

HAMMOND
THE TIMES
CONCISE ATLAS OF
World HISTORY



THIRD
EDITION

The background of the entire cover is a detailed, grayscale topographic map. It features intricate contour lines and shading that represent the physical features of a landscape, including mountain ranges, valleys, and rivers. The map is oriented horizontally, with the terrain sloping downwards from left to right.

HAMMOND THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS OF World HISTORY

**Edited by
GEOFFREY BARRACLOUGH**

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INTRODUCTION

The welcome given to THE TIMES ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY, first published in English in September 1978, and now available in nine languages, shows how widespread an interest there is today in the human story. It also led us to think that there might be a place for a shorter, less elaborate atlas on a reduced scale.

The present volume is the result. Nevertheless THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY is not merely a condensed and abbreviated version of the earlier work. No fewer than 70 of the 320 maps here presented are entirely new or radically changed, and many others have been revised and redesigned. THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS is intended to stand on its own feet as a compact, easily available reference book covering the whole story of mankind from the earliest beginnings, when man's ancestors first emerged from the tropical forests of Africa, to the complex, highly articulated world in which we live.

Although the present volume incorporates new material and differs in a number of other ways from the larger work on which it is based, the principles which have guided us are the same. As in THE TIMES ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY, we have endeavoured to make the coverage as universal as is possible in the present state of knowledge, and in particular to provide full and clear accounts of the civilisations of Asia, Africa and the Americas, both before and after the coming of the Europeans. We have paid close attention to the relations and interactions between these different regions in all their manifestations – cultural and economic, peaceful and warlike, including invasions and migrations, the spread of agriculture and the diffusion of technologies – because we believe these to be some of the main threads of world history. Although we have given more space in this volume to the intricate web of politics (wars, treaties, frontier changes) and to the internal development of particular countries (e.g. England, Russia, Japan, and the U.S.A.), it is our view that world history is more than a combination of national histories, and we have planned this work accordingly.

A long view and a wide historical perspective are vitally important in the world as it is constituted today. If THE TIMES CONCISE ATLAS OF WORLD HISTORY has succeeded in providing such a view, it will have fulfilled one of its objectives. Nevertheless it is important to emphasise that this is not an atlas of current affairs. We have sought, in the concluding plates, to pick out and illustrate some of the more significant trends and movements in the contemporary world, but no attempt has been made to cover the years between 1945 and 1980 in detail. That was not our purpose; but we believe that informed knowledge of the past is a key to the understanding of the present and – as the great Victorian historian, Lord Acton, said it should be – ‘a power that goes to the making of the future.’

GEOFFREY BARRACLOUGH
Oxford, March 1982

This third edition brings many changes and updates to Professor Barraclough's first edition and to the edition overseen by Professor Norman Stone. The world order is changing so fast that Professor Barraclough's warning that this is not an atlas of current affairs must be repeated. Nonetheless the final plates have been updated extensively. The earlier plates in the atlas have undergone equally substantial revision in the wake of advances in archaeology.

TIMES BOOKS
January 1992

Human origins

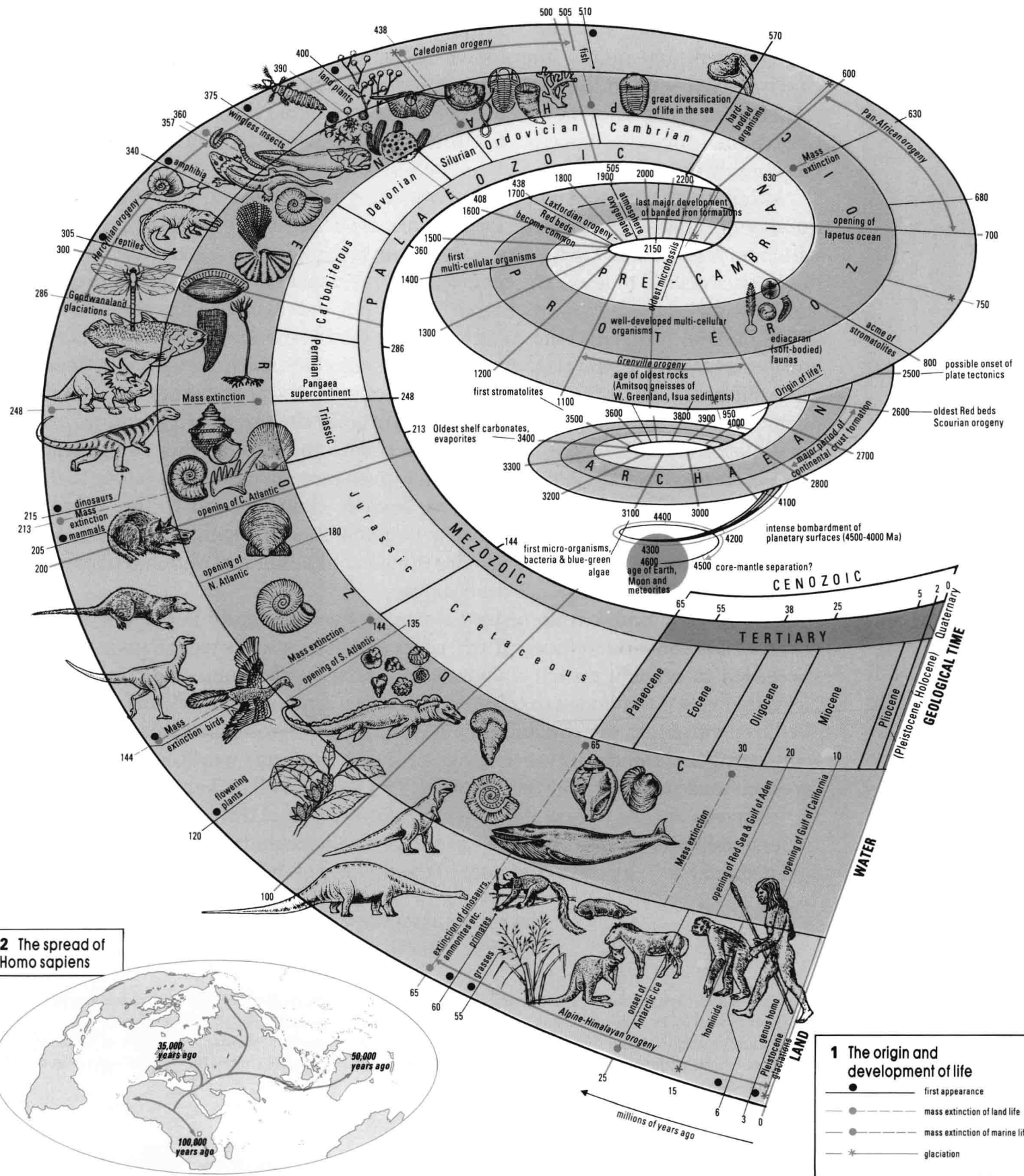
In the vast time perspective of earth history the human species is a relative newcomer. The first life on earth of which we have any trace, simple single-celled organisms, date back some 4600 million years (diagram 1). In contrast, fully modern *Homo sapiens sapiens* originated a mere 120,000 years ago. Yet within that short period of time we have become one of the most successful species ever, colonising virtually every corner of the globe, increasing enormously in numbers and manipulating the earth's resources and environment in a way never attempted by any other organism on our planet.

