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Chapter 1 : Cambridge World Archaeology: The Palaeolithic Settlement of Asia : Robin Dennell :

decade new interdisciplinary approaches to the archaeological record have overhauled the framework for understanding behavioral change during the Late Pleistocene. While the nature of the Late Acheulean to Middle Paleolithic.

Pleistocene environments and hominin adaptations in South Asia: National Conference on Quaternary Climate Change: New approaches and emerging challenges. Birbal Sahni Institute of Paleobotany. The archaeology of agro-pastoralism in the Indian Subcontinent: National Institute of Advanced Studies. Archaeological Survey of India. Workshop on Indian archaeology, epigraphy and ancient history. Directorate of Archaeology, Archives and Museums. Bhopal, March , The Narmada Basin Paleoanthropology Project: Recent Results and Future Directions. Recent paleoanthropological discoveries in the Central Narmada Basin. Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi. Ethics, Responsibilities and Initiatives: An update of recent research. South Asian Archaeology Workshop. New York University, New York. Recent paleoanthropological discoveries in the central Narmada Basin. Stone Age Technology in India: Its scientific impact and historical relevance in regional prehistory. Rajasthan Vidhyapeeth, Udaipur, Rajasthan. The Narmada Basin as a case study. Kolkota, November , Reconsidering Lower Paleolithic dispersals from Africa to Asia. Workshop on East Asian bifaces. The Lower Paleolithic of the Indian Subcontinent: Current status and future goals. At the South Asian archaeology workshop at Yale University. Plio-Pleistocene biogeography of the Indian subcontinent: The Current State of the Evidence. American Association of Physical Anthropologists. Philadelphia, March , Recent Paleolithic investigations in the Narmada Basin, central India. Status of prehistoric studies in the twenty first century in India. Early Dispersals out of Africa: The Indian subcontinent as a case study. Approaches to the Earliest Stone Age. October 28 â€" 30, Position, Problems, and Prospects of Research. Organized by The Anthropological Survey of India. Geological and geomorphological contexts of prehistoric sites in the Siwalik region of South Asia. Indian Institute of Technology. March ,, Delhi, India. National Seminar on Natural Hazards and their Mitigation. March , , Panjab University, Chandigarh, India 1. Implications of AMS dating of ostrich eggshell fragments in India. A new rock art site near Hoshangabad, Madhya Pradesh. Poster Shaik Saleem and P. University of Baroda, Gujarat. Chauhan, Vijay Sathe and Shaik Saleem. Chauhan, Shaik Saleem and Vijay Sathe. The environmental background to Pleistocene hominin occupation in the Indian Subcontinent. From Ramapithecus to Robert Bruce Foote: Paleolithic research histories in the center of the Old World. In a session organized by P. Transitions in the Paleolithic: Research Histories and their Influence on Changing Interpretations. March April 3, Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad during November , Recent paleoanthropological investigations in the central Narmada Valley. A comparative metrical study of handaxes from the Indian subcontinent. For session on Analytical Approaches to Palaeolithic Technologies. Society for American Archaeology. Middle Paleolithic Landscapes of the Indian subcontinent: Lisbon, Portugal September, Assessing Paleolithic transitions in the Indian subcontinent: Transitions in the Paleolithic. Paleolithic exploitation of quartzite in the Indian subcontinent: Technological analysis on quartzite exploitation. The African connection in the Indian subcontinent: Conference and workshop at Nairobi, Kenya, July 24 â€" 26, Presented by Briana Pobiner on behalf of P. Preliminary results and future directions. San Juan, Puerto Rico. Faunal and lithic contextual variability in the central Narmada Basin of peninsular India: Understanding the Soanian Industrial Complex: The Annual Meeting of the Paleoanthropology Society. The Narmada hominin locality revisited: Modeling hominid mobility during the Pleistocene in the Siwalik region of South Asia. Fifth World Archaeological Congress. June 23 â€" 26, , Washington, D. The Identity Crisis of the Soanian: To be or not to be? Geoarchaeology of a Soanian factory Site: Workshop on Instruments and Physical Sciences and Archaeology. Out of Africa I: Who, Where, and When. September 27 â€" October 1, Convened by Richard Leakey. National Workshop on Perspectives in Palaeoanthropology: Methodological and Conceptual Issues. March 15 â€" 17, , Panjab University, Chandigarh, India. Recent Advances in Biosocial Anthropology, March , Seminar and Field Excursion 1.

