

HEMISPHERES COLLIDING: THE HISTORIES OF EURASIA AND THE AMERICAS COMPARED pdf

1: Tables of Contents for Guns, Germs and Steel

The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared - HEMISPHERES COLLIDING - AROUND THE WORLD IN FIVE CHAPTERS - Guns, Germs, and Steel: The Fates of Human Societies - by Jared Diamond - Education materials - Historical Books - Common history.

Ordunio, Doug Contents: The regionally differing courses of history From Eden to Cajamarca. Up to the starting line: What happened on all the continents before 11, B. A natural experiment of history: How geography molded societies on Polynesian islands Collision at Cajamarca: Geographic differences in the onset of food production To farm or not to farm: Causes of the spread of food production How to make an almond: The unconscious development of ancient crops Apples or indians: Why did peoples of some regions fail to domesticate plants? Zebras, unhappy marriages, and the Anna Karenina principle: Why were most big wild mammal species never domesticated? Spacious skies and tilted axes: Why did food production spread at different rates on different continents? From food to guns, germs, and steel. Lethal gift of livestock: The evolution of germs Blueprints and borrowed letters: The evolution of technology From egalitarianism to kleptocracy: The evolution of government and religion Around the world in five chapters. The history of East Asia Speedboat to Polynesia: The history of Austronesian expansion Hemispheres colliding: The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared How Africa became black: The history of Africa The future of human history as a science Who are the Japanese? Guns, germs, and steel today.

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2: Guns, germs, and steel : the fates of human societies | Ann Arbor District Library

Even within Eurasia, much more space gets devoted to the history of west-ern Eurasia than of China, India, Japan, tropical Southeast Asia, and other eastern Eurasian societies. History before the emergence of writing around 3, B.C. also receives brief treatment, although it constitutes % of the five-million-year history of the human species.

In this Pulitzer Prize-winning book, Jared Diamond argues that both geography and the environment played major roles in determining the shape of the modern world. This argument runs counter to the usual theories that cite biology as the crucial factor. Diamond claims that the cultures that were first able to domesticate plants and animals were then able to develop writing skills, as well as make advances in the creation of government, technology, weaponry, and immunity to disease. The regionally differing courses of history -- From Eden to Cajamarca. Up to the starting line: What happened on all the continents before 11, B. How geography molded societies on Polynesian islands -- Collision at Cajamarca: Geographic differences in the onset of food production -- To farm or not to farm: Causes of the spread of food production -- How to make an almond: The unconscious development of ancient crops -- Apples or indians: Why did peoples of some regions fail to domesticate plants? Why were most big wild mammal species never domesticated? Why did food production spread at different rates on different continents? Lethal gift of livestock: The evolution of germs -- Blueprints and borrowed letters: The evolution of technology -- From egalitarianism to kleptocracy: The evolution of government and religion Around the world in five chapters. The history of East Asia -- Speedboat to Polynesia: The history of Austronesian expansion -- Hemispheres colliding: The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared -- How Africa became black: The history of Africa -- The future of human history as a science -- Who are the Japanese? Guns, germs, and steel today.

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3: Contents | Guns, Germs, and Steel | W. W. Norton & Company

Hemispheres colliding: The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared How Africa became black: The history of Africa The future of human history as a science.