Study of chromosomes shows that our nearest relatives in the animal kingdom are the African apes (gorillas and chimpanzees). With them we share a common descent from various ape-like species such as the *Dryopithecines* which lived in Africa, Europe and south Asia some 20–15 million years ago. The parting of the ways, when the human line diverged from that of the chimpanzees and gorillas (diagram), may have come as recently as 8 million years ago, a tiny interval in the 4600 million years of life on earth.

The origins of the earliest hominids lie in equatorial Africa, and it is here that the oldest remains have been found (map 3). These are of a small creature known as *Australopithecus* or 'southern ape', from the first dis-

covery at Taung in South Africa in 1924. No fewer than four separate species of *Australopithecus* have now been distinguished in the fossil record, all restricted to Africa and living in the period from 5 million to 1 million years ago. We know that they walked upright on two legs from footprints left in the mud at Laetoli in east Africa.

These *Australopithecines* were small agile creatures, only around four feet tall, and they lived almost exclusively on nuts, fruits and berries. But they already displayed some of the trends which were to lead to modern humans. The bipedal posture freed the hands for other tasks, in turn stimulating the development of a larger brain. At the same time, the jaw and snout became less prominent as hands could be used to break off foods



and bring them to the mouth.

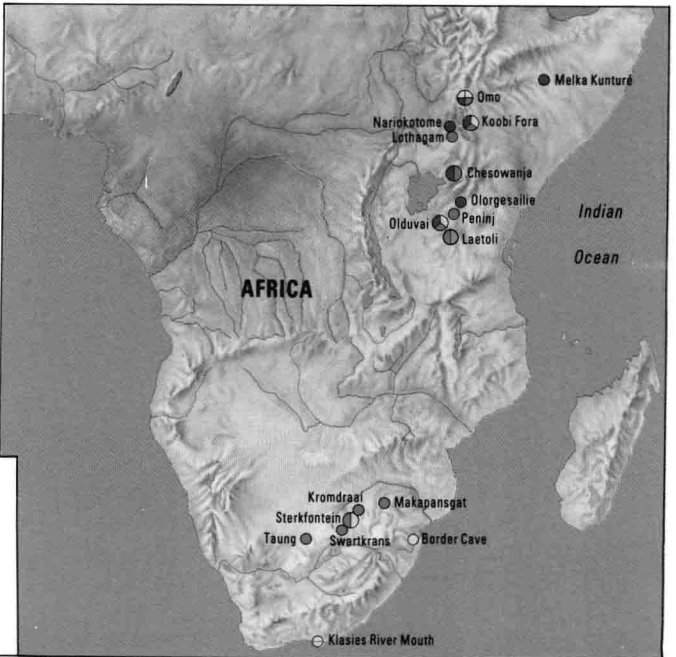
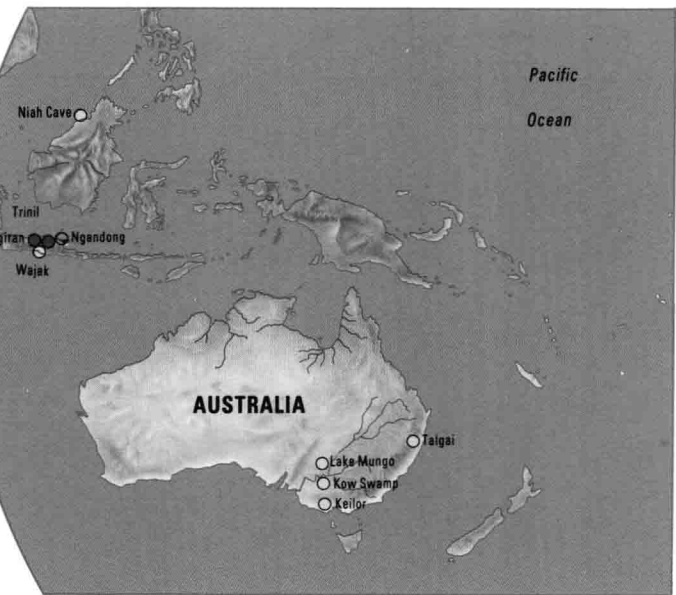
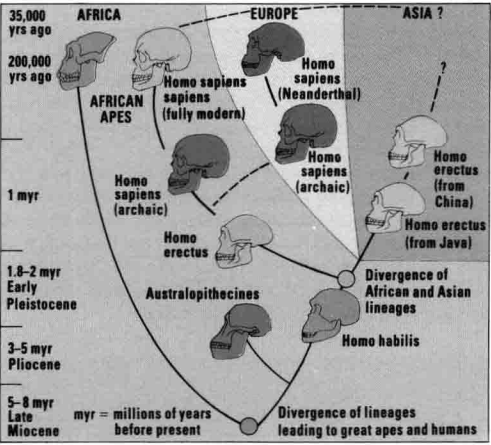
A crucial stage in the development of modern man was the appearance of a new species, *Homo habilis* or 'handy man', in East Africa around 2 million years ago. These may have been the first hominids to make and use stone tools, and probably the first to scavenge for meat as a regular part of their diet. They were followed around 1.5 million years ago by *Homo erectus*, a larger and more intelligent creature, and the first human ancestor to spread beyond the confines of Africa to Europe, China and South-East Asia.

The colonisation of the Old World by *Homo erectus* was a considerable achievement given the environmental conditions of the period. *Homo erectus* and his

descendants were able to make use of clothes and artificial shelters. They may also have started to hunt. Most important, however, was their mastery of fire. With more sophisticated tools, a larger brain, and command of fire, *Homo erectus* was able to survive north of the frost line at sites such as Chou-k'ou-tien (Zhoukoudian) near Peking around half a million years ago.

Homo erectus survived for a million years or more, but some time after 500,000 years ago new types of hominid began to develop in Europe and Africa. In Europe, these changes led c.100,000 bc to the appearance of Neanderthal man, named after a skull found in the Neander valley in Germany in 1856. The line of development leading to modern humans, however, was

based in Africa. Here, a little over 100,000 years ago, developed the first members of our own species, *Homo sapiens sapiens*: larger-brained creatures, able hunters and gatherers, equipped with sophisticated language and technology. From Africa the new species spread throughout the whole of the territory which had been occupied by *Homo erectus* and its descendants (map 2), and beyond into the hitherto unsettled regions of Australia and the Americas. For a while, Neanderthals hung on in parts of Europe, as the last Ice Age gathered pace; but their days were numbered. By 30,000 years ago, of the many species of hominid which had walked the earth during the past 5 million years of human development, only one, *Homo sapiens sapiens*, was left.



3 Traces of human origins

- Australopithecus
- Homo habilis
- Homo erectus
- Homo sapiens (archaic)
- Homo sapiens (Neanderthal)
- Homo sapiens (modern)

The Ice Ages

We are well aware today that the earth's climate is not a stable, static phenomenon. Indeed, for at least 14 million years world climate has gradually been cooling. Around 2 million years ago this process intensified, and by 800,000 years ago the earth was in the grip of the first of the great ice ages which were to come and go roughly every 100,000 years, and to dominate human history until the last of them receded only 10,000 years ago.

The ice ages were periods of intense cold in northern and southern latitudes away from the equator. Temperatures fell by up to 15°C, and ice sheets advanced across the frozen wastes of northern Eurasia and North America. As more and more of the earth's water became locked into the growing ice sheets, sea levels fell, and even equatorial regions did not escape the effects of climatic adversity as rainfall diminished, turning half of all the land area between the tropics into desert.

