

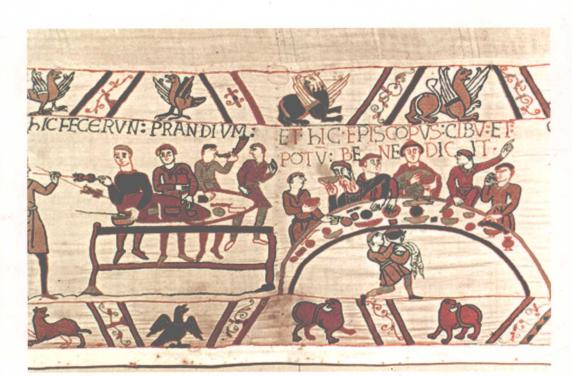


A GLOBAL HISTORY

FROM PREHISTORY TO THE 21ST CENTURY

全球通史

第7版・下





L. S. STAVRIANOS



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培文书系·人文科学系列

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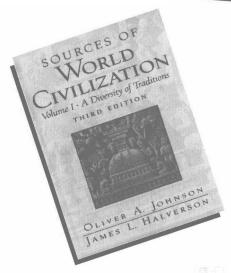
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Sources of World Civilization

Oliver A. Johnson, James Halverson

第3版



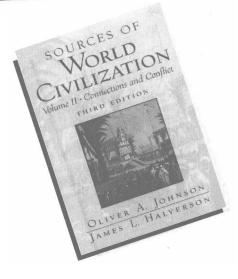
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西方文明遗产

Heritage of Western Civilization

John L. Beatty, Oliver A. Johnson, John Reisbord



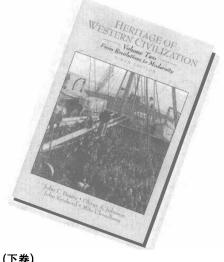
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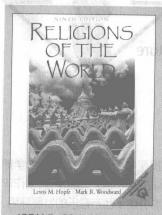
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简

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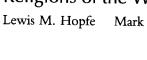
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世界宗教(第9版)

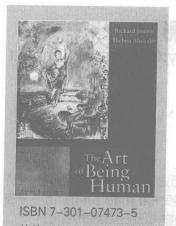
Religions of the World

Lewis M. Hopfe Mark R. Woodward



■内容简介

本书以宗教理论学习为背景,讲述了宗教信仰在印度、中国、日本以及中东地区 的起源和发展,准确精练地描述了世界范围内的主要宗教体系;同时从历史与文化等 方面入手,深入研究了宗教信仰的产生与形成过程。本书具有以下特色:更新了"当代 宗教"部分内容;修改了伊斯兰教的章节;增加了教师指导手册等教辅支持材料。新版 图书经过修改和完善,风格更受读者欢迎,适合宗教学专业基础课程,还适合作人类 学和宗教社会学的辅助性读物。



估价:48.00元 (16 开 630 页) 原著书号:032109316X 原著定价:\$89.00

艺术通史(第7版)[书名暂定] The Art of Being Human, 7e

■内容简介

本书首先综述了人文科学研究的工具和方法,而后分领域、分主题进行横向论述。 讲述人类如何不断拓展视野,提高客观、冷静的思维能力,从而丰富人类自身的生活 的历程。全面涉猎了文学、艺术、音乐、戏剧等人文科学研究领域,新增了神话、音乐剧 两个章节,对电影、电视等新兴学科也专文论述;分主题探讨了宗教、道德、幸福观、死 生观,以及辩论和自由等时新的课题。

本书因其涉及主题的广泛性,可读性,以及优美的写作风格而备受好评。第7版 在框架方面进行了重新组织,更适宜阅读和教学;在内容方面,广泛论及了各个学术 流派,还对非西方主流的观点和文化进行了有效整合。

□ 培文书系人文科学英文影印系列



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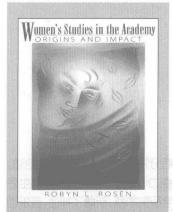
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西方音乐简史