Why is World History Like an Onion? The question motivating the book is: Why did history unfold differently on different continents? Most books that set out to recount world history concentrate on histories of literate Eurasian and North African societies. Native societies of other parts of the world-sub-Saharan Africa, the Americas, Island Southeast Asia, Australia, New Guinea, the Pacific Islands-receive only brief treatment, mainly as concerns what happened to them very late in their history, after they were discovered and subjugated by western Europeans. Even within Eurasia, much more space gets devoted to the history of western Eurasia than of China, India, Japan, tropical Southeast Asia, and other eastern Eurasian societies. History before the emergence of writing around 3, b. Such narrowly focused accounts of world history suffer from three disadvantages. First, increasing numbers of people today are, quite understandably, interested in other societies besides those of western Eurasia. Second, even for people specifically interested in the shaping of the modern world, a history limited to developments since the emergence of writing cannot provide deep understanding. It is not the case that societies on the different continents were comparable to each other until 3, B. Instead, already by 3, B. Throughout most or all parts of other continents, none of those things existed at that time; some but not all of them emerged later in parts of the Native Americas and sub-Saharan Africa, but only over the course of the next five millennia; and none of them emerged in Aboriginal Australia. That should already warn us that the roots of western Eurasian dominance in the modern world lie in the preliterate past before 3, B. By western Eurasian dominance, I mean the dominance of western Eurasian societies themselves and of the societies that they spawned on other continents. Third, a history focused on western Eurasian societies completely bypasses the obvious big question. Why were those societies the ones that became disproportionately powerful and innovative? The usual answers to that question invoke proximate forces, such as the rise of capitalism, mercantilism, scientific inquiry, technology, and nasty germs that killed peoples of other continents when they came into contact with western Eurasians. But why did all those ingredients of conquest arise in western Eurasia, and arise elsewhere only to a lesser degree or not at all? All those ingredients are just proximate factors, not ultimate explanations. If one responds by invoking idiosyncratic cultural factors-e. In addition, one is ignoring the fact that Confucian China was technologically more advanced than western Eurasia until about A. It is impossible to understand even just western Eurasian societies themselves, if one focuses on them. The interesting questions concern the distinctions between them and other societies. Answering those questions requires us to understand all those other societies as well, so that western Eurasian societies can be fitted into the broader context. Some readers may feel that I am going to the opposite extreme from conventional histories, by devoting too little space to western Eurasia at the expense of other parts of the world. I would answer that some other parts of the world are very instructive, because they encompass so many societies and such diverse societies within a small geographical area. Other readers may find themselves agreeing with one reviewer of this book. With mildly critical tongue in cheek, the reviewer wrote that I seem to view world history as an onion, of which the modern world constitutes only the surface, and whose layers are to be peeled back in the search for historical understanding. Yes, world history is indeed such an onion! In the 13, years since the end of the last Ice Age, some parts of the world developed literate industrial societies with metal tools, other parts developed only nonliterate farming societies, and still others retained societies of hunter-gatherers with stone tools. Those historical inequalities have cast long shadows on the modern world, because the literate societies with metal tools have conquered or exterminated the other societies. While those differences constitute the most basic fact of world history, the reasons for them remain uncertain and controversial. This puzzling question of their origins was posed to me 25 years ago in a simple, personal form. In July I was walking along a beach on the tropical island of New Guinea, where as a

