Trade Goods, and Ideas, Travel the Silk Roads Between Asia and Europe

By Craig Benjamin, Big History Project, adapted by Newsela staff on 06.28.16
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Beginning with early agrarian civilizations, societies started to connect into large networks of exchange. Today, such networks have led to levels of collective learning never seen before in human history.

Making connections

Agrarian civilizations did not exist entirely off on their own. As they grew and stretched their boundaries, they joined up with other civilizations. Together they formed larger civilizations. The linking up of different civilizations was an important process. It guaranteed that collective learning reached further and embraced more people and greater diversity than ever before.

Significant exchanges of trade and ideas occurred in the Americas, in Australasia, and in the Pacific. But, by far, the most important exchange networks emerged in Afro-Eurasia. At this time, the four zones were still isolated from each other. Humans living in one zone knew nothing of events in the others.
In Afro-Eurasia, all agrarian civilizations were linked together into a vast interconnected network called the Silk Roads. The roads linked people by land around the beginning of the Common Era. This network was not just about the trade of goods. Travelers on the road were also spreading social, religious, and philosophical ideas. They learned each other's languages, and exchanged technology. Unfortunately, diseases were also spread. The Silk Roads were the most important exchange system that existed anywhere during the Common Era. Yet, significant smaller connections developed much earlier between many of the agrarian civilizations.

Not all these connections were based on trade. Warfare is common to all agrarian civilizations. So conflict is a powerful way of connecting civilizations. It was through warfare that the Romans eventually connected most of the peoples of Afro-Eurasia. Centuries later, Muslim armies constructed a vast Islamic realm. Its domain stretched from Europe to the borders of the Tang dynasty's empire, deep in Central Asia. Although these military relationships were important in establishing connections, the most influential connections of the era were built through trade.

Trade was important from the very beginning. As early as 2300 BCE, civilizations in Mesopotamia, Egypt, and the Indus Valley bought and sold with one another. The Silk Roads enabled these early exchanges to expand dramatically, leading to even more significant changes in human history. Collective learning began to snowball.

**The first Silk Roads era (50 BCE–250 CE)**

The first major period of Silk Roads trade occurred between about 50 BCE and 250 CE. These first exchanges took place between the Chinese, Indian, Kushan, Iranian, steppe-nomadic, and Mediterranean cultures. A second significant Silk Roads era ran from about 700 to 1200. It connected China, India, Southeast Asia, the Islamic realm, and the
Mediterranean. The second era saw a vast web based on busy land and sea trade. The primary function of the Silk Roads during both periods was to enable trade. But, intellectual, social, and artistic ideas were also exchanged. Historians believe that the exchange of ideas had the greatest significance for world history.

Large-scale exchanges became possible only after the small early agrarian civilizations joined into huge empires. By the time of the first Silk Roads era, just four ruling dynasties controlled much of the Eurasian landmass. These were the powerful Roman, Parthian, Kushan, and Han empires. They controlled a landmass from the China Sea to the Atlantic Ocean. They imposed order and stability over a vast land. Great road networks were constructed and advances were made in metallurgy and transport technology. Agricultural production was intensified, and coinage appeared for the first time. By 50 BCE, conditions in Afro-Eurasia were much different than they had been before the consolidation of empires.

Pastoral nomads formed communities. They moved from place to place and lived primarily from their domesticated animals like cattle, sheep, camels, or horses. They also played an important role in the exchanges along the Silk Road. Toward the end of the first millennium BCE, large pastoral nomadic communities appeared. The Scythians, the Xiongnu, and the Yuezhi were the most powerful of the nomads. The ability of pastoral nomads to thrive in the harsh interior of Inner Asia helped to link all the different civilizations. Travelers depended on these nomads when they crossed the dangerous Silk Roads.

The Han Chinese empire really began the Silk Road trade. The Han decided in the first century BCE to interact with their European neighbors. Up to this point, trade had been small and conducted regionally. Now it became a great exchange network stretching across Afro-Eurasia. This occurred around the same time that Augustus came to power in Rome. His rise to become emperor ended a century of civil war in the Roman Empire. A relatively peaceful era ensued. Trade increased and the demand for foreign luxury goods in Rome exploded. The desire for rich goods, like silk, led to a huge expansion of trade. Land-based trade routes connected the Mediterranean with East Asia. Shipping routes connected Roman Egypt to India by water.

The Chinese export Romans desired most was silk. Wealthy women coveted the elegant, sensual material. The Chinese carefully protected the secret of silk. Guards at Chinese borders searched traders as they left the country. They wanted to make sure they did not carry live silkworms back to Europe. The Romans also prized Han iron for its exceptional hardness. From Arabia and India, the Romans purchased spices such as nutmeg, cloves, cardamom, and pepper. Going in the opposite direction, the Chinese imported goods from Central Asia, India, and the Mediterranean region. They especially wanted agricultural products (such as grapes), glassware, art, and horses.

The Silk Roads land routes started from China's capital at the time, Chang’an. They stretched west through Central Asia and on to the Mediterranean. The animal that made Silk Roads trade possible was the Bactrian camel. This two-humped camel was incredibly
well adapted to its environment. The humps on its back contain high quantities of fat to sustain it for long distances. It has long eyelashes and nostrils that seal shut to guard against dust in the frequent sandstorms of the region. The two broad toes on its feet have undivided soles. They evolved to “web” together from walking on sand for ages. The bulk of overland Silk Roads trade was literally carried on the backs of these extraordinary animals.