A Brief History of Music in Western Culture
Mark Evan Bonds

■内容简介

本书是《西方音乐史》的精华浓缩本,在音乐史授课中大概需要一到两个学期的学时。作者精心选取的各历史时期的音乐作品,从乐曲本身、相关词曲作者、创作年代以及创作理念四个维度进行了深入阐释,引人入胜地讲述了西方音乐的发展脉络,使读者得以对音乐的本质、音乐在社会中的作用,以及音乐随时代变迁的发展和演进有全面的了解。本书还节选了大量有代表性的乐谱,并在正文中对这些作品进行了研究性的探讨。



估价:56.00 元 (16 开 558 页) 原著书号:013092928X 原著定价:\$52.67

女性与学术研究:起源及影响

Women's Studies in the Academy:Origins and Impact Robyn L. Rosen

■内容简介

本书是一本女性研究方面的学术著作,涉及历史学、自然科学、社会科学、经济学等 11 个主要的学术领域,分析了女性为获得接受高等教育的权利而不断抗争的历史过程,说明了女权扩张在学术领域里产生的碰撞,以及妇女地位的变化。

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PART V

World of Isolated Regions, to 1500

Part V is concerned with two basic questions: Why should a study of world history begin with the year 1500, and why was it that Westerners took a primary role in carrying out the fantastic discoveries and explorations of the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries? The first question will be answered in Chapter 18; the second will be the subject of the remaining chapters of Part V.

We usually take it for granted that only Westerners could have made the historic discoveries that would change the course of humanity and begin a new era in world history. This assumption is quite unjustified, particularly in view of the great seafaring traditions of the Moslems in the Middle East and the Chinese in east Asia. Why then did the West take the initiative in overseas enterprise with repercussions that are still felt today? Chapters 18 and 19 will analyze the traditional societies in the Moslem and Confucian worlds, and Chapters 20 and 21 will offer an examination of the contrasting dynamism of Western society.

18

Moslem World at the Time of the West's Expansion

He who would behold these times in their greatest glory, could not find a better scene than in Turkey.

H. Blount, 1634

was not Chinese or Arabic, it is necessary to see what was going on in the Confucian and Moslem worlds at that time. In this chapter, and the following one, we shall analyze why China and the Middle East lacked the expansionism of western Europe, even though they were highly developed and wealthy regions. We shall see that paradoxically, it was their wealth and high level of development that left them smug and self-satisfied, and therefore unable to adapt to their changing world.

I. RISE OF MODERN MOSLEM EMPIRES

An observer on the moon looking at this globe about 1500 would have been more impressed by the Moslem than by the Christian world. The

mythical observer would have been impressed first by the extent of the Moslem world and then by its unceasing expansion. The earliest Moslems were the Arabs of the Arabian peninsula who were united for the first time under their religious leader, Mohammed. Believing that he had received a divine call, Mohammed warned his people of the Day of Judgment and told them of the rewards for the faithful in Paradise and the punishment of the wicked in Hell. He called on his followers to perform certain rituals known as the Five Pillars of Islam (including daily prayers, alms giving, fasting, and a pilgrimage to Mecca). These rituals, together with the precepts in the Koran, provided not only a religion but also a social code and a political system. The converts felt a sense of brotherhood and common mission, which served to unite the hitherto scattered Arab peoples.

After the death of Mohammed in 632 C.E., the Arabs burst out of their peninsula and quickly overran the Byzantine and Sassanian empires in the Middle East. Then they expanded eastward toward China and westward across North Africa and into Spain. By 750, the end of this first phase of Islamic expansion, there existed a huge Moslem Empire that stretched from the Pyrenees to India and from Morocco to China (see map of Expansion of Islam to 1500, p. 287). The Moslems carried out the second phase of their expansion between 750 and 1500, during which time they penetrated westward to central Europe, northward to central Asia, eastward to India and Southeast Asia, and southward into the interior of Africa. Thus, the Moslem world doubled in size. It far surpassed in area both the Christian world on the western tip of Eurasia and the Confucian world on the eastern tip.

