

# Sapiens: A Brief History of Humankind

## Memory Overload

EVOLUTION DID NOT ENDOW HUMANS with the ability to play pick-up basketball. True, it produced legs for running, hands for dribbling, shoulders for fouling, but all that this enables us to do is shoot hoops by ourselves. To get into a game with the strangers we find in the snow on any given afternoon, we not only have to work in concert with four teammates we may never have met before—we also need to know the rules of the game. The same applies, on a larger scale, to kingdoms, churches, and trade networks, with one important difference. The rules of basketball are relatively simple and concise, much like those necessary for cooperation in a forager band or small village. Each player can easily store the rules in his head and still have room for songs, images, and shopping lists. But large systems of cooperation that involve not ten but thousands or even millions of humans require the handling and storage of huge amounts of information, much more than any single human brain can contain and process.

The large societies found in some other species, such as ants and bees, are stable and resilient because most of the information necessary to sustain them is encoded in the genome. A female honeybee larva can, for example, grow up to be either a queen or a worker, depending on what she is fed. Its DNA programmes the necessary behaviours for whatever *task* it will fulfil. Humans can be very complex social structures, containing many different kinds of workers, such as harvesters, nurses and cleaners. But so far researchers have failed to locate a lawyer gene in any species, because there is no danger that they might forget or violate the hive constitution. The queen does not cheat the cleaners of their food, and they never go on strike demanding higher wages.

But humans do such things all the time. Because the Sapiens social order is imagined, humans cannot preserve the critical information running it simply by making copies of their DNA and passing these on to their progeny. A conscious effort has to be made to sustain law, procedures and manners, otherwise the social order would quickly collapse. For example, King Hammurabi decreed that people are divided into superiors, commoners and slaves. Unlike the beehive class system, this is not a natural division – there is no trace of it in the human genome. Babylonians could not keep this 'truth' in mind, their society would have ceased to function. Similarly, when Hammurabi passed his DNA on to his offspring, it did not encode his ruling that a superior man who killed a commoner woman must pay thirty silver shekels. Hammurabi had to instruct his sons in the laws of his empire, and his sons and grandsons had to do the same.

Empires generate huge amounts of information. Beyond laws, empires have to keep accounts of transactions and taxes, inventories of supplies and merchant vessels, and calendars of festivals and victories. For millions of years people stored information in a single place – their brains. Unfortunately, the human brain is not a good storage device for empire-sized databases, for three main reasons.

First, its capacity is limited. True, some people have astonishing memories, and in ancient times there were memory professionals who could store in their heads the topographies of whole provinces and the law codes of entire states. Nevertheless, there is a limit that even master mnemonists cannot transcend. A lawyer might know by heart the entire law code of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, but not the details of every legal proceeding that took place in Massachusetts from the Salem witch trials onward.

Secondly, humans die, and their brains die with them. Any information stored in a brain will be erased in less than a century. It is, of course, possible to pass memories from one brain to another, but after a few transmissions, the information tends to get garbled or lost.

Thirdly and most importantly, the human brain has been adapted to store and process only particular types of information. In order to coordinate the activities of a group of hunter-gatherers had to remember the shapes, qualities and behaviour patterns of thousands of plant and animal species. They remember that a wrinkled yellow mushroom growing in autumn under an elm tree is most probably poisonous, whereas a similar-looking mushroom growing in winter under an oak tree is a good stomach-ache remedy. Hunter-gatherers also had to bear in mind the opinions and relations of several dozen band members. If Lucy needed a band member's help to get John to stop harassing her, it was important for her to remember that John had fallen out last week with Mary, who would thus be a likely and enthusiastic ally. Consequently, evolutionary pressure has adapted the human brain to store immense quantities of botanical, zoological, topographical and social information.

