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JACARANDA

HISTORY ALIVE 7

VICTORIAN CURRICULUM | SECOND EDITION



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ROBERT DARLINGTON

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HOW TO USE

the *Jacaranda Humanities Alive* resource suite

The ever-popular *Jacaranda Humanities Alive 7* has been re-published for the Victorian Curriculum. It is available as a single 4-in-1 title and as subject-specific titles: *Jacaranda History Alive 7*, *Jacaranda Geography Alive 7*, *Jacaranda Civics and Citizenship Alive 7* and *Jacaranda Economics and Business Alive 7*. The series is available across a number of digital formats: learnON, eBookPLUS, eGuidePLUS, PDF and iPad app.

Skills development is integrated throughout, and explicitly targeted through SkillBuilders and dedicated skills topics for History and Geography.

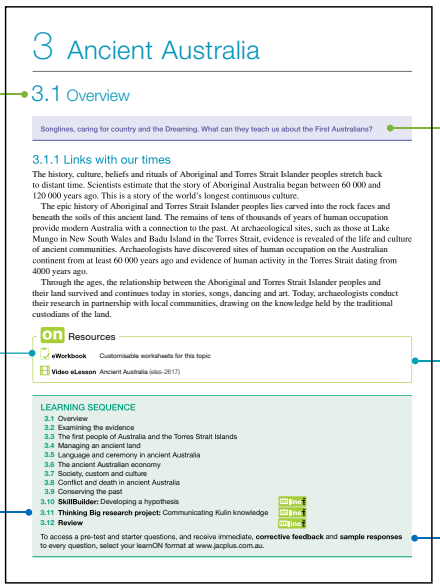
This suite of resources is designed to allow for differentiation, flexible teaching and multiple entry and exit points so teachers can *teach their class their way*.

Features

All topics start with an **Overview** which includes a pre-test to gauge students' readiness to begin.

An online **workbook** is available for customisation and printing.

SkillBuilders, **Thinking Big research projects** and **Reviews** are available online for every topic.


3 Ancient Australia

3.1 Overview

Songlines, caring for country and the Dreaming. What can they teach us about the First Australians?

3.1.1 Links with our times

The history, culture, beliefs and rituals of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples stretch back to distant time. Scientists estimate that the story of Aboriginal Australia began between 60 000 and 120 000 years ago. This is a story of the world's longest continuous culture.

The epic history of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples lies carved into the rock faces and beneath the soils of this ancient land. The remains of tens of thousands of years of human occupation provide modern Australia with a connection to the past. At archaeological sites, such as those at Lake Mungo in New South Wales and Badu Island in the Torres Strait, evidence is revealed of the life and culture of ancient communities. Archaeologists have discovered sites of human occupation on the Australian continent from at least 60 000 years ago and evidence of human activity in the Torres Strait dating from 4000 years ago.

Through the ages, the relationship between the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and their land survived and continues today in stories, songs, dancing and art. Today, archaeologists conduct their research in partnership with local communities, drawing on the knowledge held by the traditional custodians of the land.

Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient Australia (eles-2617)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

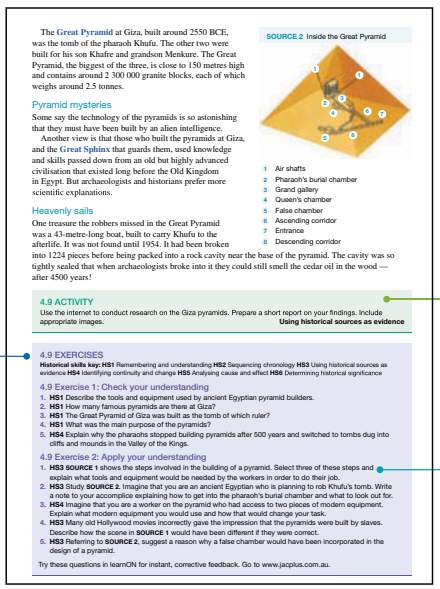
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3.9 Conserving the past
3.10 **SkillBuilder:** Developing a hypothesis
3.11 **Thinking Big research project:** Communicating Kulin knowledge
3.12 **Review**

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

Topics open with an **inquiry question** to spark students' curiosity about the topic.

OnResources feature boxes provide guidance about additional resources online.

Corrective feedback and **Sample responses** are available online for every question.


The **Great Pyramid** at Giza, built around 2550 BCE, was the tomb of the pharaoh Khufu. The other two were built for his son Khafre and grandson Menkure. The Great Pyramid, the biggest of the three, is close to 150 metres high and contains around 2 300 000 granite blocks, each of which weighs around 2.5 tonnes.

Pyramid mysteries

Some say the technology of the pyramids is so astonishing that they must have been built by an alien intelligence.

Another view is that those who built the pyramids at Giza, and the **Great Sphinx** that guards them, used knowledge and skills passed down from an old but highly advanced civilisation that existed long before the Old Kingdom in Egypt. But archaeologists and historians prefer more scientific explanations.

Heavenly sails

One treasure the robbers missed in the Great Pyramid was a 43-metre-long boat, built to carry Khufu to the afterlife. It was not found until 1954. It had been broken into 1224 pieces before being packed into a rock cavity near the base of the pyramid. The cavity was so tightly sealed that when archaeologists broke into it they could still smell the cedar oil in the wood — after 4500 years!

SOURCE 2 Inside the Great Pyramid

1 Air shafts
2 Pharaoh's burial chamber
3 Grand gallery
4 Queen's chamber
5 False chamber
6 Ascending corridor
7 Entrance
8 Descending corridor

4.9 ACTIVITY

Use the internet to conduct research on the Giza pyramids. Prepare a short report on your findings. Include appropriate images. **Using historical sources as evidence**

4.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the tools and equipment used by ancient Egyptian pyramid builders.
2. **HS1** How many famous pyramids are there at Giza?
3. **HS1** The Great Pyramid of Giza was built as the tomb of which ruler?
4. **HS1** What was the main purpose of the pyramids?
5. **HS4** Explain why the pharaohs stopped building pyramids after 500 years and switched to tombs dug into cliffs and mounds in the Valley of the Kings.

4.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3 SOURCE 1** shows the steps involved in the building of a pyramid. Select three of these steps and explain what tools and equipment would be needed by the workers in order to do their job.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**. Imagine that you are an ancient Egyptian who is planning to rob Khufu's tomb. Write a note to your accomplice explaining how to get into the pharaoh's burial chamber and what to look out for.
3. **HS4** Imagine that you are a worker on the pyramid who had access to two pieces of modern equipment. Explain what modern equipment you would use and how that would change your task.
4. **HS3** Many old Hollywood movies incorrectly gave the impression that the pyramids were built by slaves. Describe how the scene in **SOURCE 1** would have been different if they were correct.
5. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 2**, suggest a reason why a false chamber would have been incorporated in the design of a pyramid.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

Skills keys identify each question according to the skill targeted, providing insights into skills development. Progress and results can be tracked and filtered by skill online.

A range of activities is provided to promote deeper inquiry, encourage collaboration and help students to develop their research skills.

Exercise sets at the end of each subtopic allow students to **check** and **apply** their understanding.

Content is presented using age-appropriate language, and a wide range of engaging sources, diagrams and images support concept learning.

Skillbuilders model and develop key skills in context.

In each topic, a **Thinking Big research project** provides opportunities for students to delve deeper, think creatively and work collaboratively.

7.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

online only

How do we analyse the different perspectives of people in ancient China?

Primary sources often give different perspectives because not everyone will have seen an event or problem from the same point of view. It is important to analyse different perspectives, especially for bias and propaganda, when trying to determine what happened in the past.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

7.12 Thinking Big research project: Han dynasty guide

online only

SCENARIO

As the official guide and cultural envoy in the court of the Western Han dynasty, it is your job to create a printed guide to ensure that several visiting foreign dignitaries behave according to Chinese tradition in the presence of the emperor.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Han dynasty guide (pro-0231)

7.13 Review

online only

7.13.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

7.13.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32126)
Crossword (doc-32127)

Interactivity Ancient China crossword (int-7696)

There are many reasons why ancient Indians took part in these rituals, and continue to do so today. The most simple of these reasons is that the various samskara allowed people to demonstrate their commitment to what they believe. Take the ritual of *upanayana*, for example. Conducted between a *guru* (teacher) and a student, this ritual is conducted by only the upper three castes of Indian society. The ceremony marks the beginning of a student's educational journey. Yet, more importantly, it also signifies a young person's acceptance as a full member of their community. During the ceremony, a sacred thread is tied across the student's chest. While it may need to be replaced over the years, this thread is worn for the remainder of the bearer's life — a constant reminder of their connection to their beliefs.

SOURCE 10 A modern example of the upanayana ritual



DISCUSS

'The customs of ancient India share nothing in common with modern Indian society.' Discuss this statement in groups, using examples to support your arguments. **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

Death and funerary customs

The concept of death in ancient Indian belief systems is extremely interesting. With the belief in incarnation strong in many Indian religions, death is seen as a transition from one life into another. For Hindus, the funerary ceremony, or *antyesti*, signifies the separation of the soul from the body. For this reason, adults are usually cremated with their ashes scattered either in a sacred river such as the Ganges or a place of importance to the deceased. The funeral occurs in the days that follow the death and is usually presided over by the oldest son of the grieving family. An interesting, but rare, custom in Indian funerals is the use of professional mourners. People referred to as *rudaali* are employed by the grieving family to attend the funeral. Rudaali are only employed by members of the upper castes who, because of their status, are not allowed to publicly show their emotions. Due to this social restriction, the role of the rudaali is to mourn on their behalf.

SOURCE 11 The Great Stupa at Sanchi and a small personal stupa



Discuss features explicitly address Curriculum Capabilities.

slaves (see **SOURCE 1**). Yet Egypt was also often in conflict with Nubia. During the Middle Kingdom, it took part of Nubia and built forts to control the routes to its gold mines. Around the same time Egypt attacked the Libyans and other desert tribes to its north.

SOURCE 1 A scene on a wall of the tomb of Sobekhotep. It shows Africans, probably Nubians, carrying ebony logs, leopard skins, gold rings, giraffe tails and a live baboon.



SOURCE 2 Wooden models of Egyptian soldiers of the Middle Kingdom in four columns



DID YOU KNOW?

Egypt's army was at first made up mostly of peasants called up whenever needed. By New Kingdom times Egypt had a permanent army with chariots, archers and infantry armed with spears, battle axes, swords and daggers. It appears also to have included conscripted prisoners of war and foreign mercenaries.

Wars of the New Kingdom

Egypt was again weak in the Second Intermediate Period when the Hyksos invaded from the north-east. This time was followed by the New Kingdom, the time of Egypt's greatest power. At the start of this period, the armies of Pharaoh Ahmose defeated the Hyksos who had occupied Egypt. Ahmose also regained control of northern Nubia. In the fifteenth century BCE, Egypt defeated a coalition of Asiatic princes at the Battle of Megido. The territory occupied by modern Israel, Lebanon and Syria became part of the Egyptian Empire. Later pharaohs fought against the Hittites to keep control of these lands. In these wars Egypt plundered its defeated enemies and gained more wealth from the tribute (treasure, slaves and livestock) that had to be paid by conquered rulers.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- The Mediterranean world > Egypt — the Old Kingdom
- The Mediterranean world > Egypt — the Middle Kingdom
- The Mediterranean world > Egypt — the New Kingdom

Links to the **myWorld Atlas** and **myWorldHistory Atlas** are provided throughout.

5.13 Thinking Big research project: Helot manifesto

online only

SCENARIO

You are living somewhere between the seventh and fourth centuries BCE. You are a helot, one of the many Messenian and Laconian Greeks who were enslaved by Sparta in the eighth and seventh centuries BCE and who have suffered under Spartan control ever since. You are to write a manifesto (declaration) that will inspire your fellow helots to unite and rise up against Sparta.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Helot manifesto (pro-0229)

5.14 Review

online only

5.14.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

5.14.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32122)
Crossword (doc-32123)

Interactivity Ancient Greece crossword (int-7694)

KEY TERMS

Acropolis stronghold on high ground in an ancient Greek city-state
agora large open space in the centre of a Greek city that served as a public meeting area and marketplace
astronomy study of the stars and planets
democracy a political system according to which citizens choose the way in which they are governed
Dorians tribes from the north of Greece who moved into the south during the Dark Age
entrails internal organs of an animal
Ephorate five-man ruling body in Sparta that advised the kings
helot slave of the Spartan state
hoplites Greek foot soldiers
immortals gods who lived forever

A range of questions and a post-test are available online to test students' understanding of the topic.

Key terms are available in every topic review.

learnON

Jacaranda Humanities Alive learnON is an immersive digital learning platform that enables student and teacher connections, and tracks, monitors and reports progress for immediate insights into student learning and understanding.

It includes:

- a wide variety of embedded videos and interactivities
- questions that can be answered online, with sample responses and immediate, corrective feedback
- additional resources such as activities, an eWorkbook, worksheets, and more
- Thinking Big research projects
- SkillBuilders
- teachON, providing teachers with practical teaching advice, teacher-led videos and lesson plans.



teachON

Conveniently situated within the learnON format, teachON includes practical teaching advice, teacher-led videos and lesson plans, designed to support, save time and provide inspiration for teachers.



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1 Historical skills and concepts

1.1 Overview

1.1.1 Links with our times

Around eighteen hundred years ago, men fought in bloody battles in an ancient Roman arena. Crowds bigger than those at most football matches cheered them on as each fighter slashed at the other with a short sword, hoping to maim or kill him, while ducking and weaving to avoid his opponent's deadly blows. At the end of this brutal contest the victor would turn to the emperor or the crowd and await their signal — to spare his opponent or kill him.

We do not know much about these individual fights, but we do know these things happened, and we know why these warriors, who were called gladiators, killed and died. We know that most people at the time found it entertaining to watch such horrors and that many thought it proper to provide such entertainment. We know these things because archaeologists and historians use clues, such as stone fragments and many other sources, to bring the past to life. History uses evidence that includes all kinds of traces, from skeletons to old books, paintings and photographs. History involves using such evidence to try to find the truth about what happened in former times.



on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Investigating the past (eles-1057)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

1.1 Overview
1.2 Why we study history
1.3 Historical skills
1.4 Ages, time and chronology
1.5 Detective work and archaeology
1.6 How old is it?
1.7 Perspectives and empathy
1.8 **SkillBuilder:** Sequencing events in chronological order online only
1.9 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

1.2 Why we study history

1.2.1 How and why do we study history?

History is a journey of discovery through time. Often it will excite you, and sometimes it will shock and amaze you. Sometimes it will seem as though the people of past societies were from another planet. At other times their actions and ideas will be as familiar to you as those of your friends and neighbours.

What is a historian?

In our own times there are many links with the past. For example, many people in modern societies attend performances of plays. This art form originated in some city-states of ancient Greece, where it was an important aspect of their culture. Historians research past civilisations, cultures and societies. They try to build a picture of how people in earlier times lived and acted. Historians try to make sense of past ideas, customs and beliefs, the ways people were ruled and how they made their living. Historians enquire into the past by examining sources. Historians also try to understand and explain how people's lives were shaped by other people and events, what they thought about their times and how they brought about changes in their own world.

SOURCE 1 Terracotta models of actors' masks used in plays performed in ancient Greece around 2200 years ago. The actual masks have not survived because they were made of materials such as wood, linen and leather.



In this topic we will look at the following skills and concepts:

- Sequencing **chronology** — arranging events in order of time
- Using historical sources as **evidence** — analysing sources from the time we are studying to judge how reliable they are and exploring the different points of view, or perspectives, of people from the past. This also involves questioning later sources that are interpretations of that time.

In later topics you will develop further skills:

- Identifying continuity and change — identifying when and how changes occurred and what things remained unchanged
- Analysing cause and effect — determining how and why important things happened and how an event or idea or something else led to changes
- Determining historical significance — evaluating the importance of an event, idea, individual or group for the lives of people at the time and for later times.

DID YOU KNOW?

The ancient Greeks invented the dramatic genres of tragedy and comedy. The remains of their theatres can be seen today at several places such as Delphi, Athens and Epidaurus.

1.2.2 The value of history

Some people question the need to understand the past. But there are many very good reasons for studying history. Knowledge of history helps us to understand our **heritage**. We start to understand where our ideas, languages, laws and many other aspects of our lives came from. We can also develop more open minds

and learn to appreciate cultures that are different from our own. Conservation work similar to that shown in **SOURCE 2** is one of the key responsibilities of archaeologists.

History, the present and the future

Perhaps you already know that we can never understand the time we live in or what the future may hold if we do not understand the journey that brought us to this point. Human societies did not appear in the present as if from nowhere. They developed over many thousands of years. By understanding the past, we might just be able to avoid repeating past mistakes and make our world a better place in the future.

History, work and leisure

The kinds of skills you will learn while studying history are also important in many careers. These skills will help you to:

- carry out research
- draw conclusions and make decisions based on evidence
- recognise the difference between fact and opinion
- understand that there is usually more than one way of thinking about any problem
- think critically
- communicate effectively.

A knowledge of history is important in our everyday lives too. And history gives many people great personal pleasure. How much more enjoyment do people derive from travel, books and movies when they know about the history that shaped the places they visit or the stories they read or watch on a screen?

SOURCE 2 Conservation work on the Parthenon, in Athens, a temple built in ancient Greece in the fifth century BCE (Before Common Era)



History and democracy

In Australia we live in a democratic society. This means we have the right to choose our political representatives and leaders through voting. We cannot vote responsibly, however, unless we can make our own judgements about the ideas these leaders put forward. To do that, we need to know something about the past.

DISCUSS

How may understanding our past help us avoid repeating mistakes? **[Ethical Capability]**

1.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS3** Fill in the spaces in the following passage by choosing words from the box below.

civilisations	beliefs	cultures	events	research

Historians conduct _____ into past _____, _____ and societies. Historians try to build up a picture of the ideas and _____ of people in the past, how they lived and acted and how their lives were shaped by _____.

2. **HS1** What is heritage?
3. **HS4** What can we gain from understanding our heritage?

4. **HS4** What kinds of skills will you learn by studying history?
5. **HS1** Suggest at least five careers that might require the use of historical skills.

1.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** The masks in **SOURCE 1** are held in the National Archaeological Museum in Athens, Greece. Each year the museum attracts millions of visitors from around the world.
   What might you be able to understand about ancient Greece just by using this source as evidence?
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. Each year, many countries donate money for conservation work to preserve the remains of this ancient Greek temple.
   Why do you think so much effort goes into conserving such traces of the past?
3. **HS4** Today we live in a world where people are sometimes killed over differences in religion. How might a knowledge of history help bring understanding between different religions?
4. **HS6** Suggest why any one of the following possible events might have historical significance in the future for a historian researching and writing about the age we are living in.
   (a) There was an increase in the number of Australians who did not practise religion.
   (b) Inequality (the gap between rich and poor) increased in Australia.
   (c) The Australian government took in more refugees.
5. **HS1** Explain what you understand to be the difference between fact and opinion. Give an example from your own experience.

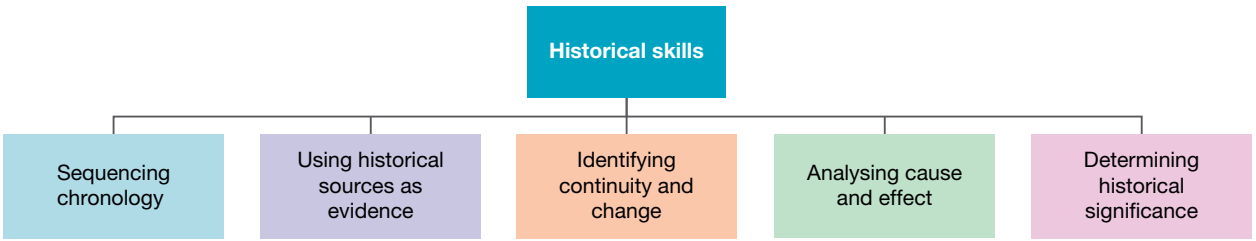
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1.3 Historical skills

1.3.1 What are historical skills?

There are a number of historical skills shown in **SOURCE 1** that you will learn throughout your History course. We will cover some of these skills in this topic. However, you will become more proficient in all these skills as you explore later topics. The historical skills are explained in more detail below.

SOURCE 1 A diagram showing the five historical skills

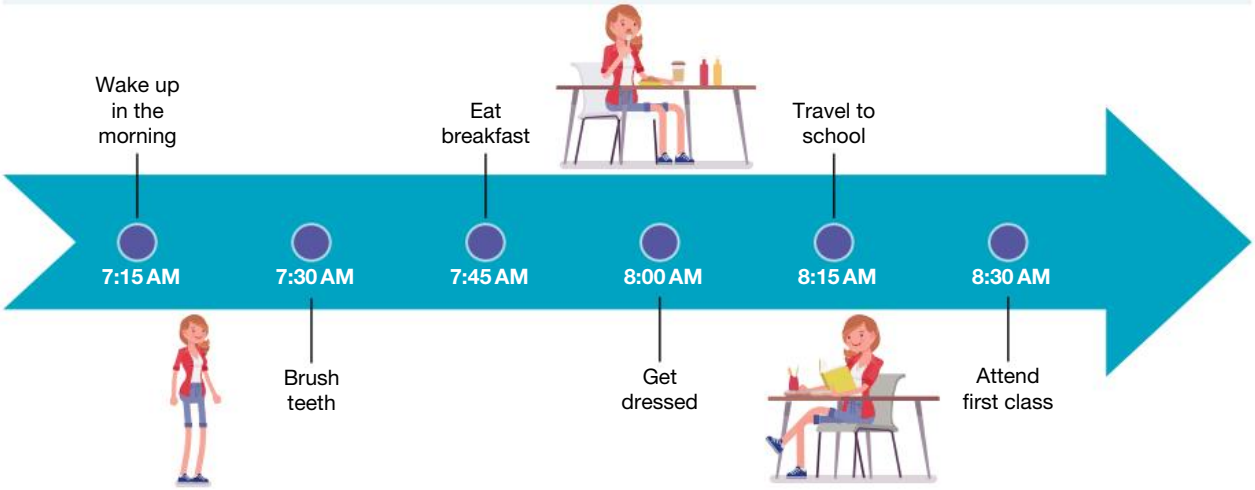


1.3.2 Sequencing chronology

Chronology involves recording events in order of time. It is an important skill because historians need to know the order in which events occurred so they can sense of what happened. A story will make more sense if we start at the beginning and work towards the end. For example, your morning routine is likely to consist of waking up in the morning, getting dressed, eating breakfast, then brushing your teeth. After this you might travel to school then attend your first class for the day. This is an example of chronology; it is the sequence of events that occurs during your morning.

A historian will use a **timeline** to see how one event might have contributed to another. A timeline representing the sequence of events in your morning can be seen in **SOURCE 2**. However, there is much more to history than putting events in order and understanding the sequence and flow of events. As a history student you will also need to be aware of continuity and change, cause and effect, as well as long-term causes and short-term triggers.

SOURCE 2 A simple timeline representing the sequence of events during a typical morning



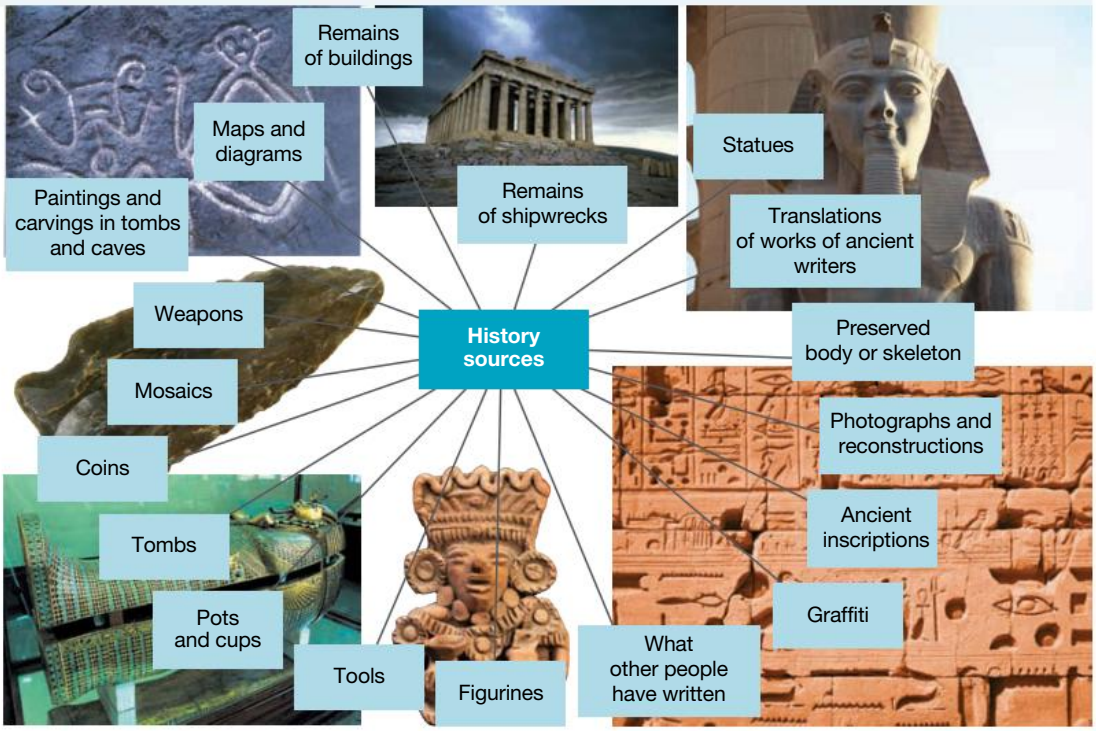
1.3.3 Using historical sources as evidence

It is important to analyse sources from the time we are studying to judge how reliable they are and explore the different points of view, or perspectives, of people from the past. This also involves questioning later sources that are interpretations of that time.

Primary and secondary sources

Evidence refers to the available facts that indicate whether something is true or really happened. Evidence can come from two types of sources: **primary sources** and **secondary sources**. Primary sources were created or written in the period of time that the historian is investigating. Secondary sources are reconstructions of the past written or created by people living at a time after the period that the historian is studying.

SOURCE 3 Some types of primary sources



Depending on the event and place, primary sources might include bones, stone tools, letters, newspapers, art, photographs or many other traces. For most periods in history we can divide primary sources into written and archaeological sources. Written primary sources can include such things as poems, songs, letters, myths and legends. They might have been written on paper, painted on stone walls or inscribed in stone, metal or clay in ancient languages. Archaeological sources are objects that were made in the past. They include many kinds of artefacts such as tools, weapons, pottery, coins, games, toys and jewellery. Some **artefacts** have written sources inscribed on them. Archaeological sources also include works of art such as sculptures and paintings, and constructions such as tombs, temples and, sometimes, entire cities.

Secondary sources can include books, articles, websites, models, timelines, computer software and documentary films. To create secondary sources, historians often:

- locate information in primary sources
- interpret that information
- use it to explain what happened.

Analysing and evaluating sources

Historical sources are valuable but they do not explain themselves. When using historical sources as evidence, historians need to ask questions of each source, such as where did the source come from (origin) and why was it created (purpose)? A source may be fact or someone's opinion — that is, it could be **biased**. One way to test sources for reliability is to compare them with other sources. If this evidence leads to the same conclusion, we call it supporting evidence. If it leads to different conclusions, we have contradictory evidence. When we use sources to try to find out about the past, we have to ask some questions. For example:

- What type of source is this?
- Who wrote or created this source and when was it written or created?
- Why was this source written or created?
- What evidence does the source provide?
- What was happening at the time the source was written or created?
- Can I trust the source?

Using evidence from sources, historians form a **hypothesis** (a possible theory to explain what happened). To test the hypothesis we look for evidence that supports it. We also look for other evidence that contradicts it. We need to be careful. We have to ask: What other information do I need to support my theory?

Just as in the investigation of a crime today, we look at what contributed to an event and how those things fit together. We ask questions that begin with who, what, where, when, how and why. In this way, history is like any other kind of investigation, but it is more difficult because there are often gaps in our evidence. We usually cannot find all the clues we need. It can be like trying to solve a jigsaw puzzle when many pieces have been lost.

Wherever historians find sources and whatever methods they use to test their hypotheses and interpret the past, there will always be differing interpretations that are debated and contested. The issue of **contestability** is an important concept in the study of history. Historical debates are ongoing. They occur when, for example, there is a lack of evidence or when different perspectives (points of view) lead to different conclusions. There are ongoing debates on many things, including the causes of particular wars and the roles of particular individuals, groups and ideas in bringing about significant changes.

1.3.4 Identifying continuity and change

Historians study the changes that have occurred over time. However, some things remain constant over periods of time. It is important to be able to identify when a change has occurred and when things have continued unchanged. This skill is known as identifying **continuity and change**.

Change refers to something that is different from what has occurred in the past. This may occur over a long period of time and, in this case, it may be difficult to detect the precise moment of change. Change can also occur dramatically or suddenly. Such changes are often associated with single events and are referred

to as turning points in history. Continuity refers to the things that endure, relatively unchanged, over time. You will find that many things remain the same across long periods in history. Sometimes these continuities have lasted into modern times.

We can make comparisons between and among historical events occurring at the same time, between and among historical periods and between present time and the past.

SOURCE 4 The ruins of an ancient house at Sardis, located in present day Turkey.



SOURCE 5 Modern townhouses in Clayton, Melbourne



1.3.5 Analysing cause and effect

In history, events do not simply occur without reason. Every event will have a cause, and is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences. Being able to identify patterns of **cause and effect** is an essential skill for historians that allows them to explain how and why things happened in the past. This skill can also make it possible to predict what may take place in the future.

Causes may include people, societies, politics, beliefs, economics or any other historical factor. Likewise, effects can include impacts on people, societies, politics, beliefs, economics or any other historical factor. It is important to understand that not all causes leading to a specific event are equally significant — some causes may have more influence than others.

The ability to analyse cause and effect requires a good understanding of sequencing chronology. We can identify series of historical events and developments over time, both in the short term and in the long term. Some causes occur immediately before an event began, while others may have existed for several years, decades or centuries before the event. Some effects occur immediately after an event or action, while other may occur years, decades or centuries following the event or action.

SOURCE 6 Ancient Spartan ruins at the archaeological site outside the modern Greek city of Sparti



For example, Ancient Greece was made up of a number of city-states (or poleis), which were independent settlements with their own governments. Greek city-states shared a common language and religion. Two powerful and well-known city-states were Athens and Sparta. People living in ancient Greece did not consider themselves to be Greek but, rather, citizens of their city-state, for example, Athenians or Spartans.

The development of Greek city-states was caused by a number of factors. One major cause was the geography of Greece. The country's mountainous landscape, isolated valleys, numerous islands and largely unnavigable rivers meant that settlements were isolated from each other. Fertile farmland was rare and overland travel was difficult. This meant that Greek settlements turned to the sea for contacts and trade between each other.

SOURCE 7 The Temple of Hephaestus located at the north-west side of the Agora of Athens, Greece



The development of Greek city-states also resulted in a number of effects. One positive effect was the rise of democracy in Athens. Athens introduced democracy in 508 BCE, which was a system of government by which citizens decided how their city-state would be run. City-states also resulted in the arts and sciences flourishing in ancient Greece. One negative consequence of the city-states of Greece was the frequent wars that occurred between the various city-states.

1.3.6 Determining historical significance

Historical **significance** relates to the importance that is assigned to particular aspects of the past. These aspects may include events, individuals or groups, developments in the past, ideas or movements, and historical sites. There is far too much history to study or learn all of it. We need to make judgements about what is important and what is less important. For this reason, this is an essential, yet challenging, historical skill.

When we try to establish the significance of an aspect of the past, we have to consider a number of questions. For example:

- How relevant was it to people living at that time?
- How many people were affected?
- How did it change people's lives?
- How long were people's lives affected?
- How important and long lasting were the consequences?
- How relevant is it to the contemporary world?

1.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify the five historical skills.
2. **HS1** Explain what is involved in sequencing chronology.
3. **HS1** Describe the difference between primary sources and secondary sources.
4. **HS1** Provide two examples of written sources and two examples of archaeological sources.
5. **HS1** How do historians create secondary sources?
6. **HS1** Explain what the term 'bias' means and why we might not be able to trust a primary source.
7. **HS1** Describe a way to test primary sources for reliability.

8. **HS1** Complete the following sentences by choosing words from the box below.

contestability	theory	debate	contradict	evidence

(a) A hypothesis is a _____ or possible explanation that has to be tested by looking for _____ that might support it and other evidence that might _____ it.
(b) _____ is the situation when particular interpretations of the past are open to _____.

1.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain what a historian is doing when identifying continuity and change.
2. **HS1** Outline the difference between short-term causes and effects and long-term causes and effects.
3. **HS1** Describe a way to establish the significance of an aspect of the past.
4. **HS3** Look at the mind map in **SOURCE 3** and describe each of the sources pictured around the mind map.
5. **HS3** Suggest what we might learn about the past from old graffiti or one of the other types of primary sources listed in the mind map.
6. **HS3** Why would it be wrong to think that primary sources are more reliable than secondary sources?
7. **HS3** Make a list of some primary sources that could be used to create a history of your school (a secondary source). Beside each source in your list, write down what you think you could find out by using it as evidence.

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1.4 Ages, time and chronology

1.4.1 Dividing the past

At Year 7 level we will be investigating **prehistory** and **ancient history**. Because prehistory covers many tens of thousands of years, we usually describe prehistoric changes over millennia (blocks of 1000 years). Historians studying later times sometimes concentrate on particular centuries (blocks of 100 years) or even decades (blocks of 10 years).

To make sense of the past we divide it into ages or periods that have something in common. Prehistory is the prehistoric period (the time before people invented writing as a means of recording activities and events). It ended at different times in different parts of the world. For example, in China it ended thousands of years ago, while in Australia it ended a little over 200 years ago. We also use the terms Stone Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age. These refer to materials that people had learned to shape into tools and weapons in prehistoric and ancient times. Ancient history covers the time from the earliest **civilisations** around 3000 BCE to around 650 CE.

Counting time

In Australia, the system we have traditionally used to count years is one that was first used in Christian countries in AD 525. In this system, AD stands for **anno Domini** (**Latin** for 'in the year of our Lord'). The year AD 2012 means 2012 years since the birth of Christ. However, although this system is still commonly used throughout the world, many historians now use the term CE (Common Era) instead of AD. The dates are the same: 2012 CE is the same year as AD 2012. We count forward, so 50 years later the year would be AD 2062 (or 2062 CE).

BC means 'before Christ', and for these years we count backwards. Therefore, 500 BC would be 300 years earlier than 200 BC. Historians now commonly use the term BCE (Before Common Era) in place of BC.

SOURCE 1 A timeline showing some events from 3000 BCE to modern times



PREHISTORY

ANCIENT HISTORY

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

MODERN HISTORY

BCE

3000

c. 2900 BCE
Earliest known writing recorded in Mesopotamia.

c. 2550 BCE
Great Pyramid built at Giza in Egypt.

2000

2000 BCE
Knossos palace built on Crete.

This timeline is divided into 1000-year sections.

1279 BCE
Rameses the Great becomes pharaoh of Egypt.

1100 BCE
Decline of Mycenaean civilisation on Greek mainland

1000

Key dates and brief descriptions of events are given.

776 BCE
First known Olympic Games

The timeline is broken to show a break in the time scale.

753 BCE
Rome founded.

356 BCE
Alexander the Great is born.

221 BCE
First Qin emperor unifies China.

146 BCE
Rome conquers Greece.

BCE
CE

Where appropriate, a timeline is divided into eras.

392 CE
Christianity becomes official religion of Roman Empire.

632 CE
Death of Mohammed

900 CE
Most Mayan cities in decline (South America)

1000

1340 CE
Black Death reaches Europe.

1500 CE
World sea exploration begins.

1789 CE
French Revolution

2000

CE

Brackets are used to mark a specific period of history.

BP and *circa*

In prehistory many dates are uncertain. It is common to use BP (Before the Present) to indicate about how long ago something happened. For dates BP, the year 1950 CE is agreed upon as 'the present'. When dates are uncertain we put 'c.' before them because it stands for *circa* (Latin for 'around').

To convert years BP to years BCE, it is close enough to simply subtract the current date and round it off. For example, in the year 2000 CE, a date of 8000 BP would be (8000 minus 2000) — that is, c. 6000 BCE.

Other ways of counting time

There are other ways to count time. For example, Islamic countries start counting from the time of the flight of the prophet Mohammed from Mecca. This occurred in the year Christian countries call 622 CE.

DID YOU KNOW?

There is an easy way of working out what century a particular date is in. The first 100 years after the birth of Christ is called the first century CE. The first 100 years before the birth of Christ is called the first century BCE. To work out what century a date is in, you simply add one (1) to the number of hundreds in a date. Therefore, the year 2011 is in the twenty-first century CE. The year 705 BCE is in the eighth century BCE.

1.4 ACTIVITY

Using **SOURCE 1** as a model, create a timeline of your life up to the present. Include the important events of your life. Use the terms CE, century and decade. Then explain how your timeline helps you to present an overall picture of your life so far. **Sequencing chronology**

1.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is prehistory?
2. **HS2** Explain how the prehistoric period differs from ancient times.
3. **HS1** Explain how Islamic countries measure time.
4. **HS1** What is the difference between AD and BC?
5. **HS1** Identify the terms that historians commonly use in place of:
   (a) AD
   (b) BC.

1.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS2** The year 2019 is in the twenty-first century CE. Work out in which century each of the following years occurs: 705 CE, 1890 CE, 315 BCE.
2. **HS2** Calculate the number of years between 195 BCE and 755 CE.
3. **HS2** Write the meaning of the following terms: millennia, centuries, decades, ages, BC, AD, BCE, CE and BP.
4. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**, the timeline. Use it to find dates for the earliest known writing and the first known Olympic Games.
5. **HS1** Why do you think the date for the building of the Great Pyramid has 'c.' (for 'circa') before it?
6. **HS4** We use the terms Stone Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age to refer to periods of time in which people used those materials as their most advanced materials. Work in small groups to suggest an appropriate name (based on materials) for the age in which we now live.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.5 Detective work and archaeology

1.5.1 Written sources and archaeological sources

As you know, our evidence for the past comes from primary sources – sources that were created in the time we are investigating. Depending on the event and place, primary sources might include bones, tools, weapons, letters, newspapers, works of art or photographs. For prehistory we have no written primary sources, but for most periods of history we can divide primary sources into written sources (including poems, songs, letters, myths and legends) and archaeological sources (including tools, pottery, coins, toys, paintings, jewellery, tombs, and entire cities).

As a historian tests a hypothesis, he or she will compare sources with other sources to assess reliability and to ensure that the theory is supported by evidence. Historians often draw on the work of other experts for their sources.

1.5.2 Archival research

When historians research historical periods during which written records were kept, they often find many of their primary sources in archives. These are organised collections of records. For example, historians researching the history of Christianity in medieval times might carry out their research in the Vatican archives in Rome because this is where the records of the Roman Catholic Church are held.