The glaciers advanced and retreated several times, reaching a climax every 100,000 years but also giving way for short periods of 10,000 years or so to more temperate regimes. With each ice advance the plants and animals of the northern hemisphere withdrew before them to warmer latitudes waiting, perhaps several thousand years, for the ice to retreat and allow them to move northwards again. Hominids too such as *Homo erectus* must have migrated with the changing climate.

Yet despite the harshness of the coldest periods, the human species continued to develop during these millennia. It was indeed at this time that the human species spread from its original African homeland to east and south-east Asia and Europe. The mastery of fire and the invention of clothing and shelter were crucial to this achievement, but so were new social and communication skills. The human species as we know it today is the product of the long process of adaptation to the harsh conditions of the ice age.

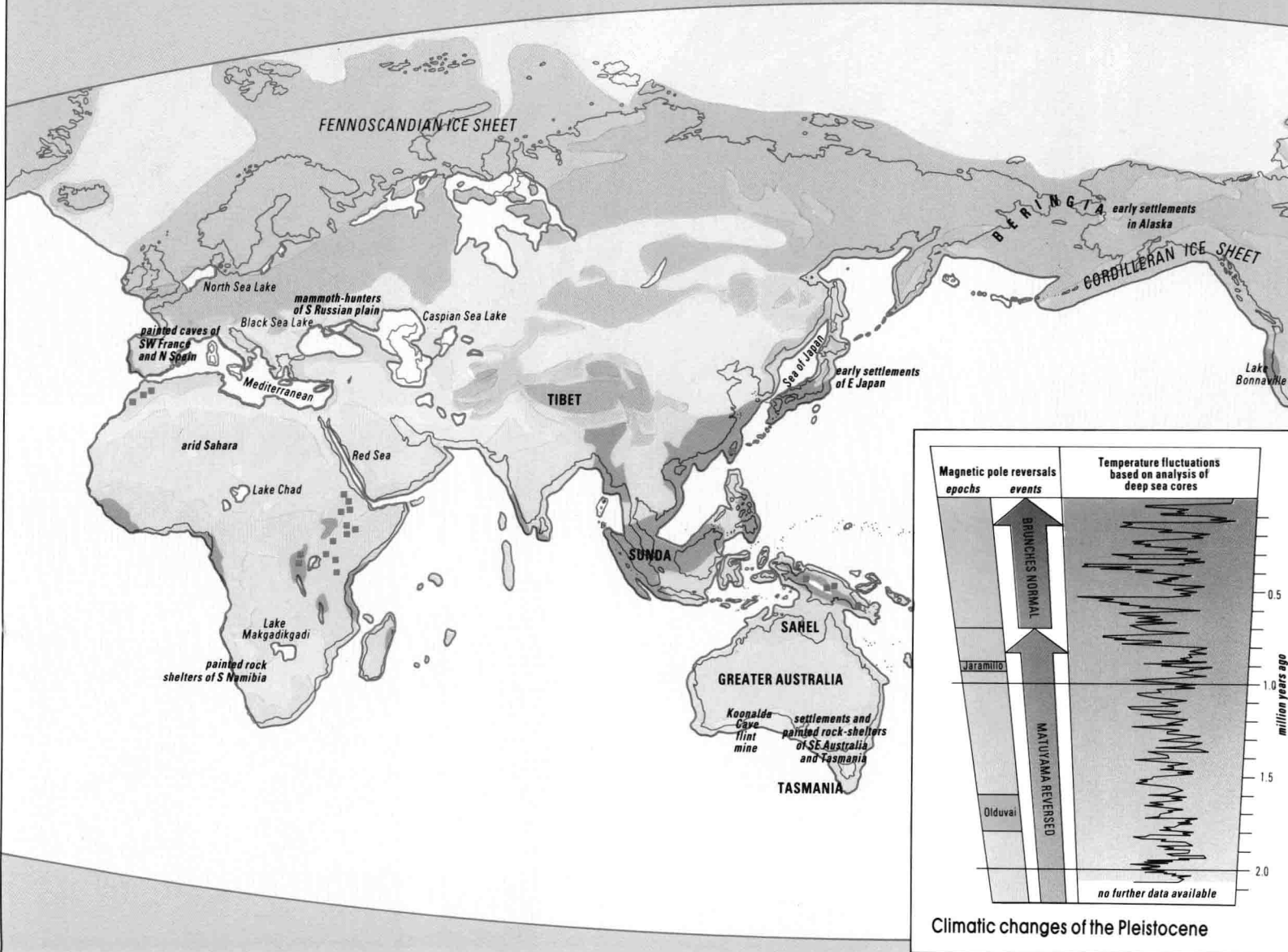
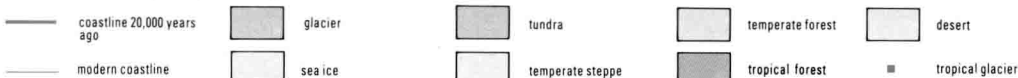
The final phase of the ice ages began 75,000 years ago with the advance of the Würm glaciers in central Europe and the associated Weichsel and Wisconsin glacier fields in northern Europe and North America. By tying up water on a grand scale these reduced sea levels, and land bridges appeared, linking most of the major land areas and many present-day islands (including the British Isles) into one single continental mass. It was at this time, too, that a new species of human, fully modern *Homo sapiens sapiens*, began to spread from Africa, replacing or interbreeding with existing hominid populations in Europe and Asia. It was thus modern humans that were able to take advantage of the short sea crossing caused by sea-level fall and colonise Australasia in about 50,000 bc. A little later, perhaps as early as 40,000 bc, humans also colonised America (map 2), either by crossing the land bridge which joined the two sides of the Bering Straits at certain periods or by use of boats. With the onset of warmer conditions some 10,000 years ago

rising sea levels cut off these human communities in Australia and the Americas from further contact with Eurasia. Henceforward, these regions pursued their own independent lines of development.

Modern humans were relatively late arrivals in western Europe, replacing earlier Neanderthal populations only around 35,000 years ago. Yet here, as in Australia and South America, the new communities soon developed new levels of cultural expression which still impress us today (map 3). In the Dordogne area of south-west France, in the Pyrenees and in the Cantabrian region of northern Spain, hundreds of caves were decorated with paintings of symbols and animals, sometimes in rich polychrome style.

As hunting techniques and tool technology became more sophisticated, human communities became more and more able to cope with their environment. It was, however, change in the environment itself which was most important in opening up new opportunities. Around 20,000 years ago, the last ice age was at its peak (map 1); ten thousand years later, it was in its closing stages. As temperatures rose, vegetation spread and animals began to recolonise the cold northern wastes. With them went the human hunters and gatherers. By 8000 bc, in certain crucial corners of the world such as Central America and the Near East, people had begun to move beyond their existing resources to investigate new ways of producing food, manipulating plants and animals in the first experiments in farming.

1 The world 20,000 years ago



From hunting to farming

Somewhere around 8000 BC human communities began to select, breed, domesticate and cultivate various species of plant and animal. This was the beginning of agriculture and is sometimes called the Neolithic or agricultural revolution. In fact, it was a slow and partial process which occurred at different times and speeds in different parts of the world and was never complete, if only because climatic and soil variations precluded agriculture in many areas. The arid zones were the home of mobile pastoralists, who domesticated sheep and horses and colonised the grazing grounds of the steppes, while the densely afforested areas, in northern Europe and elsewhere, were inhabited, as earlier, by hunters. The result, following the spread of agriculture, was a differentiated world economy, with well defined zones, cereal and root-crop cultivation being characteristic of the temperate and tropical regions respectively (map 1).