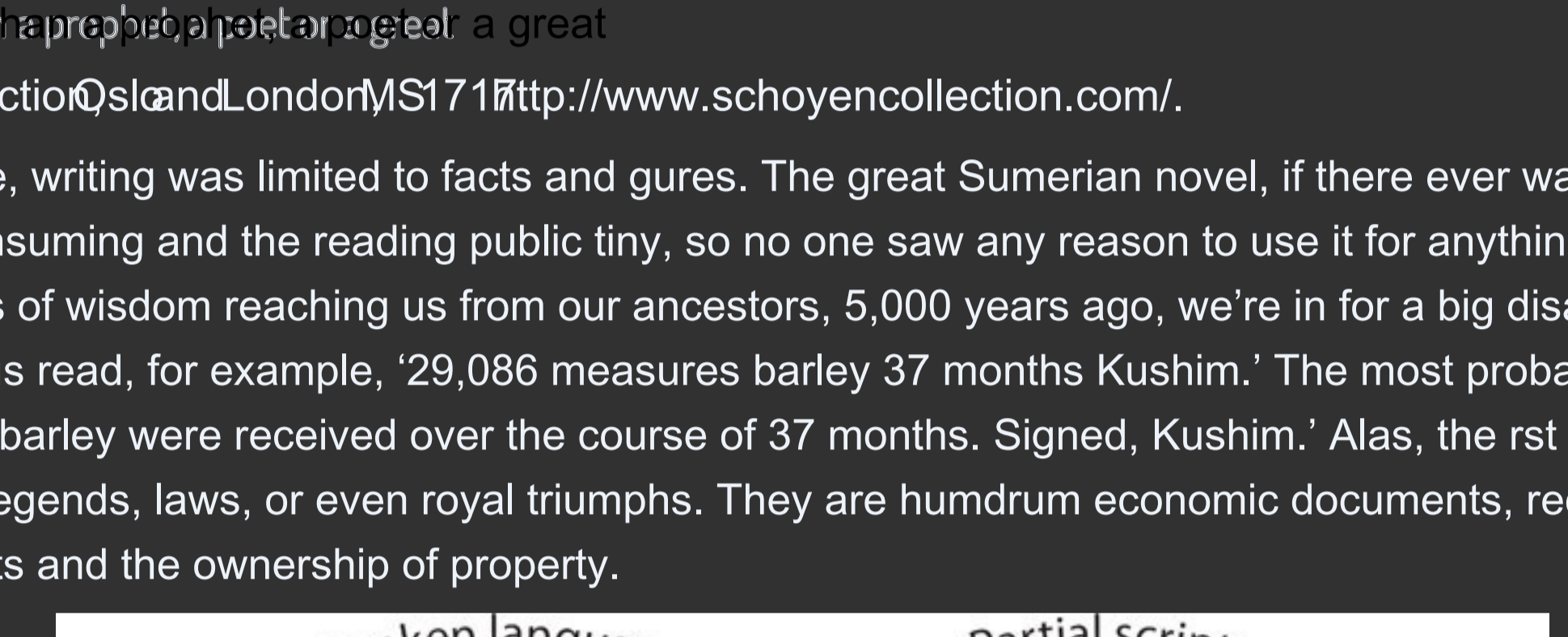
But when particularly complex societies began to appear in the wake of the Agricultural Revolution, a completely new type of information became vital – numbers. Foragers were never obliged to handle large amounts of mathematical data. No forager needed to remember the number of fruit on each tree in the forest. So human brains did not adapt to storing and processing numbers. Yet in order to maintain a large kingdom, mathematical data was vital. It was never enough to legislate laws and tell stories about guardian gods. One also had to collect taxes, order to tax hundreds of thousands of people, it was imperative to collect data about people's incomes and possessions; data about pay made; data about arrears, debts and nes; data about discounts and exemptions. This added up to millions of data bits, which had to be stored in the mind. Without this capacity, the state would never know what resources it had and what further resources it could tap. When confronted to memorise, recall and handle all these numbers, most human brains overdosed or fell asleep.

This mental limitation severely constrained the size and complexity of human collectives. When the amount of people and property in a society crossed a critical threshold, it became necessary to store and process large amounts of mathematical data. Since the human brain cannot do it, the system collapsed. For thousands of years after the Agricultural Revolution, human social networks remained relatively small and local.