1.5.3 Digging up the past

Historians also draw on the work of archaeologists. These experts examine the physical remains of the past; they collect, record and interpret them. Sometimes we already know where to find such archaeological sources. Examples include sites such as the pyramids in Egypt and the Great Wall of China. Very often, however, archaeologists have to dig to find evidence of the past. Generally, the older the site, the deeper the dig has to be.

Deciding where to dig

The first decision archaeologists have to make is where to dig for remains of past times. Many remains become buried over time by wind-blown sands, sediments from floods or volcanic ash. Some remains are hidden but there may be clues to their whereabouts in sources such as old documents. Caves are likely places in which to look and so are mounds of earth or other features that suggest that humans have changed the landscape (see **SOURCE 2**). Sometimes ancient remains are found purely by accident.

DID YOU KNOW?

For investigations of prehistoric and ancient times, historians and archaeologists also use important information from other scientists. Anthropologists study human behaviour, especially in tribal societies. Their findings help historians to understand past societies. Palaeontologists study fossils (traces of humans and animals from prehistoric times). Cryptographers specialise in breaking codes. Their skills have helped us to decipher and read some ancient languages.

Modern archaeologists also use a number of scientific techniques. Aerial and satellite photography can locate patches of earth that have different temperatures or different vegetation caused by buried settlements or tombs. Sonar equipment can be used to locate relics, including sunken boats, that lie beneath seas.

SOURCE 1 Activities at an archaeological dig



A Finds are carefully washed and labelled to record the trench and layers in which they were found.
B Strata revealed by the trench help archaeologists to date the various layers of the dig.
C Brushes and trowels are used to carefully uncover objects.
D Objects and sections of the site are photographed.
E After the site has been searched for objects, earth is removed from the trench.
F Positions of objects are recorded using drawing frames divided into squares.
G An ongoing record of progress at the dig is kept.

SOURCE 2 Mounds called barrows were made in England in prehistoric times. They were usually the burial place of a chief or king.



SOURCE 3 Remains of a ditch called a moat that was dug around a castle at Old Sarum in England in the eleventh century CE



Excavating remains

Once the site for an excavation, or dig, has been decided on there are several steps to follow. Archaeologists have to obtain permission to dig from the government of the country in which the site is located. They then survey the site, marking it out in squares with pegs and strings. When digging commences the archaeologists must be careful not to damage remains. The remains might be close to the surface. But in sites that have been occupied for a long time there can be several layers of remains. These layers are called strata and the oldest remains will normally be in the deepest strata. As they remove earth, the archaeological team searches carefully for remains. They label each find to record the square and level in which it was found.

Help from other scientists

Other scientific experts and new technologies are frequently used to help archaeologists to interpret their finds. Such experts include forensic pathologists who examine human remains to find evidence of what people ate and what might have caused their deaths. Technologies include computer programs that can analyse remains of buildings to create 3D images suggesting how they once looked.

DID YOU KNOW?

When archaeology began in the eighteenth century, some archaeologists were wealthy amateurs. They had no real training, and some of their expeditions destroyed more than they saved when they dug up ancient treasures. Among the greatest of all twentieth-century scientific archaeologists was an Australian, Vere Gordon Childe (1892–1957). He became a leader in the archaeology of prehistoric times.

1.5.4 Survival by chance

Only some archaeological traces of the distant past have survived. Many more have been destroyed by a range of causes. These include:

- demolition and rebuilding
- natural decay and erosion by wind, rain and floods
- theft. Almost all of the tombs of the Egyptian pharaohs were robbed of their treasures in ancient times.
- war. Many ancient towns and cities were smashed and burned in wars.

1.5.5 Clues from pottery

One of the most common and important sources of archaeological evidence is pottery. Pottery is made by shaping wet clay and then baking the clay so that it hardens and keeps the shape the potter has given it. Pottery has been made for about 10 000 years in East Asia, the Middle East and the Mediterranean region.

It was used in much the same way that we use glass and plastic bottles and jars today — mainly for holding and storing food and drinks. There is a lot of evidence from pottery because people threw away their broken pots. The broken pieces are called sherds, and even small pieces can help in building up a picture of the past. Archaeologists have named some prehistoric people after the style of pottery they made.

SOURCE 4 Painted pottery from ancient Greece, sixteenth or fifteenth century BCE



Particular pottery styles can be identified with different ages. For example, in one period a typical container made of pottery might have a long neck but no handles. In another age a typical style might have a short neck and a handle. Such differences help archaeologists to compare pottery from different sites to decide whether they are likely to belong to the same age or to a different time. Further clues are provided by decoration. Some vases, jugs, urns and bowls were engraved or painted with scenes showing the customs, work, stories and beliefs of the societies that produced them.

SOURCE 5 Small pottery vases found together in Rome. They are from the first century BCE. Each contains a small piece of bone from a dead person, and each has an inscription stating the person's name and date of death.



1.5 ACTIVITY

Working in small groups, list reasons why there would usually be more archaeological evidence from ancient times than from prehistoric times. **Identifying continuity and change**

1.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Complete the following sentences:
   (a) Primary sources include _____ sources (including poems, letters and legends) and _____ sources (including tools, pottery, paintings, jewellery and entire cities).
   (b) Archives are organised _____ of ____ sources.
2. **HS1** What three tasks describe the main work of archaeologists?
3. **HS1** List the kinds of clues that help archaeologists to decide where to dig.
4. **HS1** Name two technologies that help archaeologists locate sites for digs.
5. **HS1** List two causes of destruction of archaeological traces.
6. **HS1** What kinds of archaeological traces would be most likely to be lost through theft?
7. **HS1** What did people do with broken pottery in ancient times?

1.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS1** Write descriptions of four activities that people are performing in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the people in **SOURCE 1**. The site you are excavating is thought to be the remains of a city that was destroyed in a war. Describe in a diary entry your feelings about your day's work, what you might hope to find and what you might actually have found.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCES 2** and **3**.
   (a) Describe what you see in each photograph.
   (b) Explain why it is obvious that humans did something to change the landscape shown in each photograph.
   (c) What might an archaeologist expect to find on a dig at either of these sites?
4. **HS3** Look closely at the details in **SOURCES 4** and **5**. Use these details and information in the captions to form a hypothesis about each of the civilisations that made these items.
5. **HS6** Why is pottery such an important source of evidence for archaeologists?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.6 How old is it?

1.6.1 Dating techniques

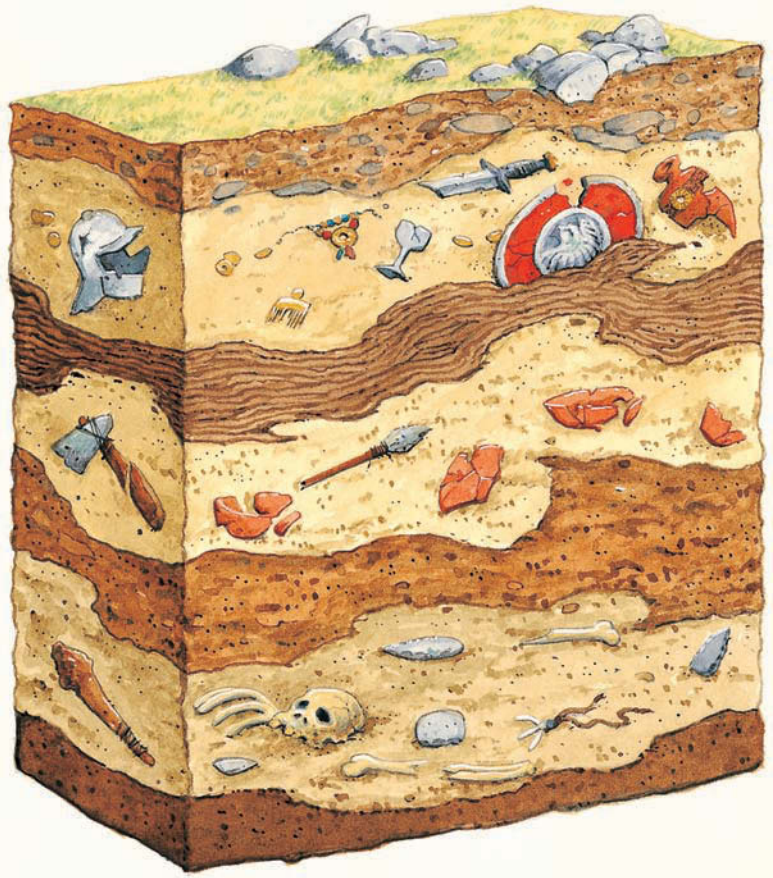
Archaeologists are finding evidence of our past all the time. Before we can assess what the source of evidence tells us about past human activity, we need to know how old the source is. Being able to date evidence allows historians to place events and human behaviours in time order. It also helps to identify any links between past groups of people. Sometimes it allows experts to detect fakes.

Some dating methods will not reveal how old something is — just whether it is older or younger than something else. These methods are called **relative dating techniques**. Two of these are stratigraphy and fluorine dating.

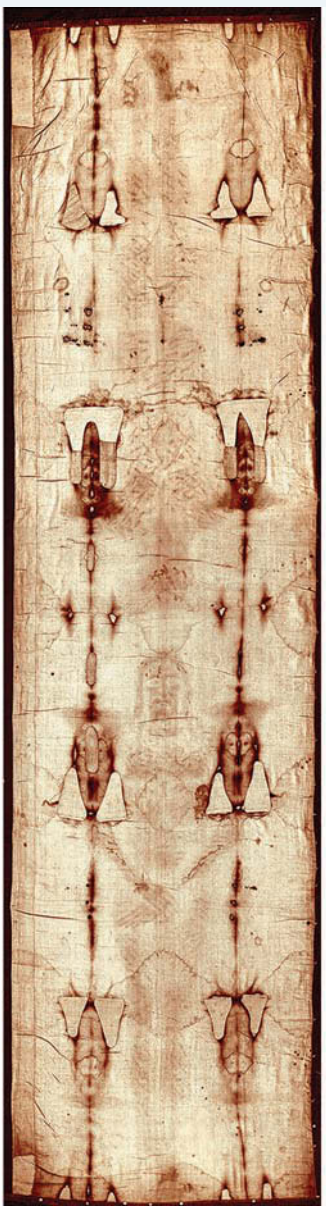
Stratigraphy is the study of the different **strata** or layers revealed when a slice is cut down through the earth.

The longer that bones lie in the earth, the more fluorine they absorb from the soil. So the more fluorine it has, the older the bone. Fluorine testing was used to expose one of the most famous scientific frauds in history — the Piltdown Man. For 41 years the skull of this so-called creature had been accepted as firm evidence of the 'missing link' between ape and man. Fluorine testing conducted in 1953 found that the top section of the skull was much older than the jawbone and teeth. It was then revealed that the remains of a human skull had been carefully joined with those of a chimpanzee. It is still a mystery who set up this amazing fraud.

SOURCE 1 Limitations of radiocarbon dating
This diagram indicates different types of objects that might be found during the excavation of a site that has been occupied over thousands of years. Radiocarbon dating gives approximate dates before the present. There is a 95 per cent chance that the true date falls within 200 years either side of any estimated radiocarbon-dated age. However, radiocarbon dating cannot date anything that died more than about forty thousand years ago. In such remains there will not be enough C14 left for radiocarbon dating to work. Artefacts such as stone tools cannot be dated this way because they were never alive. But if they were found alongside a layer of plant remains or charcoal, that material could be dated, and the age of the tools would probably be similar.



SOURCE 2 One famous object that has been radiocarbon dated is the Shroud of Turin — said by some to be the cloth in which Christ was wrapped after his crucifixion. These tests, carried out in the late 1980s, indicated the cloth was only around seven hundred years old. Then further tests were done. These proved that only the bacteria and mould on the cloth were around seven hundred years old. The mystery continues. Written records confirm the cloth did exist in 1357.



What's its age?

Absolute dating techniques are used to work out the actual age of something or someone. Archaeologists combine these with relative dating techniques. For example, if absolute dating techniques prove that an object is 1000 years old, and the object was found in a particular stratum (or layer), then archaeologists can generally assume that any objects found in strata below this will be more than 1000 years old. There are many different absolute dating techniques.

Radiocarbon dating

All living things absorb C14, which is a radioactive form of carbon. This chemical process stops when the human, plant or animal dies. Then any C14 in the once-living tissue starts to decay. Scientists know the rate at

which C14 breaks down. By working out how much of it still remains, they can work backwards to establish the likely date of death, and hence the approximate age.

1.6.2 Tree rings tell stories about the past

What might seem like one of the strangest of all dating methods involves using tree rings and so we call it tree-ring dating. The scientific name for this method is dendrochronology. All trees have tree rings and they can help with dating old objects. But the technique only works if the objects were made of wood. The age of a tree is worked out by counting the number of rings in the wood. A new ring is formed every year in a tree's life. The width and shape of each ring depend on environmental conditions such as rainfall and soil type. All trees of the same type growing in the same area will have the same environmental conditions, so the pattern of their growth rings will be very similar.

Sometimes the age of wooden items such as spear handles and roof beams can be worked out by matching the growth rings in the wood with those in a dated sample from trees in the same area — as long as they are of the same species.

SOURCE 3 Tree growth rings



DID YOU KNOW?

In recent years, DNA evidence has become another important scientific method for discovering information that can be used by archaeologists and historians. DNA samples can tell us who people's ancestors were. Using DNA analysis, scientists have found that the ancestors of all modern humans came from Africa (see topic 2 The ancient world: c. 60 000 BCE to c. 650 CE).

1.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What are strata?
2. **HS1** Will objects found in a lower stratum be older or newer than those found in a higher stratum?
3. **HS1** What is radiocarbon dating, and how can knowing the rate at which C14 breaks down help in finding out the likely age of any once-living remains?
4. **HS1** What is another name for dendrochronology (see **SOURCE 3**)?
5. **HS1** How might dendrochronology help in finding out the age of wooden objects?

1.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at the artefacts illustrated in **SOURCE 1**. Describe the kinds of changes that must have happened in ways people lived at this site over many ages.
2. **HS6** Examine **SOURCE 2** and outline why you think the Shroud of Turin might be regarded by many people as something of great historical significance.
3. **HS3** Look at the evidence in **SOURCE 3**. Suggest how old (approximately) the tree was using the tree growth rings.
4. **HS3** Design a mind map, like the one in 1.3.2, **SOURCE 3** to represent the technologies that help archaeologists to date the sources of evidence that they discover.
5. **HS4** Imagine you are an archaeologist investigating a recently discovered medieval site. You have found pottery, books, wooden furniture and bones. Identify and describe the dating techniques you could use to work out the age of each item in order to identify what changed over the centuries during which the site was occupied.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.7 Perspectives and empathy

1.7.1 Understanding how they thought and felt

It is important for historians to empathise with the people they study. This means trying to understand how people thought and felt at different times in the past. At different points throughout this book you will be asked to put yourself in the situation of someone in the past. This is not a creative writing task, in which you can let your imagination run wild. Rather, you will be using historical imagination. This requires using your imagination, but basing your ideas on evidence.

We try to understand the **perspectives** of people in the past through exploring their points of view, attitudes and values. Often we can get a sense of the way people thought and felt through primary sources, such as diaries, or through visiting museums and historical sites. Using empathy, we work with all the evidence we have in order to imagine what the past was like for people who were there at the time. We need to consider such questions as:

- Who were these people?
- Where did they live?
- How did they live?
- What mattered to them?
- What did they believe in?
- What did they see, hear, taste, smell and feel?
- What did they fear and what did they hope for?
- Did they have feelings similar to or different from ours?
- Did they all think and feel the same as one another, or did they have differing perspectives?

How should we judge people in the past?

When we learn about some of the things people did in the past, it is natural that we make moral judgements. For example, we now see slavery and torture as cruel. What we should try to avoid is judging people in the past by beliefs or standards that did not exist in their time. It would be wrong, for example, to judge a Roman army officer as being particularly cruel because he allowed his prisoners of war to be sold as slaves. At that time he would have been upholding the laws and attitudes of his society. However, some ancient Romans were cruel even by the standards of their own time. We should also remember that in the future, people may think that many kinds of behaviour we consider normal are, by their standards, wrong.

SOURCE 1 The ruins of the Colosseum in Rome

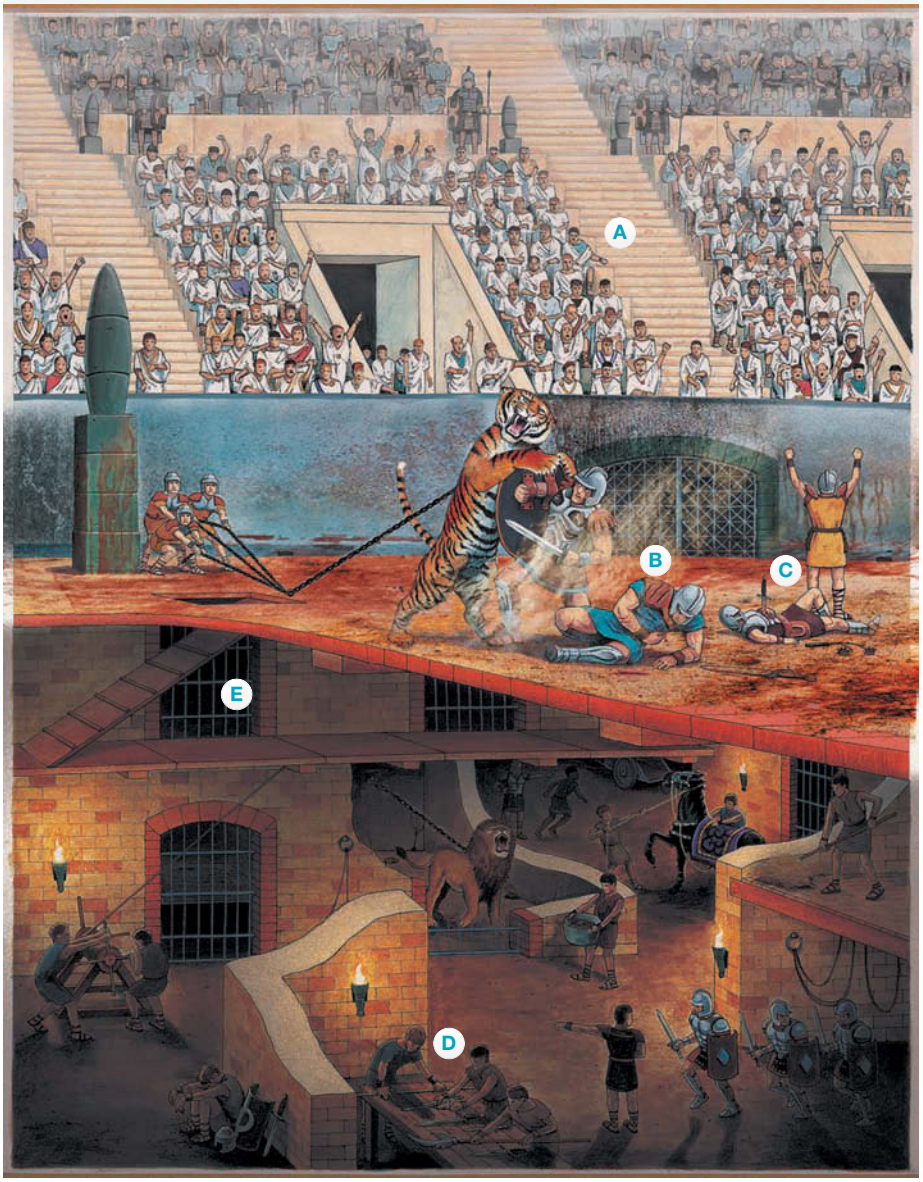


DISCUSS

What might a gladiator decide to do if other gladiators suggested that, instead of continuing to kill each other for the amusement of Romans, they band together, overpower their guards and make a bid for freedom? Consider in your discussion how his decision might be influenced if this gladiator was:

a. expecting to be killed in his next fight
b. confident of winning his next fight and expecting to be given his freedom in the near future
c. from a cultural group that was hostile towards other groups represented among these gladiators
d. disgusted with having to kill his fellow gladiators for the entertainment of Romans. **[Ethical Capability]**

SOURCE 2 The Colosseum was a vast amphitheatre in ancient Rome. To entertain Roman crowds, slaves trained to be gladiators were forced to fight, often to the death, against other gladiators or against wild animals that had been tormented to make them ferocious. Most gladiators were men but at least a few were young women. This artwork shows what happened below the arena as well as what happened above ground.



A The Colosseum was a vast amphitheatres in ancient Rome. This enormous elliptical stadium was 189 metres long, 156 metres wide and 48 metres tall. It had four levels of seating and a capacity of up to 80 000 spectators. The 80 entrances, 76 of which were available for use by ordinary spectators, allowed the crowds to enter and leave quickly.

B To entertain Roman crowds, slaves trained to be gladiators were forced to fight, often to the death, against other gladiators or against wild animals that had been tormented to make them ferocious.

C Most gladiators were men but at least a few were young women. They wore elaborate armour, partly for protection and partly for show.

D The floor of the fighting area was made of wood and covered in sand. Trapdoors with a lift and pulley system were used to provide spectators with an element of surprise, or to quickly dispose of the dead bodies and carcasses.

E Below the Colosseum was a maze of tunnels, cells and dungeons. The cells and dungeons were used to contain the criminals, gladiators and animals, while the network of tunnels was used to transport the entertainment in and the remains out.

1.7 ACTIVITY

Working in small groups, think of something that happens in our own time that some people believe is wrong. An example could be the way some countries are wealthy while in others children die of starvation and preventable diseases. Do you think that at some time in the future people might consider ours to have been an unjust age? Report back to the class and give reasons for your answer.

Identifying continuity and change

1.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

1.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What does it mean to empathise with the people you study?
2. **HS1** How is empathy different from sympathy?
3. **HS1** How is historical imagination different from just letting your imagination run wild?
4. **HS1** Identify the questions we might consider when trying to understand the perspectives of people in the past.
5. **HS1** Why could it be wrong to judge people from past times by the standards of our times?

1.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS1** Using the internet and/or other information sources, find the meaning of the word 'sympathy'. Explain how empathy is different from sympathy.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Discuss whether the Colosseum's bloody past is what makes it such a big tourist attraction.
   (b) How do you think modern visitors to the Colosseum feel about its cruel past?
   (c) How would you explain such changes in attitudes over time?
3. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the gladiators shown in **SOURCE 2** and describe:
   (a) what you can see, hear, taste and smell
   (b) how you feel about what you are doing and your chances of survival
   (c) how you feel about your opponent who, like you, is only doing what he is forced to
   (d) what you feel about the crowd that is cheering for you to kill or to be killed.
4. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the soldiers guarding the arena or forcing gladiators up from the tunnels and cages below. Would you be likely to consider what you are doing immoral or would you accept it as 'the way things are'?
5. **HS3** Not all ancient Romans liked watching gladiators fight, but many did. What do you think most of the crowd would be feeling?

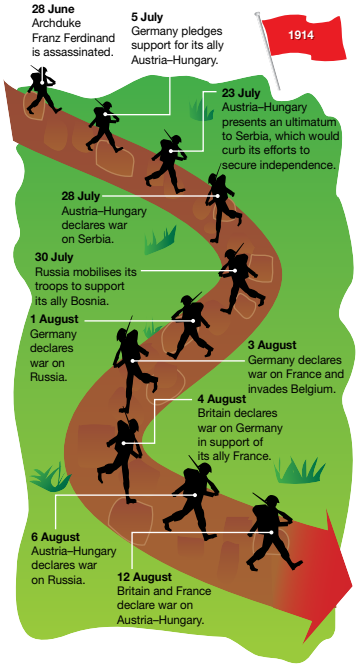
Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

1.8 SkillBuilder: Sequencing events in chronological order

online only

What is a timeline?

A timeline is a diagrammatic tool for placing events in chronological order (the order in which they happened). A simple chronology would be one, for example, that showed in sequence, or time order, key events of a day in your life. Generally, timelines are constructed using a sequence of dates with the addition of descriptive labels. A timeline may cover a short period or many centuries. Timelines may be as simple as a horizontal or vertical line, or highly visual with use of colour and images.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

1.9 Review

online only

1.9.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

1.9 Exercise 1: Review

Select your learnON format to complete review questions for this topic.

on Resources

eWorkbook Crossword (doc-32115)

Interactivity Historical skills and concepts crossword (int-7690)

KEY TERMS

absolute dating techniques methods used to assess the age of something (e.g. radiocarbon dating, tree-ring dating)
ancient history the period from the beginning of civilisation to the fall of the Roman Empire
anno Domini Latin for 'in the year of our Lord'

artefact an object made or changed by humans
biased one-sided or prejudiced; seeing something from just one point of view
cause and effect the concept that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences
chronology a record of past events in order of time, from Latin *chronos* meaning time and *logos*, meaning to work out
civilisation term used to describe societies that have towns and features such as complex forms of government and religion
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
evidence information that indicates whether something is true or really happened
heritage everything that has come down to us from the past
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
Latin the language of ancient Rome and its empire
perspective point of view or attitude
prehistory the period before writing was invented
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that the historian is investigating
relative dating techniques methods used to assess whether something is older than something else (e.g. stratigraphy, fluorine dating)
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created by people living at a time after the period that the historian is studying
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites.
strata (singular: stratum) distinct layers of material beneath the ground, built up over time, that provide information for archaeologists and geologists
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order

1.8 SkillBuilder: Sequencing events in chronological order

1.8.1 Tell me

What is a timeline?

A timeline is a diagrammatic tool for placing events in chronological order (the order in which they happened). A simple chronology would be one, for example, that showed in sequence, or time order, key events of a day in your life.

Why are timelines useful?

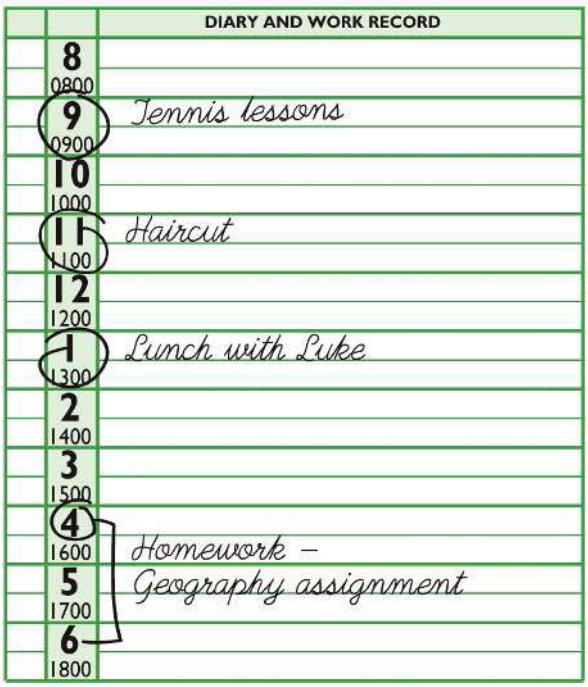
Timelines are useful because they can help us make sense of events in the past. Timelines are particularly useful in the study of history. Creating a history timeline will help to:

- understand the order in which events occurred
- describe the time distances between events
- identify what has changed over time
- identify what has stayed the same over time
- analyse how one event might relate to other events
- compare what might have been happening in different places at the same time
- assess if one event might have led to another event (cause and effect).

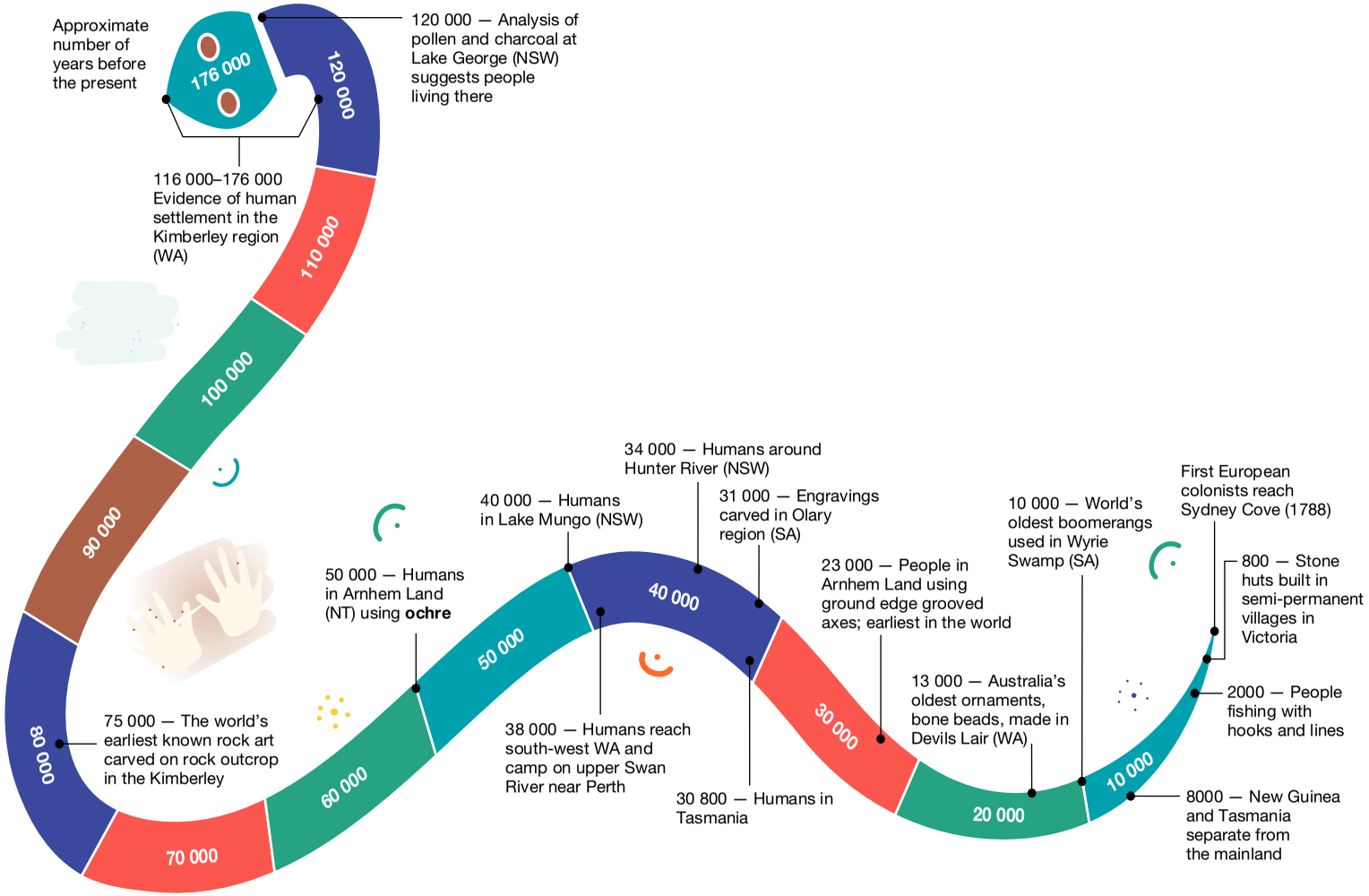
Generally, timelines are constructed using a sequence of dates with the addition of descriptive labels. The timeline may span thousands of years (see **SOURCE 2**) or cover a very short period (see **SOURCE 3**). In print, timelines may be as simple as a horizontal or vertical line, or highly visual with use of colour and images. Using digital technology, online timelines can be interactive, where users can click on a date and see a descriptive label, an image or even hear an audio narrative or sound effects.

SOURCES 2, **3**, **4**, **5** and **6** show some examples of highly visual timelines that could be presented in printed history text books.

SOURCE 1 A simple chronology



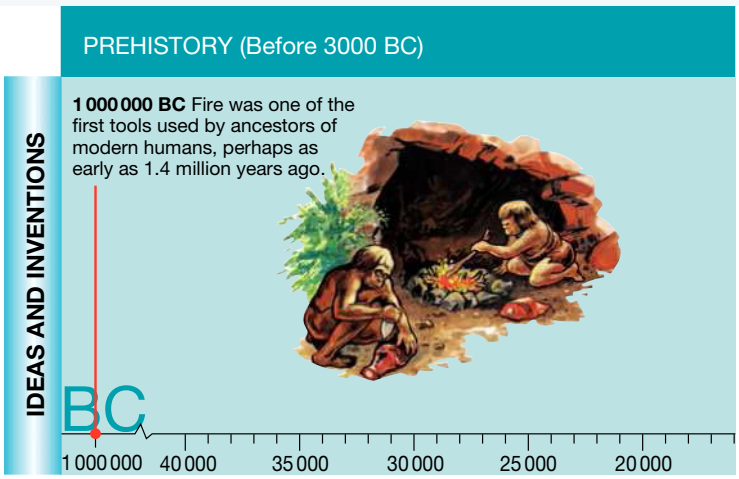
SOURCE 2 An example of a timeline that covers a long span of time



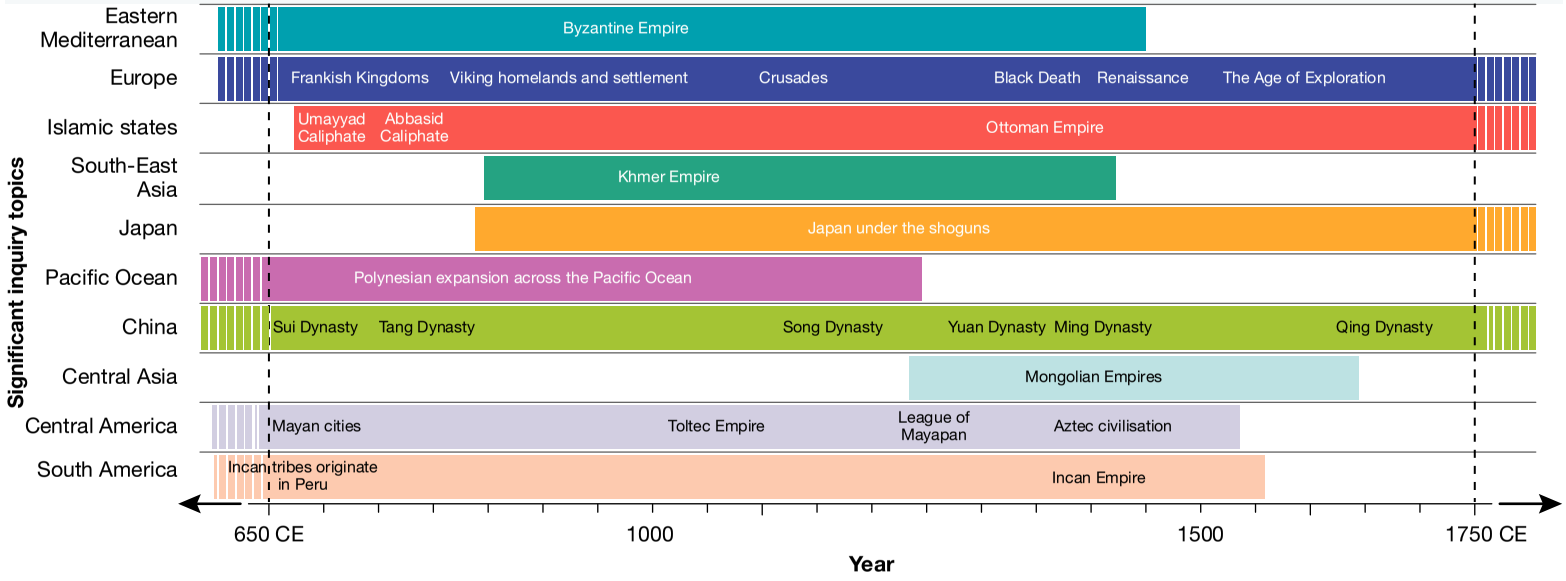
SOURCE 3 An example of a timeline that covers a short span of time



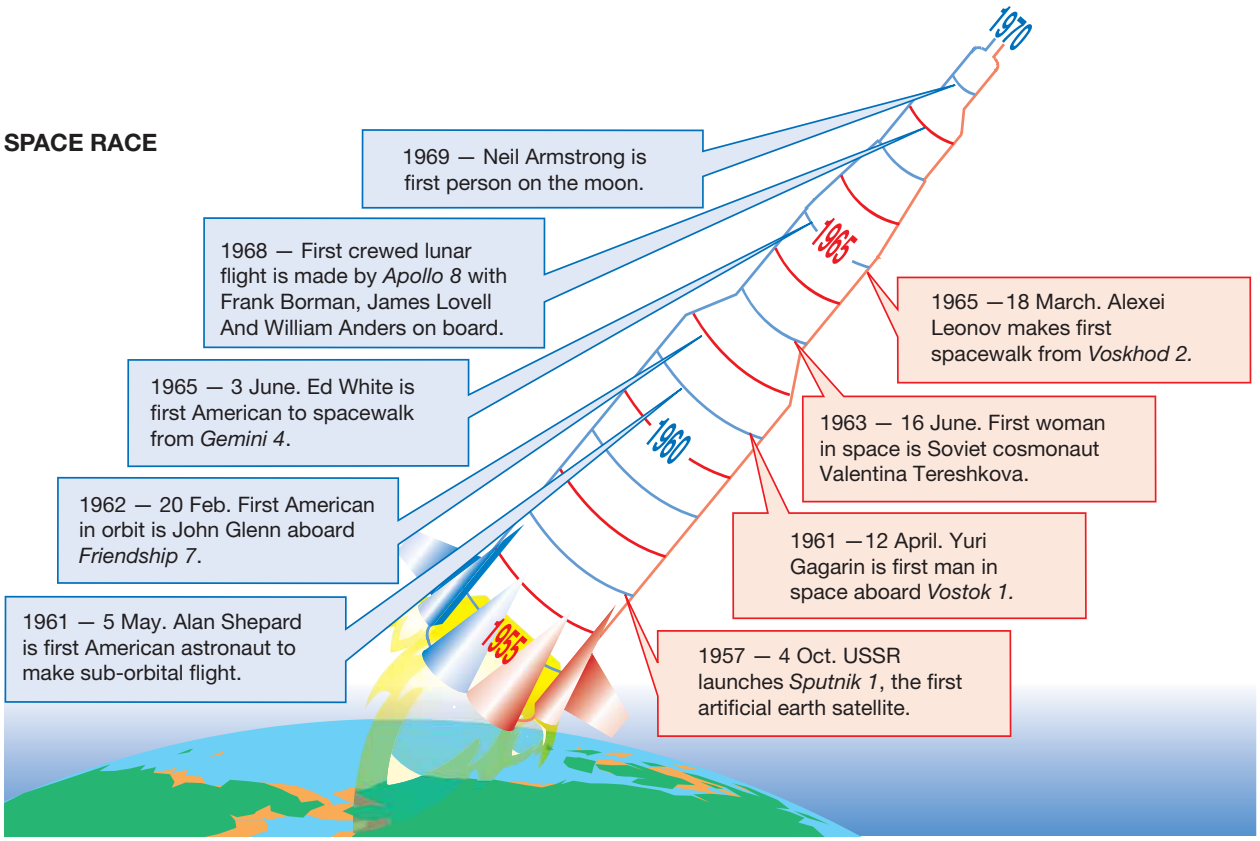
SOURCE 4 An extract from a timeline that provides some illustrative material to accompany descriptive text labels



SOURCE 5 An example of a horizontal timeline that uses coloured bars to compare significant events in different places at the same point in time



SOURCE 6 An example of a timeline that uses a drawing of an object related to the subject or theme of the timeline



1.8.2 Show me

How to create a timeline

Timelines can cover very short or very long periods of time.