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June 15 â€” 16, , Shimla, Himachal Pradesh, India. The importance of India in human evolution. Human Evolution and Migrations to Asia and India. Human Evolution in the Indian subcontinent:

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Chapter 2 : The paleolithic settlement of Asia (edition) | Open Library

The archaeological, paleontological and hominin records of India and Java are compared. It is argued that during the Lower and Middle Pleistocene, the palaeolithic technology in both the regions was Large Flake Acheulian (LFA) which is attested to by numerous sites in Peninsular India, some finds from Pinjor exposures in NW India and the site of Ngebung in the Sangiran dome area of Java.

Home Prehistoric Archaeology Prehistoric Archaeology The prehistoric archaeological record sheds light on the evolution of human cognitive abilities. The archaeological record has yielded important information regarding technological patterns, foresight and planning, skill, cognitive capabilities, and dexterity. It is appreciated that at any stage of human evolution, we can only be sure that we are seeing minimal expressions of cognitive abilities in the form of the material culture and behavioral patterns of prehistoric hominins. Material culture, nonetheless, is the most important and reliable source of information pertaining to cognitive evolution that we can recover in the archaeological record. We can search for the most complex and exceptional forms of material culture at different stages of human evolution to see evidence for the most advanced level of cognitive abilities and skill manifested at that time. Read More Before 2. Modified stones were discovered at Lomekwi in Kenya that date to 3. It should also be noted that a claim has been made for stone tool use and bone modification at approximately 3. Based on our knowledge of chimpanzee material culture and cultural traits, we can speculate on a range of possible types of tool-use and other types of cultural phenomena that occurred prior to 3. The archaeological sites from this time are all on the African continent. The archaeological record is characterized by a simple Oldowan technology, normally made with river cobbles that were knapped with hammerstones to produce sharp flakes and fragments. Around the same time, hominins began to move out of Africa and disperse into Eurasia; evidence of this can be seen at sites such as Dmanisi in the Republic of Georgia and Sangiran in Indonesia. Handaxes and cleavers became better-made, more symmetrical, and more extensively flaked over time. Such templates become even more standardized in the subsequent later Acheulean, Middle Palaeolithic, and Upper Palaeolithic. Between , and , years ago, a number of technological developments associated with Homo heidelbergensis are found around the Old World. These include the development of refined Later Acheulian tools, which commonly include extremely symmetrical and finely fashioned handaxes and cleavers and often show very intricate, controlled flaking, the use of careful platform preparation and of soft hammer percussion in their production. Additional advances observed in the archaeological record include apparent evidence of some controlled use of fire, though its incidence was rare and may not have involved skilled production of fire, as well as the possible emergence of early ritual or symbolic behavior. Changes associated with Neandertals in Eurasia add more complex hafted tools, apparent habitual use of fire, use of personal adornment, and burial of the dead to the adaptive and behavioral repertoire. Such trends continued in earnest among the modern human populations as they grew and spread, eventually involving the addition of other bone, antler, and ivory materials to the toolmaking systems, the appearance of needles and sewing, the development of habitual architecture in various forms, and evidence for long-distance transport and trade of materials. The emergence and evolution of complex symbolic behavior more recently in the archaeological record is evidenced in highly endowed burials, often prolific use of ornaments, and the proliferation of artistic traditions, including sometimes elaborate decoration of utilitarian tools. The emergence of regional patterning and the evidence for complex symbolic behaviors may indicate evolution of complex language systems and abilities during this later stage of human evolution. Explore below some of the many discoveries archaeologists have made at important archaeological sites that have contributed to our understanding of our cognitive evolutionary history.

The middle pleistocene archaeological record of Southwest and Central Asia The middle pleistocene archaeological record of the Indian sub-continent The archaeological record of China and Southeast Asia ca.

