



Study in

WORLD HISTORY



COSMOS BOOKHIVE
Choice of Civil Services Aspirants

WORLD HISTORY
(CIVIL SERVICES MAINS)

Author
DR. K. N. JHA
M.A. (Hist.) Ph.D.

ACCORDING TO NEW SYLLABUS

DEDICATION

This book is dedicated to
NARENDRA PARVENDA
(Director, I.I.F.L.)
who morally provoked me at every stage

Contents

Chapter 1	The Birth of the World	1-9
Chapter 2	Turning point in History	10-16
Chapter 3	Geographical Discoveries	17-28
Chapter 4	Enlightenment and Modern Ideas	29-96
Chapter 5	Origins of Modern Politics	97-230
Chapter 6	Industrialization	231-280
Chapter 7	Nation State System	281-322
Chapter 8	Imperialism and Colonialism	323-350
Chapter 9	Revolution and Counter Revolution	351-408
Chapter 10	World Wars	409-464
Chapter 11	Cold War	465-525
Chapter 12	Colonial Liberation	526-570
Chapter 13	The Colonialization and Underdevelopment	571-604
Chapter 14	Unification of Europe	605-635
Chapter 15	Soviet Disintegration and the Unipolar World	636-703

The Birth of the World

Genealogy has its satisfactions, but how disconcerting to those who worship ancestors to find that, in the direct male line, men derive from in ascending order, a monkey, a sea-lily and a bacterium. The legend that the Earl of Northumbria in Shakespeare's *Mcbeth* was descended from a fairy bear seems, once the principles of evolution are accepted, only mildly misleading.

Life, however, is far from the first ingredient to take into account. The solar system of which the Earth is a part is now known to be a galaxy of 100 billion stars in an archipelago of galaxies perhaps comparable to ours, adrift in space. It is now thought that the universe was begun 15 to 20 billion years ago as a result of an explosion which propelled all the galaxies away from each other. The nearest galaxy to our own is held to be two million light years away. Our galaxy and the Earth apparently came into being almost simultaneously, following the contraction, by rotation of clouds, of dust, between 4 and 5 billion BC. The Sun was a concentrated core at the centre of this rotation. The planets formed around pieces of debris.

No one suspected until recently that the Earth and the Universe were anything like as old as this. In the seventeenth century, the Anglo-Irish theologian James Ussher, archbishop of Armagh, reflected a widely held attitude when he spoke of the world as having been created in 4004 BC. The French naturalist, Georges Buffon, thought that the world might be 'at least 70,000 years old'. In 1755, the philosopher Kant speculated that the figure might be 'a million, or even millions of, year old'. But the timetable, now regarded as approximately correct, was only discovered in 1935 by an inspired astronomer, 'Edwin Hubble, of Missouri. The considered study of the skies, however, began long ago in Babylon where much data were gathered together, and analysed, by means of relatively advanced mathematics (1).

The Earth's crust wrinkled for a long time, creating mountains and seas, the latter caused by the further condensation of vapours. The sea and the land were, it is now believed, once absolutely divided into entirely separate dimensions in a planet which thus had one ocean and one continent, but the latter, known to geologists as Pangaea, split into something like the present continents about 2000 million BC. Much movement of land, however, continued afterwards. The creation of the Channel, which divides England from Europe and the Bering Straits, which cut off Asia from America, were, for example, the product of later commotions. India was separated by sea from northern Asia for a time before 45 million BC, as was, till about 2 million BC, North from South America (2). Africa was once, it seems, as close to South America as was North America. The Mediterranean became a desert about 6 million BC and became a stretch of water again a million years later, while the Black Sea too was once the arm of a great ocean (3).

The early years of the Earth belong to chemists, not to historians. For a historian, it is enough to know that a metallic core, 3,750 miles wide, came into being within the Earth — mostly liquid iron and nickel, though solid in the centre. Between that core and the Earth's crust, a 'mantle' of iron and magnesium 1,875 miles deep took shape. The crust, which is of diverse composition, varies between twelve to thirty miles in depth on land, and only four miles under the sea.

Before the coming of anything recognisable by the name of 'life', many fundamental matters had already been decided; the Earth began to rotate clockwise, creating westerly winds; some latitudes were already cold, some hot; the tilt of the Earth's axis created seasons; mountain ranges already affected climate; and seasons had begun to clearly differentiated (4).