- They can focus on just a few months or years.
- They can focus on big, sweeping changes over thousands of years.
- In most cases, they are divided up into equal blocks of time, such as decades or centuries. This is not essential, but it helps us to see not only the order of events but also how close or how far apart they were.
- A break in the timeline (using a zig zag line, for instance) can show a long span of time between one date and the next.
- To make equal blocks of time you need to use a scale — for example, 1 centimetre = 10 years.
- Timelines can be horizontal (across the page) with the earliest dates on the left and later dates to the right.
- Alternatively, they can be vertical (down the page), in which case the dates usually run from the earliest at the top to the latest at the bottom.
- Often, we have only approximate dates for events in ancient history. In those cases, we put 'c.' in front of the date. It stands for the Latin word *circa*, which is Latin for 'around' or 'about'.

Step 1

Study the timeline. Look at the way this timeline has been constructed.

- It is a vertical timeline.
- It has been divided into centuries.
- A scale of 1 centimetre = 1 century has been used.

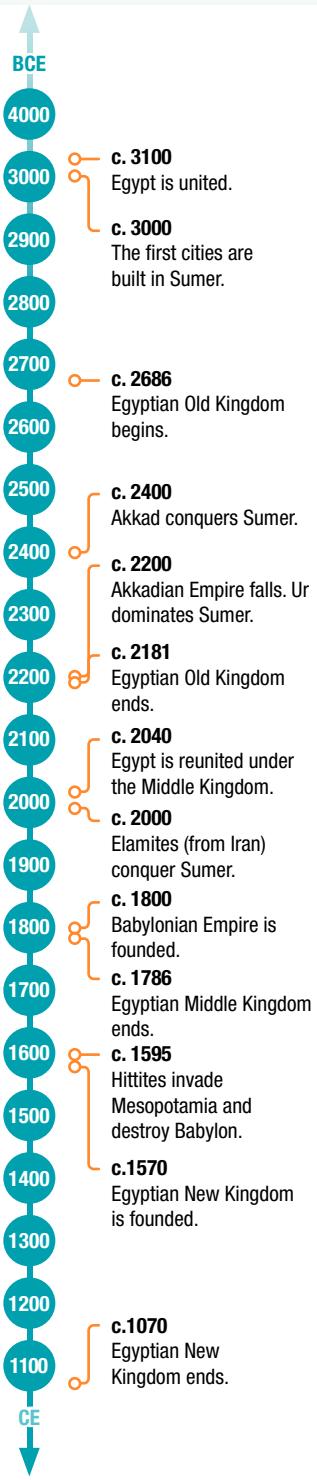
Step 2

A completed timeline has a clear title.

The title should state:

- the time period covered
- the subject or theme
- the beginning and end dates.

Timeline of the rise and fall of kingdoms and empires in Egypt and Mesopotamia between 3000 BCE and 1000 BCE



1.8.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

1.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Construct a timeline of the rise and fall of civilisations in east and south Asia between 2500 BCE and 200 BCE.

- Use a vertical timeline.
- Divide it into centuries.
- Decide on the scale you will use.

Key events for your timeline

c. 2500 BCE	Cities are built by the Indus Valley civilisation.
c. 2100 BCE	According to Chinese legends, the Xia dynasty begins ruling China.
c. 1600 BCE	The Shang dynasty is established in China. The Indus Valley cities are abandoned and India is invaded by Aryans.
c. 1100 BCE	Iron begins to be used in India.
c. 1045 BCE	The Zhou overthrow the Shang and start the Zhou dynasty.
c. 770 BCE	The Eastern Zhou dynasty begins in China.
c. 500 BCE	Iron begins to be used in China.
475 BCE	The Warring States period begins in China, starting centuries of conflict.
327 BCE	India is invaded by Alexander the Great (of Macedonia and Greece).
304 BCE	India is united under the Mauryan Empire.
221 BCE	China is united under the Qin dynasty.
206 BCE	The Qin dynasty is overthrown in a peasant revolt. The Han dynasty begins.

Your timeline will help you to analyse and compare events. For example, you could use it to answer questions such as:

- Which of these two cultures was the first to build cities?
- Which was the first to use iron?

2. Answer the following questions based on the timeline you have drawn:

(a) What time span does your timeline cover (i.e. how many years in total are covered by your timeline)?
(b) Which Chinese dynasty shown on your timeline was the earliest?
(c) How many years elapsed between the establishment of the Shang and Qin dynasties?
(d) Did the Indian or Chinese civilisation use iron first? What period of time separated the introduction of the use of iron in the two civilisations?
(e) Identify three significant events during the period of time illustrated on the timeline for:
  i. China
  ii. India.
  iii. What statement could you make about the length of Chinese dynasties over the period shown on your timeline?
(f) What event of significance for ancient Indian civilisation occurred during the period of the Shang dynasty in China?
(g) What might have been a consequence for Indian civilisation of the invasion of Alexander the Great? (*Hint:* Look for an event that happened relatively shortly after his invasion.)

1.9 Review

1.9.1 Key knowledge summary

1.2 How and why do we study history?

- Historians investigate and interpret the past.
- History helps us to understand our heritage and appreciate other cultures.
- History helps us to understand the present and what the future may hold.
- History provides us with essential skills.

1.3 Historical skills

- There are five historical skills that you will learn throughout your History course.
- Sequencing chronology refers to recording past events in order of time.
- Using historical sources as evidence relates to analysing sources to judge how reliable they are and explore the different points of view, or perspectives, of people from the past.
- Identifying continuity and change is the ability to recognise that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant.
- Analysing cause and effect relates to understanding that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences.
- Determining historical significance is the ability to make judgements about the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past, for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites.

1.4 Ages, time and chronology

- Historians divide the past into ages and periods.
- In Australia we count time using a system that was developed in Christian countries, but there are other systems.
- Using chronological order and timelines helps us to recognise cause and effect.

1.5 Detective work and archaeology

- Archaeologists use several techniques to find remains of the past.
- The skills of other scientists contribute to discoveries in archaeology.
- Pottery is an important source of archaeological evidence.
- Some archaeological remains survive while others are destroyed.

1.6 How old is it?

- Relative dating techniques help us to know if a source is older or newer than another source.
- We can find the age of many sources using absolute dating techniques.

1.7 Perspectives and empathy

- Historians try to discover how people thought and felt at different times in the past.
- Using historical imagination requires using your imagination, but basing your ideas on evidence.
- We should avoid judging people from the past by the standards of our own age.

on Resources

eWorkbook Crossword (doc-32115)

Interactivity Historical skills and concepts crossword (int-7690)

KEY TERMS

absolute dating techniques methods used to assess the age of something (e.g. radiocarbon dating, tree-ring dating)

ancient history the period from the beginning of civilisation to the fall of the Roman Empire

anno Domini latin for 'in the year of our Lord'

biased one-sided or prejudiced; seeing something from just one point of view
cause and effect the concept that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences
chronology a record of past events in order of time, from Latin *chronos* meaning time and *logos*, meaning to work out
civilisation term used to describe societies that have towns and features such as complex forms of government and religion
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
evidence information that indicates whether something is true or really happened
heritage everything that has come down to us from the past
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
Latin the language of ancient Rome and its empire
perspective point of view or attitude
prehistory the period before writing was invented
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that the historian is investigating
relative dating techniques methods used to assess whether something is older than something else (e.g. stratigraphy, fluorine dating)
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created by people living at a time after the period that the historian is studying
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites.
strata (singular: stratum) distinct layers of material beneath the ground, built up over time, that provide information for archaeologists and geologists
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order

2 The ancient world: c. 60 000 BCE to c. 650 CE

2.1 Overview

Without planes and ships, how (and why) did early humans spread across the world from Africa?

2.1.1 Links with our times

You might have seen travel brochures that advertise 'the journey of a lifetime'. This topic is also a journey; it will take you through many human lifetimes, and we will be travelling not only through space but also through time! We start in the Old Stone Age, beginning when the ancestors of every modern human being on our planet lived in Africa. We will follow the pathway of people who walked out of Africa, probably less than 100 000 years ago. Our next big stop begins around 11 000 years ago, when people in the Middle East became the first to change to a new way of life based on farming. Gradually, farming spread to many places, enabling people to live in settled communities and to build great monuments, such as Stonehenge, between 3000 and 2000 BCE. Along the way, we will encounter some amazing discoveries that have helped us to imagine the world in ancient times.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson The ancient past (eles-2456)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

2.1 Overview
2.2 Examining the evidence
2.3 Out of Africa
2.4 A changing Paleolithic world
2.5 An amazing journey
2.6 The Mesolithic Age
2.7 The New Stone Age
2.8 Cities, laws, government
2.9 Society and culture
2.10 Civilisations and empires in North Africa, western Asia and Europe
2.11 Civilisations in South and East Asia
2.12 Ancient American civilisations
2.13 The ancient birth of modern religions and philosophies
2.14 **SkillBuilder:** Describing broad patterns of change online only
2.15 **Thinking Big research project:** Museum exhibition guide online only
2.16 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of the ancient world















BCE

200 000

150 000

100 000

50 000

40 000

30 000

20 000

10 000

9000

8000

7000

6000

5000

4000

3000

2000

1000

BCE / CE

1000

2000

CE

c. 200 000–130 000
The earliest true humans (*Homo sapiens*) appear in Africa.

c. 75 00
Humans spread through Asia.

c. 60 000
Humans migrate to New Guinea and Australia.

c. 40 000
Humans begin to spread through Europe.

c. 33 000
Humans move into Tasmania when sea levels are low.

c. 36 000
Humans reach southern Australia.

c. 30 000
Homo neanderthalensis (Neanderthal Man) becomes extinct.

Early cave paintings are created in France and Spain.

Rock engravings are made on Cape York Peninsula.

c. 30 000–10 000
Humans colonise the Americas.

c. 21 000
The world's earliest ground-edge, grooved axes are made in Arnhem Land.

c. 20 000
The last Ice Age reaches its peak.

c. 8000
The world's earliest returning boomerangs are used in South Australia.

c. 12 000
The Middle Stone Age begins in Europe.

c. 9000 BCE
Herding and farming begin in western Asia.

c. 3500 BCE
Writing is first used in Sumer, western Asia.

c. 3000 BCE
Cities are built and the first empires rise in western Asia.

c. 6000 BCE
Farming begins to spread into North Africa, other parts of Asia and Europe.

c. 2500 BCE
Cities are built on the Indian subcontinent.

c. 1400 BCE
Ancient Greek civilisation begins.

c. 3100 BCE
Egypt becomes a united kingdom.

c. 750 BCE
Rome is founded.

c. 2500 BCE
Minoan civilisation begins on the Mediterranean island of Crete.

c. 180 CE
The Roman Empire reaches its greatest extent.

c. 1200 BCE
Olmec civilisation flourishes in Mexico.

625 CE
Islam is established in Mecca, Saudi Arabia

c. 221 BCE
China becomes an empire.

476 CE
The Roman Empire falls.

2.2 Examining the evidence

2.2.1 How do we know about the ancient world?

Our survey of ancient times includes two very different worlds: the prehistoric world, or Old Stone Age, and the ancient world, when people adopted new ways of life based on farming. For Old Stone Age societies we have no evidence from written records because there was no writing. So we do not know the name of even a single person who lived in prehistoric times. We have almost no evidence from buildings because Old Stone Age people were **hunter-gatherers**, who lived **nomadic** or semi-nomadic lives and rarely required permanent dwellings. Clothes made of animal skins and tools made of wood do not normally survive for thousands of years. Also there were far fewer people living in Old Stone Age times to leave traces behind. Despite these problems, you will realise that there are primary sources, including weapons, tools and cave paintings (see **SOURCE 1**), that can provide us with clues to unlock some of the secrets of the Old Stone Age.

In contrast, societies that experienced the **Neolithic Revolution** left many primary sources. The growth of towns and cities, the rise of governments, laws and organised religions, the use of metals and the emergence of arts and crafts left many clues. Archaeologists have unearthed vast amounts of evidence that is now displayed in museums around the world (see **SOURCE 2**). These artefacts include brilliantly carved wall panels, pottery, tombs and statues.

Life in large, organised communities created the need for writing to make records of trade, contracts, laws and taxes, but writing soon found other uses. The Sumerians were the first to keep written records of their stories, legends and poems (see **SOURCE 3**). Most of what we know about their literature comes from copies of their stories which were made by people who conquered them and who also wrote on clay tablets. As you study each of the following sources, you can begin to imagine the richness of the cultures that arose in the ancient world.

SOURCE 1 An Old Stone Age painting of bison, from Lascaux cave in southern France



SOURCE 2 One side of the Standard of Ur. It is a box decorated on all four sides with scenes from life in Sumer. It was made in about 2600 BCE and was part of the treasure in a royal tomb found in the ancient Sumerian city of Ur. This side is called the 'war side' because it shows scenes of warfare, in contrast to the peaceful activities depicted on the 'peace side'.



SOURCE 3 From *The Epic of Gilgamesh*, one of the best known stories of ancient Sumer. In this story, a man named Utnapishtim tells Gilgamesh the story of how he, his family and helpers built a great boat to save themselves and pairs of animals when their gods decided to flood the world.

All my family and kin I made go aboard the ship.
The beasts of the field, the wild creatures of the field,
All the craftsmen I made go aboard.
...
Six days and nights
Blows the flood wind, as the south-storm sweeps the land.
When the seventh day arrived,
...
The sea grew quiet, the tempest was still, the flood ceased
...
And all mankind had returned to clay.
When the seventh day arrived,
I sent forth and set free a dove.
The dove went forth, but came back;
Since no resting-place for it was visible, she turned round.
Then I sent forth and set free a swallow
The swallow went forth, but came back;
Since no resting-place for it was visible, she turned round.
Then I sent forth and set free a raven.
The raven went forth and, seeing that the waters had diminished,
He eats circles, caws, and turns not round.



2.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Identify one primary source of evidence for Old Stone Age societies.
2. **HS1** Explain why there are more primary sources left by societies that experienced the Neolithic Revolution than by those that experienced the Stone Age.
3. **HS1** List three examples of primary source evidence for Neolithic civilisations.
4. **HS1** Define the term *nomadic*.
5. **HS5** Why do we have much more evidence for ancient Neolithic societies that adopted new ways of life based on farming? Write a short response that gives at least two reasons.

2.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Write a short paragraph explaining three things that **SOURCE 1** could tell us about Old Stone Age people.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. The top panel of the Standard of Ur shows the Sumerian king with armed warriors.
   (a) Describe the scenes in the middle and bottom panels.
   (b) What evidence does this source provide for the nature of war in ancient Sumer?
3. **HS3** Read the first six lines of **SOURCE 3** and explain in your own words the events it describes.
4. **HS3** In the last ten lines of **SOURCE 3**, the narrator tells what happened each time he released a bird. What do you think this means?
5. **HS3** Write a one-page summary of all that you have discovered about ancient societies from just these three sources.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.3 Out of Africa

2.3.1 The world of the hunter-gatherers

The human story begins in Africa. Scientific evidence tells us that several different human-like **species** emerged in Africa between about 2 million and 200 000 years ago. Members of some of these species, including *Homo sapiens*, the species to which all modern humans belong, migrated out of Africa. The period during which modern humans first emerged is referred to as the Old Stone Age. It was the age of the hunter-gatherers, the time before many people became farmers. This age ended in the Middle East around 11 000 years ago. Elsewhere, it ended later. In some places, including Australia, it ended just a couple of centuries ago.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, scientists used evidence from DNA (see 1.6 How old is it?) to rewrite the story of early *Homo sapiens*' migrations. They concluded that the ancestors of Aboriginal Australians most likely left Africa and the Middle East at least 20 000 years earlier than the ancestors of Asians and Europeans.

Imagining the distant past

Imagine living in a world where everything you now take for granted has never existed. You live in caves or shelters covered in bark or skins. If you live in a warm climate, you probably need no clothes. In a cold climate, your clothes are the skins from animals your family has hunted.

All your food comes from these animals and from roots, seeds, fruits or berries gathered in the wild. Your only warmth and light at night comes from fires you make by scratching **flint** or rubbing sticks to ignite dry leaves or grass.

Each day a great ball of fire crosses your sky, bringing warmth and light, only to disappear again over what you might believe is the edge of the world. You live in fear of large animals that are faster and stronger than you and who see *you* as food. But you have some advantages. A thumb opposite the fingers on each hand enables you to make and use simple tools and weapons. Your brain enables you to learn from every experience. And you have language — the ability to make sounds that have a shared meaning for the clan with which you will spend your life.

The theory of evolution

Less than two centuries ago most people in Christian, Jewish and Muslim societies believed that the Earth and all living things were only about 6000 years old. This belief came from the Bible. It was challenged by Charles Darwin in 1859. Darwin presented a scientific argument using evidence to show that all species evolved from other life forms over millions of years. This is called the theory of evolution. It is supported by evidence from discoveries of **fossils** by **palaeontologists**, but many people still reject this theory.

Scientists now generally agree that life on Earth began about three billion years ago. About six million years ago the line of animals from which modern humans are descended split from that of the chimpanzees. **SOURCE 1** illustrates the way in which many scientists believe humans evolved.

2.3.2 Human migrations

As we now know, there were originally several human species. However, only our species, *Homo sapiens*, survived. *Homo sapiens* migrated throughout Africa and into Asia, Australia and Europe by around 40 000 years ago and more recently into the Americas. Palaeontologists and archaeologists have traced these migrations by studying and dating fossil sites and archaeological sites, and comparing the tools and bones of humans and the animals they hunted.

SOURCE 1 How human beings evolved

1 Almost two million years ago ***Homo ergaster***, the first human-like species, appeared in Africa. It reached parts of Asia at least one million years ago.

→

2 About 1.5 million years ago ***Homo erectus*** evolved from *Homo ergaster*. (*Homo erectus* later became extinct.)

→

3 About 800 000 years ago ***Homo heidelbergensis*** descended from *Homo ergaster*.

↓

4 About 250 000 years ago ***Homo neanderthalensis*** (Neanderthal man) descended from *Homo heidelbergensis*. (Neanderthals were extinct by 30 000 years ago.)

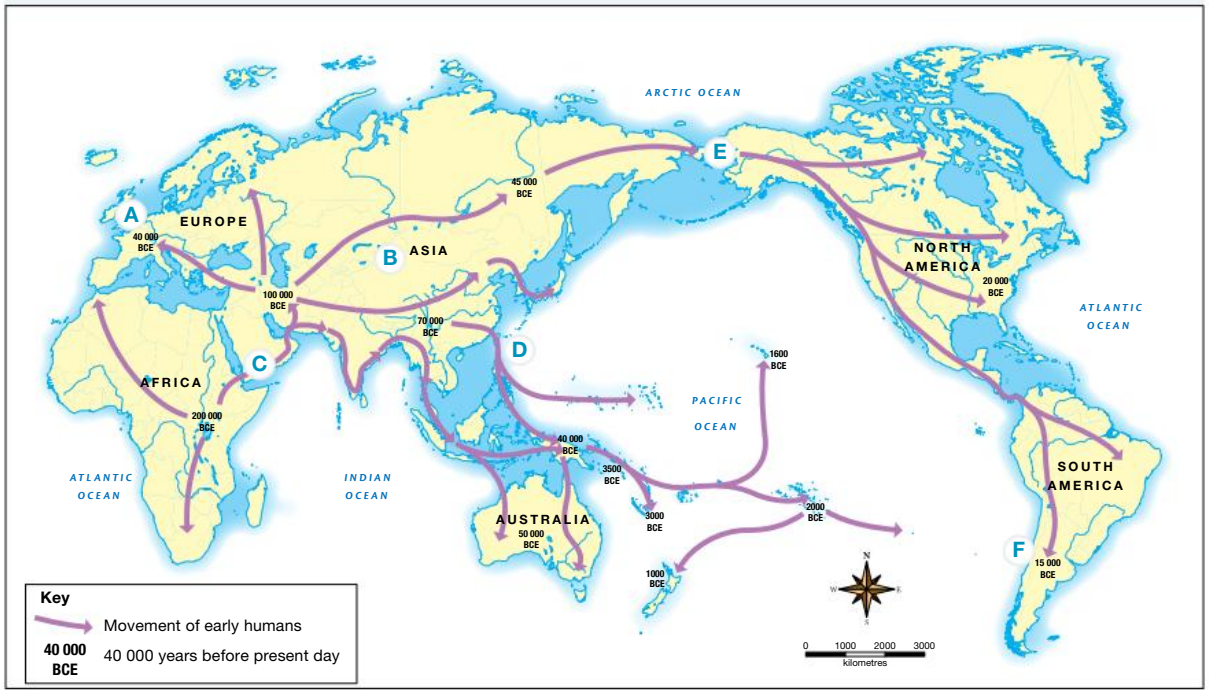
←

5 Possibly around 200 000 years ago ***Homo sapiens*** evolved in Africa from *Homo erectus* or *Homo heidelbergensis*. All modern humans belong to this species.

Why did people migrate to new lands?

Perhaps people migrated because of pressure on food supplies, but evidence from the science of **genetics** suggests that 40 000 years ago there were only about 200 000 humans in the world. The cold northern climate could have encouraged groups to migrate south, but this would not explain why other humans moved north into icy Siberia around 40 000 years ago.

SOURCE 2 A map showing migrations of early humans from Africa to the rest of the world



Source: MAPgraphics

- **A** Humans migrated into northern Europe around 40 000 BCE.
- **B** By around 75 000 BCE humans had spread throughout much of Asia.
- **C** Humans probably travelled from Africa along the southern coast of the Arabian Peninsula then along the coast of India between 130 000 and 75 000 BCE.
- **D** Humans migrated, probably using rafts and canoes, from South-East Asia to Australia between 60 000 and 50 000 BCE.
- **E** Perhaps as early as 30 000 BCE humans crossed the Ice-Age land bridge between Siberia and Alaska. A second migration may have crossed the land bridge between 10 000 and 8500 BCE.
- **F** Humans reached the far south of South America between 15 000 and 10 500 BCE.

2.3.3 Technologies and peoples

The earliest tools were stones that were smashed to create a jagged edge (see **SOURCE 3**). Over many thousands of years, humans improved stone tools by flaking and grinding them. From about 40 000 BCE people were using stone chisels, scrapers, and small spear and arrow tips as well as sewing needles and fish hooks made of bone. They were also wearing body ornaments and using symbols in cave paintings.

SOURCE 3 A flint hand axe made around 200 000 years ago in Africa



DID YOU KNOW?

Prehistoric people made musical instruments like flutes from hollow bones. The earliest were found in Africa and are believed to be around 45 000 years old.

How were Old Stone Age societies organised?

If prehistoric societies were similar to surviving hunter-gatherer societies, people probably moved around in extended family groups of fewer than fifty individuals. Men and women would have had different roles. The older men would have had most authority, but there would have been few differences in wealth and power. However, this is largely guesswork.

What can we tell from their art?

Prehistoric art tells us something about how Old Stone Age people saw their world. There is evidence of grinding pigments to make paints in Africa at least 100 000 years ago. There are prehistoric art sites on every continent. Prehistoric people in Europe carved small sculptures (see **SOURCE 4**) and made cave paintings from around 40 000 years ago. Most importantly, archaeologists believe that people who communicated through art must also have communicated through spoken language.

SOURCE 4 The Venus of Willendorf, a stone figure probably made around 27 000 years ago



What happened to the Neanderthals?

One of the great puzzles of prehistory is why the Neanderthals died out. We know that Neanderthals and some types of *Homo erectus* lived at the same time as early *Homo sapiens*. But by about 30 000 years ago *Homo sapiens* were the only surviving humans.

Did *Homo sapiens* cause this or did these other species become **extinct** for other reasons? We do not know.

Neanderthals and *Homo sapiens* had similar-sized brains and used similar tools; both were hunter-gatherers and used fire. There is evidence that both cared for sick or injured members of their groups and buried their dead. Fossils suggest that Neanderthals were shorter but more strongly built than *Homo sapiens*. Neanderthals also had shorter lives, lived in smaller groups, never spread past Europe and western Asia and did not change their tool-making technology as much as *Homo sapiens*. Evidence also suggests that Neanderthals were less nomadic. They occupied their sites year-round so they would have had to hunt and gather over a wider area each day.

2.3 ACTIVITY

Create a comic strip to show how the tool in **SOURCE 3** would have been made and used.

Using historical sources as evidence

2.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** On what continent did the human species emerge?
2. **HS1** In the Old Stone Age, how did people obtain food, clothing and shelter?
3. **HS1** Suggest examples of how language could have given humans advantages over other animal species.
4. **HS2** Using the map in **SOURCE 2**, place the movement of early humans from Africa to each main region of the world in chronological order.
5. **HS1** Make a list of possible reasons for human migration in prehistoric times.
6. **HS1** Make a list of tools made by Old Stone Age peoples from about 40 000 BCE.
7. **HS6** Draw up a table with two columns.
   (a) In the first column, list the things that *Homo sapiens* and Neanderthals had in common.
   (b) In the second column, list the ways in which they were different.
   (c) Discuss in groups which differences might have helped one to survive while the other became extinct?

2.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 1**, name three species of early humans.
2. **HS3** Due to rising sea levels about 10 000 years ago, routes taken by humans migrating along the coasts of Asia are now under water. Explain how this would make it difficult for archaeologists to trace their movements.
3. **HS3** **SOURCE 4** is believed to represent fertility (ability to produce offspring). Identify a reason why Old Stone Age people made such figures.
4. **HS3** What are we able to know about prehistoric societies from fossils, tools and art and from the ways of life of hunter-gatherer societies in modern times? Refer to **SOURCES 3** and **4** in your answer.
5. **HS6** Evaluate the significance of Darwin's theory of evolution in changing the way people understand their origins.
6. **HS6** What kind of evidence supports Darwin's theory of evolution?
7. **HS6** Why do you think many people still reject Darwin's theory of evolution?

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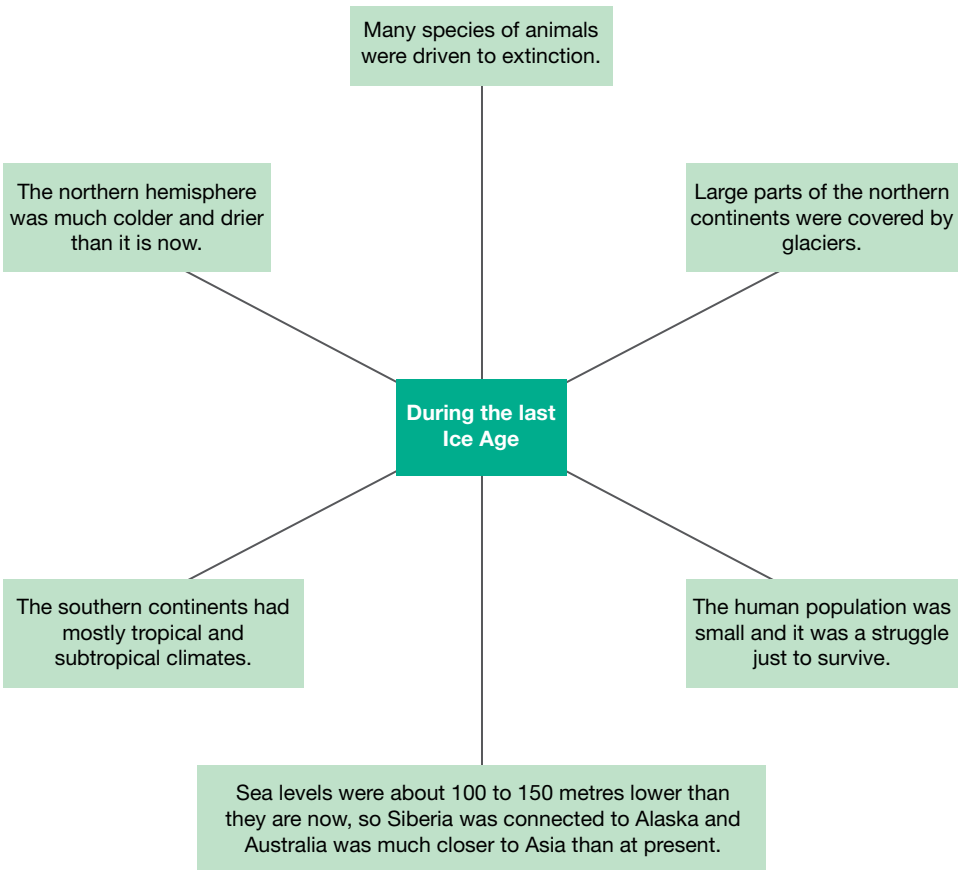
2.4 A changing Paleolithic world

2.4.1 The last Ice Age

Today we know that human activities, such as burning coal and oil, are causing global warming. This could bring disastrous climate changes, causing the drying up of fertile farming regions and flooding of river valleys that are home to tens of millions of people. In **Paleolithic** times, humans had no effect on changes in the Earth's climate. Changes in climate did, however, have huge effects on humans.

The time we call the **Pleistocene Epoch** (about 1.8 million to 10 000 BCE) was generally a time of extreme cooling and recurring **Ice Ages**. These periods lasted for tens of thousands of years. Such climate changes are caused by small changes in the Earth's orbit around the sun. The last Ice Age began around 110 000 BCE and reached its peak (its coldest point) about 20 000 BCE.

SOURCE 1 During the last Ice Age, the world was a very different place.



Living in the Ice Age

Humans survived by adapting to climate changes and becoming more intelligent. The northern hemisphere's long, cold winters meant fewer plant foods. But humans learned to make better weapons and to change their hunting methods to kill large mammals such as **mammoths**. The meat of a mammoth could keep for months in the freezing conditions.

2.4.2 Humans in a changing environment

Surprisingly, even humans living long ago had some effect on their environment. They burned vegetation to create new growth. This attracted the plant-eating mammals they hunted. Burning and over-hunting may have changed the balance of plants and animals in some areas. Humans tamed wolves to become domesticated dogs. As they spread to new places such as Australia, Siberia and the Americas, humans found species of animals that had not learned to fear them. Such animals became easy prey. Scientists believe that humans drove some large animals, such as the mammoth, to extinction (see **SOURCE 2**).

SOURCE 2 Mammoth and ibex (a type of wild goat). A Paleolithic wall painting from the Rouffignac cave, Dordogne, France.



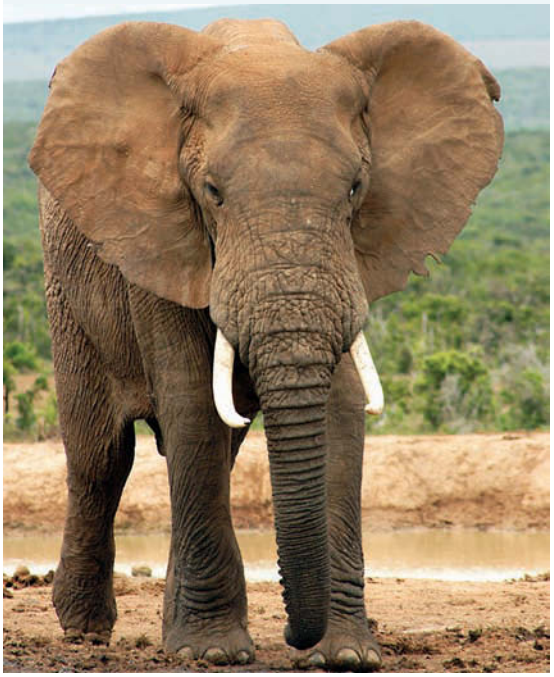
An Ice Age village

At a place called Pushkari, in Ukraine, archaeologists discovered the traces of a settlement that had been inhabited at the peak of the Ice Age. These traces provided evidence of how humans survived in a world of freezing temperatures and continual drought (see **SOURCE 3**).

SOURCE 3 An archaeologist's description of Pushkari as it was around 20 000 BCE from Steven Mithen, *After the Ice: A Global Human History 20 000–5 000 BC*, 2003

... five dwellings form a rough circle ... They face south, away from the biting icy wind and close to ... a semi-frozen river. The dwellings are igloo-like but built from mammoth bones and hide rather than blocks of ice. Each has an imposing entrance formed by two tusks, up-ended to form an arch. The walls use massive leg bones as vertical supports, between which jawbones have been stacked chin-down to form a thick barrier to the cold and wind. Further tusks are used on the roof to weigh down hides and sods of turf that are supported on a framework of bones and branches ... Temperatures can fall to minus 30 degrees C and there are nine months of it to endure.

SOURCE 4 A modern elephant has smaller tusks than a mammoth and no fur.



The world warms up

The world began warming up from about 18 000 BCE. By 13 000 BCE, the ice sheets had started melting. Between 12 000 and 8000 BCE the climate fluctuated wildly. But then the Ice Age was over. It was followed by the **Holocene Epoch**. The new epoch brought a milder climate to the northern hemisphere, but in some parts of the southern hemisphere, such as Australia, vast areas became very hot and dry. This global warming created conditions in which humans in a few places could move towards the New Stone Age, the age of farming, towns and what we call civilisation.

2.4 ACTIVITIES

1. Draw a cartoon to show how Ice Age people might have hunted and killed mammoths.
   Remembering and understanding
2. Use **SOURCE 4** and what you have learned about mammoths to draw a sketch of a mammoth with labels showing how mammoths were different from modern elephants. **Identifying continuity and change**

2.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What and when was the Pleistocene Epoch?
2. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 1** and the information in this section, fill in the blanks to complete the following sentences.
   (a) In the last Ice Age the Earth was much _____ and _____ than today.
   (b) Much of the northern hemisphere was covered by _____.
   (c) Ice Ages and other natural changes in the Earth's _____ were caused by small changes in the Earth's _____.
   (d) People coped with the Ice Age by becoming more _____, making better _____ and changing _____ methods.
3. **HS5** Explain the main differences between the cause of the global warming that took place from about 20 000 to 10 000 years ago and recent global warming.
4. **HS1** Draw a cartoon to show how Ice Age people might have hunted and killed mammoths.
5. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. What evidence is there to suggest that the climate was quite cool at the time this artwork was made?

2.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 2** and **3**.
   (a) What is unusual about the image of the mammoth in **SOURCE 2**?
   (b) Can you think of any reasons why prehistoric artists might have drawn it? (There are several possible answers.)
   (c) How were mammoth parts used as described in **SOURCE 3**?
   (d) Make a list of other resources that the people of Pushkari would have obtained from mammoths.
2. **HS4** Explain what changed and what remained the same in Old Stone Age ways of life during the last Ice Age.
3. **HS6** To establish the historical significance of an event, we ask questions such as: How were people's lives changed? How many people were affected? Using those questions, explain the historical significance of the end of the last Ice Age.
4. **HS5** As you already know, by around 20 000 BCE humans had migrated from Africa to most parts of the world. Suggest a hypothesis to explain why people continued to live in the harsh environment described in **SOURCE 3** instead of migrating south to a warmer region.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.5 An amazing journey

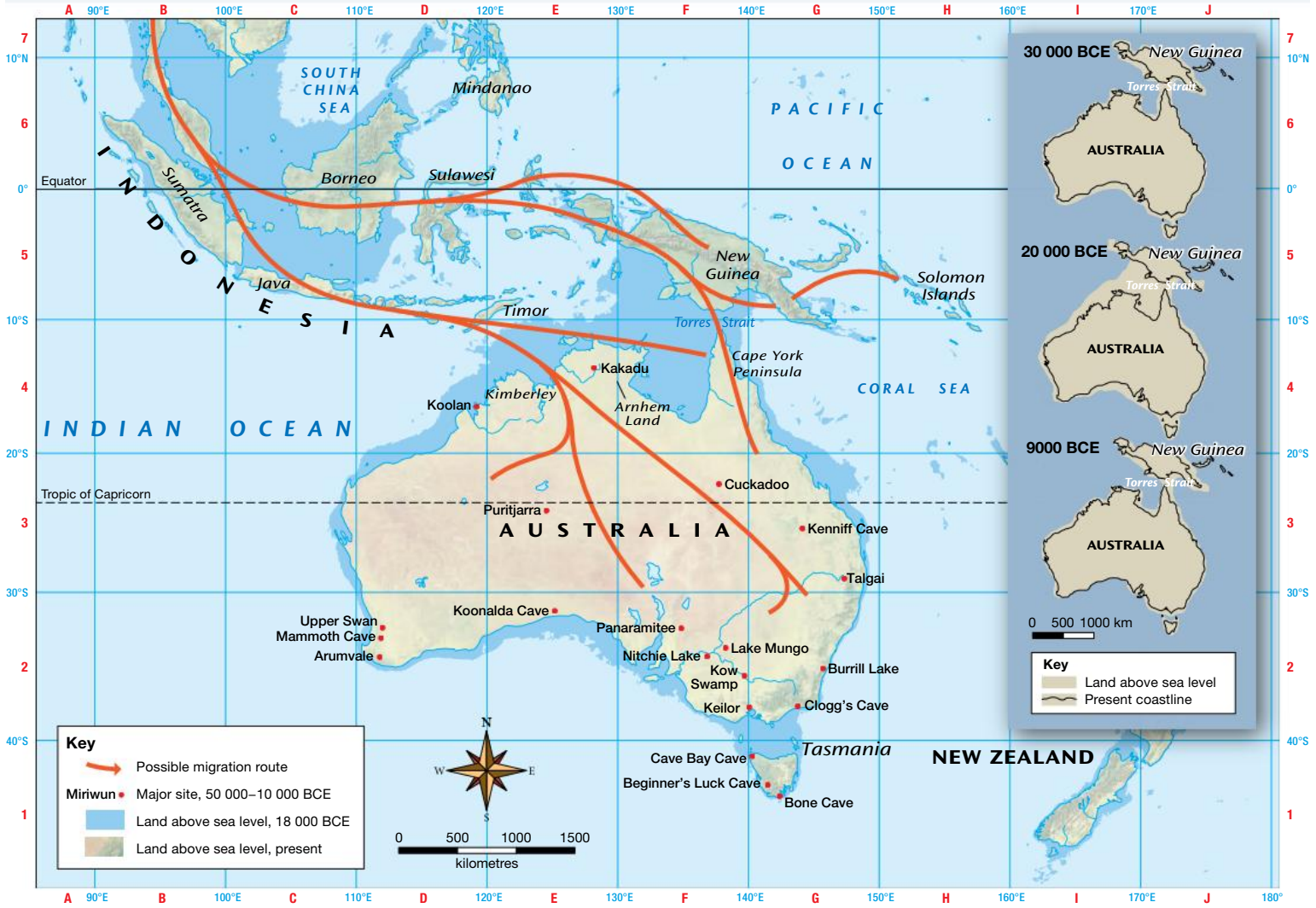
2.5.1 Coming to Australia

Indigenous Australians who follow traditional beliefs explain their origins through the stories of their creation period. According to some of these stories, their people have been in Australia since the beginning of time. Each language group has its stories of spirit ancestors who created all life in the distant past. However, scientists argue that all human life originated in Africa. From Africa people gradually migrated to the far-flung regions of the world, including Australasia. We can therefore assume that Indigenous Australians must have travelled here in the distant past.