Denisovans and the Middle Paleolithic of India 21 Jul Sheila Mishra and colleagues have a new paper discussing the antiquity of microblade industries in India, focusing on the site of Mehtakheri in Madhya Pradesh, for which they report new OSL dates on microblade-bearing layers going back some 45, years Mishra: Microblades are relatively small, thin flakes of stone, generally intended to be hafted onto a handle of wood, bone or other material. These small tools are not useful by themselves; they break readily and only function when supported by some armature. The production of such small thin flakes requires a fairly specialized series of choices in the reduction sequence, and the stone cores from which these microblades were struck are easily recognized by archaeologists. D3, F1, M25, J15 and M23 are microblade cores. J39 is a trimmed nodule. J2 is is a retouched flake on multicoloured chert and M9 is a perforator made on a platform rejuvenation flake. J44, D, A42 and I41 are hammerstones of various sizes. K1 and M2 are from the initial stages of core reduction showing the much larger initial size of the cores. M 2 also retains a part of the crested guiding ridge. Readers following this story will remember that Michael Petraglia and colleagues have, through a series of articles, argued for technological and cultural continuity in southern India from as early as 77, years ago up to around 38, years ago for example, reviewed in Petraglia: This time span stretches across the horizon created by ash from the Toba, Sumatra volcanic eruption, one of the most geologically visible events in the Late Pleistocene, and Petraglia and colleagues have shown this continuity at Jwalapuram in levels both under and above the Toba ash. That finding connects to year-long debate in paleoanthropology about the importance of this volcanic event. By the account of Petraglia and colleagues; the Middle Paleolithic industry of south India has technical similarities to Middle Stone Age industries of Africa, and based on its timing and continuity is likely to have been produced by modern humans. Meanwhile, Paul Mellars and colleagues have argued in a series of articles that the appearance of modern humans in South Asia was accompanied by the first systematic production of microblades as part of a rather more advanced technical repertoire for example, Mellars: I will investigate both these points of view more fully. Both groups have addressed mtDNA evidence for the timing of population growth in South Asia; this evidence is unsatisfactory in one way or another to both. Why Denisova is important Neither group has, to date, addressed the relevance of the Denisova genome to the dispersal of humans across South Asia. To my mind, there is a singular point that any hypothesis must accommodate: The later wave or waves of movement must have happened after the initial spread of people who would colonize Australia and Melanesia. The source of this later wave must have been from some population that had Neandertal ancestors but did not have Denisovan ancestors. This is a minimum. If we imagine Denisovans may have lived in China, or in South Asia, then the extent of later waves of movement must have been even greater, coming from even farther away. If we imagine that the Denisovans had lived in South Asia, then the later wave of movement must have followed very soon after 60, years ago, given the evidence for early population growth of the ancestors of current South Asian populations Atkinson: Can we escape from this problem by hypothesizing that the Denisovans only lived in Java, and mixed with the ancestors of aboriginal Australians there? Setting aside the fact that the Denisova genome itself was found more than kilometers away, we must still deal with the apparent lack of Denisovan ancestry in any of the populations of Indonesia west of the Wallace Line. I think every population movement included newcomers interacting with the previous inhabitants. We may be talking about a continual flux of people across southern Asia. In the end, we are restricted by only a single fact: Microblades and moderns Mishra and colleagues Mishra: At first glance, this might seem to agree with the Mellars interpretation, but in an e-mail, Mishra indicated to me that she essentially agrees that the earlier non-microblade tradition is also modern humans, but that this industry does not share close technical links with Arabia or West Asia. They propose that the

