence, they are examples of *core and foundational* civilizations.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES: WAS FARMING A MISTAKE?

Scholars who study the development of agriculture disagree about its impact of. Many see it as advance, but others note its high cost.

Criticism of Farming Evolutionary biologist Jared Diamond called the development of agriculture the “worst mistake in the history of the human race.” He argued that reducing the variety of food in people’s diets increased malnourishment. Relying on fewer food sources made people more susceptible to famine. Living in concentrated settlements increased everyone’s risk for disease. Together, Diamond concluded, these changes reduced the average life span.

Reducing Violence In contrast, evolutionary psychologist Steven Pinker argued that agriculture and pastoralism reduced violence. He cited studies that suggest that hunter-forager societies had high murder rates and frequent warfare. These societies were dangerous because they lacked governments strong enough to maintain peace.

Costs and Benefits Evolutionary anthropologist Jay Stock saw both negatives and positives in the Neolithic Revolution. From a study of 9,000 skeletons from ancient Egypt, he found that hunter-foragers who lived before the agricultural revolution averaged 5 feet, 8 inches tall. However, those who lived in the first several thousand years after the development of farming averaged 4 inches shorter. Still, he noted the long-term benefits of agriculture: “Without the surplus of food you get through farming, we couldn’t have the runaway technological innovation we see today.”

KEY TERMS BY THEME

ENVIRONMENT

overfarming ✓
overgrazing ✓

CULTURE

artifacts ✓
Homo sapiens sapiens
Paleolithic Period
Neolithic Revolution
monotheism
Bronze Age
civilization
core and foundational

STATE-BUILDING

Jericho
Catal Huyuk

ECONOMICS

textiles
specialization of labor
copper
bronze
hunter-forager
agriculture
surplus
domestication
nomadic pastoralism

SOCIAL STRUCTURE

kinship group
clan
tribe
patriarchal
artisans
merchants
social stratification
priests
priestesses