The last Ice Age in the Pleistocene period ended around 10 000 years ago. During the Ice Age much of the world's water was locked up in great ice sheets in the northern hemisphere; this meant ocean levels were up to 160 metres lower than they are today. It also meant that islands and continents now separated by wide seas were once joined to one another or separated by much narrower sea channels. The distance by sea between Australia and Asia was much shorter than it is now, and Papua New Guinea and Tasmania were joined to the Australian mainland (see **SOURCE 1**).

The most widely accepted theory is that groups of Aboriginal people migrated from South-East Asia to Australia during the Ice Age. They did so by walking across the land and 'island hopping' across the narrow seas in canoes or rafts.

SOURCE 1 The lowest sea levels in the past 120 000 years occurred about 20 000, 70 000 and 90 000 years ago. The shaded areas show places that are now under the sea but were above sea level until the last Ice Age ended about 10 000 years ago. The map also shows some Australian archaeological sites that are more than 10 000 years old.



Source: Spatial Vision.

SOURCE 2 From Josephine Flood, *The Riches of Ancient Australia*, 1990

The reason why scientists believe in an overseas origin for Australia's first people is there is nothing in the Australian **fauna**, past or present, from which humans could have evolved. There are no **anthropoid** or pongid (ape-like) ancestors in Australia from whom they could be independently descended.

DID YOU KNOW?

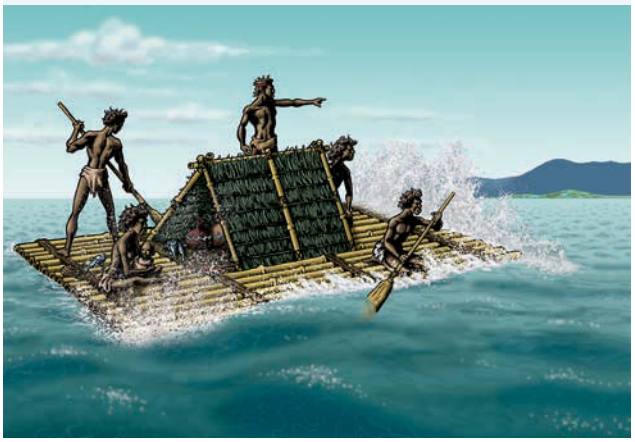
Scientists believe that most Aboriginal groups lived in coastal areas. Archaeological evidence of their lives would have been covered over when sea levels rose around 10 000 years ago.

When did people first come to Australia?

Most archaeologists now believe that the Indigenous peoples arrived in Australia at least 50 000 and possibly 60 000 years ago. Over many thousands of years they gradually spread throughout the land. Traces of human life found in many parts of Australia provide evidence for this theory. These traces include:

- rock shelters in Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory with evidence of occupation for at least 50 000 years
- stone tools with radiocarbon-dated charcoal between 45 000 and 38 000 years old from campsites at Lake Mungo in the Willandra Lakes region of New South Wales.

SOURCE 3 A modern artist's impression of the way the first people may have reached Australia, travelling on rafts from South-East Asia around 60 000 years ago



A mystery

This theory does not claim to explain *why* they came to Australia. There is no evidence that would help to explain this. Perhaps it was by accident, although this seems unlikely. Perhaps their migration was caused by pressure from other peoples in South-East Asia. Migration could have taken place gradually over many generations. What we do know is that people gradually occupied the whole Australian continent, including Tasmania, which they reached at least 33 000 years ago.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- Overview > **Indigenous migrations to Australia**

DISCUSS

As there is no evidence to explain why Indigenous peoples travelled to Australia in the distant past, discuss circumstances that may have led to their decision to make such a journey.

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

2.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS4** What is the difference between sea levels during the last Ice Age and those today?
2. **HS4** How would the difference in sea levels between the last Ice Age and today have helped to make it possible for people to travel from Asia to Australia?
3. **HS1** Define the terms 'fauna' and 'anthropoid' and use them in a sentence.
4. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. Name three archaeological sites that are more than 10 000 years old.
5. **HS1** During the Ice Age, mainland Australia and Tasmania were joined together. True or false?

2.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Use the scale in **SOURCE 1** to calculate roughly how far Indigenous Australians would have had to travel by sea to reach the Australian continent by one or more of the possible routes shown on the map.

2. **HS3** According to **SOURCE 2**, why do most scientists think that Indigenous Australians must have originated outside Australia?
3. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the people depicted in **SOURCE 3**. Describe what you might have experienced on such a journey.
4. **HS4** Using information about climate change and sea levels in subtopic 2.4 along with information and sources in this subtopic, describe possible reasons why at least 50 000 years ago the ancestors of Australia's Indigenous peoples chose to make such an amazing journey.
5. **HS1** Archaeologists have their theories for how Indigenous Australians came to Australia. How do Indigenous Australian peoples explain it?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.6 The Mesolithic Age

2.6.1 When was the Mesolithic Age?

Our next stop as we race through time is a brief one. It is the short period we call the Mesolithic Age or Middle Stone Age. It was a stage between the Old Stone Age, when people survived entirely by hunting and gathering, and the New Stone Age, when some people developed **agriculture**. It usually marked as a step in between these two ways of providing for human needs.

In the area around the eastern shores of the Mediterranean Sea, the beginning of agriculture took place even before the end of the last Ice Age. The **Fertile Crescent** is the name given to the area now covered by Israel/Palestine, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, south-east Turkey and Iraq. By around 14 000 BCE it had become warmer and wetter. Wild barley, wheat and rye grew in this area, and by around 12 000 BCE hunter-gatherers had formed permanent villages in places with good supplies of water, plants and animals. Although these people were not yet farmers, they were nurturing and harvesting wild plants.

In northern and central Europe, the Mesolithic Age began at the end of the last Ice Age, as glaciers melted and the warmer climate produced **marshlands** with abundant food supplies. In Europe, the Mesolithic Age lasted until around 4500 BCE.

2.6.2 How did life change in Mesolithic times?

Mesolithic peoples still hunted and gathered their food but they also developed new skills. They made small flint blades called **microliths** and used them for arrowheads and as cutting tools. Mesolithic societies developed pottery and there is evidence that different groups traded with each other. There are significant Mesolithic sites in England, Ireland, France, Germany, Denmark, Greece, Serbia, Estonia and The Netherlands.

Star Carr and Howick—two Mesolithic sites

At Star Carr in northern England, archaeologists uncovered the site of a Mesolithic camp beside a lake. Here they found remains of a wooden trackway that crossed the boggy ground between the camp and the lake. Evidence suggests that the camp was a hunting base and that people were burning off the reeds, probably to attract animals that fed on the new shoots.

At Howick, also in northern England, archaeologists have excavated the traces of a house and found evidence that it was used for at least 100 years from about 7800 BCE. If this was a permanent home for hunter-gatherers, it means that in some places abundant food resources had made it possible for people to stop living as nomads and to have permanent settlements.

SOURCE 1 A headdress made from the skull and antlers of a large deer around 8 000 BCE. It was excavated at Star Carr.



SOURCE 2 An artist's impression of the Howick Mesolithic house as it might have appeared around 7800 BCE



2.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** The Mesolithic Age marked a step between what two ways of providing for human needs?
2. **HS1** What was the Fertile Crescent?
3. **HS4** What changed in the Fertile Crescent by around 12 000 BCE?
4. **HS4** Name two changes in skills that occurred during Mesolithic times?
5. **HS1** What discoveries at Star Carr and Howick provide evidence of permanent settlement?

2.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. What might such a headdress suggest about beliefs or rituals among the people who used it?
2. **HS3 SOURCE 2** is based on pieces of evidence found at Howick. Explain what made the Howick site different from Old Stone Age campsites.
3. **HS4** What do changes in climate and evidence of types of settlements suggest about changing lifestyles in the Mesolithic Age?
4. **HS6** Explain the historical significance of the discoveries of evidence of permanent settlements at Star Carr and Howick.
5. **HS5** We know from evidence at Howick and Star Carr that abundant food resources made it possible for people to stop living as nomads and to have permanent settlements. Suggest a hypothesis to explain why people in other places kept to a nomadic lifestyle.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.7 The New Stone Age

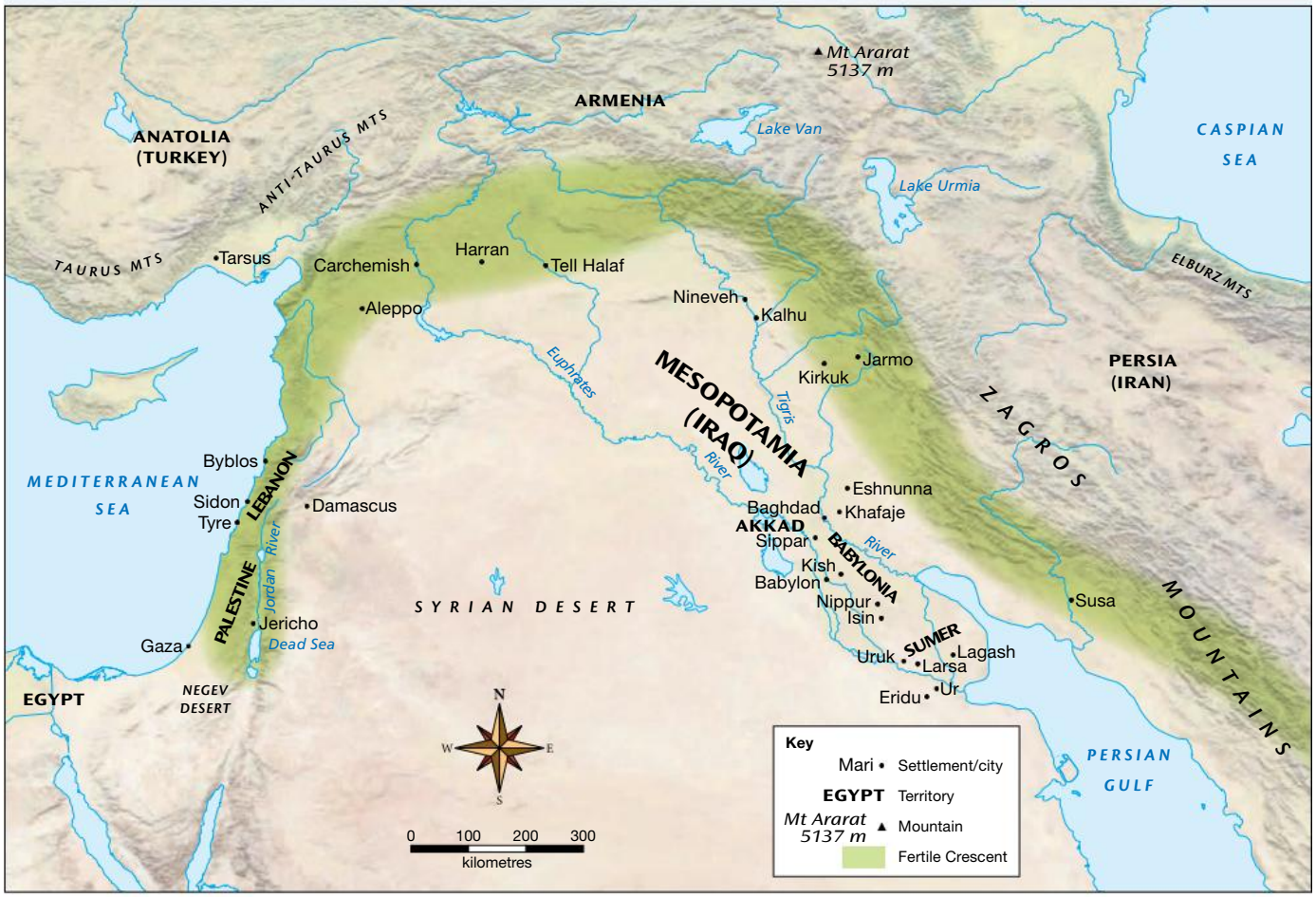
2.7.1 The Neolithic Revolution

For our next stop, imagine that we have travelled back in time 11 000 years to some villages in the Fertile Crescent. There we see sights that changed the world! The people of these villages had survived by hunting wild animals and gathering plants or seeds along the waterways. In much of the world, hunting and gathering would go on for thousands of years, but somewhere around 9000 BCE these people began growing wheat and barley and keeping herds of sheep and goats.

This new way of living allowed the people to stay in one place, so they replaced their simple shelters with houses made from mud bricks. We call this change the Neolithic Revolution — the adoption of farming that marked the beginning of the New Stone Age. Nothing that has happened since, from the invention of the wheel to the creation of the internet, could have taken place without that huge change.

The Neolithic Revolution would lead to the invention of writing, mathematics and money. It would trigger many inventions, the use of metals, the building of cities, organised religion and systems of government. But it would also end the equality people had known during the Old Stone Age and see the rise of kings, empires and wars of conquest.

SOURCE 1 The Ancient Near East. The Fertile Crescent is shaded. The cities marked on the map existed at times between 5000 and 1600 BCE.



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

2.7.2 Farming and civilisation

How did people first learn to domesticate animals and grow food crops? Perhaps they caught wild animals and realised that they could breed them to have a permanent supply. People might have dropped

some harvested seeds of wild plants then seen these seeds grow where they fell and realised what that could mean (see **SOURCE 2**).

SOURCE 2 A modern artist's impression of how New Stone Age people may have first learned to grow crops



DID YOU KNOW?

Agriculture had many benefits but it also caused environmental damage. The soil on cleared land was more easily washed away in floods. Irrigation was essential for farming in Mesopotamia, but scientists now believe it contributed to the collapse of some Mesopotamian cities as the irrigated soils were poisoned by mineral salts. By 2300 BCE much of the best land had already been ruined.

Agriculture made it possible to produce food supplies in smaller areas than were needed by hunter-gatherers. Inventions of tools such as hoes and ploughs and changes such as clearing land and digging irrigation ditches improved yields from crops. Most importantly, improvements in agriculture meant that not everyone needed to work producing food. Some people could specialise in other things, including crafts.

SOURCE 3 A stone plaque from Sumer with an engraved scene showing an offering to a king, c. 2600–2350 BCE



The beginnings of civilisation

Historians disagree on definitions of civilisation. It generally means having an organised community with farming, towns and a culture that encourages advances in technology. The way of life based on farming that first appeared in the Middle East is often called the *beginning* of civilisation. The first large centre of civilisation was Sumer in modern Iraq. Because two rivers, the Tigris and Euphrates, flow through Iraq from north to south, the ancient Greeks called the area Mesopotamia, meaning 'between two rivers'. The rivers regularly flooded the plains, leaving behind layers of fertile mud, and this was ideal for growing crops.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Early river civilisations**

2.7 ACTIVITY

Imagine you are a member of a third or fourth generation farming family during the Neolithic Revolution. You live in a village that is part of a newly founded city-state. In that new city-state, people are already divided into rulers, nobles, free citizens and slaves. Not far from where you live, there are still semi-nomadic tribes following a hunter-gatherer lifestyle. You know, from stories handed down to you by your parents, about the greater equality that existed in times when your family were hunter-gatherers. In small groups, role-play the following situation.

The city-state ruler has described the hunter-gathers as primitive savages who need to be forced to become civilised or be destroyed. He has called on you and your fellow villagers to take part in armed attacks on the neighbouring hunter-gatherers to kill those who resist, to enslave the others and to take the land that supplies their food. Village elders have called a village meeting at which you and other villagers will have one last chance to state your opinions in support of or against the ruler's demands.

In your role-play, different speakers should represent different views about the importance of sticking to the moral principles you inherited from your hunter-gatherer ancestors and the way that your ruler represents the neighbouring hunter-gatherers as savages. **Identifying continuity and change**

2.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was the Neolithic Revolution?
2. **HS1** When and where did agriculture first develop?
3. **HS1** The first large civilisation was Sumer in modern Iraq. What did the ancient Greeks call this area?
4. **HS4** What were the most important differences between life in the Old and New Stone Ages?
5. **HS1** According to scientists, how did farming cause environmental damage in Mesopotamia?

2.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at the map in **SOURCE 1**. Identify the geographical features of the Fertile Crescent that allowed farming to emerge around 9000 BCE.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) Describe the sequence of events that suggests how people might have learned to grow crops.
   (b) Using **SOURCE 2** as a model, create your own sequence of sketches to show how people might have learned to domesticate sheep and cattle.
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Describe what is happening in each register (horizontal set of pictures).
   (b) What can you tell from this source about the benefits that some people gained from the Neolithic Revolution?
4. **HS4** Do you think any of the people shown in **SOURCE 3** might have preferred the Old Stone Age way of life? If so, which ones and why? If not, why not?
5. **HS6** The term 'revolution' suggests a big change that was of great significance. Explain why the beginning of the New Stone Age has been described as a revolution.
6. **HS5** In a short piece of writing identify at least two massive changes to life in Mesolithic times.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.8 Cities, laws, government

2.8.1 Growth of towns and trade

The Neolithic Revolution marked the beginning of more complex societies as farming enabled people to settle in larger communities, usually built along rivers. With these developments came many other changes.

No longer having to travel long distances in search of food, people could build solid dwellings and accumulate belongings, such as furniture, containers and ornaments. With permanent shelter and more reliable food supplies, more children survived and populations grew. Food surpluses enabled some people

to do different jobs. People created pottery and invented looms for weaving cloth to make clothing. Others learned to work metals — first bronze and later iron. Surpluses also increased trade. A town might produce more grain than it needed and exchange it for another city's salt, cloth, precious stones or cooking oil.

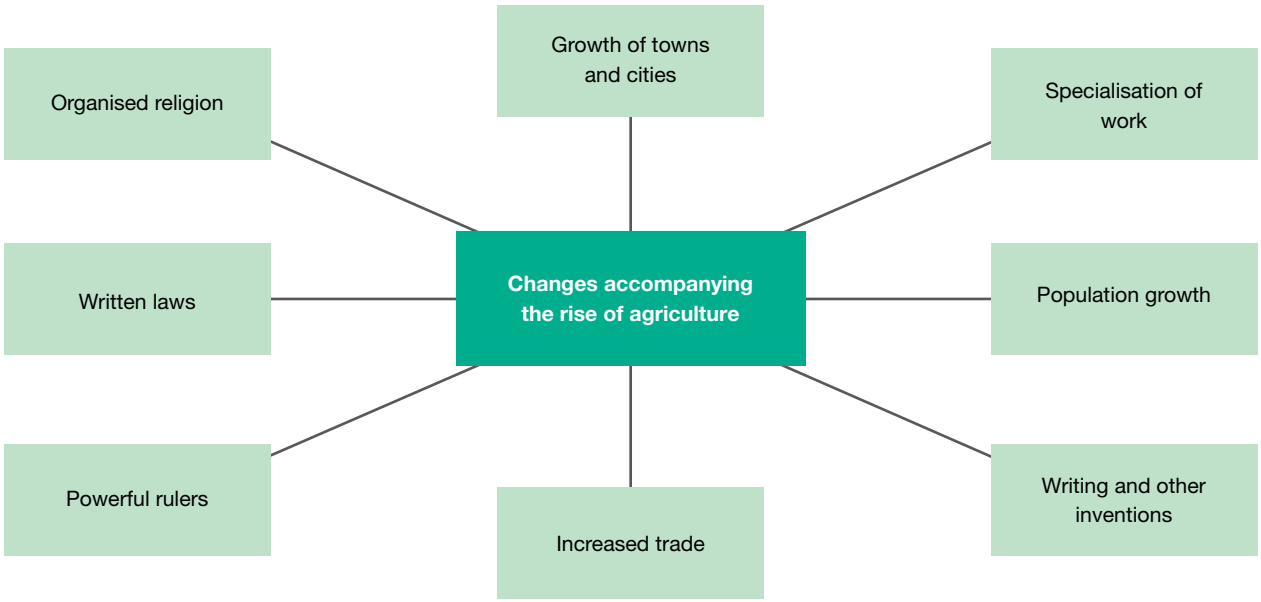
The earliest towns and cities

By about 8000 BCE there was a permanent town at Jericho (in modern Israel). In Anatolia (part of modern Turkey), Çatal Hüyük, probably the world's first city, appears to have had a population of at least 5000 from around 6500 to 5800 BCE.

DID YOU KNOW?

The greatest source of wealth in the Middle East today is oil. The ancient Sumerians collected oil in the form of **bitumen** that seeped out of the ground. They used it as a fuel and an adhesive and for waterproofing houses and boats. The Sumerians also invented the wheel, the sail and money.

SOURCE 1 Changes accompanying the rise of agriculture



DISCUSS

Which of the changes in the mind map in **SOURCE 1** do you think were most important for human progress? Why? **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

2.8.2 Civilisation begins at Sumer

Civilisation soon spread through Mesopotamia, Egypt and beyond. The people of Sumer in southern Mesopotamia were the first to use writing (see **SOURCE 2**), probably about 3200 BCE. Sumerian inventions and ideas spread through their **colonies** in Iran and Syria and through trade (see **SOURCE 3**). Their ideas were adopted by their neighbours and by their conquerors.

Rulers and laws

Civilisation created the need for leaders who had power over large numbers of people. Sumer is our earliest example. It was made up of several city-states (states consisting of a walled city that ruled over surrounding towns, villages, farms and grazing land). Each city-state had its own ruler, called an **Ensi**, who was said to have been chosen by the gods. It is likely that the Ensi were at first elected by assemblies of free citizens to lead them in battle. Over time these rulers came to inherit their power and some ruled over several cities. The title Lugal was given to such a ruler. The ruler had the power to make laws for his people (see **SOURCE 4**). Inscriptions of Urukagina, the Ensi of the Sumerian city of Lagash, suggest that by 2400 BCE it was common for rulers to record their laws.

SOURCE 2 A Sumerian cuneiform tablet from Lagash, third millennium BCE. Sumerians and Babylonians wrote using pictures we call pictograms. Gradually these became simpler so that a few lines represented a picture. The writing was done on clay tablets, which could be baked in the sun and kept.



SOURCE 3 A stone stamp seal carved with a procession of animals, perhaps gazelles. It was probably made in Syria between 4000 and 3000 BCE. Early traders used seals to make impressions in wet clay to identify their property.





SOURCE 4 From an inscription of Sumerian ruler Urukagina listing his legal reforms to protect the poor. The gentry were the privileged big landowners.

An appointed priest may no longer go into the garden of a **villein** and fell a tree or take away the fruits.
If a villein makes a fish-pond, no one of the gentry class may take away his fish.

DID YOU KNOW?

Until the late nineteenth century, the modern world knew almost nothing about ancient Sumer. It really was a lost civilisation. When archaeologists first began digging in Mesopotamia they were not even looking for evidence of the Sumerians. Instead they were searching for traces of the Assyrians, whose civilisation came much later than Sumer. In the 1920s Sir Leonard Wooley found the tombs of some powerful Sumerians of the ancient city of Ur. What the archaeologists found told them they had unearthed a great ancient civilisation. Since then many other archaeological digs have unearthed further traces of Sumer.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- Overview > **Early river civilisations**
- Overview > **Early urban civilisations**
- Overview > **Mesopotamia — Sumer**

2.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is a food surplus?
2. **HS1** Explain how food surpluses enabled people to specialise in jobs that did not involve producing food.
3. **HS1** Which was the first civilisation to use writing?
4. **HS1** What is the most likely way that Sumerian rulers originally gained power?
5. **HS1** Who made the laws of Sumer?

2.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3 SOURCE 1** is a mind map. Mind maps are a way of showing how one thing led to other things. In small groups, discuss which of the changes in the mind map you think were most important for human progress and why.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) What was cuneiform?
   (b) How was it done?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 4**. What was the intention of this Sumerian ruler's law?
4. **HS4** Using the information and sources in this subtopic, describe:
   (a) how the change from hunter-gatherer societies to settled agricultural societies led to much wider lifestyle changes
   (b) how new ideas spread.
5. **HS6** Explain why the development of writing has great significance for historians.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.9 Society and culture

2.9.1 Social classes

Civilisation changed societies. But some people gained much more than others from the changes. What differences were there in wealth and influence? What were the roles of religion, festivals, music and the family? As in the previous subtopic, we will use Sumer as our example.

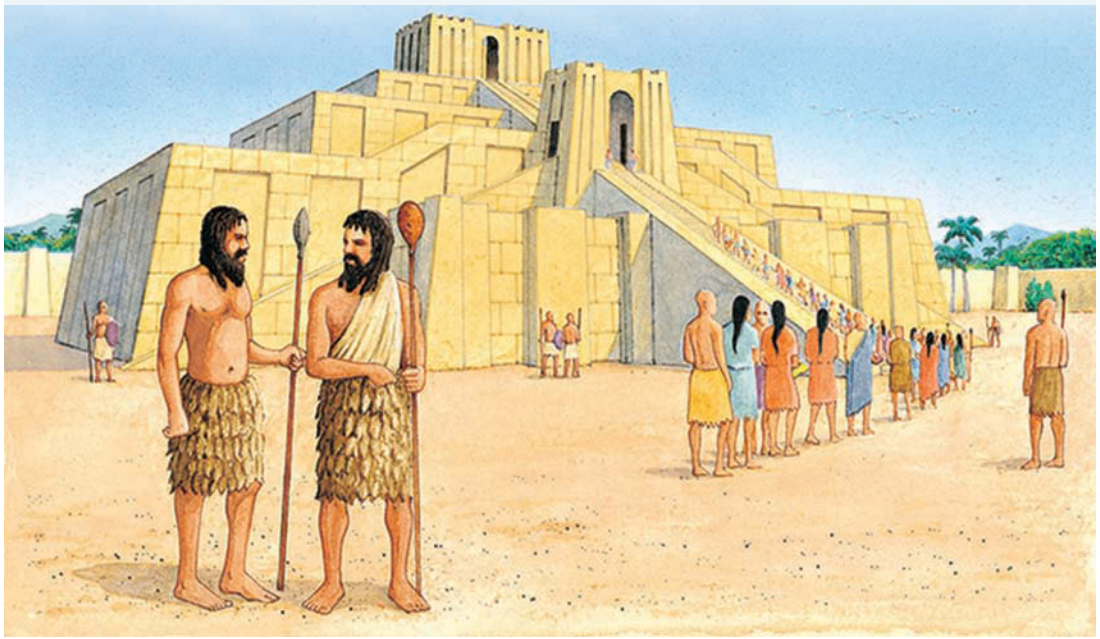
SOURCE 1 From a hymn to Nanshe, a goddess of the Sumerian city of Lagash. In this hymn, Nanshe is seen as supporting the poor against the rich.

[Nanshe] knows the orphan ... knows the widow,
Knows the oppression of man over man ...
...
To set up a place of destruction for the mighty,
To turn over the mighty to the weak ...
Nanshe searches the heart of the people.

Officials and nobles

Nobles (aristocracy or gentry) formed a ruling class below the Ensi. Nobles had many privileges and owned large estates that were worked by slaves and landless free citizens. In Sumerian religious beliefs, each city-state belonged to its main god. Some of the city's land was owned by the temple on behalf of the god. Officials administered temple lands on behalf of the Ensi. As rulers became more powerful, more tax collectors and **scribes** were needed. Like the rulers, these officials gained power and wealth. As **SOURCE 1** shows, some Sumerians resented the wealth and power that certain classes gained at the expense of others.

SOURCE 2 An artist's impression of a Sumerian ziggurat. The temples were places of worship but were also charged with taking care of the families of men who had died.



Free citizens and slaves

Many free citizens farmed land of their own. Others worked on the estates of the nobles. Some worked at skilled crafts or were employed in the temple or the palace. There were merchants, boatmen, carpenters, potters and jewellers.

Slaves were the property of temples or palaces and of the owners of rich estates. They could be branded and flogged if they tried to escape. People became slaves by being taken prisoner in war, as a punishment for committing a crime or by being sold by their families. Slaves had some rights under Sumerian laws, including the right to buy their freedom.

2.9.2 Everyday life

The Sumerian family

In Sumerian families, marriages were arranged by parents and women had less power than men. If her husband died, a woman could share his property with their children. But if a couple were unable to have children, the woman was blamed and her husband could divorce her. In ordinary Sumerian families, sons probably worked alongside their father from an early age while girls helped their mother.

DID YOU KNOW?

In ancient Sumer, children were the property of their parents. A father could sell his children into slavery if they displeased him. However, there are Sumerian stories expressing parents' love for their children.

Temples, houses, music and festivals

All Sumerian buildings were made of mud bricks because mud was the only building material that was plentiful. Most houses were small, single-storey buildings with rooms surrounding a courtyard. The grandest building in each city was the main temple, which developed over time into a huge, stepped tower called a ziggurat, as shown in **SOURCE 2**. Music was important in Sumer. Sumerians played harps, lyres, drums, tambourines and pipes. Poetry and singing were taught in schools. Hymns were sung and played for the gods in the temples and the kings in their palaces.

SOURCE 3 Bronze statues of ancient Sumerians



Religious festivals were also important. One of the main festivals in each city was held at the beginning of the year to ensure good harvests for the year ahead. The king climbed to the top of the city's temple to take part in a ceremony of marriage to a priestess representing the fertility goddess Inanna.

Sumerian gods

Sumer had hundreds of gods and goddesses. Sumerian people believed that these gods had been created out of clay. There were Sumerian stories in which gods and goddesses behaved just like humans. They ate, drank, loved and fought just as people did.

Explore more with myWorld HistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Mesopotamia—Sumer**

2.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** List the different social classes of ancient Sumer in order of their wealth and power.
2. **HS1** According to ancient Sumerian religious beliefs, who owned the land of a city-state?
3. **HS1** How could people become slaves and how could they gain their freedom?
4. **HS1** Who had the most and the least power in families?
5. **HS1** What roles did music and religion play in people's everyday lives?

2.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3 SOURCE 2** depicts a ziggurat (Sumerian temple). Why would the priests and officials who administered the temples have become powerful?
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) What does the hymn call on the goddess Nanshe to do?
   (b) How does this hymn provide evidence of inequality?
   (c) What does it appear to tell us about moral ideas in Sumer?
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3** as your evidence, describe the appearance and clothes of Sumerian men, women and children.
4. **HS6** Using information and sources from this subtopic and the previous subtopic, explain why the legacy of Sumer was significant for the ancient world.
5. **HS5** Explain why 'civilisation' had the effect of increasing inequality.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.10 Civilisations and empires in North Africa, western Asia and Europe

2.10.1 The rise and fall of empires

The new way of life based on farming brought hazards, such as windstorms and locust plagues that could destroy entire crops. The rivers too held dangers. In Sumer, where almost no rain fell, the rivers needed to be fed by regular rainfall in the far-off mountains. Too much rain brought destructive floods; too little caused drought and famine. But the worst danger in ancient times was the frequent threat of war as empires rose and fell.

A Sumer
Sumerian civilisation emerged around **3500 BCE.** Although later overrun by other powers, it had a lasting influence throughout Mesopotamia and beyond.

SOURCE 1 A Sumerian clay tablet from about 3100–3000 BCE recording the allocation of beer



C Crete and Greece
From around **3000 BCE**, the Minoans built a civilisation on the island of Crete, south of Greece. This peaceful civilisation disappeared when Crete was overtaken by the warlike Mycenaeans from the Greek mainland by about 1375 BCE. From around 750 BCE, Greek city-states set up colonies around the Mediterranean and Black seas. In the late fifth century BCE, the Greeks defeated an invading army of the mighty Persian Empire. Greece was later conquered by Macedonia in 336 BCE and then by Rome in **146 BCE** (see **topic 5**).

SOURCE 2 Ancient Greek pottery from 2800–2300 BCE. It was found in Syros, Greece.



E The Hittite Empire
The Hittites, skilled warriors and charioteers, came from Anatolia (Turkey), where they had a capital called Hattusa. In **1595 BCE** they invaded Mesopotamia and destroyed Babylon. In the thirteenth century BCE the great Egyptian pharaoh Rameses II tried and failed to defeat them. However, around 1000 BCE the Hittites were swallowed up by the Assyrian Empire.

G The Assyrians
The Assyrians were from Assur (north of Mesopotamia). Their highly disciplined infantry had the advantage of iron weapons and they had squads of archers and chariots. They created a powerful empire from around **883 BCE**. The Assyrians killed, tortured or enslaved people who rebelled and moved whole populations to prevent rebellion. They collected taxes from conquered subjects and forced them to work as slaves or to fight in the Assyrian army. However, in 612 BCE, armies of Babylonians, Chaldeans and Medes destroyed the Assyrian Empire.

SOURCE 3 An Assyrian wall panel from the eighth century BCE, showing Assyrian forces attacking a city with a battering ram



BCE
3500
3100
3000
2400
2000
1595
1000
883
560
272
180
CE

B Egypt
The longest civilisation in North Africa began when Egypt was first united around **3100 BCE**. This great kingdom experienced many periods of war. During the New Kingdom (c. 1550–1069 BCE) Egypt fought to drive out invaders. During the period from around 1069 to 332 BCE Egypt fell under the rule of Libyans, Nubians, Assyrians and Persians (see **topic 4**).

D Akkadians, Elamites and Babylonians
Around **2400 BCE** Akkad (north of Sumer) conquered the Sumerian cities. When the Akkadian Empire fell about 200 years later, the Sumerian city of Ur dominated Sumer. Around **2000 BCE** the Elamites (from Iran) conquered Sumer. Other peoples moved into Mesopotamia, occupying Akkad and other cities. Around 1800 BCE, King Hammurabi defeated these groups and founded a Mesopotamian empire based on the city of Babylon.

F The Phoenicians
The Phoenicians were great seafarers who lived in what is now Lebanon. They traded with Egypt and Greece, and around **1000 BCE** they founded colonies along the coasts of Africa, Sicily and Spain.

H The Persian Empire
Between **560** and 330 BCE, Persia (modern Iran) created a huge empire that spread from Egypt to India. Babylon had again become a great centre of power under King Nebuchadnezzar (c. 605–560 BCE), but soon after his death the Persians conquered the city.

I The Roman Empire
By **272 BCE**, the city of Rome dominated Italy. By **180 CE**, the Roman Empire had become the greatest empire of ancient times, controlling much of Europe, North Africa and the Middle East. The Roman Empire finally fell to invaders in the fifth century CE (see **topic 6**).

SOURCE 4 Sculpture from the tomb of a wealthy Roman citizen who died in the first century CE



Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Early urban civilisations**
- Overview > **Mesopotamia—Babylon**
- Overview > **Persian Empire**
- Overview > **Mesopotamia—Assyria**
- Overview > **Cities of the Near East**

2.10 ACTIVITY

Working in small groups, design and sketch devices that could be used to stop the Assyrian battering rams shown in **SOURCE 3**.

Using historical sources as evidence

2.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why would war have been a great hazard for people in ancient times?
2. **HS1** Which civilisation lasted longest in North Africa?
3. **HS1** Name two groups of people who invaded Mesopotamia in ancient times.
4. **HS1** Why would the Assyrians' iron weapons have given them a big advantage over opponents such as Egypt, who still used bronze weapons?
5. **HS1** What ancient empire was based in Iran?
6. **HS2** For around how many centuries did the Roman Empire exist?

2.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Make a list of questions that historians could ask about any three of the sources in this subtopic.
2. **HS4** Among all of the changes described in this subtopic, what development can you identify as having continuity?
3. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. Why might the allocation of beer be recorded on a clay tablet?
4. **HS3** Describe the activities of the defenders in the war scene depicted in **SOURCE 3**.
5. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**. What do you think the device on the left at the front of the wall panel is meant to do?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.11 Civilisations in South and East Asia

2.11.1 Ancient China

Humans spread from Africa through Asia, reaching China around 75 000 years ago. When and where did civilisations emerge there? We will focus on ancient India and China because it is in these regions that eastern civilisation first arose. Elsewhere in South Asia, South-East Asia and Japan, civilisations emerged much later.

A site called Spirit Cave, in Thailand (South-East Asia), provides some evidence of farming in Asia around 9000 BCE. The earliest evidence of farming in China comes from Taiwan and dates to about 6000 BCE. Elsewhere in China, farming settlements have been found dating back to around 4000 BCE. A Chinese legend tells of a folk hero called the Yellow Emperor who founded Chinese civilisation. His **dynasty**, called the Xia, is said to have ruled from around 2100 to 1600 BCE. However, we have no real evidence that it actually existed. What we can be certain about is that Chinese civilisation developed around the Huang River (Yellow River) and the Yangtze River. The fertile soils of these river valleys were what made a farming civilisation possible.

Early Chinese dynasties

The second Chinese dynasty, the Shang, also seemed to be a myth until archaeologists found supporting evidence in 1928. The finds included written inscriptions on bones. The Shang ruled from 1600 to 1046 BCE, so we know that writing existed in China from at least that time. Shang rulers also built cities. At one city, Anyang, skeletal remains of victims of human sacrifice were found. The Shang rulers took sacrificial victims with them to the grave.

In 1046 BCE the Shang dynasty fell to a people called the Zhou. Around 500 BCE, under this dynasty, iron replaced bronze as the main metal for making weapons and the tools that would help increase farm productivity. This change was significant because iron was harder and therefore more efficient.

China became a unified nation with the arrival of the Qin (pronounced *chin*) dynasty in the third century BCE. The Qin united China after a destructive period called the Warring States period, when rival rulers fought one another for power. The short-lived Qin dynasty was followed by the Han dynasty. The Han ruled China for most of the period from 206 BCE to 220 CE.

SOURCE 1 A map of South and East Asia showing capital cities



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

Ancient China and the outside world

Throughout this period, the Chinese believed the lands beyond their own to be savage places that lacked China's order and learning and were populated by 'barbarians'. China was surrounded by natural barriers that made contact difficult: the sea to the east, deserts to the north and the west, rainforests in the south and the great Himalayan mountain range in the south-west. The only contact between China and western Asia was opened in the first century BCE. It was made possible by a series of trading routes called the 'Silk Road' (see topic 7 Ancient China).