microblade industries mark a connection between South Africa and South Asia as a result of migration from Africa within the last 60, years. By doing so, they create a mystery: Why did technology mark this later period of movement, but not earlier dispersals? And how did modern humans arrive at such an early date in Australia, if they were unable to penetrate India? To answer these questions, Mishra and colleague propose an archaic population of South Asia that was highly competent and competitive with modern humans. They draw upon the hypothesis that Neandertals replaced modern humans in the Levant after the initial habitations evidenced at Skhul and Qafzeh. This example may show that modern humans were not well suited to certain climatic and ecological challenges before the appearance of the microblade toolkit. Sharp differences in the stone tool technology of modern humans in the Indian Subcontinent and Southeast Asia exist throughout the Late Pleistocene [19]. This would not be the case if modern humans had reached there from the Indian Subcontinent. Although the evidence is still not conclusive, it appears that modern humans reached Southeast Asia during MIS 5 from a different route and earlier than the Indian Subcontinent. Given the rapidly accumulating evidence for the presence of modern humans in Arabia during MIS 5 [26,27,39,40,41,42,43,44,45,46,47,48], an explanation for their failure to disperse into the Indian Subcontinent at that time, is required. We suggest that the Indian Subcontinent during MIS 5 times was occupied by a population derived from Homo erectus adapted to the Indian environment from Lower Pleistocene times onwards. This population would be archaic, and the Narmada hominin would be ancestral or a representative of it. Competition between Indian archaics and modern humans would have been intense since they were adapted to similar environments. Failure of modern humans to disperse into the Indian Subcontinent during MIS 5 was probably due to their failure to successfully compete with the Indian archaics during a period when the climatic conditions were favourable to both. However during the MIS 4 times, when the desert zones of Africa and Arabia were abandoned and more favourable zones in the Middle East such the Levant and Iran were occupied by Neanderthals, modern humans had more success in entering India and a major change in the Indian Palaeolithic record then occurred. The expansion of modern humans into India therefore coincides with the expansion of Neanderthals into the Middle East at the expense of modern humans and into Central Asia possibly at the expense of Denisovans. Migration around the northern tier of South Asia, possibly through southern Siberia and China. The contrast between the technology associated with modern humans in the Indian Subcontinent and Southeast Asia is present right from the earliest presence of modern humans in the two regions thus making it more likely that modern humans reached Southeast Asia from Southern China rather than that the differences emerged after modern humans reached Southeast Asia from India. The variation in the degree of Neanderthal and Denisovan ancestry in present day populations can also be explained by an earlier dispersal of modern humans to SE Asia via China rather than the Indian subcontinent. Denisovan ancestry is significant in Island but not mainland SE Asia [72]. This is explained if populations in Island SE Asia are descended from populations which spread through China when Denisovan populations were still present. Present day Chinese have different and greater amounts of Neanderthal ancestry than populations elsewhere [73]. This could be due to admixture with Neanderthals in Central Asia when modern humans expanded from there into China during MIS 3 times after Denisovians had become extinct. That seems at first glance like a highly counter-intuitive take on the evidence. Modern humans first reached Southeast Asia via China, with little or no input from India. Three elements of this hypothesis accord well with the data as they stand: The earliest modern humans now known from China appear to substantially predate the appearance of microblade toolkits in the Indian subcontinent. Liujiang has been associated with a minimal date of 68, years ago, and arguably is twice that age Shen: In addition to these, there are several sites with teeth or more fragmentary remains that also might represent early modern humans in China, and there are some very early occupation sites in Southeast Asia. As Mishra and colleagues suggest, the Southeast Asian archaeological record seems to follow a different trajectory than the South Asian record across much of this time period. That is also true of the Indonesian archaeological record of the Late Pleistocene. This is possibly the most minimal scenario. Further, the later immigration of microblade-using peoples into South Asia would

provide a source population for further migrations into Southeast Asia and Indonesia that would lack Denisovan ancestry. Can we avoid South Asia? I have my doubts. I think Mishra and colleagues are on to something very interesting, but I am not convinced it has to do with the earliest movement of modern humans. Most important, I am not convinced that the technical similarities among industries were produced by the biological movements of peoples. But why would a microblade tradition take hold in India but not other destinations of these people, including within Africa? And why did the technology persist for so long in India when it was far more ephemeral elsewhere? These questions necessitate local ecological and cultural answers. The strength of ecology and culture history in maintaining these industries in India must have outweighed the importance of drift and ecological factors in other regions. But if so, then surely the microblade industries are much more likely instances of convergent technical solutions than lineal cultural relations. I recognize that this is a general argument against the use of technical similarities as markers of population relationships. It is just as applicable to the similarities of Jebel Faya and the Nubian complex, for example, or to the linking of Indian Middle Paleolithic and MSA African industries proposed by Petraglia and colleagues. But the evident diversity of the MSA record of Africa, with a rapid invention, local proliferation, and frequent disappearance of such interesting elements, makes it very likely that technical links will appear by random chance with toolkits elsewhere. Should we believe that these ancient people were linked by an unbroken chain of ideas, so much so that we can infer they were members of a single migrating population? But we focus too much, perhaps, on similarities. The differences between southern African and Neandertal industries are meaningful, both in terms of ecology and cultural connections. And I think the most interesting part of the current paper is the way Mishra and colleagues reflect upon the technical differences between South and Southeast Asia and China. The peoples of these regions retained a strong pattern of technical difference in the wake of a time when modern humans had, by some accounts, cruised rapidly across the southern tier of Asia on their way to Australia. These differences may disprove the model and require a more complex scenario of population movement and mixture. That more complex model may help us make sense of the Denisova genome and its legacy among living peoples. The archaeological evidence is going to help us sort this story, and I am pleased to see it developing.

Chapter 4 : Human Cognition Evolution

The dating confirms that the Billasurgam cave complex represents the oldest Middle-Late Pleistocene stratified and scientifically dated faunal succession for the Indian subcontinent, stretching from MIS 7 (starting ka) to the Holocene (MIS 1).