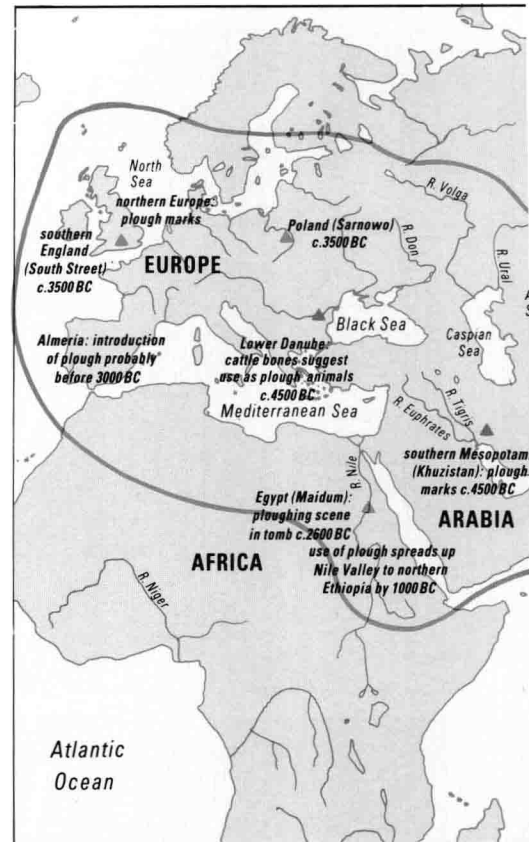
The transformation from a hunter and fisher to an agriculturalist, and from a migratory to a sedentary life, was a decisive event in world history. The increase in food resources which followed made possible a spectacular growth of human population calculated to have multiplied sixteen times between 8000 and 4000 BC. It also required co-operative effort, particularly after the introduction of irrigation c.5000 BC, leading to the establishment of settled, organised societies, at first villages, then towns and cities. Urban civilisation dates from c.3500 BC, but already before 6000 BC there were 'proto-cities' covering extensive sites (up to 30 acres) at Jericho in the Jordan valley and Çatal Hüyük in Anatolia. Here also there is evidence of long-distance trade.

There is no doubt that agriculture developed independently in different parts of the world, presumably in

response to similar stimuli, but the beginnings of cereal cultivation are clearly associated with the Near East. Here, on the remote mountain uplands, were found the wild ancestors of wheat and barley, and the villages where they were first cultivated (c.8000 BC) grew up on the edge of this zone, within the critical rainfall limit of 300 mm (12 ins) a year (map 4). Only with the introduction of irrigation was it possible to extend cultivation into the adjacent dry plains. This occurred during the fifth and fourth millennia BC. At about the same time the ox-drawn plough began to be adopted throughout much of Eurasia, enlisting animal traction to increase the efficiency of farming (map 2). In much of the world, however, hoe agriculture persisted and human muscle power remained the basis of farming until relatively recent times.

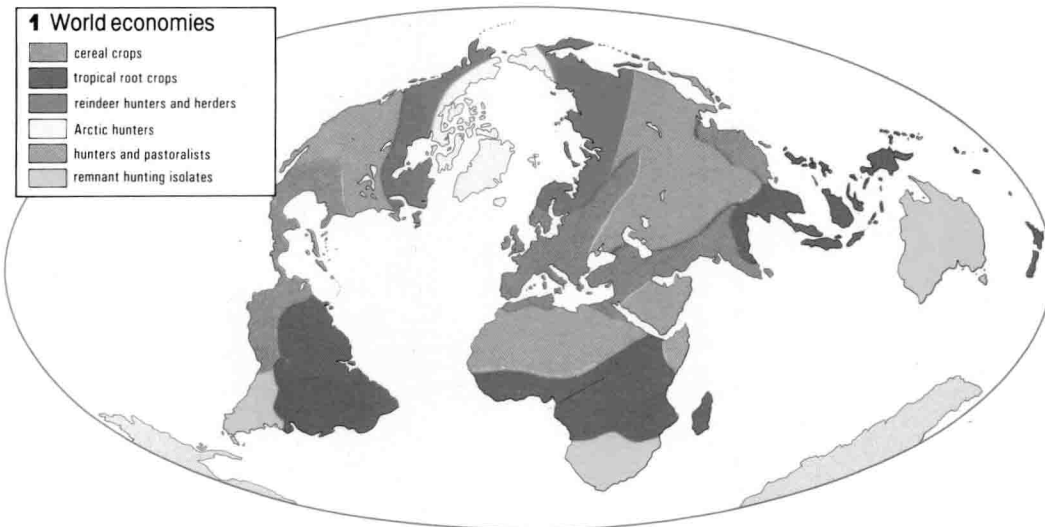
Many other parts of the globe contributed their quota at different times to the supply of domesticated plants and animals (map 4). Their diffusion from their original habitat not only supplemented native food resources, but also affected human diet. Rice, which originated in South-East Asia and southern China, passed into the Near East and Mediterranean Europe, where it became a staple foodstuff. The yam and banana, later to be major African food crops, were introduced from Asia during the first millennium BC.

As farming spread, hunting and gathering was increasingly relegated to the more marginal world environments where agriculture was unable to secure a foothold (map 3). The gradual decline of hunters and gatherers can be traced across the centuries, until in recent times their sole surviving representatives have been found only in hot deserts such as the Kalahari and Australia, in the dense rain forests of the Amazon basin, central Africa and South-East Asia, and in the frozen wastes of the Arctic.



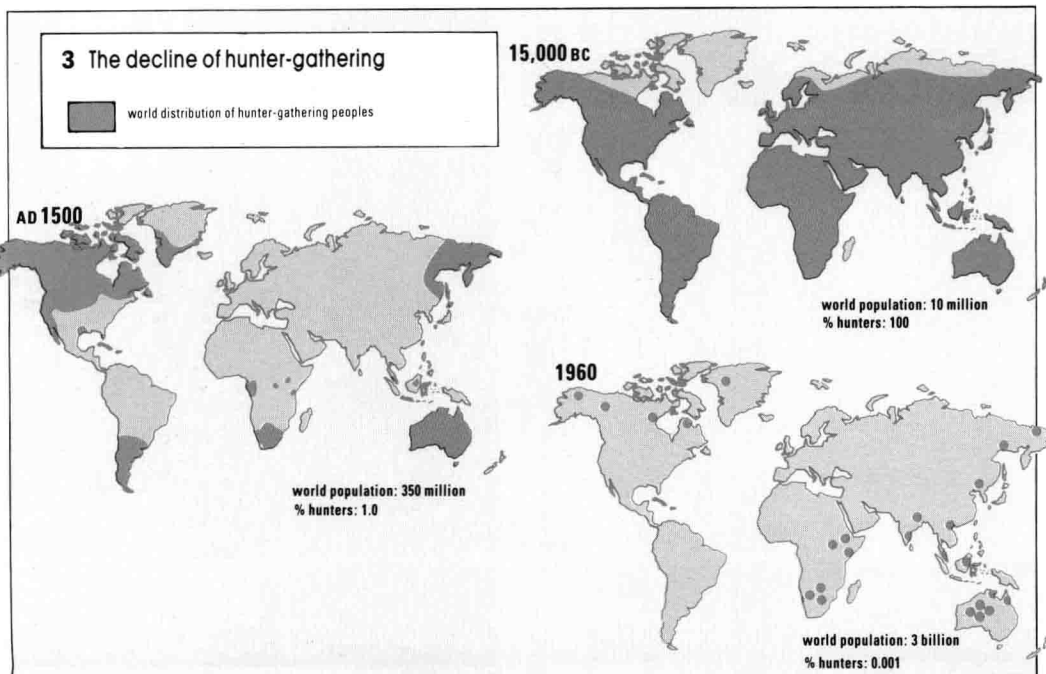
1 World economies

- cereal crops
- tropical root crops
- reindeer hunters and herders
- Arctic hunters
- hunters and pastoralists
- remnant hunting isolates