SOURCE 2 From the ancient Chinese annals *Hou Hanshu*

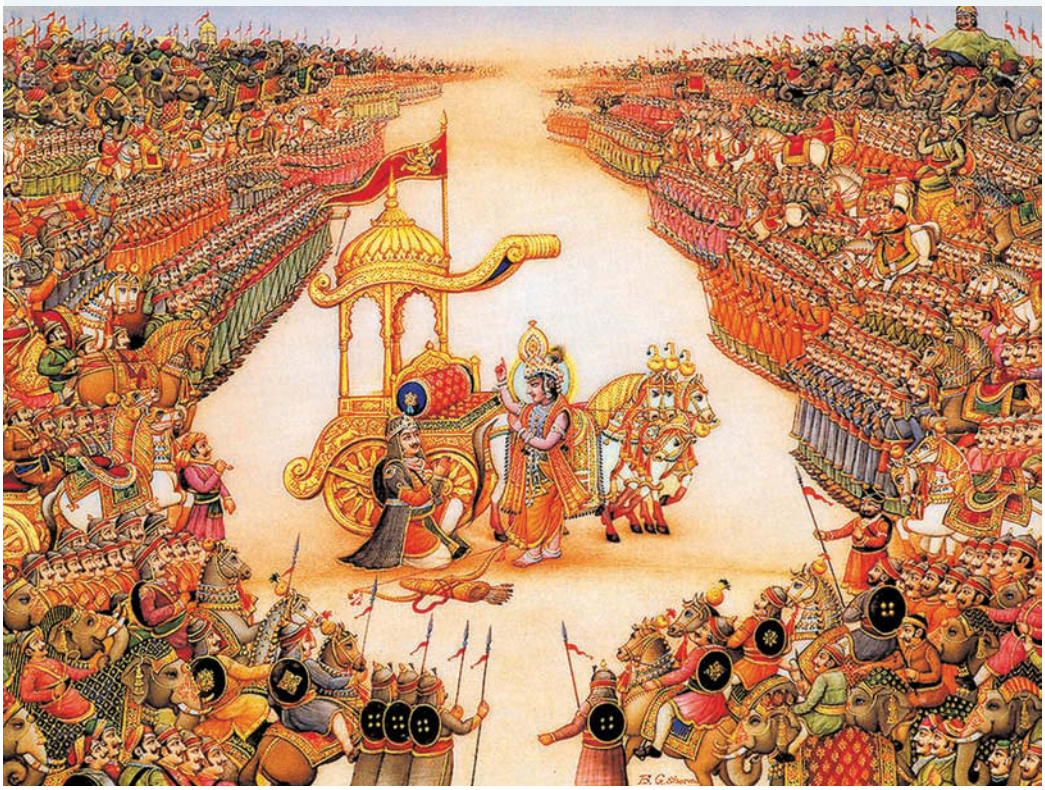
In the ninth year of the Yen-Hi period [166 CE] in the reign of Emperor Huan, king An-tun [the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus] of Ta-ch'in [the Roman Empire] sent an embassy. From the frontier of Jih-nan [in part of Vietnam controlled by China at that time] this [embassy] offered ivory, rhinoceros horn and tortoiseshell; from that time began direct trade relations with this country — but their **tribute** contained no jewels whatever.

2.11.2 Ancient India

Civilisation arose even earlier on the Indian **subcontinent**. The first Indian civilisation was founded in the Indus River Valley, in what is now Pakistan, around 3000 BCE. Its growth was made possible by the plentiful water and fertile soils of the Indus Valley. Its earliest cities were built around 2500 BCE and there is evidence of trade with Sumer. By 1600 BCE these cities had been abandoned. Remarkably, traces of the Indus Valley civilisation were first dug up only in the 1920s. The oldest examples of Indian writing come from this civilisation.

Around the time that this first civilisation collapsed, nomadic warriors called Aryans invaded India. The country did not become a unified state until the Mauryan Empire was established in 304 BCE. But long before that event two great world religions, Hinduism and Buddhism, arose in India (see topic 8 Ancient India).

SOURCE 3 A scene from The Mahabharata, an Indian Hindu epic poem composed in 220 BCE



Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Early urban civilisations**

2.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** For how long have humans lived in China?
2. **HS1** How do we know that under China's Shang dynasty people were sacrificed to be buried with their rulers?
3. **HS1** Why was the introduction of iron a significant change in ancient China?
4. **HS1** On which river was the oldest Indian civilisation founded?
5. **HS2** In what decade did archaeologists begin excavating the cities of this civilisation?

2.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What evidence does **SOURCE 2** provide of China's foreign trade relations?
2. **HS3** **SOURCE 2** describes the gifts from the Roman emperor as tribute. This means money or goods paid by a ruler to a higher ruler. What does this tell us about the way the Chinese rulers regarded their relationship with Rome?
3. **HS3** Decide on three questions a historian could ask about **SOURCE 3** to use it as evidence for a study of ancient India.
4. **HS6** Using **SOURCE 1**, explain the significance of rivers for the development of civilisations in China and the Indian subcontinent.
5. **HS4** Briefly describe the broad patterns of change in China and India between about 4000 BCE and 220 CE.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.12 Ancient American civilisations

2.12.1 Human migration within the Americas

North and South America were the last inhabitable continents to be reached by humans. The accepted theory is that during the last Ice Age people crossed over a land bridge from Asia into North America where the Bering Strait now exists (see **SOURCE 1**). At that time, sea levels were much lower than they are today. They could therefore have walked across from one continent to the other. Ancient civilisations arose in parts of the Americas from around 1800 BCE, but there are many gaps in our evidence for them.

We know that humans had reached the far south of South America by at least 10 500 BCE, because in 1997, near Monte Verde in southern Chile, archaeologists found an ancient campsite. Here was evidence of people having gathered fruit, edible seaweed, potatoes, grasses, mushrooms and shellfish. These people had lived in animal-hide shelters and hunted now extinct animals. The archaeologists even found the human waste of these prehistoric Americans. Radiocarbon testing was used to estimate the age of these materials.

Until 1997, the oldest evidence of humans in the Americas was a stone spear found near Clovis in Mexico. This was dug up in the 1930s, and is believed to date from 9200 BCE. What makes the find at Monte Verde in Chile remarkable is that it is in the far south. Migration from the far north to South America would have taken thousands of years.

The Monte Verde people were hunter-gatherers and, like all American cultures, used stone weapons and tools. Even the cultures that built cities, used gold and silver to make ornaments, and used writing for communication (from around 300 CE) still used stone weapons and tools. The earliest evidence of farming in the Americas is from a cave in the Tihuacan Valley in Mexico. Samples of domesticated corn found in the cave are similar to ancient wild corn. Scientists have dated the corn samples at 2700 BCE, and this probably marks the beginning of agriculture in America.

SOURCE 1 Probable routes taken by the first humans to America during the last Ice Age. The land bridge between Asia and America is now under the sea.



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

2.12.2 From the Olmec to the Maya

Most American peoples continued to live by hunting and gathering and by small-scale farming, but some developed more complex societies. The earliest civilisation in the Americas, the Olmec, flourished in Mexico between around 1800 and 400 BCE. From around 800 to 200 BCE another civilisation that we call the Chavin flourished in Peru.

In Central America, in what are now the nations of Honduras and Guatemala, the civilisation of the Maya flourished from about 300 to 900 CE. This civilisation was based on farming, which produced a surplus to provide for its rulers and priests. The Maya built cities with huge stone temples and palaces. These buildings were decorated with carvings and pictures. Their priests created a mathematical system that used the number zero and counted in twenties. They studied the stars and created a calendar. It is possible that

the collapse of their civilisation came about after Mayan peasants revolted against their rulers. New Mayan cities were built, but around 975 CE they were conquered by a younger American civilisation — the Toltecs of Mexico.

SOURCE 2 One of several giant stone heads carved by people of the Olmec civilisation in Mexico about 3000 years ago



Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Mayas and Toltecs**

2.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** Approximately how long have people lived in the Americas?
2. **HS2** How long ago did farming develop in the Americas?
3. **HS2** When and where did the Olmec civilisation develop?
4. **HS1** Describe the significant achievements of the Maya.
5. **HS1** What most likely caused the collapse of the Mayan culture?

2.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using the scale in **SOURCE 1**, calculate the distance people would have travelled when migrating from Siberia to Central America.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. It is over three metres high.
   (a) Why would it be almost impossible for a hunter-gatherer society to produce such an object?
   (b) Suggest reasons why the Olmec made such objects.
3. **HS4** What similarities and differences can you recognise between the emergence of civilisations in Europe, Asia and Africa and such developments in the Americas?
4. **HS6** Explain why the discoveries at Monte Verde are considered to have great historical significance.
5. **HS5** What do you think is the main reason why we know little about the causes of the collapse of the Olmec and Mayan civilisations?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.13 The ancient birth of modern religions and philosophies

2.13.1 Religions and philosophies that developed in South and East Asia

In ancient times, people held many religious beliefs. Most of those beliefs, such as worshipping the sun, have disappeared over time. Today there are five religious faiths that have had such widespread influence, or so many followers that they are considered to be major world religions. They are Hinduism, Buddhism, Judaism, Christianity and Islam. Each was established during or very soon after ancient times. In East Asia their influence has been matched by Confucianism. It too originated in ancient times, but it is a **philosophy** rather than a religion.

Hinduism

Hinduism is the oldest of the major world religions. It appears to have originated in western Asia, reaching India around 1600 BCE. The first Hindu books, called the Vedas, come from this time. Today Hinduism is followed by about 80 per cent of the people of modern India; it is the third most popular religion in the world.

Followers of Hinduism are called Hindus. They believe in many gods including a universal spirit, called Brahma. They also believe in **reincarnation**. Hindus believe that a person's current life will determine what form their next life will take. As set out in a series of books called the *Upanishads*, composed from the ninth to the fifth centuries BCE, the Hindu faith holds that a soul exists in each living thing. Cows are particularly sacred, so Hindus do not eat beef.

SOURCE 1 Statues of guardian giants at a Buddhist temple in Bangkok, Thailand. These mythical creatures come from the Ramayana, an ancient Hindu epic.



Buddhism

Buddhism was founded by a Hindu prince called Siddhartha Gautama in the sixth century BCE in what is now the country of Nepal. After observing the human suffering around him, he decided to abandon his privileged life and seek truth. According to legend, he first spent years as a hermit and then set out to teach people what he called the Four Noble Truths. At this time people began calling him the Buddha, which means 'the Enlightened One'. Followers of Buddhism came to be called Buddhists.

SOURCE 2 Detail of a gigantic reclining Buddha figure in Thailand. It is covered in gold.



The Four Noble Truths are:

- All people suffer pain.
- People suffer because they keep being born and reborn, and pain continues.
- Pain is caused by the desire, or craving, for things.
- To overcome desire, a person must follow the Eightfold Path.

The Eightfold Path includes knowing truth, resisting evil, serving others and **meditation**. The Buddha taught that through this path a person could achieve *nirvana*, a state in which the soul would cease to exist as it comes into harmony with the universe.

Buddhism later lost much of its influence in India but it spread throughout most of Asia, including Sri Lanka, China, Japan, Tibet, Bhutan, Korea and mainland South-East Asia. Today it is the state religion in Thailand and Cambodia.

Confucianism

Confucianism has had an enormous influence, particularly in China and Vietnam. Confucius (K'ung Fu-tse) lived in China from 551 to 479 BCE in a period of ongoing destructive wars. He was not concerned with religion, but rather with making a better society. He taught ideas about life and government to solve the problems of his age. During his lifetime Confucius had little success in influencing rulers, but he gained disciples who went on to have great influence.

Confucius's sayings were recorded in a book called *Lun-yu* (*The Analects*). He taught the ideals of family obligations, that government should exist for the people's welfare and that people would follow the example of a good ruler. Confucius's ideas were to influence Chinese thought right up to modern times.

2.13.2 Religions that developed in western Asia

Common features of Judaism, Christianity and Islam

All these three religions believe in one God. They share many beliefs and some of the same sacred texts. Judaism has the Torah. Christianity has the Bible. Islam has the Qur'an. All three religions believe that God must be obeyed. Each religion sets out guidelines for their followers to live good lives. Each holds that God will judge people according to how they live their lives and that there is a 'heaven' where good people live with God in an afterlife.

Judaism

Judaism is the religion of the Jewish people throughout the world. According to stories in the Old Testament of the Bible, the Hebrew (Jewish) people were enslaved in Egypt for about 300 years until a leader, called Moses, led them to Palestine. On the way he is said to have given them a set of laws called the Ten Commandments, which were dictated to him by their god, Yahweh. These events have long been debated by scholars, but there is some agreement that the Hebrews could have arrived in Palestine around 1100 BCE. Judaism was not a religion that set out to convert other peoples. However, it was to have an enormous influence on two later religions — Christianity and Islam.

Christianity

The Christian religion arose in Palestine (then part of the Roman Empire) in the first century CE. Christianity was based on the teachings of Jesus Christ, a Jew whose followers preached that he was the son of God. Jesus taught his followers that through faith people could receive forgiveness for sins and gain **eternal life**. Because they saw him as a threat to their power, Jewish religious leaders had Jesus arrested, condemned and **crucified** by the Romans.

The followers of Jesus came to be called Christians. They spread his teachings, but the Romans saw the new religion as a threat because Christians refused to worship the Roman emperor. Roman persecution of Christians ended in 313 CE when Emperor Constantine made Christianity legal. It became the state religion of the Roman Empire in 391 CE and became the religion of nearly all people in Europe over the following centuries. Today Christianity is the main religion in Europe, North and South America, parts of Africa, Australia and some parts of Asia.

SOURCE 3 Jewish worshipers at the Western Wall of the ancient Hebrew temple in Jerusalem



SOURCE 4 Saint Mark's Cathedral in Venice, Italy



Islam

Islam was founded by the **prophet** Mohammed, who was born about 570 CE in Mecca, in Saudi Arabia, where people worshipped many gods and made sacrifices to idols. Mohammed believed that he had received revelations from an angel. He called on the people of Mecca to worship the 'one true God', known in Arabic as Allah. *Islam* means 'submission' to the will of Allah.

SOURCE 5 Minarets reach to the sky in modern Istanbul in Turkey. These slender towers are connected to mosques (Islamic places of worship) and are used to call Muslims to prayer.



Many people in Mecca accepted Mohammed's teaching and became Muslims (Arabic for those who had 'surrendered' to Allah). They suffered persecution until Mohammed left Mecca and fled to Medina in 622. The year of this migration, called the Hijrah in Arabic, is the date from which the Muslim calendar begins. The Muslims won several battles against their opponents. By 630 Mohammed had returned to Mecca, which became the centre of Islam.

After Mohammed's death, his revelations were written down as the Qur'an. This sacred text includes teachings on religious, social and political issues. Between 632 and 732, Islam spread across the Middle East and North Africa into Persia, parts of India and southern Spain. In the following centuries it spread through Central Asia and parts of South-East Asia. Islam is now the world's second most popular religion, with more than one and a half billion followers. The world's largest Islamic country is Indonesia.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Monotheistic belief systems**
- Overview > **Eastern belief systems**

2.13 ACTIVITY

Create a timeline to show the order in which each of the major world religions and Confucianism were established.

Sequencing chronology

2.13 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

2.13 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Which religion that originated in southern Asia has many gods?
2. **HS1** Which religion is the main faith in many countries but not in the country where it began?
3. **HS1** Why has Confucianism been very influential even though it is not a religion?
4. **HS1** Why do you think followers of Judaism did not try to convert other peoples?
5. **HS1** What do Judaism, Christianity and Islam share in common?

2.13 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** How does **SOURCE 1** provide evidence that Hindu ideas have influenced the cultures of Buddhist countries?
2. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 2** suggest about the way Buddhists regard the Buddha?
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 3**. Why do you think the ancient temple wall in Jerusalem is so significant for followers of Judaism?
4. **HS3** What symbol identifies St. Mark's Cathedral (**SOURCE 4**) as a Christian church and what does it represent?
5. **HS3** How many minarets can you count in **SOURCE 5** and what does this suggest about Islam's importance in modern Turkey?
6. **HS4** Discuss possible reasons why some religions spread around the world while others remained mainly in one area or with one group of people.
7. **HS2** Make a timeline to show the order in which each of the major world religions and Confucianism were established.
8. **HS5** Explain where developments within one religion led to the formation of a new religion.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

2.14 SkillBuilder: Describing broad patterns of change

online only

What are broad patterns of change?

During any period of history, some changes happen quickly and others occur slowly. Some changes affect only limited numbers of people while others are widespread. Broad patterns of change are not the kind of changes that might have affected one community; rather, they are patterns of change that are extensive and widespread.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

2.15 Thinking Big research project: Museum exhibition guide

online only

SCENARIO

An Australian museum is planning a major exhibition on significant changes over the period from c. 60 000 BCE to c. 650 CE. The museum's directors want a small group of school students to contribute to a visiting schools' guide booklet for the exhibition. In order to select suitable contributors, they have asked applicants to investigate five particular developments during the period.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Museum exhibition guide (pro-0226)

2.16 Review

online only

2.16.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

2.16.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32116)
Crossword (doc-32117)

Interactivity The ancient world crossword (int-7691)

KEY TERMS

agriculture the cultivation of land, growing of crops or raising of animals
anthropoid human-like
bitumen tar, as used on modern road surfaces
colonies countries or regions taken over and controlled by another state
crucified killed by crucifixion, an ancient form of execution in which the victim was tied or nailed to a pole or (as was Jesus) a cross and left to die slowly in agony
dynasty a line of rulers from the same family, and the period during which they ruled
Ensi ruler of any Sumerian city-state
eternal life living forever

extinct died out
fauna animals
Fertile Crescent the area now roughly covered by Israel/Palestine, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, south-east Turkey and Iraq
flint a very hard stone, useful for tools and for making sparks to start fires
fossils remains of plants or animals found in rocks
genetics study of heredity
Holocene Epoch the past 10 000 years
hunter-gatherers people who live by hunting animals and gathering plants
Ice Ages long periods during which glaciers covered much of the northern hemisphere
mammoth a large extinct mammal like a modern elephant but with larger tusks and woolly fur to keep it warm
marshland low-lying land that is usually boggy and often flooded
meditation exercising the mind through contemplation
microliths small stone artefacts
Neolithic Revolution the beginning of the New Stone Age
nomadic moving about from place to place
palaeontologist a scientist who studies fossils
Paleolithic of the Old Stone Age
philosophy study of the causes and meanings of things
Pleistocene Epoch the glacial period before the Holocene Epoch
prophet a revealer or interpreter of God's will
reincarnation the process of being reborn over and over again in another human or animal body
scribe citizen who could read and write and was trained to keep records
species a group or classification of living things
subcontinent large section of a continent (e.g. the Indian subcontinent)
tribute riches given by a state to acknowledge submission to another state or ruler
villein a poor farmer who worked the land of a big landowner and had fewer rights

2.14 SkillBuilder: Describing broad patterns of change

2.14.1 Tell me

What are broad patterns of change?

During any period of history, some changes happen quickly and others occur slowly. Some changes affect only limited numbers of people while others are widespread. In this topic we have studied developments in human societies from early communities (around 60 000 BCE) to later ancient times (up to around 650 CE). Over such a long period we would expect significant changes. Broad patterns of change are not the kinds of changes that might have affected one community, such as a change of rulers. Rather, they are patterns of change that are extensive or widespread.

Broad patterns of change have taken place in the modern world in just a generation. For example, when your parents were your age there was no internet, and Facebook or Twitter could hardly have been imagined. Such technological changes have revolutionised the ways we communicate. In the ancient world, patterns of change occurred much more slowly but, just as much as the recent technological revolution, these changes transformed human societies.

Why is it important to describe broad patterns of change?

In a period as long as that of the ancient world there are many examples of broad changes in technologies, religious beliefs and the ways in which societies were organised and governed. Identifying such broad patterns of change will help you to:

- recognise the nature of a change that occurred
- recognise the speed of any change
- recognise the extent or significance of any change
- assess the role of changes in contributing to other changes.

2.14.2 Show me

How to describe broad patterns of change

From your work in this topic, you will already understand that there were enormous changes from the Old Stone Age through the New Stone Age and into later ancient times. You will be able to recognise such changes when comparing primary sources from different ages within the times of the ancient world. You can recognise evidence of broad patterns of change by asking questions such as:

For what broad patterns of change do these sources provide evidence?

To answer such a question, you need to break the question down into more specific questions, such as:

1. What kind of development was this? For example, was it a change in the ways in which people provided for basic needs, such as food and shelter, or a change in beliefs, transport, technology, trade or entertainment?
2. What was the situation before the change?
3. How did the change occur?
4. What was different after the change?

In the following example, these types of questions have been applied to **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3.**

Returning to the question we posed earlier:

For what broad patterns of change do **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3** provide evidence?

SOURCE 1 This Old Stone Age painting on rock shows a man hunting deer. It is from Mexico. Old Stone Age rock paintings, cave paintings and engravings showing similar scenes have been found in many places, including Australia and France. Some are believed to be as much as 30 000 years old.



SOURCE 2 This ancient Egyptian wall painting of people harvesting crops is from the tomb of a successful Egyptian artisan named Sennedjem, c. 1306–1290 BCE.



SOURCE 3 This relief sculpture depicts ancient Assyrians hunting lions. It is from around 883 BCE to 612 BCE when Assyria was a powerful empire in the Middle East.



We can break the question down to more specific questions and answer these:

1. *What kind of development was this?* **SOURCES 1** and **2** provide evidence for a change from hunter-gatherer societies to societies based on farming.
2. *What was the situation before the change?* Before the New Stone Age, which saw the development of farming, all peoples provided for their needs by hunting and gathering, like the hunter depicted in **SOURCE 1**.
3. *How did the change occur?* The change first came about around 9000 BCE, when people in the Fertile Crescent began growing crops and herding sheep and goats. As others saw advantages in adopting these new ways, the development spread to other societies, such as the ancient Egyptians, shown in **SOURCE 2**.
4. *What was different after the change?* People were able to produce food in smaller areas than were needed by hunter-gatherers so they could settle in permanent dwellings. They could also produce a surplus so that some people could specialise in work other than food production. Large settled societies saw the need for laws and powerful rulers. The surpluses the people produced could support a ruling class, who saw hunting as a form of sport or recreation, as depicted in **SOURCE 3**, rather than as a necessity, as in **SOURCE 1**.

2.14.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

2.14 ACTIVITIES

1. Apply the following questions to **SOURCES 4** and **5** to identify broad patterns of change in another aspect of life in ancient times.
   General question: For what broad patterns of change do **SOURCES 4** and **5** provide evidence?
   More specific questions:
   (a) What kind of development was this?
   (b) What was the situation, as shown in **SOURCE 4**, before the change?
   (c) How did the change occur?
   (d) What was different, as shown in **SOURCE 5**, after the change?

SOURCE 4 Creevykeel Megalithic Tomb was constructed in Ireland around 3000 BCE by New Stone Age people. This was around the same time that structures, such as Stonehenge and other stone circles, temples and tombs were built in England. Because everything else built by these peoples was made of wood and other vegetable matter, such giant stone monuments, called megaliths, are the only built traces they left behind.



SOURCE 5 Part of the remains of the ancient Roman town of Pompeii, which was buried in volcanic ash when Mount Vesuvius erupted in 79 CE



2.15 Thinking Big research project: Museum exhibition guide

Scenario



An Australian museum is planning a major exhibition on significant changes over the period from *circa* 60 000 BCE to *circa* 650 CE. The exhibition will include objects and written primary sources from the period. The museum's directors want a small group of school students to contribute to a visiting schools' guide booklet for the exhibition. In order to select suitable student guidebook contributors, they have asked applicants to complete the following task.

Task

Identify five particular developments that represent significant changes during the period, then choose a suitable image for each and write a paragraph on each development. The aim is to help other students who visit the exhibition to understand why these developments were significant.

Each development that you choose must represent one of the following themes:



- Human migrations
- Change from Old Stone Age (Paleolithic) to New Stone Age (Neolithic) lifestyles
- The rise of cities
- The rise of civilisations and empires
- The birth in ancient times of modern religions and philosophies.

For example, you could write about the rise of a Sumerian city to represent the rise of cities. Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.

Process

- Open the projectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Working in small groups will enable you to share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered.
- Revisit the timeline in the Overview for this topic. Next, browse through all subtopics in this topic to help you to select the five developments that you will use to represent each of the five themes.
- Select your five developments.
- Find information and a suitable image for each development by reading relevant sections of the topic. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric to guide your work and some weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.
- Write up your research findings under the heading for each development in your Research Forum. Be sure to explain the historical significance of each development.
- Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your completed guidebook.
- Now it is time to create the guidebook using the information and images you have found. Feel free to be creative!
- Email your completed task to your teacher for assessment and feedback.



on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Museum exhibition guide (pro-0226)

2.16 Review

2.16.1 Key knowledge summary

2.2 Examining the evidence

- For Old Stone Age societies our main primary source evidence comes from tools, weapons and cave paintings.
- For New Stone Age, Bronze Age and Iron Age societies we have much more evidence, especially from societies that used writing.

2.3 Out of Africa

- All modern humans descended from people in Africa, some of whom migrated into other parts of the world from around 100 000 years ago.
- Other human species also migrated from Africa but became extinct by about 30 000 years ago.
- Old Stone Age peoples were hunter-gatherers.

2.4 A changing Paleolithic world

- Humans adapted to survive the conditions of the last Ice Age.
- Global warming from around 12 000 BC created conditions in which humans in some places could move towards the New Stone Age.

2.5 An amazing journey

- Lower sea levels during the last Ice Age shortened the distance between Asia and Australia.
- The ancestors of Australia's Indigenous peoples arrived by sea at least 50 000 years ago.

2.6 The Mesolithic Age

- The Mesolithic Age was a step between the Old Stone Age and New Stone Age.
- Mesolithic sites in Europe provide evidence for this brief period.

2.7 The New Stone Age

- People in some places became farmers and herders and lived in permanent villages.
- These changes led to significant inventions, including writing, mathematics, money and specialisation of occupations.

2.8 Cities, laws, government

- Sumer is regarded as the first civilisation.
- The change to more complex societies led to the rise of powerful rulers, laws and increased trade.

2.9 Society and culture

- Civilisation increased differences between social classes and in wealth and power.
- Organised religions became a feature of civilisations.

2.10 Civilisations and empires in North Africa, western Asia and Europe

- Significant ancient empires were founded by Egyptians, Akkadians, Elamites, Babylonians, Hittites, Assyrias, Persians and Romans.
- Empires rose and fell through destructive wars.

2.11 Civilisations in South and East Asia

- The first Chinese dynasty for which we have evidence is the Shang dynasty.
- China became an empire under the Qin dynasty.
- The first Indian civilisation was in the Indus Valley.

2.12 Ancient American civilisations

- Humans reached the Americas by crossing a land bridge from Asia.
- The earliest evidence of farming in the Americas has been dated to 2700 BCE.
- The earliest American civilisation was the Olmec.

2.13 The ancient birth of modern religions and philosophies

- Hinduism, Buddhism and Confucianism originated in Asia.
- Judaism, Christianity and Islam originated in the Middle East.

A timeline of the ancient world















BCE

200 000

150 000

100 000

50 000

40 000

30 000

20 000

10 000

9000

8000

7000

6000

5000

4000

3000

2000

1000

BCE / CE

1000

2000

CE

c. 200 000–130 000
The earliest true humans (*Homo sapiens*) appear in Africa.

c. 36 000
Humans reach southern Australia.

c. 30 000
Homo neanderthalensis (Neanderthal Man) becomes extinct.

Early cave paintings are created in France and Spain.

Rock engravings are made on Cape York Peninsula.

c. 30 000–10 000
Humans colonise the Americas.

c. 8000
The world's earliest returning boomerangs are used in South Australia.

c. 3500 BCE
Writing is first used in Sumer, western Asia.

c. 3000 BCE
Cities are built and the first empires rise in western Asia.

c. 2500 BCE
Cities are built on the Indian subcontinent.

c. 1400 BCE
Ancient Greek civilisation begins.

c. 750 BCE
Rome is founded.

c. 180 CE
The Roman Empire reaches its greatest extent.

625 CE
Islam is established in Mecca, Saudi Arabia

c. 75 00
Humans spread through Asia.

c. 60 000
Humans migrate to New Guinea and Australia.

c. 40 000
Humans begin to spread through Europe.

c. 33 000
Humans move into Tasmania when sea levels are low.

c. 21 000
The world's earliest ground-edge, grooved axes are made in Arnhem Land.

c. 20 000
The last Ice Age reaches its peak.

c. 12 000
The Middle Stone Age begins in Europe.

c. 9000 BCE
Herding and farming begin in western Asia.

c. 6000 BCE
Farming begins to spread into North Africa, other parts of Asia and Europe.

c. 3100 BCE
Egypt becomes a united kingdom.

c. 2500 BCE
Minoan civilisation begins on the Mediterranean island of Crete.

c. 1200 BCE
Olmec civilisation flourishes in Mexico.

c. 221 BCE
China becomes an empire.

476 CE
The Roman Empire falls.

2.16.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

2.16 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry questions posed in the Overview:

Without planes and ships, how (and why) did early humans spread across the world from Africa?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-31433)
Crossword (doc-31434)

Interactivity Ancient world crossword (int-7609)

KEY TERMS

agriculture the cultivation of land, growing of crops or raising of animals
anthropoid human-like
bitumen tar, as used on modern road surfaces
colonies countries or regions taken over and controlled by another state
crucified killed by crucifixion, an ancient form of execution in which the victim was tied or nailed to a pole or (as was Jesus) a cross and left to die slowly in agony
dynasty a line of rulers from the same family, and the period during which they ruled
Ensi ruler of any Sumerian city-state
eternal life living forever
extinct died out
fauna animals
Fertile Crescent the area now roughly covered by Israel/Palestine, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, south-east Turkey and Iraq
flint a very hard stone, useful for tools and for making sparks to start fires
fossils remains of plants or animals found in rocks
genetics study of heredity
Holocene Epoch the past 10 000 years
hunter-gatherers people who live by hunting animals and gathering plants
Ice Ages long periods during which glaciers covered much of the northern hemisphere
mammoth a large extinct mammal like a modern elephant but with larger tusks and woolly fur to keep it warm
marshland low-lying land that is usually boggy and often flooded
meditation exercising the mind through contemplation
microliths small stone artefacts
Neolithic Revolution the beginning of the New Stone Age
nomadic moving about from place to place
palaeontologist a scientist who studies fossils
Paleolithic of the Old Stone Age
philosophy study of the causes and meanings of things
Pleistocene Epoch the glacial period before the Holocene Epoch
prophet a revealer or interpreter of God's will
reincarnation the process of being reborn over and over again in another human or animal body

scribe citizen who could read and write and was trained to keep records
species a group or classification of living things
subcontinent large section of a continent (e.g. the Indian subcontinent)
tribute riches given by a state to acknowledge submission to another state or ruler
villein a poor farmer who worked the land of a big landowner and had fewer rights

3 Ancient Australia

3.1 Overview

Songlines, caring for country and the Dreaming. What can they teach us about the First Australians?

3.1.1 Links with our times

The history, culture, beliefs and rituals of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples stretch back to distant time. Scientists estimate that the story of Aboriginal Australia began between 60 000 and 120 000 years ago. This is a story of the world's longest continuous culture.

The epic history of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples lies carved into the rock faces and beneath the soils of this ancient land. The remains of tens of thousands of years of human occupation provide modern Australia with a connection to the past. At archaeological sites, such as those at Lake Mungo in New South Wales and Badu Island in the Torres Strait, evidence is revealed of the life and culture of ancient communities. Archaeologists have discovered sites of human occupation on the Australian continent from at least 60 000 years ago and evidence of human activity in the Torres Strait dating from 4000 years ago.

Through the ages, the relationship between the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and their land survived and continues today in stories, songs, dancing and art. Today, archaeologists conduct their research in partnership with local communities, drawing on the knowledge held by the traditional custodians of the land.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

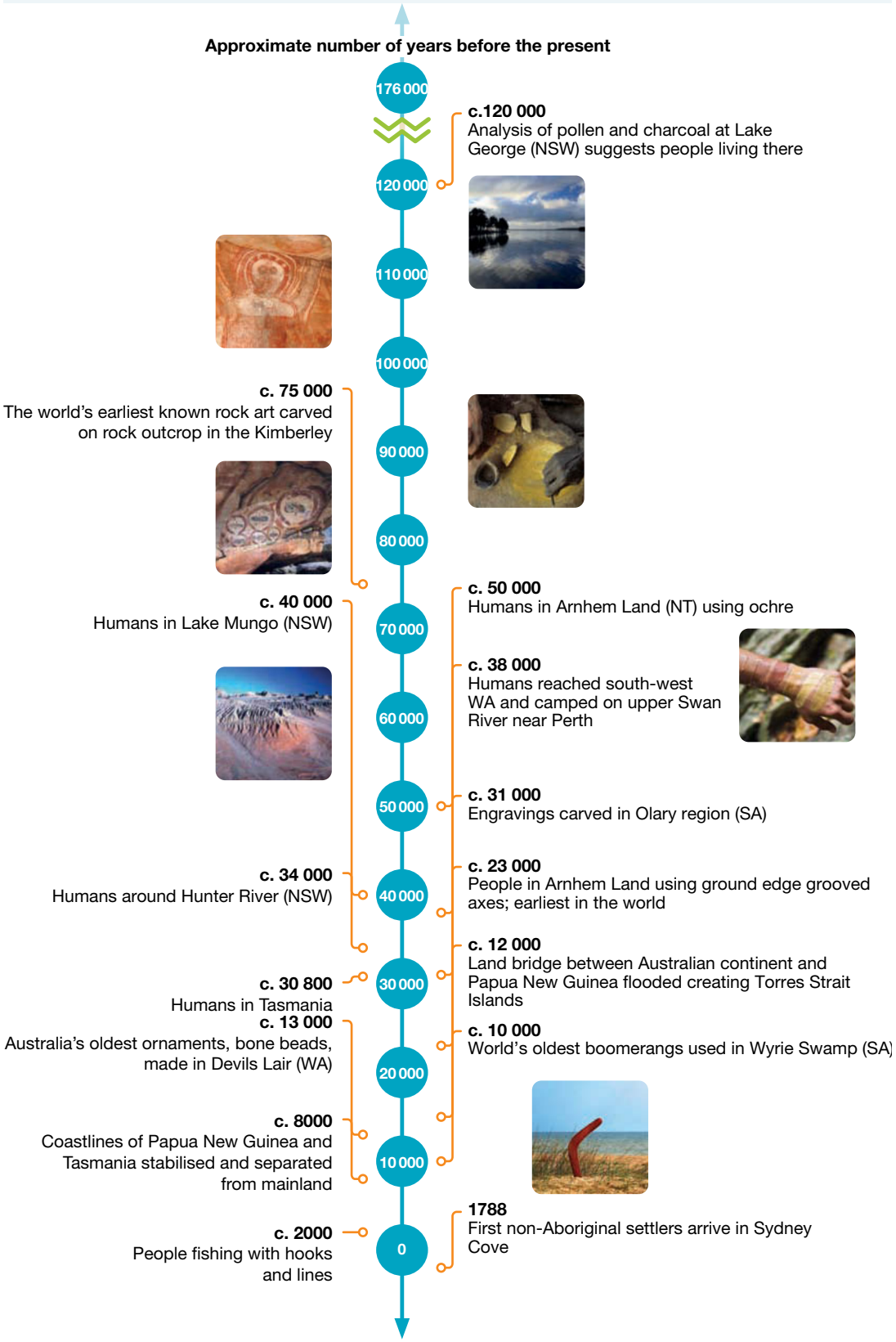
Video eLesson Ancient Australia (eles-2617)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

3.1 Overview
3.2 Examining the evidence
3.3 The first people of Australia and the Torres Strait Islands
3.4 Managing an ancient land
3.5 Language and ceremony in ancient Australia
3.6 The ancient Australian economy
3.7 Society, custom and culture
3.8 Conflict and death in ancient Australia
3.9 Conserving the past
3.10 **SkillBuilder:** Developing a hypothesis online only
3.11 **Thinking Big research project:** Communicating Kulin knowledge online only
3.12 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of ancient Australia



3.2 Examining the evidence

3.2.1 How do we know about ancient Australia?

The history and beliefs of ancient Australia were not written onto clay tablets or scrolls of papyrus. Modern archaeologists often begin their study of the life and culture of ancient Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities by talking and consulting with the traditional owners of the land.

From oral tradition and archaeology

Our ancient past was remembered through the spoken word. This oral history was passed down through the generations. As such, the archaeological record of our ancient past is incomplete. Archaeologists gather their evidence from ancient occupation sites such as camps, **quarries**, **shell middens** and fish traps, burial areas, ceremonial and sacred sites. Archaeologists interpret layers of **sediment**, charcoal, clay and sand. Sites, such as Lake Mungo in the Willandra Lakes region of western New South Wales, are studied and interpreted not only by archaeologists, but also **geologists**, **palaeontologists** and **anthropologists**.

SOURCE 1 Newspaper account of archaeological excavations at Barrow Island, Western Australia

Boodie Cave on Barrow Island is yielding an ancient secret of global significance: resourceful, well-fed humans were living in its limestone chambers more than 50 000 years ago, several thousand years earlier than archaeologists had estimated.

The startling evidence has been unearthed in surgically excavated pits on Barrow, Western Australia's second largest island, 50 kilometres off the Pilbara coast.

Thousands of tiny artefacts lie in sediment dated to 50 000 years old ...

There are even older dates of 53 000 years from grains mixed in with fragments of a shellfish meal.

...

'People talked about it, and dates of 47 000 for Aboriginal occupation have been well accepted, but there was no hard data before,' [lead archeologist Peter Veth says].

...

Barrow Island was once part of the original coastal plain of northwest Australia, now drowned.

For three years, teams from UWA, the University of Queensland, James Cook University and Sacramento University have dug pits in the cave floor, unearthing evidence that early Australians lived off marine and terrestrial life along the limestone ridges until sea levels rose and Barrow became an island 7500 years ago.

And they dined well in a stunningly productive landscape, Veth says.

'You take off the sterile soil surface and ... in layers below are (the remains of) turtle, oyster, crocodile, porpoise, sea urchin and freshwater mussel. It's like a seafood basket, only 50 times richer. There are also the bones of marsupial carnivores and kangaroos — these people were eating better than we do.'

Several traditional owners also helped, such as Eden Bobby from the Kuruma Marthudunera Aboriginal Corporation. 'It was a privilege to see first-hand how archaeologists use scientific techniques to understand how the old people of this land lived tens of thousands of years ago,' he said.

Most intriguing are material clues to a resourceful people who harvested food and traded items over possibly hundreds of kilometres. 'Heating stones' were nestled among ancient turtle remains, large quartzite pebbles carried back from inland gorges to act as cooking agents.

Baler shells show signs of being shaped into spoons or incised with mysterious markings.

...

'One of the big questions of Australian archeology is "'When did Aboriginal people get here?"'

'To jump over that 50 000-year mark, with the reliable results of Peter and his team, will attract a lot of international interest in this find.'

So when exactly did the First Australians make landfall?

'That's the big question,' McNiven says. 'We're now able to say it's at least 50–53 000 years ago. It's getting earlier and earlier all the time.'

Lore and museums

'Caring for country' is a very important responsibility taken on by many Indigenous Australian communities. To Aboriginal peoples 'country' refers to the traditional land to which a person belongs, or the land of their **Dreaming**. In caring for their country, the traditional owners of the land share knowledge and pass on the **lore**.

Non-Indigenous people and government institutions, such as museums, also have an important role to play in protecting and conserving the heritage, culture and artefacts of ancient Australia. Museums are the places where the stories of many people, places and times can be told. The National Museum of Australia preserves and displays collections of **artefacts** that represent our history from ancient to modern times.