The first to overcome the problem were the ancient Sumerians, who lived in southern Mesopotamia. There, a scorching sun beating up muddy plains produced plentiful harvests and prosperous towns. As the number of inhabitants grew, so did the amount of information required to coordinate their affairs. Between the years 3500 BC and 3000 some unknown Sumerian geniuses invented a system for storing and processing information outside their brains, one that was custom-built to handle large amounts of mathematical data. The Sumerians thereby released their social order from the limitations of the human brain, opening the way for the appearance of cities, kingdoms and empires. The data-processing system invented by the Sumerians is called 'writing'.

Signed, Kushim

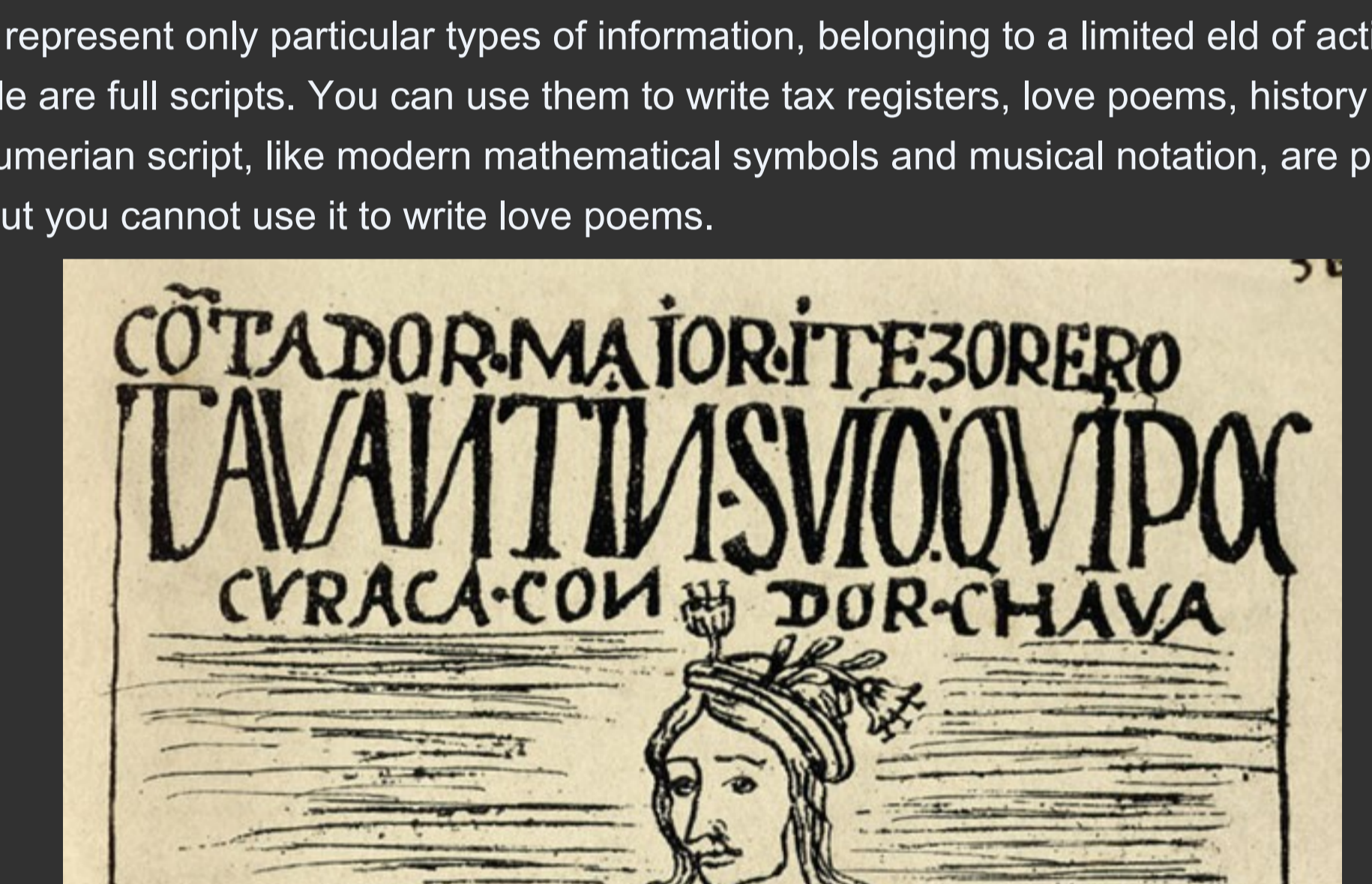
Writing is a method for storing information through material signs. The Sumerian writing system did so by combining two types of signs, pictographs and cuneiform. The first type of signs represented numbers. There were signs for 1, 10, 60, 600, 3,600 and 36,000. (The Sumerians combined base-6 and base-10 numeral systems. Their base-6 system bestowed on us several important legacies, such as the division of the day into twenty-four hours and of the circle into 360 degrees.) The other type of signs represented people, animals, merchandise, territory and so forth. By combining both types of signs the Sumerians were able to preserve far more data than any human brain could remember. The DNA chain could encode.