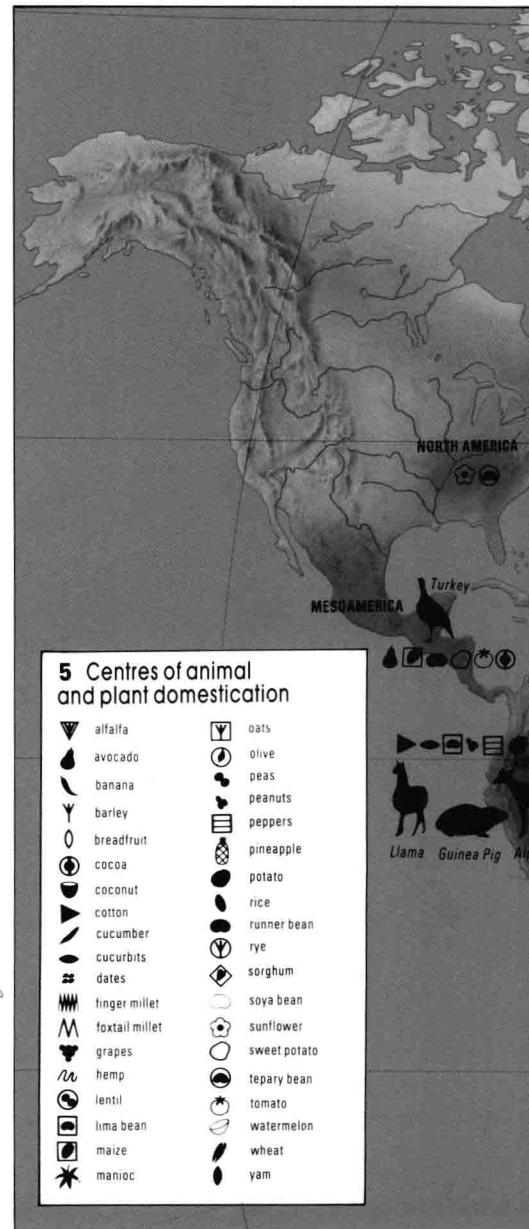
3 The decline of hunter-gathering

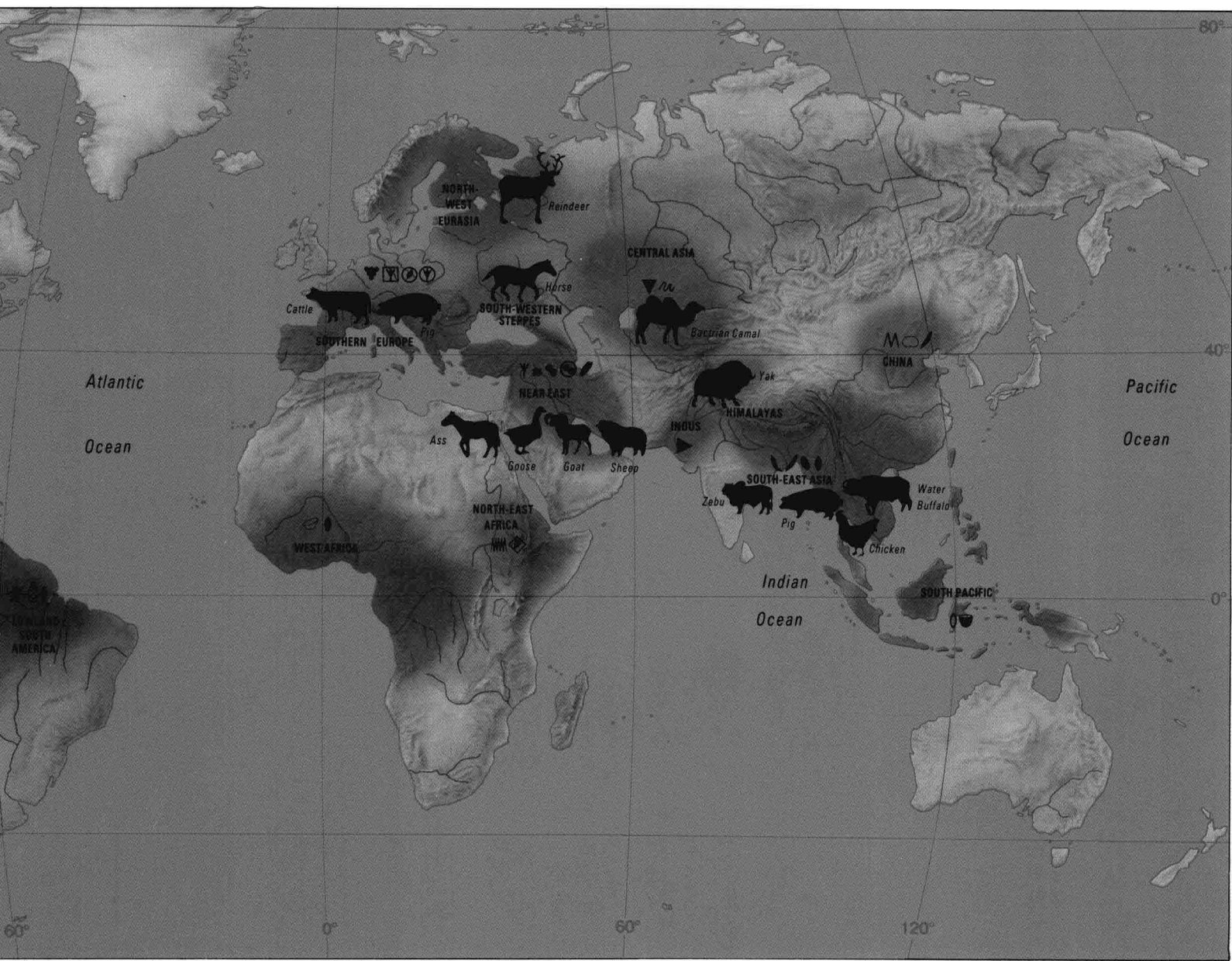
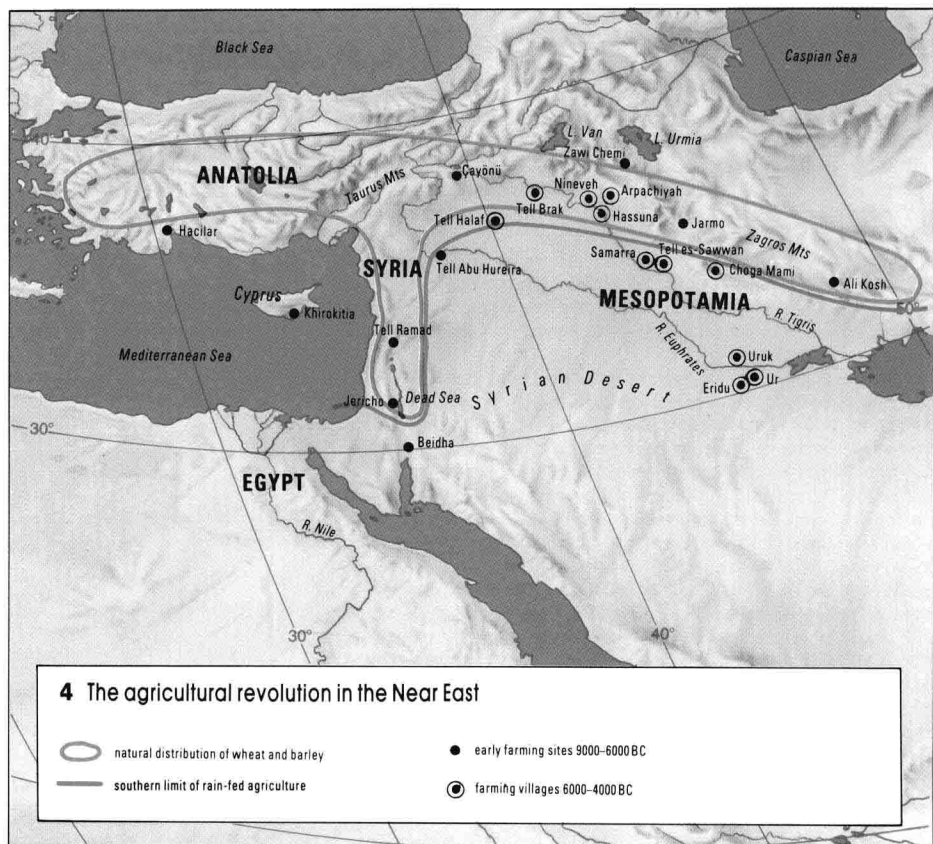
- world distribution of hunter-gathering peoples