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: BAR International Series Systematic, well-designed archaeological surveys have been noticeably rare in Indian Paleolithic studies. The relative poverty of methodical surveys to the present day is the case despite extremely productive results from a handful of earlier investigations. Certain earlier surveys over broad areas have identified large numbers of Paleolithic sites in Quaternary settings, amply demonstrated by comprehensive investigations in the Thar Desert, the Raisen District, the Ghataprabha Basin, and the Hunsgi-Baichbal valleys. Formal surveys and countless informal collections have identified numerous Lower, Middle, and Upper Paleolithic sites in many parts of the Indian subcontinent. As these surveys have thoroughly illustrated, the richness of the archaeological record of India is unparalleled in comparison to many outlying regions, and its potential wealth for understanding the evolution of human behavior is immense. Unfortunately, many field investigations have been plagued by an inexplicit behavioral orientation, concurrently sensitive to the geoarchaeological and formational history of deposits. This has led to major uncertainties about the age of Paleolithic material, as clear links often can not be made between artifacts and the deposits from which they are derived. Moreover, many non-Indian specialists have remained suspicious of behavioral reconstructions since many past investigations have not taken into account the contribution of natural agents and processes. In light of the inadequacies of prior research, Shanti Pappu has implemented a formal survey in the Kortallayar Basin of southeastern India. The survey was an explicit attempt to improve upon the prevailing situation, assigning behavioral meaning to the variability evident in the Paleolithic archaeological record of the region. As part and parcel of her survey, the surveyor paid close attention to the depositional history of localities and the sedimentary contexts of artifacts in order to assess the degree to which site contents and material arrangements were the consequence of human activities. Additionally, the analysis of stone tool technology and typology provides important supplementary information about the nature of Paleolithic assemblages on the Indian subcontinent. Particularly interesting information about raw material choices and mobility patterns are ascertained from her technological analyses. In one of the five chapters comprising this volume, Pappu describes the results of her ethnographic experiences, centered on the Irula, with a series of transhumant populations that variably practice hunting and gathering. Ethnographic information is mined for data about residential settlements and activity areas, special purpose camps, territoriality and mobility, subsistence strategies, implement use, and butchering and food sharing practices. Pappu further explores a number of topics that she finds relevant for assessing the archaeological record, especially site types, mobility, subsistence, reoccupation, artifact recycling and reuse, and raw material choices. In investigating these topics, Pappu reminds the reader on several occasions that caution needs to be exercised in making any direct analogies to the archaeological record. While she does make prudent use of [End Page] the ethnographic information, the brevity of this work makes it a somewhat awkward fit with the wider Paleolithic issues at hand. One gets the sense that an expanded ethno-archaeological work on the transhumant populations of the region would be better as a stand-alone volume. The veracity and high quality of the Kortallayar survey findings are remarkable in light of the fact that the fieldwork was initiated and completed by a single researcher during the course of her Ph. While Pappu successfully follows in the footsteps of others in conducting impressive one-person research operations, readers will likely get the impression that much more information and efficiency would have been gained by assembling an interdisciplinary team. Undoubtedly, intandem observations by Quaternary geomorphologists and geoarchaeologists would have likely shed much more light on the depositional character and environmental settings of the Kortallayar localities, assisting in

understanding site formation and identifying areas for more productive behavioral investigation. Although Pappu understandably concerns herself with the regional record of the Kortallayar Basin You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

Chapter 5 : South Asian Stone Age - Wikipedia

We suggest that the Indian Subcontinent during MIS 5 times was occupied by a population derived from Homo erectus adapted to the Indian environment from Lower Pleistocene times onwards. This population would be archaic, and the Narmada hominin would be ancestral or a representative of it.