This is a clay tablet with a grid of numbers and pictographs, including a sign for 'Barley' and 'Kushim'. The text on the tablet reads: '29,086' (represented by a grid of 29 rows and 86 columns of dots), '37 months', and 'Kushim'. The tablet is inscribed with the Sumerian word for 'signed'.

At this early stage, writing was limited to facts and gueses. The great Sumerian novel, if there ever was one, was never recorded to exist. Writing was time-consuming and the reading public tiny, so no one saw any reason to use it for anything other than essential record-keeping. The earliest Sumerian text we know of is a list of taxes paid to the king. It lists the number of measures of barley and other goods, and the names of the tax-payers. The earliest Sumerian text we know of is a list of taxes paid to the king. It lists the number of measures of barley and other goods, and the names of the tax-payers. The earliest Sumerian text we know of is a list of taxes paid to the king. It lists the number of measures of barley and other goods, and the names of the tax-payers.

Only one other type of text survived from these ancient days, and it is even less exciting: lists of words, copied over and over again by scribes as training exercises. Even had a bored student wanted to write out some of his poems instead of copy a bill of sale, he could not do so. The earliest Sumerian writing was a partial rather than a full script. Full script is a system of material signs that can represent spoken words more or less completely. It can therefore express everything people can say, including poetry. Partial script, on the other hand, is a system of material signs that can represent only particular types of information, belonging to a limited field of activity. Latin script, ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics and Braille are full scripts. You can use them to write tax registers, love poems, history books, food recipes and business letters. In contrast, the earliest Sumerian script, like modern mathematical symbols and musical notation, are partial scripts. You can use mathematics to make calculations, but you cannot use it to write love poems.



Partial script cannot express the entire repertoire of a spoken language, but it can express things that fall outside the scope of spoken language. Spoken language is a system of material signs that can represent only particular types of information, belonging to a limited field of activity. Latin script, ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics and Braille are full scripts. You can use them to write tax registers, love poems, history books, food recipes and business letters. In contrast, the earliest Sumerian script, like modern mathematical symbols and musical notation, are partial scripts. You can use mathematics to make calculations, but you cannot use it to write love poems.

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It didn't disturb the Sumerians that their script was ill-suited for writing poetry. They didn't invent it in order to copy spoken language, but to do things that spoken language failed at. There were some cultures, such as those of the pre-Columbian Andes, which used only partial scripts throughout their entire histories, unfazed by their scripts' limitations and feeling no need for a full version. Andean script was very different from Sumerian counterpart. In fact, it was so different that many people would argue it wasn't a script at all. It was not written on clay tablets or paper. Rather, it was written by tying knots on colourful cords called quipus. Each quipu consisted of many cords of different colours, made of cotton. On each cord, several knots were tied in different places. A single quipu could contain hundreds of cords and thousands of knots combining different knots on different cords with different colours, it was possible to record large amounts of mathematical data relating to tax collection and property.

For hundreds, perhaps thousands of years, quipus were essential to the business of cities, kingdoms and empires. They reached their full potential in the Inca Empire, which ruled 10–12 million people and covered today's Peru, Ecuador and Bolivia, as well as chunks of Chile, Argentina and Colombia. Thanks to quipus, the Incas could save and process large amounts of data, without which they would not have been able to maintain the enormous bureaucratic machinery that an empire of that size requires.