A lot of Silk Roads trade also took place by sea. The main route was between Roman-controlled Egypt and the west coast of India. Sailors had discovered the “trade winds,” which blow reliably from the southwest in the summer. The strong winds allowed ships carrying heavy cargo to sail across the Indian Ocean from Africa to India. The winds reverse direction in the winter. When that happens, the same ships could bring new cargo on their journey back to Egypt.

Whether by land or by sea, however, few traders ever traveled the entire length of the Silk Roads. Typically, merchants from both ends of the road took their goods as far as Central Asia. At that point, they would pass them on to a series of middlemen, like the Kushans, the Sogdians, and the Parthians.

During the third century CE, the Silk Roads fell out of use. Both the Chinese and Roman empires withdrew from the network. Silk Roads trade was at least partly responsible for this. Trade routes helped spread disastrous diseases. Smallpox, measles, and bubonic plagues devastated the populations at either end of the routes. Europeans had little resistance to diseases brought from Asia, and vice versa. As a result, the population of the Roman Empire fell from perhaps 60 million to 40 million by 400 CE. China’s population may have dropped from 60 million to 45 million by 600 CE.
These huge losses of life happened just as other civilizations were declining. The Parthian, Han, and Kushan empires all disintegrated between 220 and 250. The Roman Empire experienced crisis after crisis beginning in the early third century. The decline of these powerful civilizations meant that the political situation in many parts of Afro-Eurasia was no longer favorable to large-scale trade. But then came the establishment of the Islamic realm in the eighth and ninth centuries. At the same time, the Tang dynasty in China emerged. A revival of Silk Roads exchanges along both land and sea routes commenced.
The second Silk Roads era (700–1200)

Both the Tang dynasty (618–907), and the Song dynasty (960–1279) which followed, oversaw a vibrant economy in China. Agriculture and manufacturing were becoming specialized. The Chinese population was growing and cities were springing up. Innovations in technology encouraged high levels of trade. Printed paper money came into use. Its introduction enabled commerce on a grand scale. At the same time, Arab merchants were benefiting from the prosperous Abbasid administration in Baghdad (750–1228). They began to trade with their Chinese counterparts. Arab and Chinese trade led to a revival of the Silk Roads.

The goods exchanged across Afro-Eurasia during the second Silk Roads era were impressive. Ceramics, textiles, foods, spices, and art were traded along the route. But just as with the first era, religious exchanges were perhaps of even greater significance to world history. Even before the Tang came to power, many foreign religions had made their way into East Asia. Christianity, and the Iranian religions, Manichaeism and Zoroastrianism, already existed there. Islam was born in the seventh century. In the centuries that followed, substantial Muslim merchant communities were established. Mosques even began to appear in many Chinese cities. But of all the foreign belief systems that reached China, Buddhism made the most substantial inroads.

Exchange shapes culture

The Silk Roads are the supreme example of the interconnectedness of civilizations during the Era of Agrarian Civilizations. Through some of the harshest geography on Earth, merchants and adventurers carried goods and ideas. Diplomats and missionaries brought their political ideas and religious beliefs. Each type of exchange was important. Because of this ancient interaction, Afro-Eurasia has preserved a certain unity. To this day, the zone shares common technologies, artistic styles, cultures, and religions. Even diseases and immunity to diseases are shared.

Other world zones also had their own early exchange networks. None, however, were on the scale of the Silk Roads. American trade networks happened over long distances. They crossed different kinds of geographic regions. They ran from the Andes mountains in South America through Mesoamerica and up into North America. But American networks were much smaller than the Silk Roads. The jungles near the equator probably prevented the level of connectedness that existed in Afro-Eurasia.

Because of the Silk Roads, Afro-Eurasia had a larger population that was much more linked through trade and exchange than the other three world zones were. The roads also helped new technologies develop faster in Afro-Eurasia. The different zones finally collided after 1492, when Europeans sailed to the Americas. The technologically advanced
societies of Afro-Eurasia quickly dominated the rest of the world. And that, in turn, explains why the modern revolution that followed was led by Afro-Eurasian peoples, not those from the Americas.
Quiz

1. Which of the following options describes a direct effect of the Silk Roads?
   
   (A) the introduction of currency
   
   (B) the forming of larger civilizations
   
   (C) increased warfare between civilizations due to trade conflicts
   
   (D) increased understanding among different cultures

2. Read the section "The second Silk Roads era (700–1200)." Which of the following factors MOST contributed to the revival of the Silk Roads?
   
   (A) shared philosophies
   
   (B) expanding economies
   
   (C) demand for exotic goods
   
   (D) developing religious beliefs

3. How does the introduction [paragraph 1] contribute to the article?
   
   (A) It details the key points made in the article.
   
   (B) It provides a brief summary of the article's main idea.
   
   (C) It gives information about the article's historical context.
   
   (D) It emphasizes the importance of the claims made in the article.

4. Overall, which two of the following are the main structures of the article?
   
   1. cause and effect
   
   2. chronological order
   
   3. problem and solution
   
   4. compare and contrast
   
   (A) 1 and 2
   
   (B) 2 and 3
   
   (C) 1 and 4
   
   (D) 2 and 4
Answer Key

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