Genes, stone tools and modern human dispersals in center of the Old World. November December 1; Tokyo, Japan. Kaifu Y, and Goebel T, editors. General observations on the northeast Indian zone and its implications for Paleolithic studies. Fifty-one years after Daojali Hading: Emerging perspectives in the Archaeology of the Northeast India. Essays in Honour of T. Lion figurine from Abhayagiri. A short note on prehistoric reinvestigations at Durkadi, central India. Analytical Approaches to Palaeolithic Technologies: In New Perspectives on Old Stones: Analytical Approaches to Palaeolithic Technologies. Metrical variability between South Asian handaxe assemblages: Out of Africa I: The First Hominins of Eurasia. Paleobiology and Paleoanthropology Series. From Africa to China and Beyond. Chauhan [Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology]. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology Was there an Oldowan occupation in the Indian Subcontinent?: A critical appraisal of the earliest paleoanthropological evidence. New Approaches to the Archaeology of Human Origins. Stone Age Institute Press. Environmental impact of the 73 ka Toba super-eruption in South Asia. The South Asian Paleolithic record and its potential for transitions studies. In Sourcebook of Paleolithic Transitions: Methods, Theories and Interpretations. The Lower Paleolithic of the Indian Subcontinent. New geochronological, palaeoclimatological and Palaeolithic data from the Narmada Valley hominin locality, central India. Journal of Human Evolution Early Homo occupation near the Gate of Tears: Examining the paleoanthropological records of Djibouti and Yemen. Paleolithic exploitation of rounded and sub-angular quartzites in the Indian subcontinent. Lithic Materials and Paleolithic Societies. Online Project Gallery in Antiquity December issue. Gudrun Corvinus â€" pioneering paleoanthropologist. Large mammal fossil occurrences and associated archaeological evidence in Pleistocene contexts of peninsular India and Sri Lanka. Quaternary International 1: Online Project Gallery in Antiquity September issue. Soanian lithic occurrences and raw material exploitation in the Siwalik Frontal zone, northern India: Journal of Human Evolution. Soanian cores and core-tools from Toka, northern India: Journal of Anthropological Archaeology, Human Origins Studies in India: Position, Problems, and Prospects. Bulletin of the Indian Geologists Association. Department of Geology, Panjab University. Temporary Shelter in the Sub-Himalaya: Journal of the Indian Archaeological Society. Government of Madhya Pradesh. A new rock art site near Hoshangabad, Madhya Pradesh. Paleoanthropology of the Narmada Basin. Paleoanthropology in the Narmada Basin: A Basic Introduction translated into Hindi. Some general thoughts on Lower Paleolithic technological dispersals: Implications for understanding the Movius Line. Seoul National University Press, Seoul. Recent Discoveries and New Observations. In Anthropology and Society: Northern Book Centre, New Delhi, pp. India at the crossroads of human evolution. Journal of Biosciences 34 5: Faunal and lithic associations in peninsular India and Sri Lanka. Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies in History and Archaeology. Allahabad University, Allahabad, India. Organized by the Anthropological Survey of India. The technological organization of the Soanian palaeolithic industry: Invited for Issues and Themes in Anthropology: A Festschrift in Honour of Prof. New Perspectives on Old Stones: Sourcebook of Paleolithic Transitions: Methods, Theories, and Interpretations. Origin and Early Evolution of the Genus Homo. Acheulian Large Flake Industries: Technology, Chronology, and Significance. BAR International Series Human Identity in Earliest Prehistory. Transitions after THE Transition: Current Research in Chinese Pleistocene Archaeology. Understanding lake Margin Contexts. A Record in Stone: Simon Holdaway and Nicola Stern. In PaleoAnthropology, August In PaleoAnthropology, July Stratigraphy, typology and technology of the Paleolithic record. In History of Ancient India Volume 1. Palaeolithic of South Asia. Section Edited by Prof. Early Village Life in Ancient India. World History Encyclopedia â€" Era 1.

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Chapter 6 : Project MUSE - Acheulean Culture in Peninsular India: An Ecological Perspective (review)

Bae et al. review the current state of the Late Pleistocene Asian human evolutionary record from archaeology, hominin paleontology, geochronology, genetics, and paleoclimatology. They evaluate single versus multiple dispersal models and southern versus the northern dispersal routes across the Asian continent.

Chapter 7 : CONFERENCES - Parth R. Chauhan

Research on Lower and Middle Pleistocene archaeology of South Eurasia often addresses contrasts in cultural evolution between South and Southeast Asia, a geographic boundary often which represent referred to as the "Movius Line".

Chapter 8 : PUBLICATIONS - Parth R. Chauhan

The archaeological record of Later Pleistocene South Asia has a crucial role to play in our understanding of the evolution of modern human behavior and the dispersal of anatomically mod-.

Chapter 9 : Soanian - Wikipedia

The Indian subcontinent represents a rich source of diverse paleoanthropological data in the form of pollen assemblages, various isotopic records, vertebrate and invertebrate fossil assemblages, and prehistoric stone tools in a range of palaeoecological contexts.