5 Centres of animal and plant domestication

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| alfalfa | oats |
| avocado | olive |
| banana | peas |
| barley | peanuts |
| breadfruit | peppers |
| cocoa | pineapple |
| coconut | potato |
| cotton | rice |
| cucumber | runner bean |
| cucurbits | rye |
| dates | sorghum |
| finger millet | soya bean |
| foxtail millet | sunflower |
| grapes | sweet potato |
| hemp | teary bean |
| lentil | tomato |
| lima bean | watermelon |
| maize | wheat |
| manioc | yam |





Early cultures of Asia

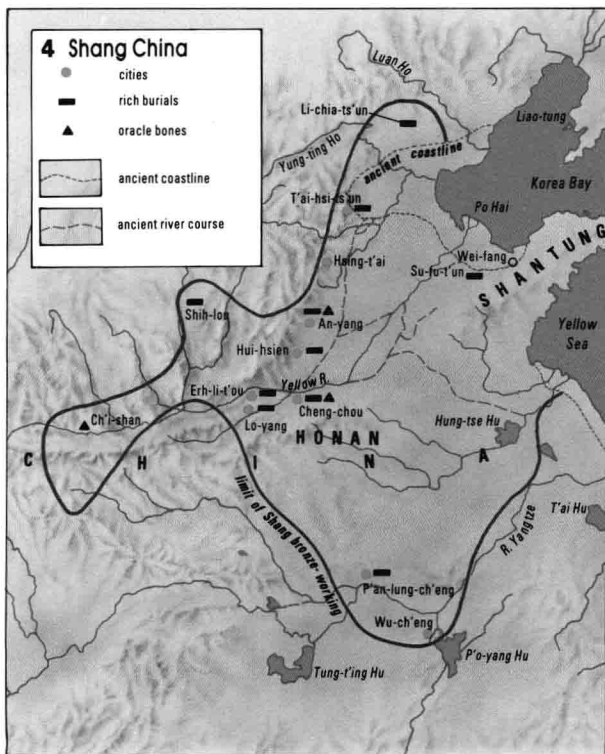
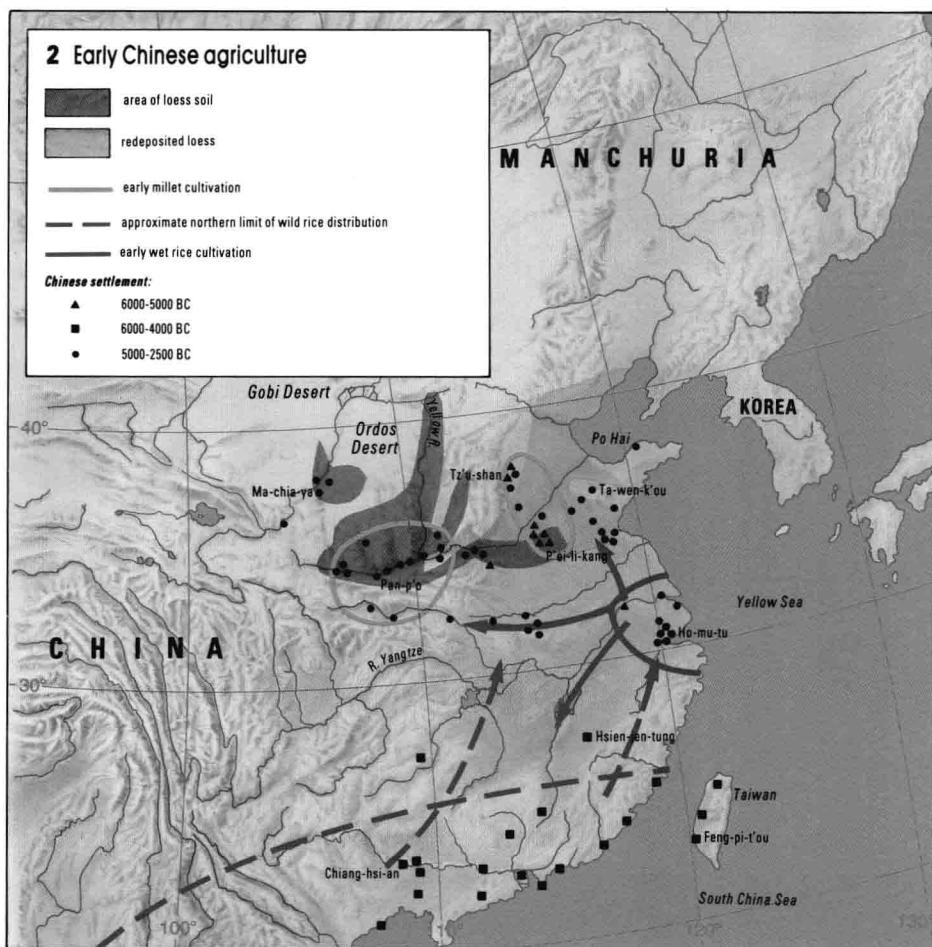
From an origin in Africa, *Homo erectus* or its close relatives had spread widely through Asia by the Middle Pleistocene period (400–200,000 years ago). It is not possible to establish the precise history of this colonisation process, but it is reasonable to assume that these hominids first reached India, where hand-axes, chopping tools and flakes of the early Stone Age are found not only in the foothills of the Punjab but as far east as southern Bihar and northern Orissa and as far south as Madras (map 1). It was not long before *Homo erectus* also became established in both East and South-East Asia, as shown by skeletal remains from Java and China. Here they remained until replaced some 60,000 years ago by our own fully modern species, *Homo sapiens sapiens*.