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biologist I study bird evolution. I had already heard about a remarkable local politician named Yali, who was touring the district then. By chance, Yali and I were walking in the same direction on that day, and he overtook me. We walked together for an hour, talking during the whole time. Yali radiated charisma and energy. His eyes flashed in a mesmerizing way. He talked confidently about himself, but he also asked lots of probing questions and listened intently. Recognition of those factors emphasizes the unexplained residue, whose understanding will be a task for the future. The Epilogue, entitled "The Future of Human History as a Science," lays out some pieces of the residue, including the problem of the differences between different parts of Eurasia, the role of cultural factors unrelated to environment, and the role of individuals. Perhaps the biggest of these unsolved problems is to establish human history as a historical science, on a par with recognized historical sciences such as evolutionary biology, geology, and climatology. The study of human history does pose real difficulties, but those recognized historical sciences encounter some of the same challenges. Hence the methods developed in some of these other fields may also prove useful in the field of human history. Already, though, I hope to have convinced you, the reader, that history is not "just one damn fact after another," as a cynic put it. There really are broad patterns to history, and the search for their explanation is as productive as it is fascinating. Plant and animal domestication began in at least one part of the world within a few thousand years of that date. As of then, did the people of some continents already have a head start or a clear advantage over peoples of other continents? The difference between the two types of dates will be explained in Chapter 5. Calibrated dates are the ones believed to correspond more closely to actual calendar dates. Readers accustomed to uncalibrated dates will need to bear this distinction in mind whenever they find me quoting apparently erroneous dates that are older than the ones with which they are familiar. For example, the date of the Clovis archaeological horizon in North America is usually quoted as around 11,000 B.P. The spread of humans around the world. Europe stems from around half a million years ago, but there are claims of an earlier presence. One would certainly assume that the colonization of Asia also permitted the simultaneous colonization of Europe, since Eurasia is a single landmass not bisected by major barriers. That illustrates an issue that will recur throughout this book. Whenever some scientist claims to have discovered "the earliest X"-whether X is the earliest human fossil in Europe, the earliest evidence of domesticated corn in Mexico, or the earliest anything anywhere-that announcement challenges other scientists to beat the claim by finding something still earlier. It often takes decades of searching before archaeologists reach a consensus on such questions. By about half a million years ago, human fossils had diverged from older *Homo erectus* skeletons in their enlarged, rounder, and less angular skulls. African and European skulls of half a million years ago were sufficiently similar to skulls of us moderns that they are classified in our species, *Homo sapiens*, instead of in *Homo erectus*. Parentheses denote some non-Polynesian lands. With no other accessible islands to colonize, the Moriori had to remain in the Chatham Islands, and to learn how to get along with each other. They did so by renouncing war, and they reduced potential conflicts from overpopulation by castrating some male infants. The result was a small, unwarlike population with simple technology and weapons, and without strong leadership or organization. In contrast, the northern warmer part of New Zealand, by far the largest island group in Polynesia, was suitable for Polynesian agriculture. Those Maori who remained in New Zealand increased in numbers until there were more than 100,000 of them. They developed locally dense populations chronically engaged in ferocious wars with neighboring populations. With the crop surpluses that they could grow and store, they fed craft specialists, chiefs, and part-time soldiers. They needed and developed varied tools for growing their crops, fighting, and making art. They erected elaborate ceremonial buildings and prodigious numbers of forts. Complex agricultural societies gradually arose in the Americas far to the south of that entry route, developing in complete isolation from the emerging complex societies of the Old World. After that initial colonization from Asia, the sole well-attested further contacts between the New World and Asia involved only hunter-gatherers living on opposite sides of the Bering Strait, plus an inferred transpacific voyage that introduced the sweet potato from South America to Polynesia. As for contacts of New World peoples with Europe, the sole early ones involved the Norse who occupied Greenland

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in very small numbers between a. But those Norse visits had no discernible impact on Native American societies. Instead, for practical purposes the collision of advanced Old World and New World societies began abruptly in a. Pizarro, leading a ragtag group of Spanish soldiers, was in unfamiliar terrain, ignorant of the local inhabitants, completely out of touch with the nearest Spaniards 1, miles to the north in Panama and far beyond the reach of timely reinforcements. Atahualpa was in the middle of his own empire of millions of subjects and immediately surrounded by his army of 80, soldiers, recently victorious in a war with other Indians. Nevertheless, Pizarro captured Atahualpa within a few minutes after the two leaders first set eyes on each other. After the ransom-enough gold to fill a room 22 feet long by 17 feet wide to a height of over 8 feet-was delivered, Pizarro reneged on his promise and executed Atahualpa. Atahualpa was revered by the Incas as a sun-god and exercised absolute authority over his subjects, who obeyed even the orders he issued from captivity. The months until his death gave Pizarro time to dispatch exploring parties unmolested to other parts of the Inca Empire, and to send for reinforcements from Panama. What unfolded that day at Cajamarca is well known, because it was recorded in writing by many of the Spanish participants. Long before anyone began manufacturing guns and steel, others of those same factors had led to the expansions of some non-European peoples, as we shall see in later chapters. But we are still left with the fundamental question why all those immediate advantages came to lie more with Europe than with the New World. Those are no longer the questions of proximate causation that this chapter has been discussing, but questions of ultimate causation that will take up the next two parts of this book. Born in Switzerland, Fred had come to southwestern Montana as a teenager in the s and proceeded to develop one of the first farms in the area. At the time of his arrival, much of the original Native American population of hunter-gatherers was still living there. Among the farmhands, though, was a member of the Blackfoot Indian tribe named Levi, who behaved very differently from the coarse miners-being polite, gentle, responsible, sober, and well spoken. He was the first Indian with whom I had spent much time, and I came to admire him. It was therefore a shocking disappointment to me when, one Sunday morning, Levi too staggered in drunk and cursing after a Saturday-night binge. Among his curses, one has stood out in my memory: Infectious diseases like smallpox, measles, and flu arose as specialized germs of humans, derived by mutations of very similar ancestral germs that had infected animals Chapter The humans who domesticated animals were the first to fall victim to the newly evolved germs, but those humans then evolved substantial resistance to the new diseases. When such partly immune people came into contact with others who had had no previous exposure to the germs, epidemics resulted in which up to 99 percent of the previously unexposed population was killed. Germs thus acquired ultimately from domestic animals played decisive roles in the European conquests of Native Americans, Australians, South Africans, and Pacific islanders. In short, plant and animal domestication meant much more food and hence much denser human populations. The resulting food surpluses, and in some areas the animal-based means of transporting those surpluses, were a prerequisite for the development of settled, politically centralized, socially stratified, economically complex, technologically innovative societies.