Artefacts become wonderful sources of information when they are given a background. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander art and objects come to life when they are interpreted by people who have traditional knowledge and understanding. Connecting the oral traditions with the museum objects helps us to see the images and hear the voices of ancient Australia. What survived from the ancient past can then give us a glimpse of the world as it was for the first Australians.

SOURCE 2 Denise Lovett of the Gunditjmara people (western Victoria) explaining the importance of connecting artefacts, such as the emu-feather skirt made by her ancestors, with the object's cultural background

I look at the feathers that the women would have collected, made and danced with. I wonder what song they were singing while they danced. Rightfully, this should have been handed down to someone's daughter and the story handed down too. It's sad that we don't have the whole meaning of them, that they are just objects.

SOURCE 3 An emu-feather dance skirt, made and worn by Wendy Berick of the Dja Dja Wurrung people (Melbourne, Victoria)



DID YOU KNOW?

Stone tools are the longest lasting objects that archaeologists find because organic substances such as plants and animals perish after only a few hundred years. Nature sometimes preserves objects, such as the wooden boomerangs that survived in the water-logged peat bog of South Australia's Wyrie Swamp for over 10 000 years and the 20 000-year-old bone tools at Devil's Lair in Western Australia.

3.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is an artefact? Give an example.
2. **HS1** Why do modern archaeologists talk to today's traditional owners of the land?
3. **HS1** How were the histories and beliefs of ancient Australia passed down through generations?
4. **HS1** Barrow Island off the Western Australian coastline was once part of the original coastal plain of north Western Australia. True or false?
5. **HS1** Explain why stone tools are a rare archaeological find.
6. **HS1** Archaeologists gather their evidence from many places. Identify the layers that archaeologists investigate.

3.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Suggest why archaeological sources may not give a complete picture of life in ancient Australia.
2. **HS3** Why is the evidence found at Boodie Cave in **SOURCE 1** described as 'startling'?
3. **HS3** What were some of the 'material remains' that were found at Barrow Island (**SOURCE 1**)?
4. **HS3** From an examination of **SOURCE 3**, what assumptions could you make about the resources people used in ancient Australia.
5. **HS6** 'Artefacts from ancient Australia can only reveal their true meaning if their cultural background is also considered.' Explain what you understand by this statement. **SOURCES 2** and **3** may help you to do this.
6. **HS6** Consider the ways we can learn about ancient Australia as presented in this subtopic. Rank them from most useful to least useful as a way of learning about ancient Australia's past. Justify your ranking.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.3 The first people of Australia and the Torres Strait Islands

3.3.1 The peopling of an ancient continent

For the last 2 million years the Earth's climate has gone through periods of change. During the **Ice Ages,** the level of the ocean dropped up to 150 metres below the present level. From 80 000 to 10 000 years ago the sea levels remained so low that Papua New Guinea, the Torres Strait Islands and Tasmania were linked to the Australian mainland.

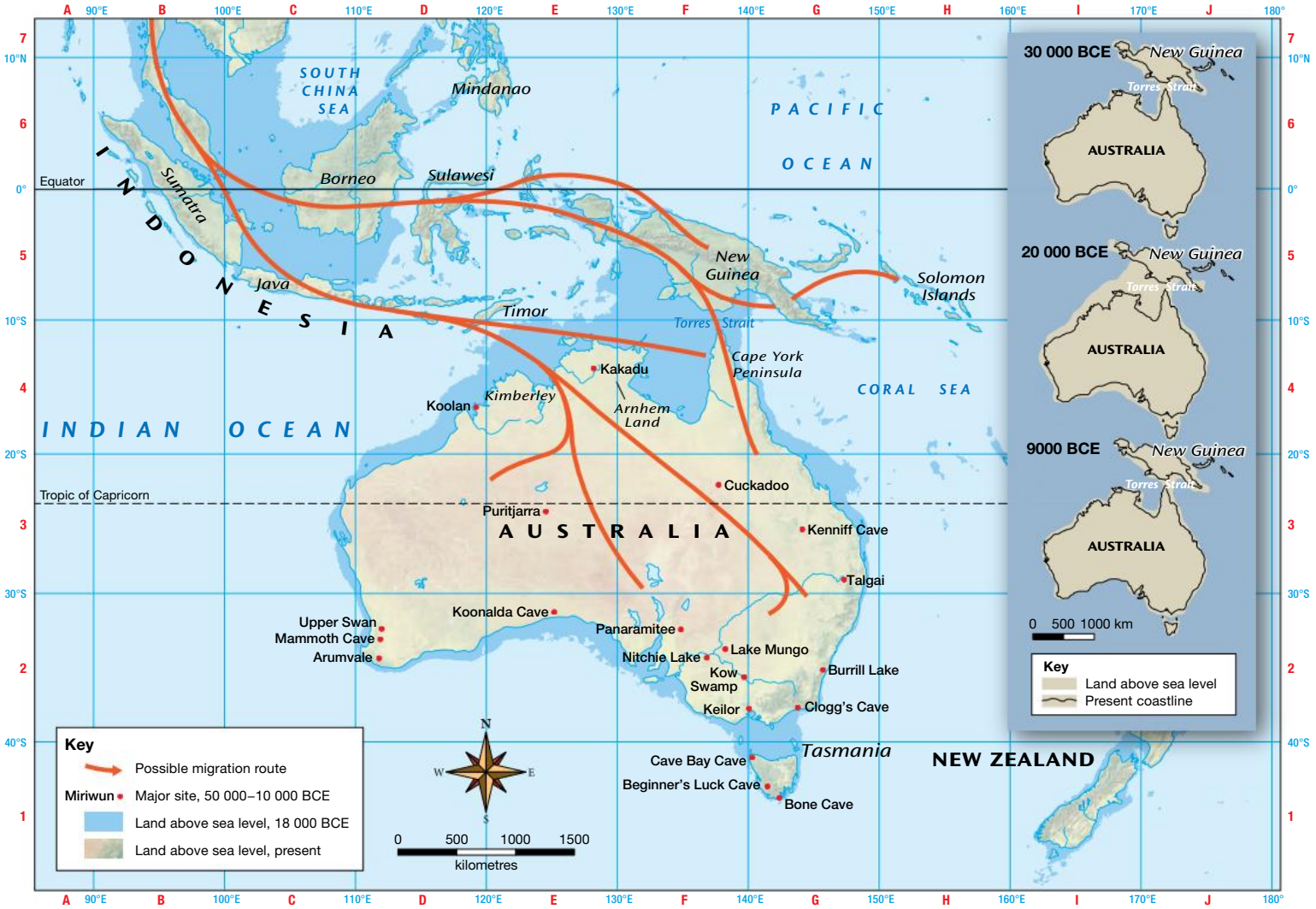
Scientists generally believe that the first Australians made the journey from South-East Asia sometime during a long Ice Age period. It would have been possible to walk much of the way and still stay in sight of land when crossing the water. It is thought that the ocean levels were at their lowest approximately 55 000 years ago. Later, as the climate became wetter and warmer the sea levels rose and the land bridge between mainland Australia and Papua New Guinea flooded and formed the Torres Strait.

Aboriginal peoples

Archaeologists do not agree on the length of time people have lived on the Australian continent. The beginning of human occupation of Australia is generally agreed to date back to the *Pleistocene Period*, a vast period in time lasting from approximately 2.5 million years ago until 10 500 **BP (Before the Present)**. During this period there were great changes in climate and sea levels. The natural environment and landscape were constantly being reshaped.

In the early 1960s it was commonly believed that Aboriginal people had inhabited Australia for only 9000 years. By 1980, **radiocarbon dating** had pushed the dates for settlement of the continent back a further 30 000 years. Scientists and archaeologists continue to debate the topic as new evidence and research technology develops. The remains of tools found in Victoria support a date of inhabitation in that region as far back as 70 000 years ago.

SOURCE 1 Possible migration routes of the forebears of Australia's Indigenous peoples. The lowest sea levels in the last 120 000 years occurred about 20 000, 70 000 and 90 000 BP (Before the Present). Sea levels were lower then because large amounts of water were locked up as ice at the Earth's poles.



Source: Spatial Vision.

It is possible that the Aboriginal settlement of Australia occurred over many generations and that the first Australians travelled along different routes. Scientists continue to debate and question the theories of Aboriginal arrival and occupation of our continent. There are currently three main theories:

1. Joseph Birdsell, an American anthropologist, suggested that small groups of people settled the inland areas of Australia first and then spread rapidly across the continent as their population increased. Birdsell's 'fast-track model' estimated that within 3000 years the settlement would have extended all the way to the eastern and southern coasts.
2. Sandra Bowdler, an Australian archaeologist, believes the first Australians were a seafaring people who selected coastal areas for their first settlement communities. Bowdler's theory has the spread of the population moving gradually from the coast and along the river systems to avoid the harsh deserts. Central Australia would have been the last place of inhabitation.
3. David Horton, an Australian biologist and archaeologist, points to the adaptable and varied nature of traditional Aboriginal communities to suggest that a wide variety of coastal, river and woodland environments would have been the starting place for groups of early people who progressively spread across the continent.

DISCUSS

Does it matter that experts cannot agree on when early humans arrived in Australia? Discuss as a class.

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

DID YOU KNOW?

It is believed that Aboriginal Australians crossed the land bridge that connected Tasmania to the mainland more than 30 000 years ago. When sea levels rose and covered the land bridge to form Bass Strait, these early Aboriginal communities remained isolated in Tasmania.

Torres Strait Islander peoples

The rising sea levels at the end of the last Ice Age created Australia's modern coastline and the islands of the Torres Strait. The Torres Strait Islands are located to the north of the Australian mainland where the Coral and Arafura Seas meet. The islands of the Torres Strait vary greatly in landscape and were mainly formed from the remains of:

- the isolated tops of a range of **plateau** land extending from Cape York, the northern tip of the Australian continent, to the low hills of the southern coast of Papua New Guinea. These are the rocky islands because they are the remains of the former land bridge and are an extension of Australia's Great Dividing Range
- the extinct volcanoes of Mer, Erub and Ugar located on the eastern side of the Torres Strait and the northern end of the Great Barrier Reef. These islands supported large gardens because of the rich volcanic soil
- coral reefs in the central area. These are mostly **cays** with poor quality sandy soil and little water
- **mangrove** mud flats in the top-west. These were formed by **silt** deposits from the large rivers of Papua New Guinea and are rich in wildlife.

SOURCE 2 The Torres Strait contains 247 islands and hundreds of cays, reefs and sandbanks. The Murray Islands are the vents of volcanoes flooded by rising sea levels 8000 to 10 000 years ago. The image foreground shows Waier Island with Murray Island in the background.



Land bridges would have been a migration route and possible place of settlement for early peoples during the Ice Age. The earliest archaeological evidence of permanent settlement of the Torres Strait Islands dates to 4000 years ago. Earlier evidence has been destroyed by powerful tides created by rising sea levels. However, by 2500 years ago a robust seafaring culture was well established on many of the islands.

The people of the Torres Strait Islands are the second group of Indigenous Australians, and are not Aboriginal people who live on the islands of the Strait. According to Torres Strait Island legend, the settlers of the eastern islands had come from the Fly River region of Papua New Guinea. Islanders believe that the people of the western and central region had their origin in the rivers and coasts of Papua New Guinea's southern region. The Torres Strait Islander peoples generally share the features of **Melanesian** culture with the people of Papua New Guinea. Scientists believe that the first inhabitants of Papua New Guinea and the Torres Strait came from Wallacea (modern Indonesia) approximately 70 000 years ago.

3.3.2 Explaining creation — the Dreaming

As human occupation of the Australian continent proceeded, hundreds of different spiritual beliefs and cultural traditions as well as hundreds of different languages developed. However, despite these regional differences, Aboriginal communities did share a common belief in a time known as *the Dreaming*. The

Dreaming explains creation and the nature of the world, the place that every person has in that world and the importance of ritual and tradition. The Dreaming also teaches people about their country and where water, food and shelter would be found.

The Dreaming is handed from one generation to the next through stories, music, dance and art. It tells of the time when the **ancestral beings** moved across the continent creating and moulding the land and its rivers, lakes, mountains and all living creatures. As the ancestral beings travelled across the landscape they left a trail that could be understood as mountains, waterholes, plant formations and other features of the geography. This trail marked out the traditional land and boundaries of each tribal group. The landforms provided ancient people with their evidence of the Dreaming. After the ancestral beings had finished creating the world they were transformed into trees, rocks, rivers and all the natural features of country. These became the sacred places of Aboriginal culture.

SOURCE 3 From Regina McKenzie, *Towards a New Dreaming*

Dreaming gives us our history, our origin, where we started from. They are not made up stories, they are factual events from long ago. Our people have made them into stories so that they are easier for children to understand.

The Dreaming established the laws and the nature of the relationships between different groups of Aboriginal people. The links between people were built upon their connections to the land and to the Dreaming. Aboriginal tradition taught people that the place of their birth and their **clan** established the country they belonged to.

The belief in the Dreaming cannot be accurately translated into English because there is no equivalent set of beliefs in non-Indigenous society. Many Aboriginal words describe the idea of the Dreaming, according to the language group a person belongs to:

- *Ungud* — the Ngarinyin people of the Kimberley region in Western Australia
- *Kulbul* — the Yaraldi people of the lower Murray region of South Australia
- *Wongar* — the Yolngu people of northeast Arnhem Land

SOURCE 4 Sacred Wandjina rock art painted on the wall at Bachsten Creek in West Kimberley. The Wandjina are ancestral beings of the Kimberley region and the bringers of rain, who made and controlled the weather and fertility.



Some Aboriginal people claim the origin of their ancient ancestors in Australia, at a time when humans formed with the landscape. Their Dreaming beliefs provide stories of an Aboriginal presence on the continent since the beginning of time. This Dreaming belief explains the origin of all life in Australia and denies theories of the arrival of people from South-East Asia to Australia during a previous Ice Age.

SOURCE 5 The Torres Strait Islander peoples also have their Dreaming stories. Tagai, a warrior and fisherman, was the creator being who shaped their world. To seafaring people, the stars gave them their navigation for journeys across the ocean. In a range of stories, Tagai is responsible for creating the star patterns in the night sky.

Tagai was a great fisherman. One day he and his crew of 12 were fishing from their outrigger canoe. They were unable to catch any fish, so Tagai left the canoe and went onto the nearby reef to look for fish there.

As the day grew hotter and hotter, the waiting crew of Zugubals (beings who took on human form when they visited Earth) grew impatient and frustrated. Their thirst grew, but the only drinking water in the canoe belonged to Tagai. Their patience ran out and they drank Tagai's water.

When Tagai returned, he was furious that the Zugubals had consumed all of his water for the voyage. In his rage he killed all 12 of his crew. He returned them to the sky and placed them in two groups: six men in Usal (the Pleiades star cluster) and the other six Utimal (Orion). He told his crew to stay in the northern sky and to keep away from him.

Tagai can be seen in the southern skies, standing in a canoe in the Milky Way. His left hand is the Southern Cross holding a spear. His right hand is a group of stars in the constellation Corvus holding a fruit called Eugina. He is standing on his canoe, formed by the stars of Scorpius.

3.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** Decide whether each of the following statements is true or false.
   (a) Archaeologists agree on the exact time Australia was occupied by humans.
   (b) Scientists believe that the Torres Strait was formed when sea levels rose and the land bridge between mainland Australia and Papua New Guinea was flooded.
   (c) Evidence for human occupation of Victoria can be dated back to over 90 000 years ago.
   (d) Archaeologist Sandra Bowdler believes central Australia would have been the last area of the continent to be inhabited by Aboriginal Australians.
   (e) Australia was once connected to Papua New Guinea by a land bridge.
2. **HS1** Briefly describe the various landscapes of the Torres Strait Islands.
3. **HS1** Fill in the blank spaces.
   The _____ is a _____ system that is shared by Aboriginal peoples. It describes a time when _____ beings moved across the continent creating the features of the _____ and all living _____.
4. **HS1** How is the Dreaming handed down to successive generations of Aboriginal peoples?
5. **HS1** Explain why the belief in the Dreaming cannot be accurately translated into English.
6. **HS1** Why are the stars so important to Torres Strait Islander peoples?

3.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using the map in **SOURCE 1** and the information in the text, describe how the Ice Age changed Australia and from where archaeologists believe the migration of ancient people to Australia came.
2. **HS3** How do you think the location and geography of the Torres Strait Islands would have influenced occupation of this area by early humans?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Why was the Dreaming made into stories?
   (b) How does the Dreaming connect people with nature?
4. **HS3** **SOURCE 4** shows a representation of a creator god for many Aboriginal communities. Describe how the ancient artist portrayed this ancestral being and why it would have been important for ancient peoples to express their stories through their art.
5. **HS3** Write a brief recount of the Dreaming story in **SOURCE 5** and explain what such stories could teach a listener.
6. **HS3** What evidence do scientists examine in developing their theories on the human settlement of Australia?
7. **HS3** Suggest reasons why archaeologists have developed different theories explaining how Aboriginal people occupied the continent.
8. **HS2** Think back over the events mentioned in this subtopic.
   (a) List all the dates and events in chronological order from earliest to latest and draw a timeline.
   (b) Are there any events you can say led i) directly and ii) indirectly to another? Why is this task difficult?
9. **HS4** Write a short paragraph explaining why the acknowledgment of the Dreaming as a set of creation beliefs is important in modern Australia.

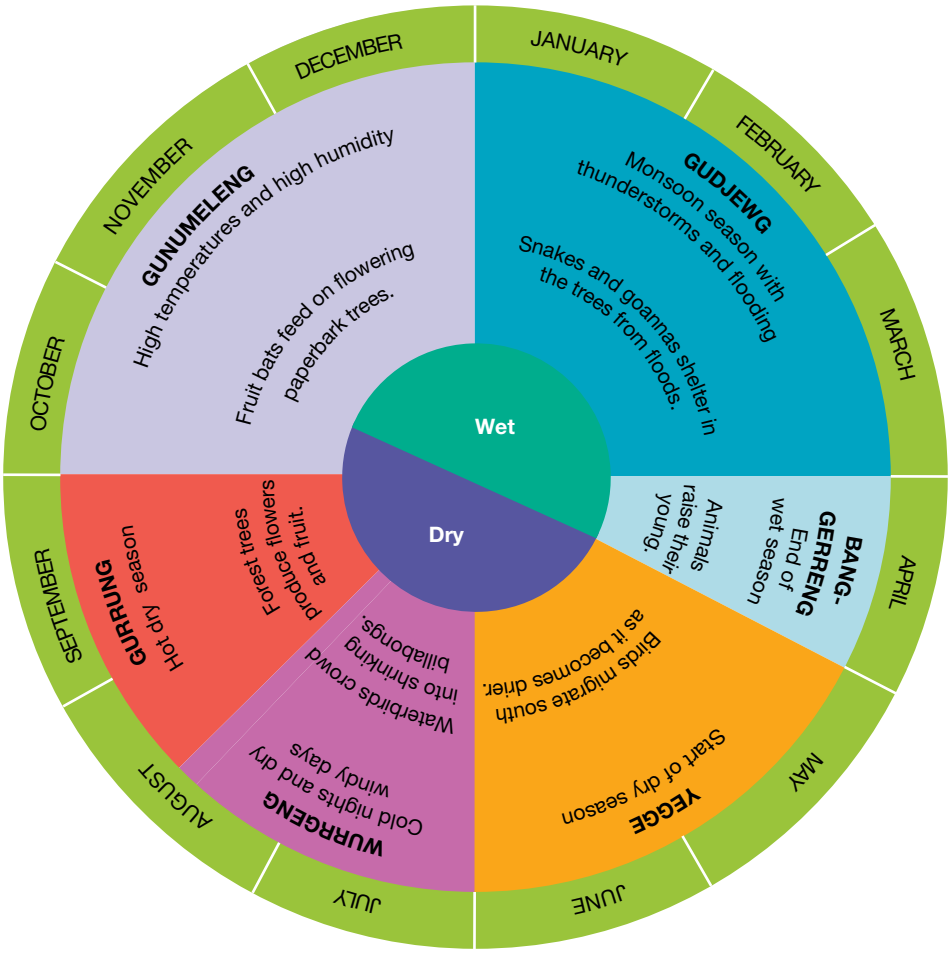
Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.4 Managing an ancient land

3.4.1 The influence of the environment on ancient Aboriginal communities

The landscape and climate of ancient Australia was constantly changing. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities had to develop many methods of hunting and managing their challenging natural environment. Indigenous Australian communities are widely recognised as having an enormous practical knowledge of land and resource management. In traditional communities, food was harvested very efficiently, leaving time for the development of cultural activities. The movement of camps was done according to community understanding of patterns of climate, marine and insect life, plant growth and the habits of wild animals.

SOURCE 1 Aboriginal communities in the Kakadu area of today's Northern Territory identified six seasons based on the changes in plants, animals and the environment. These are shown below in a modern-day representation.



Firestick farming

Fire was central to Aboriginal life and eventually shaped much of the Australian landscape. Fire was a powerful tool that was a part of nearly every daily activity. **SOURCE 2** shows the uses of fire.

Carrying a firestick appears to have been an ancient custom. Setting fire to the bush and the grasslands is a practice known as firestick farming. Aboriginal people would often carry firesticks or bundles of smouldering banksia branches to set fire to the dry leaves and grass and to burn ground vegetation. These small-scale fires were lit during the cooler seasons when the weather conditions ensured the fires did not burn out of control. Firebreaks were also put in place to contain fire.

SOURCE 2 Uses of fire in ancient Aboriginal culture

1. Cooking food and catching animals by flushing them from burrows and driving them into traps
2. Repelling insects and removing snakes from long grass surrounding campsite
3. Manufacturing tools such as spears and stripping bark from trees in the process of making canoes
4. Sending messages by smoke over long distances and clearing the ground through recognised travel pathways



5. Cleaning wounds and scarring the skin for initiation and ritual
6. Scaring off evil spirits and burning the bodies of the dead in regions where this was the funeral tradition
7. Lighting the night for community gatherings and providing warmth for sleeping
8. Regularly burning the forest undergrowth to prevent large scale bush fires

Aboriginal people knew that they could use fire to manage their land and to produce the foods they wanted. Fire changed patterns of plant growth and animal life across the many different landscapes of the continent. The grasslands were burnt to promote regrowth of lush new grass. This was done with the permission of the traditional owners during the season when the grass was dry and of little nutritional value. Thousands of years of burning increased the size of the open grasslands. This encouraged the populations of a variety of the grass-eating animals, such as the kangaroo. Fire increased the availability of food for people who hunted and **foraged**. Bush potatoes and other edible seeds and ground plants flourished in the more open environment left by small-scale fires. Scientists believe that small animals, like the bilby, were threatened with extinction when Aboriginal firestick farming was no longer being regularly practised.

SOURCE 3 Joseph Lycett, the early nineteenth century convict artist, painted images of Aboriginal life as it would have been in pre-European times. Lycett's paintings show fire being used as a tool to catch animals and create grasslands. Early European explorers often noted open country with scattered trees that looked like well-tended parkland. Firestick farming created the landscape that Europeans occupied in 1788.



3.4.2 Managing the land in the Torres Strait Islands

Archaeologists have found evidence of farming in Papua New Guinea dating back 9000 years. The people living in the fertile highland regions farmed the fertile soils of their tropical forests. These ancient farmers also used fire as a tool when **slashing and burning** to clear the land. The people moved each year to new parts of the forest to plant their crops. The soils of their gardens were left **fallow** for a decade before the people returned to plant again. In forest areas with poor soil the gardens were left fallow for up to 25 years. Farming was combined with a hunting and foraging way of life.

Farming practices

Farming was also practised in the Torres Strait Islands during ancient times. Crops and farming knowledge spread from the southern coast of Papua New Guinea to the people of the Torres Strait. The most common crop grown in modern times is the sweet potato, a food that came originally from Peru and was transported across the Pacific Ocean with the European exploration of the 1600s. Ancient Torres Strait communities cultivated a wide variety of crops, according to the particular geographic conditions of the island:

- People on the islands to the north-west, located close to the coast of Papua New Guinea, relied most heavily on agriculture for their food supplies. The people grew the **taro** plant as their main crop; they also established gardens growing bananas away from the tidal swamps on the surrounding uninhabited islands.
- People on the islands to the north-east, where the volcanic soil was moist and fertile, grew coconuts, taro, bananas and a variety of smaller fruits and vegetables.
- People on the islands on the west and closest to the Australian mainland, such as Muralag Island, only farmed on a small scale. Taro was grown as an addition to food supplies that were mainly drawn from the sea. The soils and climate of the rockier islands were not as well suited to agriculture, and so people continued to depend on a hunting and foraging lifestyle.

SOURCE 4 A nineteenth-century painting of village life at Erub (Darnley) Island in the Torres Strait. Erub Island is located within the eastern region of the Torres Strait. Its rich volcanic soil supported the farming of taro, bananas and a range of vegetables. At the time of painting, the island supported approximately seven villages and 400 permanent residents.



Fishing practices

While the different island groups of the Torres Strait had different landscapes and ocean conditions they all developed a seafaring culture. Even those who depended on farming took to the sea for food and resources. Fishing was central to the Torres Strait way of life. The shallow waters, complex tropical reef systems and huge beds of **seagrass** created a thriving marine **ecosystem**.

SOURCE 5 Fishing practices such as those described would have been practised by early Torres Strait Islander peoples, from *Reports of the Cambridge Anthropological Expedition to Torres Straits* by A. C. Haddon, W. H. R. Rivers, 1912.

At low tide men, women, and children may be seen searching the reef for shellfish and fish which have become imprisoned in rock-pools, but as a rule this simple collecting is done more by the women and children. Although serious fishing is more particularly men's work the women also take a part, but definite fishing expeditions and the quest of dugong and turtle are confined to the men. Practically the fishing of the women is limited to that which they can undertake on the fringing reef of their home island.

Islanders constructed a wide range of tools for fishing such as harpoons and spears, hooks and lines, fish scoops and nets. They built stone-walled fish traps and harvested over 450 different species of marine life. Islanders developed techniques of drying and preserving turtle and dugong flesh so that it could be kept for later eating and trading. **Dugong** and turtle were very important to the Torres Strait diet and the subject of Islander myth and legend. Archaeological excavations on the tiny Central Torres Strait Island of Koey Ngurtai uncovered a burial ground of carefully arranged dugong jaws, ribs, skulls and ear bones. Archaeologists suggest the site is of a ritual burial and linked to a Torres Strait Islander belief in the power of the sea and the magic associated with the hunting of the dugong.

DID YOU KNOW

Aboriginal Australians on the mainland also fished, although it is believed that Tasmanian Aboriginal people stopped fishing about 3500 years ago in favour of collecting abundant supplies of shellfish. While harpoons were favoured by Torres Strait Islander peoples, spears were more common on the mainland. Some of the spears were made using human hair and some with a barb from a stingray.

3.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have to develop so many methods of hunting and managing the land?
2. **HS2** Put the following sentences into correct order and then use them as a short explanation of the importance of farming and hunting to ancient Torres Strait Islander peoples.
   (a) Archaeological excavations on the island of Koey Ngurtai uncovered evidence of the ritual burial of a dugong, suggesting the islanders' strong spiritual connection with the sea.
   (b) The particular geographic conditions of each group of islands influenced how and what people farmed.
   (c) Torres Strait Islander peoples cultivated a wide range of crops, such as taro, bananas and coconuts.
   (d) Torres Strait myths and legends provide further evidence of the importance of the sea.
   (e) Farming knowledge spread from Papua New Guinea to the islands of the Torres Strait.
   (f) Despite the different landscapes, all the islanders took to the sea for food and resources.
   (g) Evidence of this can be seen in the wide range of tools for fishing, such as harpoons and spears, hook and lines, fish scoops and nets.
3. **HS3** How many seasons are shown in **SOURCE 1**? List them and show beside each the corresponding months of our calendar.

4. **HS1** Explain how fire increased food supplies for Aboriginal communities.
5. **HS1** Fishing was central to the Torres Strait way of life. What geographical features of these islands allowed for this seafaring culture?

3.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Use the information from the text and **SOURCE 3** to answer the following questions.
   (a) How important was firestick farming to the Aboriginal way of life?
   (b) What was the impact on the environment of firestick farming?
   (c) What do you think were the consequences for the environment when firestick farming stopped?
2. **HS3** How reliable do you think **SOURCE 3** is in providing historians with evidence of ancient Aboriginal land-management practices? Give reasons for your answer.
3. **HS3** How do the sources in this subtopic support the view that Aboriginal peoples lived in harmony with the land?
4. **HS3** Imagine that you have accompanied one of the early nineteenth-century explorers on their voyages across the continent and through the islands of the Torres Strait. Refer to the sources and text, and write a series of diary entries detailing some of the land-management practices you have witnessed.
5. **HS5** Consider the geography and climate of ancient Australia and suggest reasons why Aboriginal communities remained small and why the family unit was so important.
6. **HS6** Management of land and natural resources was important to all ancient Australian peoples. Explain how significant the natural environment was in shaping the beliefs and daily life of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.
7. **HS3** **SOURCE 4** was painted by the English artist, Harden Melville. He was appointed the artist on board the HMS *Fly* and travelled extensively throughout the broader Pacific Island communities during the nineteenth century. Analyse the painting for the clues it gives you to life on the Torres Strait Islands. Describe the impression of lifestyle and the importance of the sea communicated by the artist in the painting.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.5 Language and ceremony in ancient Australia

3.5.1 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages

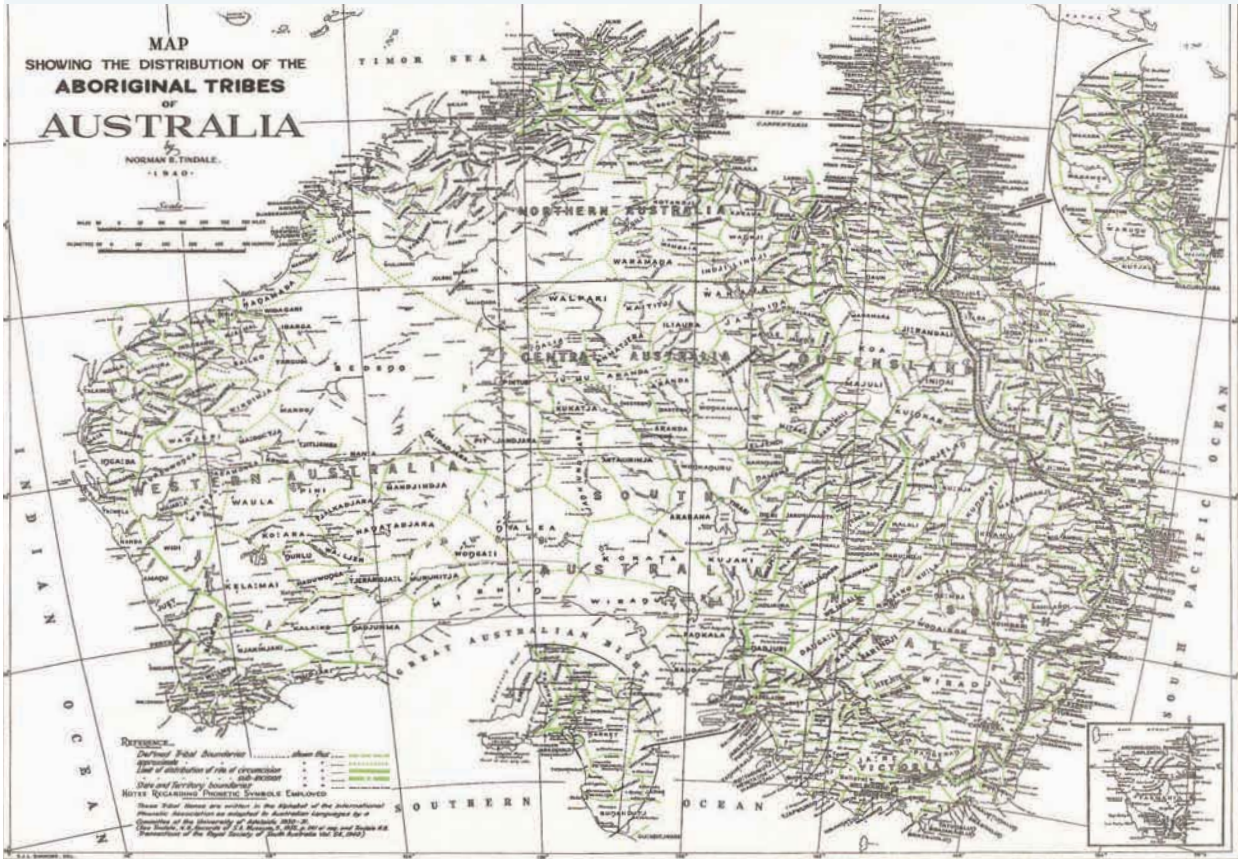
As modern Australians we are a multicultural people, as were the people of ancient Australia. The exact number of Aboriginal languages spoken when the Europeans colonised Australia is unknown, but it is estimated that there were approximately 250 separate language groups, with hundreds of additional **dialects** of the main language groups. The spread of human settlement across Australia took generations; and through the passage of time, completely new languages had the opportunity to evolve. Ancient Australian communities developed varied cultural features and different languages because of the vastly different natural environments people lived in and the distances between them.

During the thousands of years Aboriginal people lived in Australia, the climate and conditions changed dramatically. Changes in climate would have affected water supply and where food could be hunted and collected. The rising Ice Age seas would have drowned many ancient communities and forced the first Australians to constantly adapt to the challenges of this shifting landscape. These different language groups could come into conflict with each other through population growth and competition for scarce resources.

Like Aboriginal peoples, the Torres Strait Islander peoples did not consider themselves a single unified group. Each group had their own language and traditions. There are two main languages spoken today:

- Meriam Mir in the eastern islands, which has two dialects and is related to the Papuan language called *Kiwai.* This language is spoken around the Fly River region of Papua New Guinea.
- Kala Lagaw Ya in the central and western islands, which has four dialects and is still widely spoken by Papuans and some Aboriginal communities.

SOURCE 1 *Map Showing the Distribution of the Aboriginal Tribes of Australia*, Norman B. Tindale, 1940.


MAP
SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE
ABORIGINAL TRIBES
OF
AUSTRALIA
BY
NORMAN B. TINDALE.
1940
TIMOR SEA
NORTHERN AUSTRALIA
CENTRAL AUSTRALIA
QUEENSLAND
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
GREAT AUSTRALIAN BIGHT
SOUTHERN OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN
WALBIRI
WARAMUNGU
WARAMANGA
WARGAMAY
WARUNGU
WAULA
WIRADJURI
WOTJOBALUK
KUKATJA
PITJANDJARA
NGADJONJI
NGARRINDJERI
KAURNA
NARRINYERI
WARNAMBOOL
KULIN
YUIN
KURNAI
GUNAI
KAMILAROI
WIRADHURI
KOORI
KOKATA
KUJANI
MUJANI
MAJULI
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Ceremonies also demonstrate respect and understanding. Welcome to Country is an ancient ceremony that recognises the boundaries of clan land, which were clearly identified and understood by all clan members and their neighbours. While the details of the ceremony varied according to the traditions of each clan, the ceremony was conducted when members of one clan sought permission to enter another clan's territory. The visitor was required to ask permission to enter country. This permission recognised that the custodians were agreeing to some sharing of the resources of their land, ocean, lakes or rivers.

SOURCE 2 Aboriginal leader Professor Mick Dodson explains the meaning of country.

When we talk about traditional country ... we mean something beyond the dictionary definition of the word. For Aboriginal Australians ... we might mean homeland, or tribal or clan area and we might mean more than just a place on the map. For us, country is a word for all the values, places, resources, stories and cultural obligations associated with that area and its features. It describes the entirety of our ancestral domains.

SOURCE 3 An Elder from the Ngarinyin people, of the north-west Kimberley region of Western Australia, explains the significance of the traditional Welcome to Country.

Before whitefellas came, it was the tradition of Aboriginals that when strangers came into their particular country to hunt or to gather, or to just pass through on their way to other places, that the host Aboriginals would go out to welcome them.

When they met, there would be the formalities of greeting. Part of the ceremony of welcome would be the men sitting around and talking men's business whilst the host women would take the visiting women and children to a women's site to talk women's business.

When this was completed, the two groups would join again and the men would hunt for kangaroo, goannas or bush turkey — and the women would prepare an area for eating and would gather firewood and berries, fruit, nuts and lily roots for a meal.

Then the ceremonies — the corroborees or jumbas would commence — and the dancing, the singing around the fire could well go on, not only all night, but sometimes for many nights in a row. Each jumba with a message — each with its own story — men, women and children taking part. Whilst during the day, the visiting tribe would be taken and shown the sites of significance and be told the stories of the spirit of the land they would be passing,

In this way, the hosts believed that by the end of formalities, when the strangers were ready to move on — they would not be considered strangers but friends who now had the spirit of the country in their hearts — they carried the Wunggud with them — just like the people who lived there.

They believed that once the spirit of the land was in their hearts, then those people would never damage the land — they would love it and care for it like those whose home country it was ...

DISCUSS

Discuss the ways in which Indigenous Australian communities use ceremonies as a way of recognising rights and obligations. Write a short paragraph explaining why the acknowledgment of these ceremonies continues to be important in modern Australia. **[Intercultural Capability]**

3.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Decide whether each of the following statements is true or false.
   (a) There were at least 250 Aboriginal languages spoken in Australia at the time of European occupation.
   (b) During the thousands of years Aboriginal people lived in Australia there was little change in the climate.
   (c) Torres Strait Islander peoples all speak the same language.
   (d) The languages of the Torres Strait Islands show connections with both Aboriginal and Papua New Guinean peoples.
   (e) Ancient Australia was multicultural.
2. **HS1** What term is used to describe ceremonial leaders in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities?
3. **HS1** What characteristics qualify someone to be a ceremonial leader?
4. **HS1** Name the two main languages spoken by Torres Strait Islander peoples today.
5. **HS1** What is a Welcome to Country ceremony and when would it be conducted?