In fact, quipus were so effective and accurate that in the early years following the Spanish conquest of South America, the Spaniards employed quipus in the work of administering their new empire. The problem was that the Spaniards did not themselves know how to read quipus, making them dependent on local professionals. The continent's new rulers realised that this placed them in a tenuous position. Native quipu experts could easily mislead and cheat their overlords. So once Spain's dominion was more firmly established, quipus were abandoned and the new empire's records were kept entirely in Latin script and numerals. Very few quipus survived the Spanish occupation, and most remaining are undecipherable, since, unfortunately, the art of reading quipus has been lost.

## The Wonders of Bureaucracy

The Mesopotamians eventually started to want to write down things other than monotonous mathematical data. Between 3000 BC and 2500 BC more and more signs were added to the Sumerian system, gradually transforming it into a full script that we today call cuneiform. By 2500 BC more were using cuneiform to issue decrees, priests were using it to record oracles, and less educated citizens were using it to write personal letters. Roughly the same time, Egyptians developed another full script known as hieroglyphics. Other full scripts were developed in China around 1500 BC and in Central America around 1000–500 BC.

From these initial efforts, full scripts spread far and wide, taking on various new forms and novel tasks. People began to write poetry, romances, dramas, prophecies and cookbooks. Yet writing's most important task continued to be the storage of reams of mathematical data and that task remained the prerogative of partial script. The Hebrew Bible, the Greek the Hindu Mahabharata and the Buddhist Tripitaka are oral works. For many generations they were transmitted orally and would have lived on even had writing never been invented. But tax registers, complex bureaucracies were born together with partial script, and the two remain inexorably linked to this day like Siamese twins – think cryptic entries in computerised data bases and spreadsheets.

As more and more things were written, and particularly as administrative archives grew to huge proportions, new problems appeared that could not be solved by memory alone. It became necessary to store information in a way that was accessible to many people at once. This led to the invention of the alphabet, which allowed for the storage of vast amounts of information in a compact and easily accessible form. The alphabet was a major breakthrough in the history of writing, as it allowed for the storage of vast amounts of information in a compact and easily accessible form. The alphabet was a major breakthrough in the history of writing, as it allowed for the storage of vast amounts of information in a compact and easily accessible form.

How, though, do you store and retrieve information stored on quipu cords or clay tablets? If you have just ten tablets or a hundred tablets, it's not a problem. But what if you have accumulated thousands of them, as did one of Hammurabi's contemporaries, King Zimrilim of Mari?

Imagine for a moment that it's 1776 BC. Two Marians are quarrelling over possession of a wheat field. Jacob insists that he bought the field thirty years ago. Esau retorts that he in fact rented the field to Jacob for a term of thirty years, and that now, the term being up, he intends to reclaim it. They shout and wrangle and start pushing one another before they realise that they can resolve their dispute by going to the archive, where are housed the deeds and bills of sale that apply to all the kingdom's real estate. Upon arriving at the archive they are shown one official to the other. They wait through several herbal tea breaks, are told to come back tomorrow, and eventually are taken by a grumpy clerk to look for the relevant clay tablet. The clerk opens a door and leads them into a huge room lined, oor to ceiling, with thousands of shelves of tablets. No wonder the clerk is sour-faced. How is he supposed to locate the deed to the disputed wheat field written thirty years ago? Even if he finds it, how will he be able to cross-check to ensure that the one from thirty years ago is the latest document relating to the field in question? Can't he find it, does that prove that Esau never sold or rented out the field? Or just that the document got lost, or turned to mush when someone leaked into the archive?

Clearly, just organising a document in clay is not enough to guarantee accurate and convenient data processing. That requires methods of organisation like catalogues, methods of reproduction like photocopying machines, methods of rapid and accurate retrieval like computer algorithms, and pedantic (but hopefully cheerful) librarians who know how to use these tools.