Life, in the form of bacteria and micro-organisms, apparently began between 3.2 and 3.4 billion BC. The first plants, descendants of bacteria, grew in seas or on their edges. Their immediate descendants were worms (which came into being about 1000 million BC); shellfish; jawless fish; scorpions; and vertebrate fish, which were probably living by 450 million BC. The worms were the first living things which, unlike their predecessors, plants, had to seek food from outside themselves: plants can make for themselves the chemical elements which they need in order to survive. From the vertebrate fish, descended reptiles, large and small, which came into being about 350 million BC. Some of these were dinosaurs, pleisours, or ichthyosaurs, the ancestors of turtles, lizards and snakes. Other extinct reptiles, known as therapsids, resembling the duck-billed

platypus, could walk on two feet and had teeth. Whether they had fur, warm blood and laid eggs is obscure. From them, nevertheless, the mammals descended, at first being small and insect-eating, weighing less than 20 pounds, and seeming comparable to lemurs, bushbabies, shrews, or squirrels. For many millions of year, these ancestors of all the more successful animals of the world today lived side-by-side with the dinosaurs, who dominated the world for 150 million years.

The eclipse of the dinosaurs about 65 million BC was probably due to an unidentified climatic change which destroyed all large animals. Mammals perhaps survived since, apparently, they were then all under twenty pounds in weight. By that time, mammals had multiplied their species. Primates, the direct ancestors of men and monkeys, had appeared. So had insects and birds, while most flowering plants had assumed something like their present shape (5).

About 30 million BC, an animal was born which is believed, to be a common ancestor of man and modern ape. These two species apparently diversified between then and about 5 million BC, though the date is a matter of dispute. Some anthropologists of distinction believe that men were already different from apes by 20 million BC. Others put the date nearer 4 million BC. At all events, between 10 and 5 million BC, the ancestors of men were still usually living in trees. They were still basically herbivorous and do not seem to have been carnivorous much before about 4 million BC. Then, or perhaps about 3 million BC, ancestors of men began to walk upright, as their usual mode of locomotion, and to carry things in their arms (6). By then, too, man was beginning to be regularly carnivorous — a differentiation from other primates perhaps caused by a shortage of nuts, berries and fruit. That, perhaps, was the main reason for the descent from the trees, though our closest relative among the other primates is also primarily a dweller on the ground (the African chimpanzee), and though the chimpanzee can use objects such as stones with great agility and effectiveness. There were shortly other differentiations from other primates; such as the more subtle possibilities of man's use of his hands; and his greater fertility. There are minor differences in sexual behaviour between humans and apes and, while chimpanzees and gorillas mate only during the female's ovulation, women, like female gibbons, can mate at any time. Gibbons, like most humans, live customarily in monogamous families, while male chimpanzees and gorillas seek to establish harems of females, which they try to dominate until overthrown by a younger rival. All the apes are close to men in blood, and an almost political sense of cooperation can be discerned in monkeys, though, unlike

men and indeed birds, they do not as a rule co-operate with each other in the pursuit of food. Chimpanzees seem, though, to share food on the rare occasions when they eat meat. On the whole, however, apes eat vegetables or fruits, and do so on the spot. Some regard the change of habits of food-gathering from individual scavenging to co-operative search for game as the determining one in human evolution from apes (7).

The main distinctive characteristic of human beings, however, derives from the size of their brains. That may have followed man's change to an erect posture. The human brain needs a large skull and also a large cortex. Yet plainly it is not the size of man's brain alone which has been responsible for his place in the world; porpoises and whales have larger ones (8). Even so, the brains of men's ancestors doubled in size between about 3 million and 1,500,000 BC from 450 to 900 cubic centimeters. Meantime, these bipeds were making stone tools and hunting animals by 2,500,000 BC and, by 1,500,000 BC at least, the stone tools had begun to be flaked on both sides, perhaps to cut up elephants and mammoths, which could hardly have been eaten without some such implement. All these dates may be a little ungenerous, if that is the correct word. It may be, for instance, that upright walking evolved earlier than 3 or 4 million BC, and nearer 10 million.

Subsequently, that is after the beginning of both hunting and the making of stone tools, man's brain developed further to its present approximate size of 1400 cubic centimeters and the history of *homo sapiens* proper begins, or indeed of what anthropologists now call *homo sapiens sapiens*. The coming of this being seems only to have occurred about 40,000 BC. The main subdivisions, subspecies or races of men probably made crossings at different times of the 'threshold' from a more brutal to a more sapient state (9). Where the line was first crossed, and by whom, is unknown. Probably it happened in several continents at the same time. Perhaps the decisive change causing the brain to grow further was made possible because the early tools already in use enabled, as we would now put it, a better standard of living.