Not only was the Moslem world the most extensive about 1500, but it also continued to expand vigorously after that date. Contrary to common assumption, western Europe was not the only part of the world that was extending its frontiers at that time. The Moslem world was still expanding, but by overland routes, whereas the Christian world was reaching out overseas. The Portuguese in the early sixteenth century were gaining footholds in India and the East Indies, and the Spaniards were conquering an empire in the New World. But at the same time, the Ottoman Turks, a central Asian people who had converted to Islam, were pushing into central Europe. They overran Hungary, and in 1529 they besieged Vienna, the Hapsburg capital in the heart of Europe. Likewise, in India the great Mogul emperors were steadily extending their empire southward until they became the masters of almost the entire peninsula. Elsewhere the Moslem faith continued to spread into Africa, central Asia, and Southeast Asia.

The steady expansion of Islam was due partly to the forceful conversion of nonbelievers, though compulsion was not employed so commonly by Moslems as by Christians. But much more effective than these measures was the quiet missionary work of Moslem traders and preachers, who were particularly successful among the less civilized peoples. Frequently, the trader appeared first, combing proselytism with the sale of merchandise. His profession gave the

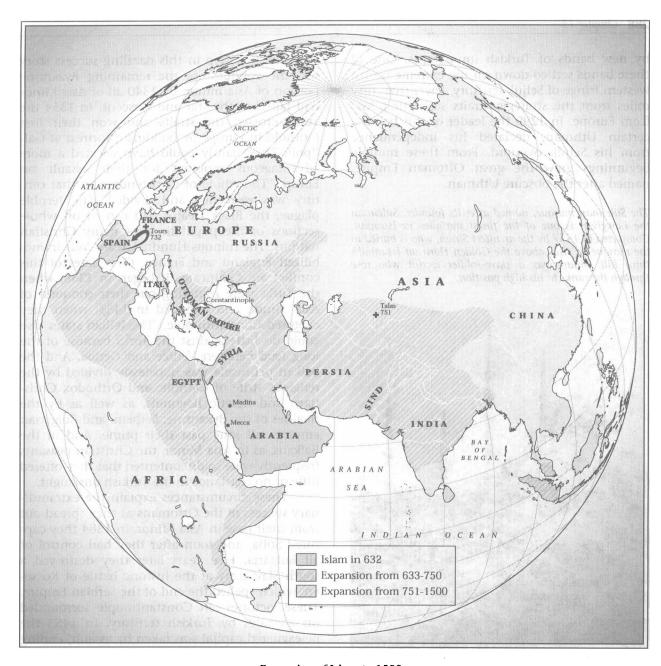
trader close and constant contact with the people he wanted to convert. Also, there was no color bar, for if the trader were not of the same race as the villagers, he probably would marry a native woman. Such a marriage often led to the adoption of Islam by members of the woman's family. Soon religious instruction was needed for the children, so schools were established and frequented by pagan as well as Moslem children. The children were taught to read the Koran and were instructed in the doctrines and ceremonies of Islam. This explains why Islam, from the time of its appearance, was far more successful in gaining converts than any other religion. Even today, Islam is more than holding its own against Christianity in Africa, thanks to its unique adaptability to indigenous cultures as well as to the popular identification of Christianity with the foreign white master.

Apart from this ceaseless extension of frontiers, the Moslem world about 1500 was distinguished by its three great empires: the Ottoman in the Middle East, North Africa, and the Balkans; the Safavid in Persia; and the Mogul in India. These empires had all risen to prominence at this time and now dominated the heartland of Islam.