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Chapter 18 "Hemispheres Colliding" Summary and Analysis. The biggest difference between the histories of Old World Europe and the New World Americas was the domestication of large mammal species, as discussed in previous chapters.

Conclusion The Turning Point: Historians have traditionally agreed with Smith that these were two of the most important turning points in world history. They go a long way in explaining the gradual ascent of a wealthy, powerful, and imperial Europe. These events led to the emergence of the first-ever completely global market, one that fierce international rivals sought to dominate. Europe eventually found itself at the center of the global economic network, commanding large empires. The most important motive for early European exploration across the Atlantic was the dream of enormous riches. Initially, explorers and merchants hoped to find a sea route across the Atlantic to the thriving markets of Asia. But Columbus and his fellow Europeans greatly miscalculated the circumference of the earth. Instead, they found a whole new world to explore and exploit: North and South America. The risks were high when Spaniards and Portuguese first sailed across uncharted oceans. Many died from disease, exposure, starvation, and shipwrecks. But the potential material rewards could be glorious. Upon arriving in the Americas, the Spanish and Portuguese sought precious metals or land that could be worked for profit, usually by slave labor. For example, Columbus and the Spanish settlers that followed him to the island of Hispaniola today the Dominican Republic and Haiti divided the land amongst themselves and virtually enslaved the indigenous Taino. Likewise, in , the Spanish conqueror Hernan Cortez landed in Mexico seeking the rumored gold of the Aztecs. The emperor Moctezuma welcomed the Spaniards, but Cortez kidnapped the emperor and demanded treasure. Once Aztec nobles delivered the ransom, the treacherous Cortez killed Moctezuma and set about conquering central Mexico. Cortez repeated the pattern many conquerors followed, setting up a new nobility of Spaniards to rule over the indigenous people by exploiting their land and commanding their labor. He landed in Incan territory in in search of treasure. He too kidnapped the emperor Atahualpa , demanded gold ransom, then murdered the emperor and conquered an empire. Clearly, the unifying motive of the conqueror here was plundered treasure. The Spanish set up colonial systems that allowed them to exploit and control the people and the land of the Americas for centuries. There are many reasons why Europeans succeeded in conquering diverse nations and empires of the Americas. First, the Spaniards and Portuguese employed cutting-edge sailing and navigational technology to reach, explore, and shuttle back and forth from the Americas. Cortez benefited from several other Eurasian technological advantages when his small band of six hundred Spaniards defeated the enormous Aztec empire. Conquistadores used steel swords and armor against the wooden clubs and cotton armor of the Aztecs. The original Americans had no answer for cannons and other firearms, such as arquebuses. Also, the Aztecs had never seen or used horses, and they found them terrifying to face in battle. Furthermore, Europeans benefitted from living in literate cultures that could easily record and pass down detailed knowledge about navigation, technology, and conquest. But, most importantly, Europeans brought with them deadly diseases that devastated the Aztec and the Inca, and indeed all the native people in North and South America. Massive demographic catastrophe occurred wherever Europeans made contact with indigenous Americans. The pattern was set with the Taino, whom Columbus met on his first voyage to the island of Hispaniola. The original Taino population of about , in shrank in just 20 years to under 60, Getz It was common to see a drop of 90 percent or more in native populations. One hundred years after the conquest of Mexico, the indigenous population had decreased from twenty-five million to one million In Peru, the Inca met a similar fate. This pandemic severely depopulated or wiped out all natives of the Americas. Why were European diseases so lethal to the Americans? To answer this question, we have to go back in time, before recorded history. The Eurasian continent included many large domesticable animalsâ€”such as horses, cows, oxen, sheep, and goatsâ€”that did not exist in the Americas. Over the course of thousands of years, Eurasians domesticated