3.5 Exercise 3: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** **SOURCE 1** shows boundaries between the different language and social groups. Suggest reasons why the tribal areas were larger in the desert regions and smaller in the well-watered country.
2. **HS3** If a person was to travel from modern-day Melbourne, in the land of the Woiwurrung people, how many language and social groups would they pass through before arriving in modern-day Sydney, in the land of the Eora people? What conclusion could you make from your answer?
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2** as a guide, explain why a simple definition of the term 'country' might be difficult.
4. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3**, explain how gender roles differ in a traditional Welcome to Country ceremony. What conclusions could be drawn from this?
5. **HS3** The **SOURCE 1** map shows the traditional lands of the many Aboriginal language and social groups. During the eighteenth century, European powers, such as Britain, could take control of territory outside their own borders if they could claim that the land taken was previously unoccupied. The legal term used was *terra nullius*, which meant that it was land belonging to no-one. Using **SOURCE 1** and the text as your evidence, explain why the claim that Australia was *terra nullius* was incorrect.
6. **HS3** The traditional and ancient boundaries of Aboriginal land were marked by natural features of the landscape, such as mountain ranges and rivers. European settlers recognised ownership and boundaries of land by the construction of fences, permanent dwellings or the evidence of farming. Put yourself in the position of an Aboriginal Elder of the Woiwurrung people. Write a short speech to be delivered to a group of European settlers of Victoria in the early nineteenth century. In your speech you need to argue against the nineteenth-century European view of Aboriginal people wandering aimlessly across the landscape. Present the Aboriginal perspective by explaining what the concept of country means, and what gives your people a traditional claim to ownership of land.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.6 The ancient Australian economy

3.6.1 Trade tracks and songlines

Australia's Indigenous peoples carefully managed their land and resources to ensure their food supplies were protected. Ancient language and clan groups remained largely self-sufficient. While food was not commonly exchanged, a complex trade network was established over thousands of years. The network extended over hundreds of kilometres, linking many clans and language groups together. The countless pathways of daily travel and trade crossed the continent and are known as the Dreaming tracks. The Dreaming tracks began with the stories told in ancient times of the journeys taken by the Dreaming ancestors. The pathways they took were marked out by the features of the landscape, such as water holes, hills and riverbeds. The people remembered these tracks as the 'songlines'.

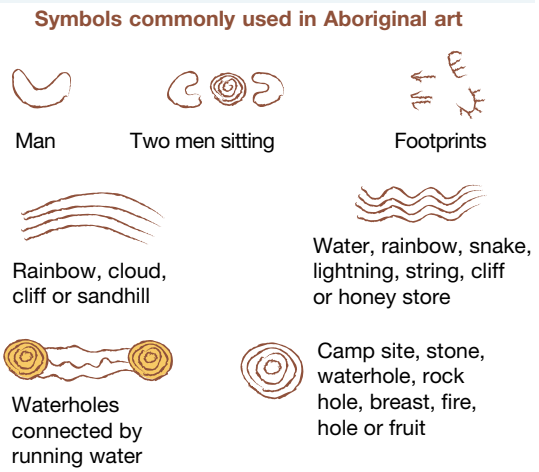
The songlines

As the ancestral beings travelled across Australia giving life, they created landmarks and named the geographical features of the land. The great Rainbow Serpent, commonly called Jarapiri in northern and central Australia, laid eggs that became the huge round boulders of Karlwe Karlwe (the Devil's Marbles). The Serpent's slithering and twisting created the rivers and waterholes. As the ancestral beings formed the land, they also established the laws and 'sang' the country into life. When they completed their work, the ancestral beings returned to the sky, sea or land. The songs were the record of what they had done, and the means by which their story could be handed on to future generations of Aboriginal people.

The sequence of songs, or songlines, recorded the route the ancestral beings took on their journeys of creation. These routes, or Dreaming tracks, were the maps that gave Aboriginal people a detailed mental picture of their land and all the living creatures on it. Aboriginal Elders travelled the Dreaming tracks and taught their children how to sing their songlines in the correct order. This knowledge enabled people to make their way safely through country. The man with the best memory of the songlines was honoured as the clan songman and was responsible for ensuring the teaching of the songlines to young men through their years of initiation. The trade routes changed over long periods of time; nevertheless, the archaeological evidence of abandoned tools, shells and bones indicates the songline pathways were in continuous use by Aboriginal people for thousands of years.

SOURCE 1 Donkeyman Lee Tjupurrula Kukatja's artwork *Tingari Dreaming at Walawala* shows the landforms of the region around Kiwirrkura, approximately 400 kilometres west of Alice Springs. Aboriginal artists used symbolism as a way of creating a map of country and the sacred sites. These artworks are maps of the Dreaming places created by the ancestral beings, in the same way that the songlines formed a map, sung in short verses, of the ancestral being's creative journeys.





3.6.2 Trade networks

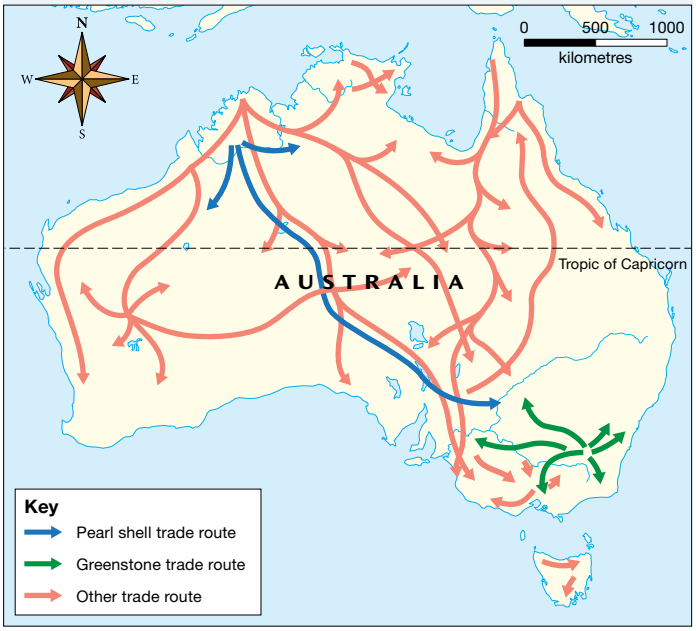
Archaeological sites across Australia have revealed evidence of the extensive trade networks that criss-crossed ancient Australia. Trade took place between neighbours and regional groups, but also with those who were vast distances away, serving both practical and cultural purposes. Many different items were traded:

- Stone was the heaviest trade item and was often carried in parcels of paper bark tied with string. Evidence of the harvesting and grinding of grass seeds to make flour has been found dating from 3000 BP. The flat-surface grinding stones were a major trade item. Suitable slabs of sandstone were carried by a relay of traders from north-west Queensland, across a distance of 500 kilometres, to reach the plains of Diamantina. The volcanic stone prized for axe heads came from a quarry on Mount William, north of Melbourne. The Wurundjeri mined it and traded it to the north where it was used to cut the bark for canoes that floated along the Murray River.

- **Ochre** from Pukardu in the Flinders Ranges was mined and traded 500 kilometres north along a network stretching across South Australia, New South Wales and Queensland. Small decorated wooden objects called *message sticks* were sent ahead of the trade parties to the custodians of the mines suggesting goods suitable for ochre exchange. The Pukardu ochre was highly sought after because it was believed to have particular spiritual value and was used for body decoration on important ceremonial occasions. Ochre exchange gifts from the people of the north included black manganese paint, boomerangs and spears, nets and bags of grass seeds.
- A small shrub grown in central Australia called pitjuri was traded from markets held on the banks of the Cooper, Diamantina and Georgina Rivers. Pitjuri is a nicotine-like drug used to relieve hunger, tiredness and pain. People from the north exchanged their spears, glue made from spinifex, stone knives and pearl shell for the pitjuri. From the east came wooden shields and spear shafts made from reeds, and from the west came ochre and light wooden spears. The people from the south exchanged weapons, stone axe heads and possum skins for the pitjuri plant.

The trade of raw materials, such as ochre, wood and stone, was very important to ancient communities. The most common trade items were, nevertheless, the manufactured goods. The clan groups developed highly specialised skills that were widely recognised by other peoples across the land. The beautifully carved wooden bowls of central Australia, for example, or the finest spears from the region around Alice Springs were highly valued trade items.

SOURCE 2 The major trade routes of ancient Australia



Sources: Museum of Australia, Cited in Barlow, Alex, *Aboriginal Technology,* 1994.

The pearl-shell trade

Of all the goods traded across ancient Australia, the pearl shell probably travelled the furthest. The journey of the pearl shell began when the Ngarluma people collected the shell from their beaches and from the country of the Kariyarra and Ngarla people who lived to their north. People also set off on rafts made from mangrove wood to collect the shells from offshore reefs. The Ngarluma traded the shell with the Yindjibarndi, Nyamal and Njangamarda-Iparuka people in exchange for spears made from mulga and witjuti wood. The shells were carefully wrapped in soft bark to protect them as they passed through many hands on their journey across the continent. When they reached the Fitzroy River they were at the crossroads of several trade routes that were under the control of the Gooniyandi people. This opened up to trade with the western desert peoples. The prized pearl shells, flaked stone blades and spear points from the Kimberley were traded for boomerangs and beautifully carved spears.

The pearl shell became more valued the further it travelled from the Kimberley coastline. Evidence of the distance of the ancient pearl-shell trade has been found across a vast area of Australia; from the tropics in the far north to the **mallee** scrub between Adelaide and the coastline of Victoria.

3.6.3 Trade practices

Aboriginal communities lived in small self-contained communities for most of the year. The seasons determined the availability of food and resources, and the paths people took through country. An important part of the yearly cycle was the annual gathering of the clans. These great gatherings always took place during times of plenty, when prized food was in good supply. The opportunity to feast on the large freshwater eels of Western Victoria or the Bogong moths in the high country of the Snowy Mountains provided the opportunity to conduct ceremonies, organise marriages, decide matters of law and exchange goods at the market place.

Clan gatherings

The clan gatherings always began with a formal invitation through an exchange of message sticks across country. The western district of Victoria was one of the most densely populated areas of the continent. The people of this region shared their resources and engaged in trade when the land was able to provide for a sudden increase in population. An abundance of eels, kangaroo, mushrooms and a variety of root vegetables meant the land could cater for visitors, without bringing food shortages and hardship on the traditional custodians. With eel feasting came markets at Mount Noorat where exchanges took place of valuable items such as spear points, possum cloaks, acacia resin, seashells and net bags. The leftover eels became a takeaway product that was dried and wrapped in kangaroo skin for transporting.

Food was not generally a trade item between ancient Australian communities. In the cooler regions of the continent the food could be preserved more readily. Fish and meat in Victoria and Tasmania were occasionally traded. In the high country of the Snowy Mountains, a wide range of food was available with the melting of the snow. Emu, possum, snake meat and Bogong moths provided a rich diet. Every year the Ngarigo and Walgalu people would send out their message stick invitations to the neighbouring peoples. Many clans would gather at Jindabyne and on the Tumut and Wollondibby Rivers for the purposes of trade and ceremony. Groups of men travelled into the high country where the Bogong moths were smoked out of their resting places in the rock crevices. The moths were caught in nets and then cooked into rissoles that were transported down the mountain for all to enjoy during the ceremonial feasting.

SOURCE 3 Message sticks belonging to the Yirandali language Dalleburra People, Queensland. The messages are written in symbols, not script. Message sticks protected people as they moved through the country of another clan or language group. Smoke signals were sent, followed by the presentation of a message stick to the Elders and a verbal explanation of the purpose of the visit.



DID YOU KNOW?

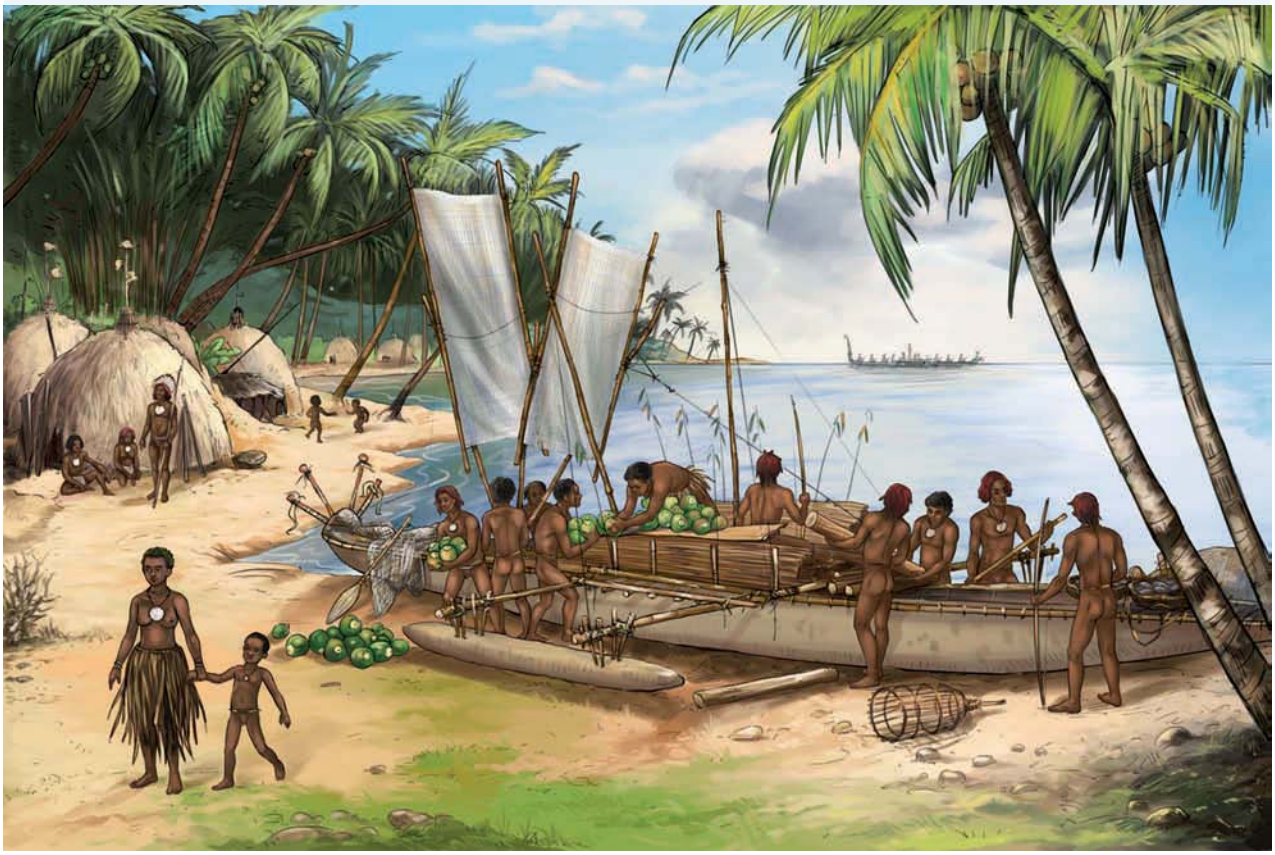
Dr Builth, an archaeologist who studied the eel-farming practices of the Gunditjmara people in Victoria's Lake Condah wetlands, has estimated that these farms could have fed up to 10 000 people.

Bogong moths are native to Australia and get their name from the Bogong High Plains region in the Victorian Alps. When roasted and eaten, they are said to have a 'nutty taste'. They are highly nutritious.

3.6.4 Torres Strait trade

The farmers and fishermen of the Torres Strait Islands had more food than they needed at certain times of the year. Turtle and dugong could be dried, stored and traded with the Aboriginal people of Cape York and the coastal people of Papua New Guinea. A range of root vegetables were also well suited to trade because they did not deteriorate quickly in the tropical heat.

SOURCE 4 Dugout canoes swept along by two or three sails provided the transport for people and their trade goods between the Torres Strait Islands and the coasts of Papua New Guinea and the Australian mainland.



Islander people of each language group traded with their immediate neighbours. The Kaurareg people were the only Torres Strait Islander people trading directly with the Cape York communities. The trade between the two groups took place on tiny Muralug Island, which lay very close to the Cape York coastline. The Kaurareg acted as traders, exchanging goods on behalf of all the other islanders. The Kaurareg exchanged goods such as finely crafted Muralug Island dugong harpoons and small bamboo items for the spears and ochres from Cape York's Gudang people.

Trade was critical for survival on the Torres Strait Islands. The canoes the islanders relied upon for fishing and transport were obtained through a complicated trade link with the Saibai people living in the estuary region of Papua New Guinea's Fly River. Trees large enough for the construction of a canoe hull do not grow on the Torres Strait Islands. The Saibai traded with highly skilled canoe builders living in the heavily wooded forests further up river. The Saibai then adapted the single outrigger canoes that were only suitable for lagoon and Fly River journeys. They turned them into double outrigger canoes and then added masts and woven nipa-palm sails ready for the rough conditions of the open seas of the Strait. The Torres Strait Islander people exchanged shellfish and dried fish, turtle and dugong for their new double outrigger canoes, drums, **sago**, bows and arrows, **cassowary** and bird of paradise feathers.

3.6 ACTIVITIES

1. Create your own mind map titled Torres Strait Island Trade. Identify the different trade relationships and the goods exchanged. **Remembering and understanding**
2. Traditional message sticks were small, between 10 and 12 centimetres, made from wood, and carved or painted with symbols and decorative designs. They supported the oral message, particularly when communicating between different language groups because the symbols were widely understood.
   Create your own message stick using designs or symbols that communicate something about yourself; for example, where you live, your interests or hobbies or your family background.
   [Creative and Critical Thinking Capability]

3.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Fill in the gaps.
   The pathways of daily travel and trade across the continent are known as _____ _____. Travel pathways are marked out by features of the landscape and remembered by Aboriginal people as the _____. The songlines recorded the journey taken by the _____ _____as they travelled across the land. The _____ _____ gave people a detailed mental image of their land that enabled them to travel safely through country.
2. **HS1** Briefly explain the importance of the following trade items to Indigenous communities.
   - Pearl shell
   - Ochre
   - Grinding stones
   - Volcanic stone
   - Pitjuri
3. **HS1** Decide whether each of the following statements is true or false.
   (a) Message sticks were sent before the exchange of goods took place.
   (b) Trade often happened alongside ceremonial events.
   (c) Clans gathered when seasons were bad to exchange scarce food resources.
   (d) Aboriginal communities in ancient Australia understood how to preserve food.
   (e) Aboriginal clans generally shared food rather than traded it.
4. **HS1** Who did people of the Torres Strait Islands trade with? What goods were exchanged?
5. **HS5** Explain why trade was critical for survival on the Torres Strait Islands.

3.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Would **SOURCE 1** be considered a primary or secondary source? Explain.
2. **HS3** In what way could you compare the symbols used in Indigenous Australian art with, for example, Egyptian hieroglyphs or Sumerian cuneiform?
3. **HS3** Greenstone was used for thousands of years by Aboriginal communities to manufacture ground edge axes. Explain what the study of greenstone could tell archaeologists about ancient Aboriginal trade, travel and technology.
4. **HS3** What do the messages on the message sticks in **SOURCE 3** tell you about what was important to Aboriginal Australians?

5. **HS3** Why might the messages on message sticks have been written in symbols, not languages?
6. **HS3** The Torres Strait Islander peoples and some coastal Aboriginal communities indicated direction by referring to the name given to the wind that came from that direction. The wind and the sea were central to the life in the Torres Strait. Referring to **SOURCE 4**, write two sentences evaluating the importance of the dugout canoes to life and culture of Torres Strait Islander peoples.
7. **HS3** Use the sources and text in this subtopic to write a paragraph describing the importance of trade in the economy of ancient Australia. You could begin your paragraph with the topic sentence: The trade practices of ancient Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples demonstrate a thriving economy based on exchange and ceremony.
8. **HS3** Write a paragraph comparing and contrasting the trade practices of ancient Aboriginal communities with those of Torres Strait Islander communities. Ensure you mention any similarities and any differences in your answer.
9. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 2**, identify the region of Australia where the trade in greenstone began.
10. **HS4** Ancient Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples used the natural resources of the land. What were these resources and how do we now value these in the modern Australian economy? What natural resources appear to be most valued in modern Australia?
11. **HS6** What impact do you think the arrival of Europeans would have had on the ancient economy of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.7 Society, custom and culture

3.7.1 Kinship

Kinship today plays a much more important role in Aboriginal and Torres Strait communities than in Western society. Kinship relationships are more complex than the Western notion of family and involve strict rules and obligations. Kinship links are tied to spiritual belief as the Dreaming ancestors were considered to have **genealogical** links with living people and their land, and so are important in deciding each person's kinship connections.

The kinship networks were strengthened through ceremonial exchange of goods. Younger men, for example, may be expected to give the gift of a spear to an older man from another clan who was connected through a kinship arrangement. The ties would be cemented by the older man's involvement in the younger man's initiation ceremonies. As trade took place over long distances, possibly requiring movement through country belonging to different language groups, the kinship agreements were complex. Trade goods were carefully given out to ensure all kin connections were recognised. Different traditions and ceremonies had to be learned and respected to make sure that alliances were protected and the exchange of goods could continue. The act of giving was part of ceremonial life and was very important in honouring kinship.

SOURCE 1 Excerpt from a speech given by Bryon Powell, representing the Kulin National Heritage Organisation, explaining the clan links of the Kulin people, May 2000

The Kulin nation was made up of five Aboriginal tribes which took up a fair swag of land in Central Victoria, centring on Melbourne itself ... They were made up of clans, family groups. And what happened with the five tribes, they had commonalities in language, custom, traditions, burial rights, and very strong trade links. And I knew the Woiwurrung and Boon Wurrung, they were exceptionally close, they actually inter-married to strengthen those ties, they traded between themselves ...

The kinship system was also an important feature of life in the Torres Strait because conflict over scarce resources was more common. Trade was essential for people living in tiny island communities. Trade expeditions and negotiations were often very anxious occasions between communities where property and kinship rights were in dispute. Visiting trading parties kept their canoes near the shoreline to enable a hasty retreat if the kinship system failed to keep harmony among the different Torres Strait clans and language groups.

SOURCE 2 When outsiders were invited onto Wurundjeri lands a ceremony called *Tanderrum* was held. The ceremony granted safe passage through Wurundjeri country and a ritual exchange of gifts. The nineteenth-century Charles Troedel painting shows Wurundjeri clan members fishing and camping at Merri Creek near Melbourne.



3.7.2 Totems

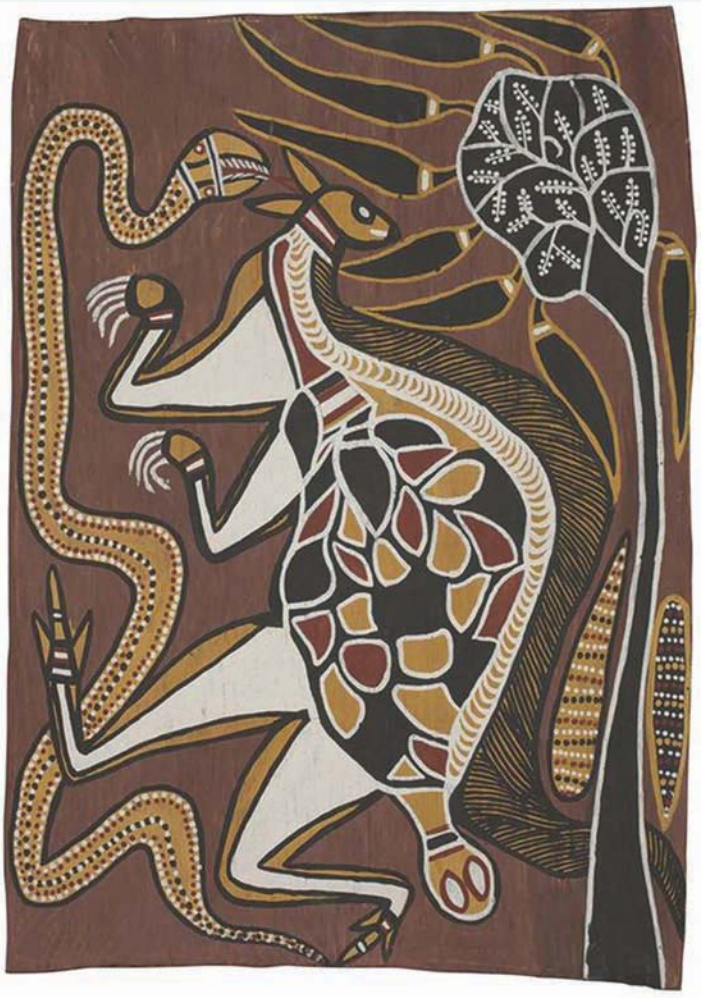
The many language groups of ancient Australia reflected the great variety of cultural beliefs. The spiritual connection with the land was nevertheless shared by all. The spiritual beliefs of the Torres Strait Islander and Aboriginal peoples shaped Indigenous lore across the land.

All life came from the land, and so Indigenous tradition and ceremony centre on fulfilling one's obligations to the land. As the land provided everything for the people, caring for the health of country was a great responsibility. Spirituality and the land are not separate. The Elders pass on their knowledge of the land and the lore through ceremony and the Dreaming stories.

At the start of the Dreaming, the ancestral beings created totems for the people. A totem is a special species of plant, insect, bird or animal that is held sacred and expresses the connection between the people and nature. The totem was inherited and represented the spirit world as it existed in daily life. A person shared a totem with other clan members and was given an individual totem around the time of their birth. The totem identified the different clan and language groups of Australia. It also gave each individual a sense of place and cultural belonging.

The sacred places of country were protected by keeping the Dreaming beliefs and rituals alive. The Dreaming gave people the rules about where they could live, whom they could marry and the animals they could hunt. The continued supply of natural resources depended on people respecting the rules put in place by the spirit ancestors. Areas of animal refuge, where hunting was prohibited, were set aside and so ensured conservation of animal species of great importance to human survival in harsh landscapes. Totems guided Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in managing their resources. The Dreaming gave people the totem they would honour for life.

SOURCE 3 A bark painting entitled *Totems of the Manarrngu Mortuary Rites* by David Malangi, 1966. The painting shows a file snake on the left with a water goanna superimposed on a kangaroo in the centre and a tree on the right. The story depicted represents the Manarrngu mourning rites. The singing of this ceremony tells of the death of Gurrumarringu, the mighty hunter of the Manarrngu. The kangaroo and goanna represent animals he hunted. He died due to a snakebite.



3.7.3 Initiation ceremonies

Archaeologists have learned a great deal about life in ancient Australia by studying ceremonial places, called *bora grounds*. Bora grounds were built with mounds of earth in the shape of two rings. The inner ring was a space reserved for initiation rites.

A boy could not become a man or a girl accepted as a woman until passing through initiation ceremonies. Enduring tests and trials of physical and mental strength took the young from the carefree days of childhood to the responsibilities of the adult world. A general English translation of Indigenous Australian initiation ceremonies is to be *put through the law*; meaning that initiation passed on the knowledge of the Elders, the sacred lore of the Dreaming and the right to participate in the ritual and ceremonies of country. Initiation taught young people codes of conduct, customs and good manners. A person gained status with initiation.

Initiation connected people to the Dreaming by challenging them in ways that the great spirits had been tested. The ceremonies differed according to the particular beliefs of country:

- In south-eastern Australia the Great Spirit Baiame had been forced to overcome hunger, fear and pain. The initiation ceremonies in this region expected the young to endure pain in silence, eat sparingly when hungry and contain fear when confronted with the mystical sounds of the **bull-roarer** in the dark of night.
- The Unambal people of north-west Australia tell Dreaming stories of the Wandjina — ancestral beings that came from the sky to create fire and all the natural features of the land. The Wandjina are closely associated with fertility, and so initiation ceremonies involved male **circumcision** performed at the first sign of puberty. This was followed by incisions on the shoulders, arms and buttocks that were then filled with sand to create large decorative raised scars.

Initiation scars and practices, such as knocking out a front tooth (known as evulsion) or removing part of a finger, sometimes identified a person's clan group or kinship relationships. The role each person played in the process of initiation was determined by their kinship obligations. The Elders were responsible for instructing the young through the stages of the initiation, which could have involved a number of ceremonies carried out over a period of years. Initiates had to be taught the lore, the totem history and the ceremonial rites. There were often strong **taboos** that had to be observed about aspects of daily life, such as the food eaten and the people spoken to. Obedience to the Elders' instructions was the key to initiation. Once the ceremony was planned, the invitations were sent out to the members of kinship and clan groups to be witness to the ancient **rites of passage**.

SOURCE 4 A painting by the convict artist Thomas Watling of an initiation ceremony at the Sydney settlement of Farm Cove in 1795



SOURCE 5 An account of the initiation ceremonies of the Yuin people of New South Wales

For thousands of years, young Yuin went up the mountains (Mumbulla Mountain) as boys and came back as men. Painted with red ochre, they would leave the bora ring to follow the Dreaming track from one sacred place to another, which were all visited in proper order.

At each place there were special ceremonies with singing and dancing to tell the story of creation in the Dreamtime. There were special tests too of hardship and endurance to prove that they were worthy of becoming men. The law was explained to them, they learned about Darama, the Creator, who gave the law to the people. It tells of the people's links with the land, our mother, from whom we are born and to whom we return.

The mountain represents the school where young men are taught discipline. Respect for Elders and about food and plants, herbs and medicines, hunting tracking and survival ... all things are bound together and all are part of the Dreaming, where unity and harmony must be respected. They learn about the Yuin people, about their totem, Umbarra, the black duck.

3.7 ACTIVITY

a. Find out more about figures from the Dreaming, such as the Wandjina, pythons or Tagai. Explain the role and significance they have in a variety of Dreaming stories from different regions of Australia.

b. Write a brief evaluation of what one of the Dreaming figures you have researched reveals about the land they came from, and the values and beliefs of the Indigenous peoples of the region. Present your findings in paragraphs displayed on a poster with colourful illustrations. Put your posters together to make a class display on the power of the Dreaming.

Determining historical significance

3.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS6** Briefly explain what the kinship system is and why it is of such significance to Indigenous Australian communities.
2. **HS1** How are kinship and trade connected?
3. **HS1** Why did visiting trading parties in the Torres Strait Islands keep their canoes close to the shore?
4. **HS1** Decide whether each of the following statements is true or false.
   (a) Two Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander people could not have the same totem.
   (b) Totems were created by the Elders.
   (c) Totems helped Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander peoples to manage their resources.
   (d) A totem was given at the time of a person's birth.
   (e) Totems were used for trade among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.
5. **HS1** Identify what totems were and why they would have varied from one community to another.
6. **HS1** When were initiation ceremonies held and what was their purpose?

3.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** **SOURCE 1** is a modern explanation of what kinship means to Indigenous Australians. Identify the key beliefs and values expressed in the source that have continued to be of significance.
2. **HS3** What does the artist of **SOURCE 2** suggest about the nature of Indigenous Australian society, and how does this contribute to our understanding of the role of the kinship and ceremony in daily life?
3. **HS3** Refer to **SOURCE 3** for an understanding of the significance of the totem. How do the totems shown here reflect the natural environment?
4. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the Yuin boys about to go up the mountain to begin initiation. Write a short account of how you are feeling, the fears you may have, what you have heard about the experiences of other boys and why this ceremony is so important to you. Refer to the text and **SOURCES 4** and **5** for your information.
5. **HS3** Using the sources presented in this subtopic, write a paragraph about the social customs of traditional Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. Remember to include a topic sentence, supporting evidence and a concluding sentence in your response.
6. **HS5** In ancient Australian communities there would have been more people that you would have called 'brother' or 'sister'. Explain why this was and the effect this would have had on other aspects of Indigenous Australian life and culture.
7. **HS6** Develop a subset of questions you could ask if you were enquiring into this overall question: How important were kinship systems, totems and initiation to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

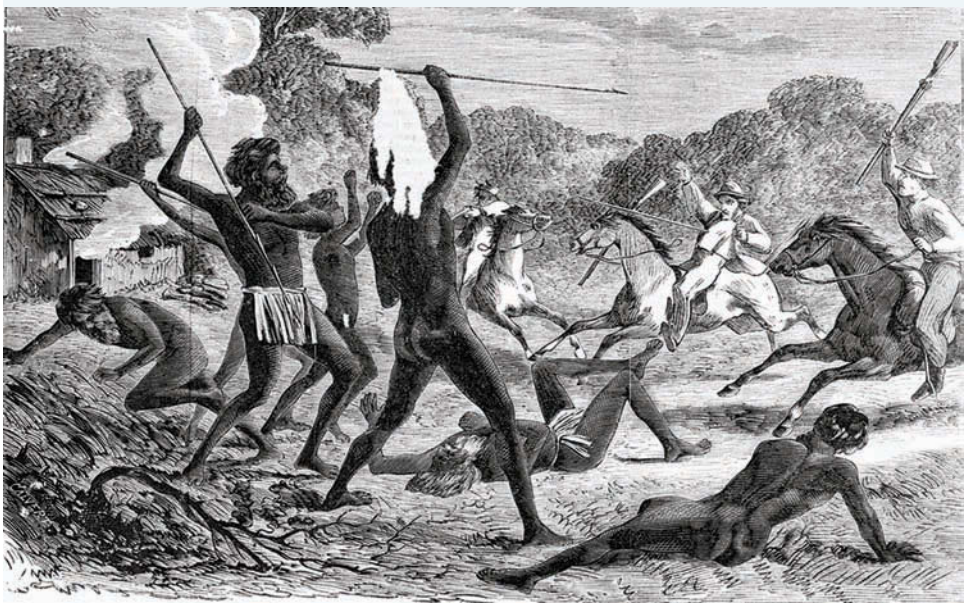
3.8 Conflict and death in ancient Australia

3.8.1 War and weapons

The proudly independent language and clan groups of ancient Australia were sometimes rivals, fighting with each other over territory and resources. Men traditionally carried spears for hunting and defence when they moved away from their campsites. Museum collections of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander artefacts include hundreds of different designs of weapons of war such as spears, clubs and shields. Artefacts reflect the different geography and climate of the makers' country. Coastal peoples, for example, used fishbone on the tips of their spears while desert people used stone. Ancient Australian tools and weapons are noted for their flexibility and adaptability, being objects that could be used for a variety of purposes.

- Clubs were used for throwing, stabbing, slashing and smashing. The wood of clubs was hardened through firing and then treated with ochre and oils to prevent weathering. Clubs came in a variety of shapes and sizes. Club heads varied in shape from being cylindrical or cone shaped to bulbous or hooked. Long straight clubs were used as fighting sticks and as defence against an opponent's blows. In the north-eastern rainforests a two-edged club was used like a sword. It was carried with a large softwood shield. Large clubs, called *murrawirri*, were used in north-east South Australia for organised combat. At approximately 2 metres in length they were too big to be thrown. *Murrawirri* were usually owned by male Elders and were objects showing a person's importance in the clan. They were also used as valuable trade items. In some communities the murrawirri clubs were considered to have special magical powers. Clubs were also used for ceremonial purposes, particularly in dances.
- Boomerangs had a variety of purposes, such as fighting, fishing, hunting and ceremonies. Boomerangs were throwing sticks that were accurate at high speeds. They were made from a very hard wood, making them a deadly blade when travelling with force through the air. The form and use of boomerangs changed according to where and how the boomerang was made. The returning boomerangs were mainly used in south-east Australia. Boomerangs made in the Kimberley and in central Australia were large and broad and generally used in combat. These boomerangs did not return when thrown but moved in a powerful swerving line.
- Spears and spear throwers were also used for hunting, fighting, fishing and ceremonial occasions. Fighting spears were designed to inflict serious wounds — they had heads with up to 40 barbed tips attached and tiny stone or shell fragments set into the spearhead. The barbed spears could not be pulled out without tearing at the wound. The small shell pieces remained lodged in the flesh of the victim. In the Cape York region, a large number of stingray barbs were set into the head of spears that were then regarded as having special magical properties. Every region had its own style of spear and spearhead. The *woomera* was the name commonly given to the spear thrower. The *woomera* was not thrown with the spear, but remained in the man's hand, acting as a lever to project the spear with greater force.
- Shields provided defence from spears and clubs. Shields were often decorated with totemic designs and were objects of great beauty. In the region of Victoria, a narrow hardwood shield was used as defence against clubs while a broad bark shield was used in spear fights. The bark was harvested when still green and so was able to absorb the impact of the spears.

SOURCE 1 A warrior advancing for combat, from a drawing by eighteenth century French artist Nicholas-Martin Petit, who visited Australia shortly after the invasion of the British



Island warriors

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples used similar weaponry, with the exception of the bows and arrows that were commonly used in Melanesian communities. Bow and arrows and spears were the main weapons of the Islands. Clubs were constructed with star or disc shaped stone heads and stout wooden handles. The razor-sharp bamboo knives were particularly effective weapons. Some Torres Strait Islander communities had the fearsome reputation for practising headhunting. The bamboo knives were used for ritualistic decapitation, with the heads then being hung on loops of cane passed through the mouth and out of the neck.

The people of the central region of the Torres Strait lived on flat islands with little natural defences. Raiders came regularly from the east and the west to plunder their gardens. The image of these violent warriors travelling the sea is the stuff of Torres Strait mythology. According to Island legend the Mabuiag warrior chief, Kwoiam, organised an army of sea pirates who led raids across the Straits and as far north as Papua New Guinea's Fly River.

SOURCE 2 Images of the weaponry used by Torres Strait Islander people



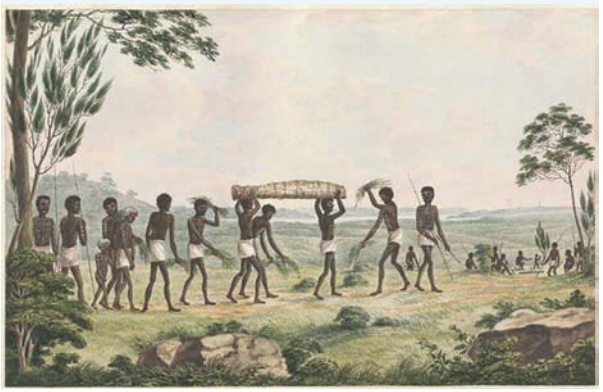
3.8.2 Death and funerary customs

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples believed that with death a person's spirit would return to the Dreaming ancestors. Funeral and mourning ceremonies differed according to clan and country, but they were all elaborate rituals that could last for many months. The ceremonies were a time to recognise the deceased and the Dreaming ancestors. The ceremonies surrounding death in all traditional Australian Indigenous communities expressed the powerful link between people and country.

Mounds of earth, such as those built in the bora grounds, piles of stones and carved trees often marked the location of burial sites in the south-east of Australia. Funeral traditions and practices varied across Australia and included:

- simple burial in graves with bodies either stretched out or placed in a crouching position. Grave goods were sometimes placed with the body.
- cremation. Sometimes the charred skeletal remains were collected and later buried or placed in the hollow of a tree.
- drying out or smoking the body in a process called *desiccation*. The dried remains may have then been kept for a period of time before being buried.
- leaving the body on tree platforms to decay. The bones were later collected and often finally buried.

SOURCE 3 Illustration of an Aboriginal funeral in the region of Newcastle, New South Wales, by Joseph Lycett. Mourners painted with white clay carry the body of the deceased, which is wrapped in bark. The clay on the bodies of the mourners was a sign of grieving.



Ritual always accompanied funerals, such as facing the body in a particular direction or burying personal items as grave goods. Sometimes bodies were painted with totemic images or covered in ochre. The Kulin

people of Victoria tied the body in a crouching position and buried important members of the community with their possum rugs, stone tools and woven bags. Mourners painted their faces white, women cut their hair and sent the spirit of the dead on their way with singing and dancing.

Death was not usually regarded as being due to natural causes and was often believed to have been caused by evil and supernatural forces. Ritual combat sometimes followed the death of an important member of the clan, as the relatives of the deceased were expected to take revenge against those people held responsible.

Burial sites can tell us about the numbers of people living in ancient communities, their **genetic** background and family relationships, the way in which their society was organised and how these people lived and died.

DID YOU KNOW?