Little is known of the development of human societies in this part of the world until the advent of agriculture. At about the same time as farming communities were getting under way in western Asia, the first experiments in agriculture were also being made in East and South Asia. In China, the most important centre of early farming was the Yellow River valley in the north, where crops of millet were raised on the well-drained loess terraces of the river valleys from around 6000 BC (map 2). A little later, rice cultivation spread northwards from its original heartland in South-East Asia, giving a second productive staple crop. The early villages grew and prospered, and new technologies made their appearance: jade-carving, silk-weaving and very high quality pottery production using the fast wheel.

In about 1800 BC the thriving villages and small towns which had developed in northern China gave rise to the first Chinese civilisation. Early dynasties soon gave way to the Shang, who ruled much of the North China plain and parts of the Yangtze valley from the 16th to the 11th century BC (map 4). Great cities developed, notably at Cheng-chou and An-yang, and rulers were given lavish burial in royal tombs.

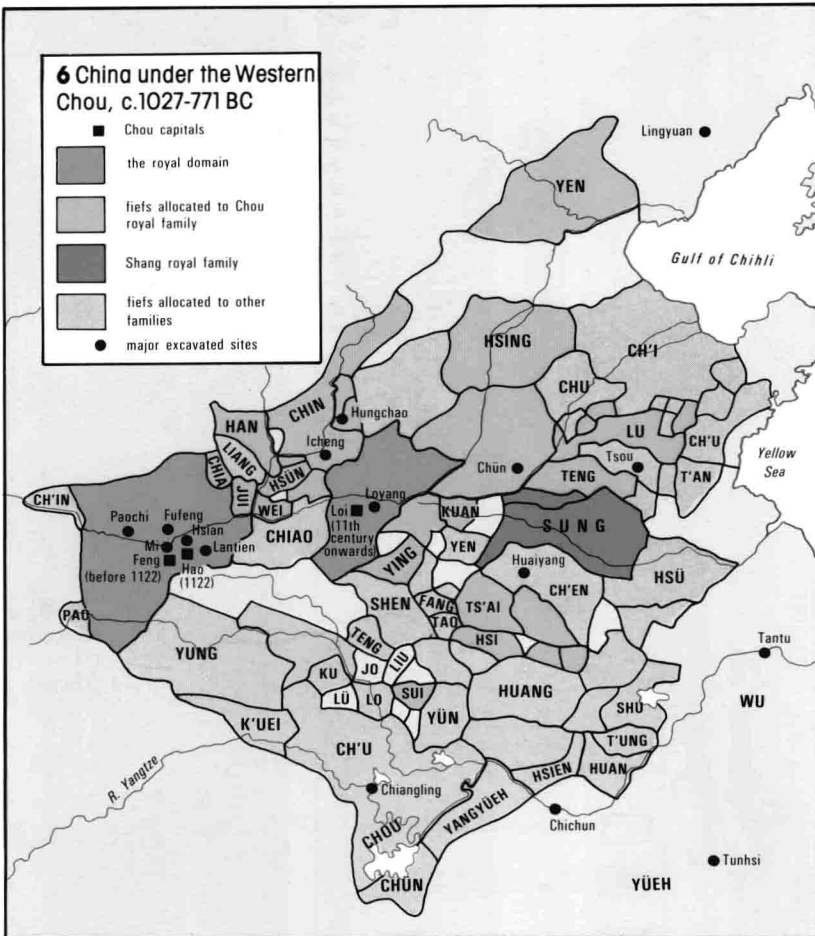
The first civilisation of South Asia developed in the valley of the Indus river. Again, this was founded on a secure agricultural base which had been developing since c.6000 BC or earlier. Large-scale settlement of the fertile river plain seems to have occurred in the 4th millennium BC, and soon afterwards the first cities appear, notably those of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro (map 5). These were highly-developed cities covering nearly 1,295,000 sq.kms, and surviving for over 1000 years. A standardised system of weights and measures was devised, and trade with the Persian Gulf brought Indus products to the great cities of southern Mesopotamia. Influences from South Asia also reached South-East Asia, where the distinctive Dong Son drums were produced by communities of village farmers from 1500–500 BC (map 3).

The Indus cities were abandoned soon after 2000 BC, overtaken perhaps by environmental change or natural disaster, and it was over 1000 years before cities reappeared in the sub-continent. The focus had by this time shifted to the Ganges, where the historic cities and states of northern India began to form in about 500 BC. By that time China too was divided between a number of major kingdoms, as the unified rule of the Shang and their successors the Chou broke down and fragmented (map 6). Yet despite the divisions, the basic foundations of Chinese and Indian civilisation had been laid.



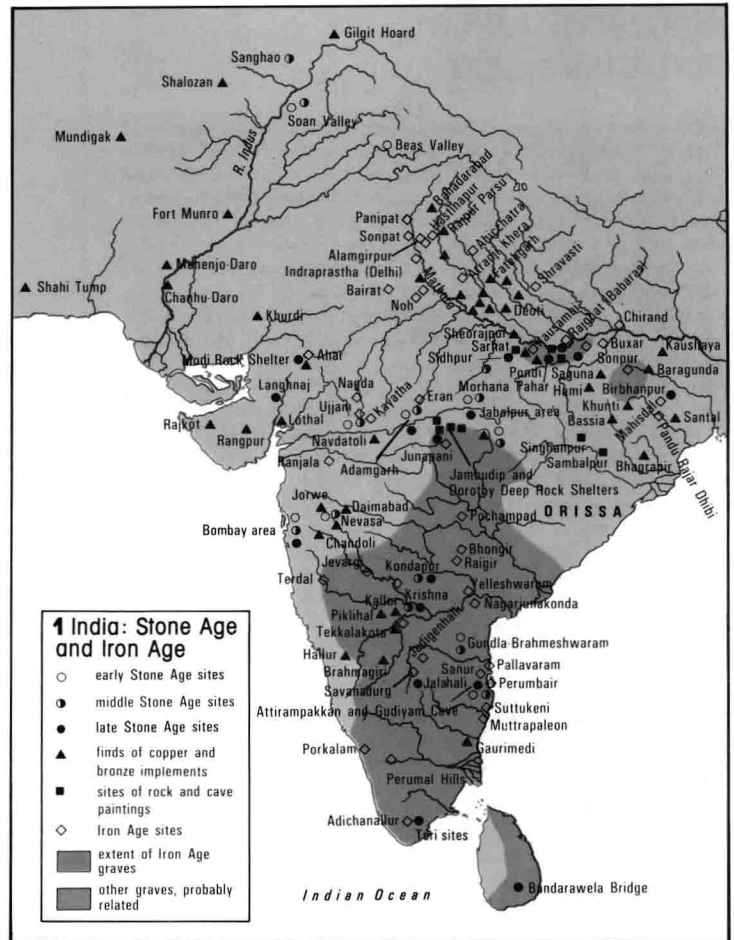
6 China under the Western Chou, c.1027-771 BC

- Chou capitals
- the royal domain
- fiefs allocated to Chou royal family
- Shang royal family
- fiefs allocated to other families
- major excavated sites