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these animals and lived in close quarters with them. The animals were a great benefit but also transmitted all kinds of terrible diseases to the farmers. Both Europe and Asia suffered many plagues that devastated their populations, such as the Black Plague during the 14th century, which killed 25 to 33 percent of people across Eurasia, from China to France. But descendants of plague survivors possessed antibodies that inoculated them from such devastating scourges in the future. The Americas, by contrast, lacked large domesticable animals and concomitant diseases. As a result, the devastating diseases went in only one direction, from Eurasia to the Americas. Europeans won the better of the exchange. While native populations decreased ninety percent, Europeans took gold, silver, and nutritional new to them foods, such as potatoes, tomatoes, chiles, squash, vanilla, turkey, corn, and cacao to make chocolate. Indigenous Americans received, in return, European diseases—smallpox, measles, influenza, bubonic plagues, cholera, chicken pox, whooping cough, diphtheria, and tropical malaria. It took the Spanish only a few years to find and plunder the two wealthiest empires in the Americas. Huge silver mines found in Mexico and Peru in the mid-16th century meant that Spain instantly became the largest supplier of silver in the world. In the first years following conquest, the Spanish exported 32 million pounds of silver and 1,000,000 pounds of gold. Spain spent much of this wealth in costly wars in a failed attempt to rule Europe. The depopulation of large regions of the Americas also led Europeans to search for cheap labor. Perhaps the most important consequence of the Columbian Exchange was the forced migration and enslavement of millions of people. While the Spanish conquered Mexico and Peru, the Portuguese subjugated Brazil and, as a result, led the way in trafficking enslaved people to the Americas. They started in in western Africa. Wherever the sugarcane crop dominated, so too did plantations with enslaved labor. Unlike Mexico or Peru, the Portuguese colony of Brazil lacked precious metals near the coast. So the Portuguese developed sugar plantations outfitted with enslaved Africans. The Portuguese took sugarcane grass from its native homeland in South and East Asia, transplanted it to Brazil, and then sold the sugar to Europe and colonial North America. The first truly global trade was also the most nefarious. It set the precedent of using African slaves to create cash crops to be sold abroad in a global market. Eighty percent of the 11 million enslaved Africans who came to the Americas went to sugar plantation regions of Brazil and the Caribbean. The slave trade certainly had enormous political, economic, and social implications in western and central Africa. Europeans could not conquer African nations because many were powerful and because various diseases, such as malaria and yellow fever, made it extremely dangerous for Europeans to enter into the interior of the continent. Along the coasts the Portuguese followed by the Spanish and English traded firearms, tobacco, cotton, Indian cloth, iron bars, and liquor for enslaved people. It is estimated that central and west Africans acquired over 20 million guns from Europeans during the slave trade, mostly between 1500 and 1800. This global trade shattered the stability, wealth, and human capital of African nations. On the brutal Middle Passage alone, 1 to 1. If they decided not to make the trade, their neighbors could grow more powerful by amassing the powerful European war technology. The terrible trade led to internal African wars and destruction. In many regions of western and central Africa, the traumatic loss of so many men had long-term negative consequences for individuals, families, communities, and nations. Connected to all major continents on the planet, the slave trade was a key aspect of the first fully global trade. The sugar and slave trade became known as the triangular trade because the English colonies in North America were also involved. The Portuguese sold Brazilian sugar to New Englanders who turned the sugar into rum and sailed across the Atlantic to trade the liquor for enslaved Africans. Africa, Brazil, and the English colonies in America who also produced tobacco completed the points of the triangle. By 1700, the consumption of sugar in England had increased 2,000 percent from 1500. So, the first truly global trade flourished on addictive substances—alcohol, caffeine, tobacco, and sugar. This new global system, with the conquest of the Americas at its core, gradually and greatly enriched the new European imperial powers—especially, early on, the Spanish and the Portuguese, and then later the English and the French. From an economic rather than a moral perspective, Europeans had stumbled onto a package of unstoppable global free-market advantages: Although they were latecomers to the Americas, the British stepped into the global trade network and exploited the vast market,