Their appearance was due in part to the invention of gunpowder and its use in firearms and cannon. The new weapons strengthened central power in the Moslem world, as they did at the same time in Christian Europe. Firearms, however, were by no means the only factor explaining the rise of the three Moslem empires. Equally significant were the appearance of capable leaders who founded dynasties and the existence of especially advantageous circumstances that enabled these leaders to conquer their empires. Let us consider now the particular combination of factors that made possible the growth of each of the three Moslem empires.

Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Turks, who founded the empire named after them, were a branch of widely scattered Turkish people who came originally from central Asia (in contrast to the Semitic Arabs, who came originally from the Arabian peninsula). Over the centuries, successive waves of Turkish tribespeople had penetrated into the rich lands of the Middle East. They had appeared as



Expansion of Islam to 1500

early as the eighth century and infiltrated into the Islamic Empire, where they were employed first as mercenaries. In the tenth century, Mongol pressure from the rear forced more Turkish tribes, including a group known as the Seljuk Turks, to move into the Middle East. These newcomers broke the traditional frontier of Asia Minor along the Taurus Mountains—the frontier that had sheltered Rome and Byzantium for 1,400 years—by defeating the Byzantine army in the fateful battle of Manzikert in 1071. The victory made most of Asia Minor a part of the Seljuk Empire, leaving only the northwest corner to the Byzantines.

The Seljuk Empire, however, experienced a decline, disintegrating into a patchwork of independent principalities, or sultanates. In the late thirteenth century, the disorder was heightened

by new bands of Turkish immigrants. One of these bands settled down on the extreme north-western fringe of Seljuk territory, fewer than fifty miles from the strategic straits separating Asia from Europe. In 1299 the leader of this band, a certain Uthman, declared his independence from his Seljuk overlord. From these humble beginnings grew the great Ottoman Empire, named after the obscure Uthman.

The Süleiman mosque, named after its founder, Süleiman the Lawgiver, is one of the finest mosques in Istanbul. Completed in 1557 by the architect Sinan, who is buried in the mosque, it rises above the Golden Horn on Istanbul's third hill. Sinan was a slave-soldier recruit who rose through the ranks to his high position.



The first step in this dazzling success story was the conquest of the remaining Byzantine portion of Asia minor. By 1340 all of Asia Minor had fallen to the star and crescent. In 1354 the Turks crossed the straits and won their first foothold in Europe by building a fortress at Gallipoli. They hardly could have selected a more advantageous moment for their assault on Europe. The whole of Christendom in that century was weakened and divided. The terrible plague, the Black Death, had carried off whole sections of the populations of many Christian nations. The ruinous Hundred Years' War immobilized England and France. (The dates of this conflict are significant. It began in 1338, when the Turks were rounding out their conquest of Asia Minor, and it ended in 1453, when they captured Constantinople.) The Italian states also could do little against the Turks because of the long feud between Venice and Genoa. And the Balkan peninsula was hopelessly divided by the religious strife of Catholic and Orthodox Christians and heretic Bogomils, as well as by the rivalries of the Byzantine, Serbian, and Bulgarian empires, all long past their prime. And in the Balkans, as in Asia Minor, the Christian peasants frequently were so discontented that they offered little or no resistance to the Turkish onslaught.

These circumstances explain the extraordinary success of the Ottomans as they spread out from their base in Asia Minor. In 1384 they captured Sofia, and soon after they had control of all Bulgaria. Five years later they destroyed a south Slav army at the historic battle of Kossovo, which spelled the end of the Serbian Empire. These victories left Constantinople surrounded on all sides by Turkish territory. In 1453 the beleaguered capital was taken by assault, ending a thousand years of imperial history.

The Turks next turned southward against the rich Moslem states of Syria and Egypt. In a whirlwind campaign, they overran Syria in 1516 and Egypt the following year. The final phase of Ottoman conquest took place in central Europe. Under their famous Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, the Turks crossed the Danube River and in one stroke crushed the Hungarian state in the Mohacs Battle in 1526. Three years later, Suleiman laid siege to Vienna but was repulsed, partly because of torrential rains that prevented him from bringing up his heavy artillery. Despite