Inventing such methods proved to be far more difficult than inventing writing. Many writing systems developed independently in cultures distant in time and place from each other. Every decade archaeologists discover new full scripts that we today call cuneiform. Some of them might prove to be more advanced than the Sumerian scratches in clay. But most of them remain curiosities because those who invented them did not have the means of cataloguing and retrieving data. What set apart Sumer, as well as pharaonic Egypt, ancient China and the Inca Empire, is that these cultures developed good techniques of archiving, cataloguing and retrieving written records. They obviously had no computers or photocopiers, but they did have catalogues, and far more importantly, they did create special schools in which professional scribes, clerks, librarians and accountants were rigorously trained in the secrets of data-processing.

A writing exercise from a school in ancient Mesopotamia discovered by modern archaeologists gives us a glimpse into the lives of the students some 4,000 years ago:

I went in and sat down, and my teacher read my tablet. He said, "There's something missing!"  
And he caned me.  
One of the people in charge said, "Why did you open your mouth without my permission?"  
And he caned me.  
The one in charge of rules said, "Why did you get up without my permission?"  
And he caned me.  
The gatekeeper said, "Why are you going out without my permission?"  
And he caned me.  
The keeper of the beer jug said, "Why did you get some without my permission?"  
And he caned me.  
The Sumerian teacher said, "Why did you speak?"  
And he caned me.  
My teacher said, "Your handwriting is no good!"  
And he caned

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## The Language of Numbers

As the centuries passed, bureaucratic methods of data processing grew ever more different from the way humans naturally think – and ever more important. A critical step was made sometime before the ninth century when a new partial script was invented, one that could store and process mathematical data with unprecedented efficiency. This partial script was composed of ten signs, representing the numbers from 1 to 9. Confusingly, these signs are known as Arabic numerals even though they were first invented by the Hindus (even more confusingly, modern Arabs use digits that look quite different from Western ones). But the Arabs get the credit because when they invaded India they encountered the system of Arabic numerals, needed it, and spread it through the Middle East and then to Europe. When several other signs were later added to the Arab numerals (such as the signs for addition, subtraction and multiplication), the basis of modern mathematical notation came into being.

Although this system of writing remains a partial script, it has become the world's dominant language. Almost all states, companies, and institutions – whether they speak Arabic, Hindi, English or Norwegian – use mathematical script to record and process data. Every piece of information that can be translated into mathematical script is stored, spread and processed with mind-boggling speed and efficiency.

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{r}_i &= \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{u_j (r_j - r_i)}{r_{ij}^3} \left\{ 1 - \frac{2(\beta - \gamma)}{c^2} \sum_{k \neq i} \frac{u_k}{r_{ik}} - \frac{2\beta - 1}{c^2} \sum_{k \neq j} \frac{u_k}{r_{jk}} + \gamma \left( \frac{s_i}{c} \right)^2 \right. \\ &\quad + (1 - \gamma) \left( \frac{s_j}{c} \right)^2 - \frac{2(1 + \gamma)}{c^2} \dot{r}_i \cdot \dot{r}_j - \frac{3}{2c^2} \left[ \frac{(r_i - r_j) \cdot r_j}{r_{ij}} \right]^2 \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{1}{2c^2} (r_j - r_i) \cdot \dot{r}_j \right\} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{c^2} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{u_j}{r_{ij}^3} \left\{ [(r_i - r_j) \cdot ((2 + 2\gamma) \dot{r}_i - (1 + 2\gamma) \dot{r}_j)] \cdot (\dot{r}_i - \dot{r}_j) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \frac{3 + 4\gamma}{2c^2} \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{u_j \dot{r}_j}{r_{ij}} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

An equation for calculating the acceleration of mass from the force of gravity according to the Theory of Relativity. When first typed out by people, it was a long and complicated expression. It is a mathematical formula that describes the relationship between the acceleration of an object and the forces acting on it. It is a complex equation that involves several variables and constants.

A person who wishes to speak in the decisions of governments, organisations and companies must therefore learn to speak in numbers. Numbers are a way of communicating complex ideas and concepts in a simple and concise way. Numbers are a way of communicating complex ideas and concepts in a simple and concise way. Numbers are a way of communicating complex ideas and concepts in a simple and concise way.

More recently, mathematical script has given rise to an even more revolutionary writing system, a computerised binary script consisting of two signs: 0 and 1. The words I am now typing on my keyboard are written within my computer by different combinations of 0 and 1.