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first through piracy, then trade, and finally by selling manufactured goods, such as textiles. While the Spanish wasted much of their newfound wealth on wars in Europe, the incipient British banking system helped finance new businesses and stimulate older ones, in industries such as textiles and shipbuilding. The conquest and settlement of the Americas is the key starting point for understanding the rise of European economic and imperial power. Throughout the early modern era, Europeans struggled to compete with Asian manufactured products in a free market. The rest of the world found cheap Chinese silk and Indian cotton too irresistible and inexpensive. When free-market competition failed them, European governments simply barred Asian products. Great Britain banned the import of Indian cloth and Chinese silk in 1700, and France did the same 10 years later. In France, it became illegal to even wear Asian cloth, much less buy it. Then European industries simply replaced Asian products—cotton, silk, sugar, indigo, pearls, and, later, coffee—with cheaper substitutions from the Americas. This policy, what economists call import substitution, worked wonders. As late as 1800, Asia still produced eighty percent of goods traded in the world. But the newfound or new-stolen? Now, we can return to the wisdom of the famous free-market economist Adam Smith. Writing in 1776, he argued that it was the Americas that accounted for the new wealth of early modern Europe: Smith also understood how the Americas allowed Europeans to gradually dominate Asia.

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5: Diamond, Jared=Guns, Germs, and Steel= (Fort/Da) || www.enganchecubano.com

The roots of guns, germs, and steel 8 5. CHAPTER IS HEMISPHERES COLLIDING The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared 3 5 4.

This answers the first two questions. Europe was able to conquer America. The reason why the Europeans conquered the natives of the Americas can be summed up in a passage from p. Europe was able to conquer America rather than having the Americas conquer Europe because the Europeans had all of these major advantages. The important question, then, is your third question. Why did the Europeans come to have these advantages? The answer to why the Europeans had all these advantages is the main point that Diamond is trying to make in this entire book. In this book, Diamond argues that the Europeans had their advantages because of geographic luck. They did not have advantages due to them having a superior culture, superior racial characteristics, or any other such factor. Their advantages stemmed solely from their geographic luck. So what kind of geographic luck did the Europeans have? First, they lived on a land mass that had a large number of species of plants and animals that could be domesticated. Because there were places on the Eurasian land mass with many domesticable plants and animals, agriculture was able to start there before it could start in the Americas where fewer plants and animals could be domesticated. Because Eurasia had a long east-west axis and no major physical barriers, agriculture could diffuse from one part of Eurasia to another. In the Americas, the long north-south axis and the barriers such as deserts, jungles, and mountains, made it hard for agriculture to diffuse from place to place even if it did get started somewhere. These advantages meant that Europeans started to have food production agriculture sooner than Americans. This is very important because having agriculture allows a society to have other aspects of civilization. Agriculture allows them to have more technology including writing because it allows them to live in large numbers in one place permanently. This means that people can specialize in things like the creation of technology. It allows them to have more elaborate political organizations because those organizations are needed to control the large populations. It causes them to have infectious diseases because these diseases come to humans from their domesticated animals. All of these things technology, which includes weapons and writing, germs, and political organization allowed the Europeans to be able to conquer America instead of the other way around. In short, geographic luck let Europe have agriculture earlier than the Americas. This made Europe more technologically advanced and allowed it to conquer America.

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6: Eurasia - Wikipedia

"Fascinating. Lays a foundation for understanding human history."â€”Bill Gates. In this "artful, informative, and delightful" (William H. McNeill, New York Review of Books) book, Jared Diamond convincingly argues that geographical and environmental factors shaped the modern world.

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The roots of guns, germs, and steel: CHAPTER 5: HISTORY'S HAVES AND HAVE-NOTS: HEMISPHERES COLLIDING: The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared.

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8: The Turning Point: European Conquests of the Americas ()

After reading the chapter "Hemispheres Colliding," in Guns, Germs, and Steel by Jared Diamond, you should address the following issues. Why was Europe successful in conquering the Americas? Why.

9: Afro-Eurasia - Wikipedia

Yali's people: The histories of Australia and New Guinea --How China became Chinese: The history of East Asia --Speedboat to Polynesia: The history of Austronesian expansion --Hemispheres colliding: The histories of Eurasia and the Americas compared --How Africa became black: The history of Africa --The future of human history as a science.

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