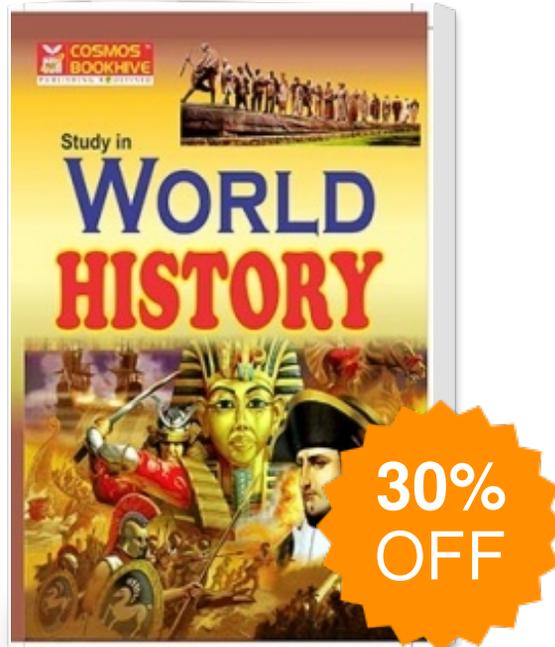
The differences between *homo sapiens* and *homo sapiens sapiens* were considerable: for example, the first, who was in the past often known as 'neanderthal man', from the fossilised remains found in the Neander valley in Germany in 1856, had a brain the same size as modern man, but slightly differently shaped. Most of the tools of *homo sapiens* which survive derive from flakes of flint. *Homo sapiens sapiens* had a less tough skull than his predecessor. His tools were slender and sometimes already shaped for ritual uses. Harpoons, needles, awls, complicated weapons

and long voyages all followed fast, or at least fast in comparison with what had gone before. In comparison, *homo sapiens* pure and simple seemed closer to his predecessor, to whom the name *homo erectus* is now given (10). That *homo erectus*, remains of which were found in Java in the 1890s and subsequently in Africa and China, had a thicker skull than *homo sapiens* had. His jaws and teeth were larger than modern man's. Even so, he used a stone axe. He even had fire, about 450,000 BC, in both Hungary and China. It was first used for keeping warm, giving light, and sharpening sticks at the ends to ward off enemies (the absence of early traces of fire in hot countries, such as Africa, suggests that the first use of it was the need for warmth.) *Homo erectus* used caves for shelter. Some of the late versions of this primate, such as those whose skulls have been found at Swanscomber in Kent, dating from 250,000 BC, have been thought of as 'virtually *homo sapiens*'.

It seems possible that the change occasioned by the coming to *homo sapiens sapiens* about 40,000 BC may have been inspired by language. No doubt men were not silent before. Apes communicate with one another, but without language. Even simple tools must have needed speech for them to be made well. But the use of clear speech must have constituted in decisive change, making possible a whole range of activities previously unthought of. Among primates without language, there are no religions, no politics and no works of art. Speech of usually the main element of cohesion among human beings, even among the few primitive ones that have survived (11). But its origins are a mystery.

Thirty families of languages have been identified as existing in historic times. They embrace 2,500 main languages and dialects (12). But many languages avoid classification: when the Europeans discovered Australia, 500 tribes were found there, each with 500 to 600 members, and each one with their own language of several thousand words. Europe must once have been the same. In South Africa, the differences were even greater when the Europeans arrived: some tribes there spoke different languages among the men and women. Probably many people talked to each other effectively by whistling languages, such as the Silbo, which survives on the Canary island of Gomera, at Ans in the Pyrenees, and, in a slightly different manner, at Oaxaca in Mexico. Some think, with Carleton Coon, that the social requirements of a group of hunters made speech necessary' (13). Possibly the first languages were without parts of speech, with most phrases and thoughts expressed by a single word (14). Was speech perhaps a single invention, by a single tribe and did others imitate it imperfectly? (15). Over 20,000 years, two sister languages may be

Study In World History for ICS and IAS Main Exam



Publisher : [Cosmos Bookhive](#)

Author : [K N Jha](#)

Type the URL : <http://www.kopykitab.com/product/8620>



Get this eBook