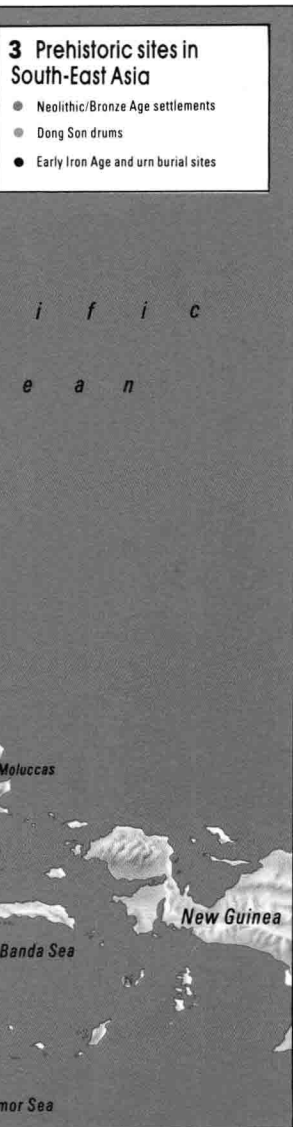
1 India: Stone Age and Iron Age

- early Stone Age sites
- middle Stone Age sites
- late Stone Age sites
- ▲ finds of copper and bronze implements
- sites of rock and cave paintings
- ◇ Iron Age sites
- extent of Iron Age graves
- other graves, probably related



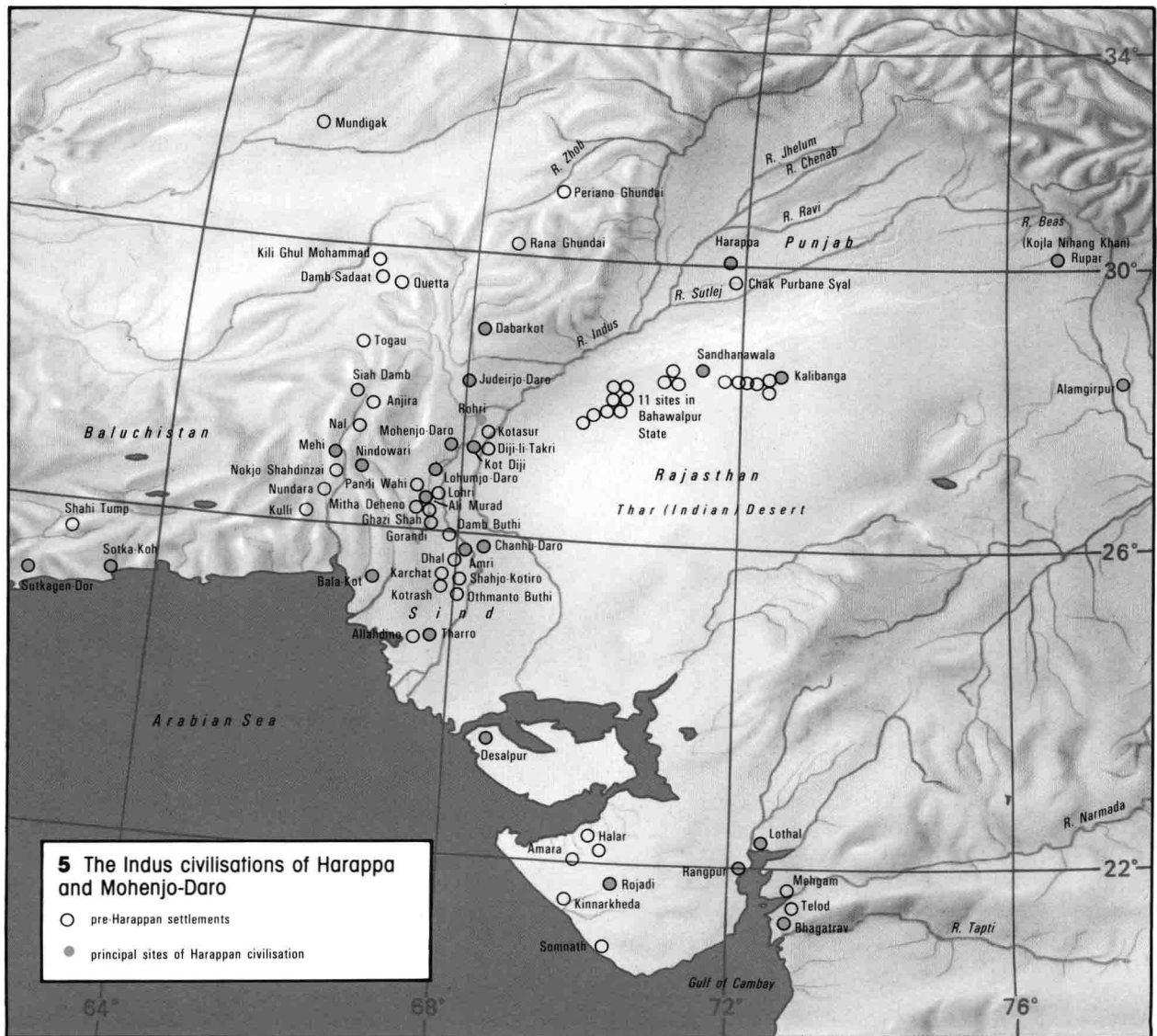
3 Prehistoric sites in South-East Asia

- Neolithic/Bronze Age settlements
- Dong Son drums
- Early Iron Age and urn burial sites



5 The Indus civilisations of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro

- pre-Harappan settlements
- principal sites of Harappan civilisation



Prehistoric Africa and Australasia

Climatic change, between 5–6000 years ago, profoundly influenced the early history of Africa and Australasia. North Africa developed in close association with western Asia, and by 3000 bc an advanced civilisation was established in Egypt. But Africa south of the equator, almost certainly the original home of humans, was cut off from the mainstream for centuries by the desiccation of the Sahara. Similar changes occurred in Australia which had been populated during the late Pleistocene ice age via the land bridge from New Guinea (page 4). Here the rise of the sea level drowned large areas of coastal lowland and severed the land link with New Guinea. The Australasian continent developed thenceforth in geographical isolation. The colonisation of the islands of Melanesia occurred considerably later, when settlers from New Guinea, associated with the distinctive Lapita pottery, reached Fiji (c.1300 bc) and then made their way into Polynesia via Tonga and Samoa, reaching the Marquesas Islands c.ad 300 (map 2). From here they spread north to Hawaii (c.ad 800) and south-west via the Cook Islands to New Zealand between 850 and 1100 (map 3).

Geographical isolation was an important factor in shaping the cultures of southern Africa and of Oceania. In much of Australia the aborigines remained hunters and gatherers and there was no use of iron, but they were prolific in their decoration of rock shelters with deeply symbolic designs. Elsewhere in Oceania, notably in New Zealand, a mixed hunting-farming society developed and settlement spread inland. But population remained small, about 300,000 in Australia and 100,000 in New Zealand when the Europeans arrived. The isolation of southern Africa was never so complete. In East Africa settlers spread down the Rift Valley from Ethiopia during the first millennium bc, and trans-Saharan trade increased in importance after the introduction of the camel from Asia c.100 bc (map 1). This facilitated the spread of iron tools and weapons, introduced in the north by Greeks and Carthaginians in the eighth and seventh centuries. Aided by the new iron technology, Bantu-speaking farmers and cattle-herdsmen began to colonise southern Africa in the early centuries ad. By the thirteenth century powerful Bantu chiefdoms had emerged, such as that centred on the Great Zimbabwe enclosure, cattle-raising communities already engaged in trade when the Portuguese arrived at the close of the fifteenth century.