At Roonka Flat, in the Murray River Valley of South Australia, the excavation of an occupation site has found burial sites of different types. Some graves were shallow and oval shaped with the dead lying horizontally, while others were deep shafts where bodies were placed in an upright position. One man's skeleton was found with the remains of a baby placed in his chest cavity.

Tiwi and tutini

The Tiwi people live on Bathurst and Melville Islands, located 80 kilometres off the coast of Darwin. For thousands of years the Tiwi had only limited contact with the mainland Aboriginal communities because they believed that was where the spirits of the dead made their homes. A beautiful and distinctive art form developed from the Tiwi ceremonies associated with death, known as the *pukumani*. Performance of pukumani funerary ceremonies went through stages that took a number of months to complete.

- The first funeral ceremony occurred at the time of death, called the *iliana* by modern Tiwi Islander people. The body was painted with totem symbols and decorated with hair ornaments. Mourners painted their own bodies white.
- Elaborate grave posts called *tutini* were carved as expressions of the person's life and as gifts to the spirit of the dead. The large poles were carved from the trunk of the ironwood tree and then erected around the grave site. The poles symbolised the importance of the dead person.
- The final pukumani ceremony took place approximately six months after burial at the tutini site. Performance of the ceremony enabled the dead to enter the spirit world. The mourners were painted in rich ochre designs and wore decorative head and armbands, called *pamajini*, as protection against a spirit that could still be angry. Dances and songs were performed during all parts of the ceremony that were drawn from the stories of the great Dreaming ancestor, Purukapali. After the death of his child, Purukapali had ordered the people to make grave posts and to sing and dance.
- With the ending of the ceremony the mourners departed from the grave leaving the beautiful tutini to rot away.

SOURCE 4 The burial poles of the Tiwi people of northern Australia. Tree trunks are carved into poles with windows and reduced sections. These examples are painted in the Tiwi art style of geometric and abstract patterns. To form the paint, ochre was mixed with wax, honey or egg yolks. Brushes were made from soft bark, sticks and human hair.



3.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Match column A with column B

Clubs	Called *murrawirri* in north-east South Australia
Large combat clubs	Used for fighting, fishing, hunting and ceremony
Boomerangs	Used as a lever to help propel a spear with force
Fighting spears	Often decorated with totemic designs
Woomera	Constructed with barbed tips
Shields	Used for throwing, stabbing, slashing, smashing

2. **HS1** Briefly explain how burial practices differed between Indigenous Australian communities.
3. **HS1** What materials are tutini poles made from?
4. **HS1** How long after burial did a pukumani ceremony take place?
5. **HS1** Write out a short guide to the Tiwi funeral rituals for someone who is visiting the islands and keen to become familiar with the traditions.

3.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Briefly explain the features of Torres Strait Island weaponry and the difference between them and the weapons used by the Aboriginal communities. Refer to **SOURCES 1** and **2** and the text.
2. **HS3** Imagine yourself to be a family member participating in the funeral ceremony pictured in **SOURCE 3**. Describe the events that are happening around you; provide some details of the rituals associated with the funeral of your loved one.
3. **HS3** Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples used natural resources with great skill to create efficient tools and weapons. Suggest reasons why the archaeological record of these artefacts is limited.
4. **HS4** Imagine that you are the producer of a documentary on the customs and culture of ancient Australia. Write a proposal for your documentary, convincing your investors that the ancient history of our land is something that all Australians should know about and celebrate. You are particularly keen to draw attention to the connection between our ancient culture and the traditions and beliefs that have continued into modern times. Your proposal should include what you intend to be the focus areas, such as the traditions of the Tiwi Islands. Don't forget to include a title for your documentary.
5. **HS6** What evidence of a society can archaeologists find through the study of death and burial practices?
6. **HS6** Look back at the sources in this subtopic and choose one image or account that you feel provides an insight into the culture of these ancient communities. Write a poem or story, or create an illustration, expressing the significance of your chosen source.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.9 Conserving the past

3.9.1 Investigating Australia's ancient past

With all the fascinating information that archaeological and scientific study of ancient burial sites can give us, it is easy to forget that these sites are also places of great spiritual significance and that ancient Australia is not just a story of the past.

The traditional Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander owners and custodians of the land continue to care for country and all the generations who belong to it. Australian governments now recognise the rights that Indigenous communities have over human remains, artefacts and heritage sites. Debate over the control and correct treatment of human remains and heritage continues to be an important issue in Australia.

The role of the archaeologist

Careful investigation of archaeological sites is where the collection of evidence begins. The sites are the source of information and the basis for our archaeological understanding of how people lived in ancient Australia. Most sites have been found through careful survey of the landscape. Pits and trenches are then dug so that excavation can reveal the layers of history found in places such as middens and campsites.

The Kulin people

The Kulin people of Victoria left a variety of archaeological sites and a range of artefacts that are the record of life that archaeologists and scientists can observe and analyse.

- *Quarries.* The Kulin used many types of stone for a wide range of tools and weapons. Fine grained stone, such as quartz, was obtained easily and was used for making sharp tools. Axe heads needed a very hard rock so the Kulin used greenstone (diorite), which was found at only a few sites. Ten ancient greenstone quarries have been recorded. The main greenstone site was at Mt William in Central Victoria. Axe heads from this site were traded as far away as Queensland, where axes were exchanged for highly valued objects such as possum skin rugs.
- *Scarred trees.* Through the Victorian grasslands old trees have been found showing symmetrical scars that are the result of the removal of bark. The Kulin cut the bark for a wide range of purposes, such as building shelters, lining graves and making water containers, shields and canoes.
- *Stone scatters.* Kulin families once camped close to water sources, such as rivers and lakes. Stone pieces have been found at these sites that were the remains of broken tools or the waste that came from the making of new tools. Different rocks were worked in different ways; for example, the strong greenstone was flaked roughly to shape and then ground on sandstone to gain a sharp smooth blade. Quartz was struck so that slivers off rock were sheared off.
- *Mounds and middens.* In areas where a small area of ground appears to have been raised above the surrounding land, archaeologists have found campsites. The mounds are due to the accumulation of rubbish and earth that has been blackened by the ashes of fires. In the nineteenth century the Melbourne floodplain areas surrounding the Plenty and Maribyrnong Rivers and Darebin and Merri Creeks were reported as being the site of many cooking mounds. Ovens excavated there were large and probably used to cook for approximately 20 people at a time. Food waste, such as the remains of shellfish, built up at the sites because shell can survive buried in the ground. Middens have also been found on the banks of rivers, lakes and beaches containing shellfish remains mixed with charcoal, bones and tools. This material collects in layers that archaeologists then use for establishing dates of site occupation.
- *Ceremonial circles.* Five Kulin earth circles have been found at Sunbury, west of Melbourne. The circles are approximately 20 metres in diameter and can be seen as a lower level in the ground, indicating the earth has been scraped away. Archaeologists believe the the circles were used for initiation ceremonies, and have found stone flakes and a large number of stone artefacts at the sites.
- *Ceremonial rocks.* Special rocks associated with the Kulin Dreaming beliefs are located in the foothills of the Dandenong Ranges. A number of these rocks are said to represent the sons, Djart-djart and Tharra, of the creator spirit Bundjil. The rocks are also said to be connected to Dreaming stories about the making of fire. Archaeologists believe the rocks indicated sacred ground where activities such as hunting were not permitted.
- *Caves.* Cape Schank, located in Bunurong country, on the south coast of the Mornington Peninsula, was of particular spiritual significance to the Kulin people. Dreaming beliefs and stories are connected to locations such as this. Bundjil was believed to have told the rocks to create the cave so that he could have shelter from a mighty storm. Underground caves that were shafts going deep into the earth were also regarded as locations of spiritual significance.
- *Rock wells and springs.* Cavities that were dug into the rock provided reliable water supplies in regions lacking rivers and permanent creeks. These wells were used by generations of Aboriginal communities as they travelled through country.

- *Fish traps.* Along the coastal areas, Aboriginal people constructed tidal fish traps. The fish swam into the trap at high tide and were then caught at low tide. A stone or wicker basket system was used to trap fish in the rivers. Barriers across waterways would also direct fish into areas where they could be caught. At Toolondo in Victoria, the remains of approximately four kilometres of shallow drains and ditches remain as part of an Aboriginal system of eel or fish trapping. At Lake Condah, another large system of Aboriginal fish traps was constructed consisting of stone weirs and channels. The Lake Condah trap has been dated to 3000 BP.
- *Burials.* Along the banks of Australia's longest river, the Murray, numerous burial grounds have been located. The burial sites are sometimes connected to important resources, such as stone quarries or fish traps. The number of Murray River burial sites also indicates large Aboriginal populations lived in this region over long periods of time. The Kulin sometimes buried their dead in caves or placed them on platforms in trees. The archaeological excavation and study of burial sites is a matter of community concern because archaeology has not always been respectful in the treatment of human remains. Excavation and study of burial sites is no longer acceptable without ongoing consultation with traditional custodians of the land.
- *Rock art.* Rock art sites are found across Australia as patterns, images and designs on rock surfaces. The art can be painted on, using materials like ochre and charcoal, engraved or carved with a sharp stone or rubbed into the rock with a ground stone. An engraving or carving into the rock is called a *petroglyph.* Rock art is difficult to date and requires a range of techniques. Radiocarbon dating can be used on paint, while luminescence dating can be used on some sand and rock sites. Rock art provides a wonderful insight into how ancient people saw their world. The subjects that are depicted also give clues to the daily and cultural activities people were engaged in and the tools they used. Victoria's Grampian National Park contains approximately 60 rock art sites, making it the most important rock art site in the state. The rock art sites feature images of people, human hands, animal tracks, birds and Dreaming spirits such as Bunjil.

SOURCE 1 A collection of Aboriginal artefacts, tools and weapons including boomerangs and hand axes



SOURCE 2 A map of Australia showing Indigenous Australian art sites and some of the locations of ceremonial and cultural significance in south-east Australia



Source: Spatial Vision

DID YOU KNOW?

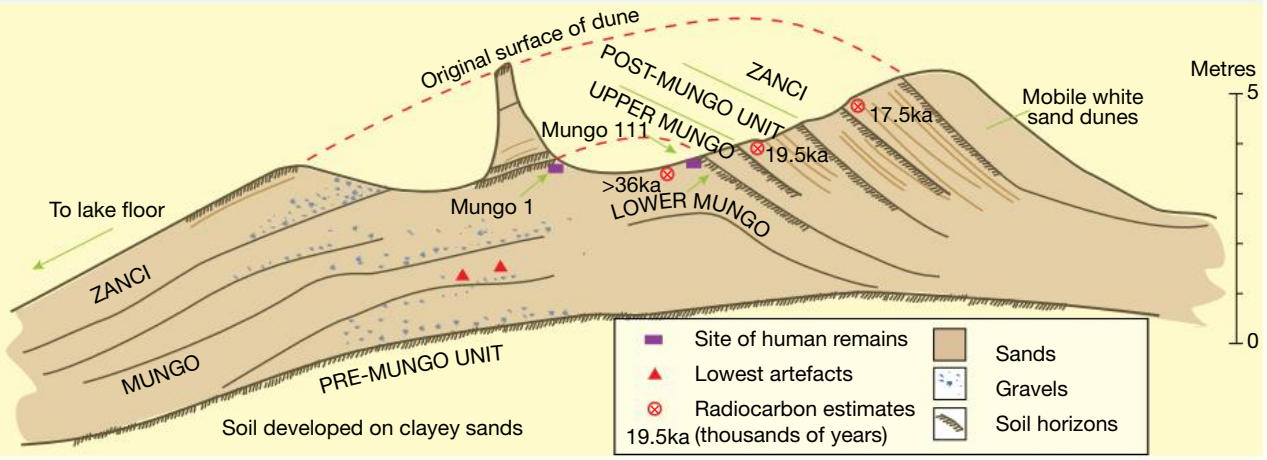
Bones and teeth leave a record of health and disease. At Roonka Flat in South Australia, people suffered from arthritis of the jaw and tooth loss. Archaeologists have connected this condition to chewing very stringy food and the use of the mouth as a tool. Chewing tough bulrush roots was part of the process of making the string necessary for the large hunting and fishing nets of the region.

3.9.2 Lake Mungo site study

The evidence of the lives of the ancient people who lived on the shores of the now dry beds of Lake Mungo, in the Willandra Lakes region of western New South Wales, has been exposed by erosion. In 1968, wind erosion uncovered the charred remains of a young woman in the sand dunes near Lake Mungo. This skeleton, known as 'Mungo I', had been cremated and then the bones had been crushed before burial. The first archaeologists to study her remains estimate the burial had taken place 25 000 years ago, making it the oldest known cremation in the world. More recent studies have concluded that Mungo I is closer to 40 000 years old.

Many other human remains and hundreds of artefacts have since been found in the eroded dunes of the vast Lakes region. Possibly the oldest human remains are the skeleton of a person, probably a tall man, who died between 38 000 and 42 000 years ago. Archaeologists have named him 'Mungo III'. The body had been carefully laid out, with hands clasped together and knees slightly bent. Archaeologists believe that so much ochre had been spread over the body during burial that traces of it turned the surrounding soil pink. A sense of the dignity, ritual and respect for the dead were preserved for thousands of years in the remains of Mungo I and III.

SOURCE 3 Diagram showing a cross-section of the excavations at the Lake Mungo archaeological site



Lake Mungo is one of the 17 lakes in the Willandra region, a series of fossil lakes that is a World Heritage Site because of its natural and cultural importance. The remains of fireplaces, shell middens and human burials provide evidence of a time when Lake Mungo was full of water and supported an abundance of life. In 2003, another remarkable archaeological discovery was made when the 20 000-year-old footprints of the Willandra people were found. Archaeologists working with Elders of the Paakantji, Ngiampaa and Mutthi Mutthi people were visiting country when Mary Pappin Junior, a Mutthi Mutthi woman, showed the footprints to archaeologists. Hundreds of the Pleistocene footprints had formed in soft muddy clay, dried and then became fossilised. Aboriginal Elders have interpreted the footprints as the record of a small group of adults and children walking on top of a thick layer of clay. Within a couple of days, a band of hunters ran through the same area. The prints show that one Willandra man ran extremely fast while another was one-legged. Elders from the Paakantji, Ngiampaa and Mutthi Mutthi people continue to work with the government in the ongoing care of the Lake Mungo archaeological site.

SOURCE 4 The remains of Mungo III, a man placed on his side with hands clasped and then buried in a shallow grave



SOURCE 5 The Pleistocene footprints from the clay at Lake Mungo left an ancient human record of life in Australia.



SOURCE 6 Extract from Harvey Johnstone and Michael Westaway, archaeologists

Some of the footprints and stride lengths [belong to a child and] show how the child walked, paused, turned and ran away from the groups they were with, before walking briskly back towards them. Perhaps the child was called back by an adult or older sibling. So seldom in open-site archaeology do we see such a personal and familiar signature.

Appreciating our heritage

There are many sites in Australia today that are of historical, cultural and archaeological significance. In addition to this, the Australian government has established over 70 Indigenous Protected Areas. These areas are managed by the traditional owners who look after the plants, animals and any special sites. Indigenous rangers manage the impact of visitors, particularly tourists, who come to the area. In this way, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples can keep their culture strong.

The Heritage Council of Victoria, for example, agreed in 2010 to principles of the Burra Charter, an agreement that is a guide for the conservation of Australia's heritage sites. The principles are of particular importance to Australia's fragile Indigenous art and settlement sites. The Burra Charter principles express the belief that:

- Heritage sites enrich all our lives because they help us to understand the past and the cultural richness of the world that we live in today.
- The cultural significance of a heritage site is in its location, the objects within it, its use and the meaning that it has to people today.
- Consideration of cultural significance, combined with careful analysis and study, must take place before any decisions are made that affect a heritage site.
- Careful records must be kept to ensure the care, management and understanding of heritage sites into the future.

DID YOU KNOW?

Victoria's declared Indigenous Protected Areas include Deen Maar, Kurtonitj, Lake Condah and Tyrendarra. These areas include sacred and ceremonial sites and major Dreaming tracks.

SOURCE 7 Guidelines for a site study in your area

The following steps should be followed when undertaking a site study of a site relating to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander history and cultures.

1. Establish the location of an Australian Indigenous site of cultural significance that you can visit.
2. In small groups, plan your excursion and design a range of archaeological fieldwork activities. Remember that traditional owners should be consulted when planning site visits. Extend an invitation to a member of your local Aboriginal community to accompany your class on the excursion to help explain the significance of the site and the artefacts you are studying.
3. It is important that the site be treated with the same respect you would give a church, mosque or war memorial. Think about how your group will need to move around to ensure you do not damage the site. In the planning process you will also need to:
   - Check with the National Parks and Wildlife Service for the rules of the site in their care.
   - Ensure that all visitors to your chosen site are aware of the rules of site management and that the only records taken of your visit are what you write, what you photograph and what you draw.
   - Familiarise yourself with the key features of the site location: if is it near water, if it is exposed or protected from the weather, how accessible it is, what the vegetation surrounding the site is, and so on.
   - Research the Dreaming stories and beliefs of the people who created and maintained the site.
4. Prepare an information sheet to help record your excursion findings and details of site features. Include:
   - site name and location
   - details of site or artefact
     - shape
     - size
     - material
     - use or function.

   Underneath each entry leave a space for your sketch of the artefact or site feature.

When you have completed your site visit prepare group presentations, reporting on your findings. Your presentation will need to provide background information explaining the features of the site. Remember that the environmental setting including the landscape, climate and natural resources are very important in understanding how people lived. Your presentation should highlight the value of the site to Australian archaeology and any heritage issues you have become aware of. You may want to consider the problems of managing and preserving the site for future generations. You may have noticed that site management and conservation plans have already been put in place. The area of the site may have barriers erected as protection against people and animals, or drip lines to direct running water away from wall engravings or paintings. Conclude your presentation with a statement expressing why you believe the continued study and management of archaeological sites is important, and what you have learned from your study of ancient Australia.

3.9 ACTIVITIES

1. The map in **SOURCE 2** shows artefacts and sites around Australia of archaeological significance. Choose one site of particular interest to you, research it in more detail and then write a letter to your local paper explaining the significance of this site, the conservation threats it faces and what you think we need to do to protect the ancient heritage of our country. **Determining historical significance**
2. In 2003, Willandra Elders lifted a 20-year ban on further excavation of the archaeological sites of the Willandra Lakes region. Many Aboriginal communities believed they needed to protect their sites and history from archaeologists who had not previously respected human remains or the objects of sacred or traditional importance.
   (a) In groups or as a class, consider the issues related to ownership and control of artefacts.
   (b) Hold a debate on the following topic: All Australian Indigenous people's remains and artefacts should be returned to the traditional custodians. **[Ethical Capability]**

3.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

3.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Match the Kulin archaeological site with its location.

Burial sites	Sunbury, west of Melbourne
Rock art	Cape Schank
Fish and eel traps	Plenty and Maribyrnong Rivers and Darebin and Merri Creeks
Ceremonial circles	Mt William in Central Victoria
Mounds and middens	Lake Condah
Quarries	Grampian National Park
Ceremonial rocks	Banks of the Murray River
Caves	Foothills of the Dandenong Ranges

2. **HS1** Identify the artefacts and evidence of life found at Lake Mungo.
3. **HS1** Why were hundreds of Pleistocene footprints preserved at Lake Mungo?
4. **HS1** What are the principles of the Burra Charter designed to achieve?
5. **HS2** How old is the young woman's body found in the sand dunes near Lake Mungo, known as Mungo I?

3.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** The map in **SOURCE 2** shows artefacts and sites around Australia of archaeological significance. List all the challenges for the protection and conservation of these sites.
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3** and read the relevant text.
   (a) What role did erosion play in discovering the evidence of early Aboriginal occupation of Lake Mungo?
   (b) How deep was the Upper Mungo level?
   (c) Would you expect Mungo I or Mungo III to be closer to the boundary between Upper and Lower Mungo?
   (d) What does 'ka' stand for? What difference in time is there between the first date in the Zanci layer and the third date in the Lower Mungo layer?
3. **HS3** Look at the photograph in **SOURCE 4**. What evidence of Aboriginal religious belief and funerary practices could an archaeologist gain from studying this source?
4. **HS6** Discuss the concept of a 'shared heritage' and decide what that should mean in modern Australia.
5. **HS6** The ability to identify with a person and their times is known as empathy. When we empathise we seek to understand, through imagination and knowledge, how others acted and thought. We show empathy when we read a novel, watch a movie, study a painting or listen to others. A child living 20 000 years ago left some of the footprints shown in **SOURCE 5**; they are evidence of someone's life from long ago. These footprints provide only a glimpse of that child's life but are nevertheless historically very significant. Write the inscription for a plaque erected near these footprints, explaining to visitors what they are looking at when they see these simple footprints. Convey a sense of the significance of the footprints and support this with some general information on the key features of life in this region during this distant time.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

3.10 SkillBuilder: Developing a hypothesis

online only

Developing a hypothesis: Interpreting the evidence of life in ancient Australia: Lake Mungo

In their work of studying the ancient past, archaeologists are dealing with evidence that is in tiny pieces. They must rely on the physical landscape and archaeological evidence to tell the story. Very little material from ancient Australia has survived the thousands of years between their time and ours. Shell, bone and teeth will endure; animal hides, plant fibres, feathers and hair will not.



Select your learnON format to access:

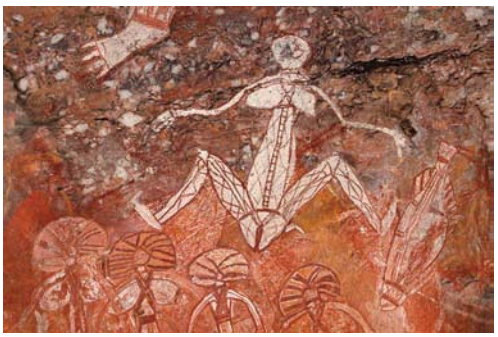
- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

3.11 Thinking Big research project: Communicating Kulin knowledge

online only

SCENARIO

As a Kulin Elder, it is your responsibility to organise and control the ritual and ceremonial life of your people. The knowledge of your land and your beliefs must be taught to the young so that they will have the skills to survive and continue the cultural traditions.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Communicating Kulin knowledge (pro-0227)

3.12 Review

online only

3.12.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

3.12.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32118)
Crossword (doc-32119)
Interactivity Ancient Australia crossword (int-7692)

KEY TERMS

ancestral beings gods or deities who taught people how to live and the rules of society and who are regarded as the direct ancestors of Aboriginal peoples living today
anthropologist someone who researches the appearance and features of the life of prehistoric people and the connections they had with other human populations
artefact an object made or changed by humans
Before the Present (BP) a term use by archaelogists instead of BCE (Before the common era) for when time periods are vast
bettong small nocturnal marsupials, resembling a small wallaby, with browngrey fur on top and white on the underside
bull-roarer a sacred object used in Aboriginal religious ceremonies whirled around to produce a roaring noise
cassowary a large flightless bird related to the emu with a bare head and neck
cay a small island found on coral reefs
circumcision the surgical removal of the foreskin from a male penis
clan a group of people of common descent or ancestry
dialects different forms of a language
dugong a sea animal, sometimes called a sea cow, found mainly on the coasts bordering the Indian Ocean
ecosystem a community of organisms, plants or animals and the environment they exist in
fallow land that is being farmed but left uncultivated and seeded for a season to allow soil recovery
forage the search for provisions or food
genealogical an account of the descent or ancestry of a person or group
geologist someone who studies the sediments and landforms associated with ancient campsites
genetic relating to origin or heredity
Ice Ages long periods during which glaciers covered much of the northern hemisphere
lore the customs and stories that came from the Dreaming and continue to govern all aspects of traditional life
mallee a low growing bushy Australian eucalypt plant
mangrove area in a tropical or subtropical climate where vegetation grows in salty or brackish water
Melanesian belonging to the island groups of the South Pacific, north-east of Australia
ochre a natural pigment found in soil ranging in colour from pale yellow to orange and red
palaeontologist a scientist who studies fossils
plateau a high, flat topped landform
quarry an excavation or pit from which stone or building material is cut
radiocarbon dating a way of dating objects of plant or animal origin according to the amount of carbon left within them
rite of passage a ceremony or event marking an important stage in someone's life
sago a starch food obtained from palm used to produce a flour
seagrass a grass-like plant living in or close to the sea
sediment the material that settles at the bottom of a liquid
shell midden a mound of shells and other waste material marking the site of an ancient community
silt fine sand or earth particles carried and deposited by running water
slashing and burning a method of clearing land for farming where the vegetation is cut down and burned off before new seeds are sown
taboo something strictly forbidden
taro a plant with broad edible leaves and root vegetable, grown in the tropical regions, especially the Pacific Islands
the Dreaming in Aboriginal spirituality, the time when the Earth took on its present form and cycles of life and nature began; also known as the Dreamtime. It explains creation and the nature of the world, the place that every person has in that world and the importance of ritual and tradition. Dreaming Stories pass on important knowledge, laws and beliefs.

3.10 SkillBuilder: Developing a hypothesis

3.10.1 Tell me

Interpreting the evidence of life in ancient Australia: Lake Mungo

In their work of studying the ancient past, archaeologists are dealing with evidence that is in tiny pieces. They must rely on the physical landscape and archaeological evidence to tell the story. Very little material from ancient Australia has survived the thousands of years between their time and ours. Shell, bone and teeth will endure; animal hides, plant fibres, feathers and hair will not.

Archaeologists are involved in the work of detectives as they:

- search for evidence
- analyse the evidence, separating relevant from irrelevant information
- draw conclusions based on the evidence
- combine the evidence with background knowledge to develop a hypothesis.

Lake Mungo is a site of enormous archaeological importance because it provides some understanding of life as it may have been over 40 000 years ago. Our image of life at Lake Mungo is built from the limited archaeological evidence and from our modern understanding of traditional life as it existed in Aboriginal communities in more recent times. It is easy for us to imagine that the lives of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities remained unchanged for generations. We have built a picture of Indigenous peoples as nomadic hunters, stalking kangaroos or dugongs and living in small independent tribal communities; beliefs, such as the Dreaming, reach back into the distant past and give us a sense of the connection between the past and the present. But we also have a great deal of evidence pointing to the diversity, or mixture of cultural traditions, of ancient Indigenous communities.

What is a hypothesis?

A hypothesis is an explanation, made on the basis of limited evidence, and is a place to begin a more detailed study or investigation. Anyone who develops a hypothesis is making a guess, based on the evidence they have. When a hypothesis is well supported with solid evidence we call it a *theory*.

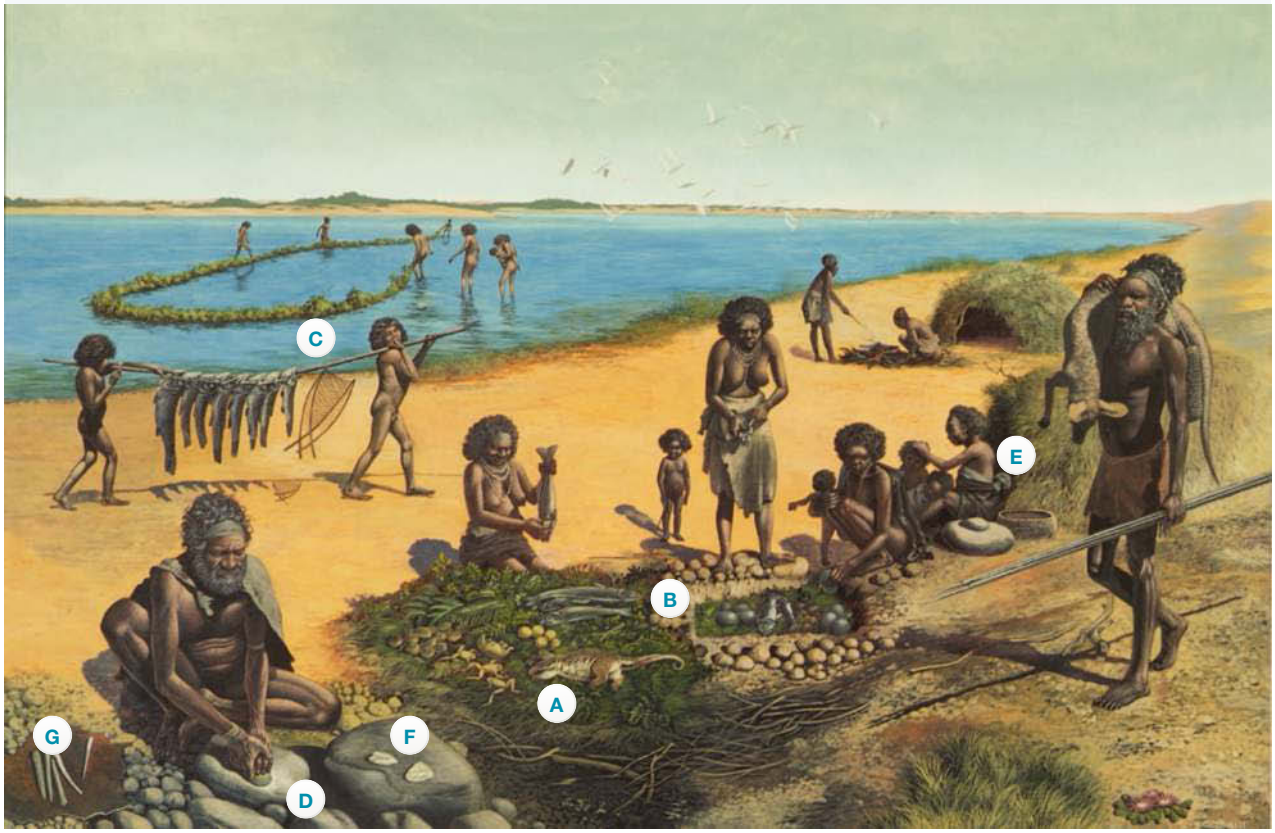
The difference between theories and hypotheses is known as the *contestability* of history. It reminds us that history is about interpreting the evidence. How the past is understood and interpreted is influenced by the point of view of the historian. If we look at people and events from our own modern Australian point of view we can sometimes misunderstand what has happened. We all have a cultural background that influences us. Our understanding of the world is shaped by many things such as our nationality, values, beliefs, personal experiences and interests.

Archaeologists study the evidence that has survived to explain and understand ancient life at Lake Mungo. Because the archaeological evidence of Lake Mungo is limited, archaeologists have developed more than one hypothesis to explain the nature of Lake Mungo life long ago.

3.10.2 Show me

Look carefully at **SOURCE 1**, an artist's reconstruction of Pleistocene life at Lake Mungo. This image gives a general view of Lake Mungo life, using details that have been borrowed from what we know of later Aboriginal tools, technology and traditions. The image shows Aboriginal people from the Pleistocene Period living in much the same way as Aboriginal people did in south-east Australia at the time of European settlement, two thousand generations later.

SOURCE 1 An image of life during the Pleistocene Period at Lake Mungo, by Giovanni Caselli. The visual reconstruction was based on research published in Bernard Wood's book *The Evolution of Early Man*, published in 1977.



- **A** Remains of animal species such as bandicoot, rat, kangaroo, wallaby, wombat and small marsupials such as **bettong** were found in the fireplaces at Mungo. Fireplace evidence suggests that hunters returned to the community site for cooking and eating. Remains of birds, emu eggs and frogs were also found at the site.
- **B** Remains of shellfish and golden perch have been found, as have the shallow fireplace ovens. Perch were probably caught in deeper lake water as indicated in the image of people fishing in the background.
- **C** Fish traps and fish netting were also probably used. The fish trap shown was not found at the Lake Mungo site and is based on artefacts found in south-east Australia dating from a much later period.
- **D** The stone tools shown do not closely correspond with the style of tools found at the Pleistocene Period Lake Mungo site. Grinding stones, as shown, were not found at Lake Mungo, with no evidence of the collection of seeds for grinding before 15 000 BP. Grinding stones found in south-east Australia from much later periods were flat, unlike the rounded stone in the image.
- **E** The clothing and physical appearance of the people are based on images of Aboriginal people from more recent times. Cloaks, body decoration and headbands have not been found. Necklaces made from animal teeth and bones have been found.The baskets and spears are based on artefacts found in the region from much later time periods.
- **F** Axe heads have not been found at the Pleistocene site.
- **G** Bone artefacts similar to those shown have been found in excavation. Archaeologists think these may have been used for sewing or fishing, but definitive evidence has never been found.

SOURCE 2 Excerpt from Bernard Wood's *The Evolution of Early Man*, describing ancient life at Lake Mungo

Recent research in Australia has shown that thriving communities were established there nearly 30 000 years ago. These people lived on narrow strips of land between land, lakes and the huge sand dunes that stretched out into the desert. Fish bones, shell remains and animal bones are evidence that they learned to exploit the lakes as well as the land. Hearths where they cooled their food have been excavated, and it is the carbon from charred bones that has provided the dating evidence.

The following steps will help you analyse the evidence and establish your own hypothesis and investigate the various Lake Mungo hypotheses that archaeologists have put forward:

1. *Begin with a question*. For example, 'What is the key feature of the Lake Mungo lifestyle during the Pleistocene Period?'
2. *Based on your question, write a central statement that becomes your hypothesis*. For example, 'The people of the Pleistocene Period lived in small hunting and foraging family units'. Your central statement, or hypothesis, should be arguable.
3. *Investigate your thesis*. Consider the other possibilities to explain the nature of Pleistocene life at Lake Mungo; for example, 'The people of the Pleistocene Period lived in large communities supported by hunting and foraging a wide area of land'.
4. *Conduct some research into theories developed by archaeologists*. Peter Hiscock, for example, investigated the Lake Mungo site to develop his own visions and theories about life during this period. Hiscock's study of the evidence challenges the Lake Mungo theory expressed in the sources.

The annotations in **SOURCE 1** provide you with questions to consider when assessing the usefulness of the source as evidence of the Pleistocene lifestyle.

3.10.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

3.10 ACTIVITIES

1. Form a hypothesis about life at Lake Mungo and use the steps outlined to write a paragraph explaining why your hypothesis is correct, based on your preliminary research. Refer to the information in **SOURCES 1** and **2** to help develop your hypothesis.

   Present your Lake Mungo hypothesis to your class in a creative way. **SOURCE 1** is a visual representation of a hypothesis. You could present your hypothesis as a poster, short speech or story.
2. What evidence do archaeologists need to study in the process of developing their understanding of life in ancient Australia?
3. What is the correct meaning of the term 'hypothesis'?
4. Why have archaeologists developed more than one hypothesis to explain and understand ancient life at Lake Mungo?
5. What is the difference between theories and hypotheses known as?

3.11 Thinking Big research project: Communicating Kulin knowledge

Scenario

The Kulin people of the modern state of Victoria belonged to the land extending from Port Phillip and western Port, up into the Great Dividing Range and the Loddon and Goulburn River Valleys. The Kulin nation were an alliance of five Aboriginal tribes, speaking five related languages. This area of central Victoria had been inhabited by the Kulin for approximately 40 000 years before the arrival of European settlers.

The Kulin lived well from the land; fishing the abundant waters of Port Phillip and hunting and foraging the surrounding grasslands. The ceremony of Tanderrum was performed when people of one Kulin group passed through the lands of another. Demonstrating this level of diplomacy and respect was of great importance to trade and the sharing of resources. Ceremony was central to Kulin daily life and culture. The Elders kept the ceremonial and sacred knowledge, and ensured it was passed down to subsequent generations.



Task

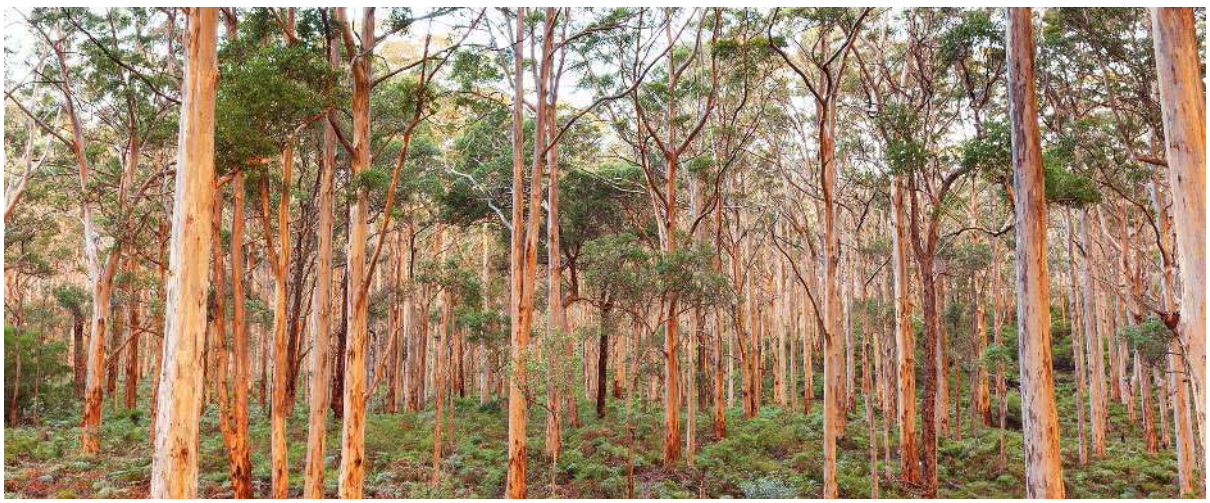
You are an Elder of the Kulin nation or one of the other tribes of Victoria, such as the Bidhawal or Gunai peoples of Gippsland. The Europeans have not yet come to your country. As an Elder, it is your responsibility to organise and control the ritual and ceremonial life of your people. The knowledge of your land and your beliefs must be taught to the young so that they will have the skills to survive and continue the cultural traditions.

Consider what you have learnt about ancient Australia from this topic. Pick a subject that you have read about; for example, the Dreaming, managing the land or trade networks. Think about how you would pass this knowledge on to a younger person. An Elder would not have recorded their knowledge through the written form. This knowledge would have been recorded as art, music, dance, stories or the poetry of the songlines. Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.



Process

- Open the ProjectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Work in groups of three, this will allow you to swap ideas and share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered. This is where the creation of your lesson in Kulin life and culture begins.
- Start your research by reading through this topic, Ancient Australia, to familiarise yourself with the key features of the beliefs, values and characteristics of ancient Australian societies. Locate at least three other sources of information. One source should be located offline. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some weblinks that will assist you with your research.
- Decide on the area of traditional knowledge your group is going to focus on and then communicate using a non-written presentation.
- As you are going through the research process you can view, share and comment on other group members' findings. Be sure to enter the source for any information you find online.
- Decide how each member of the group will communicate the traditional knowledge; for example, one may use a traditional art form, such as painting; another group member might use the model of the songlines to compose a piece of poetry.
- In the role of the Elder, each member of your group will present the knowledge to your classmates using their chosen method of instruction.



Resources

ProjectsPLUS Communicating Kulin knowledge (pro-0227)

3.12 Review

3.12.1 Key knowledge summary

3.2 Examining the evidence

- Scientists and archaeologists study the record of Australia's ancient past in sites such as Lake Mungo.
- The oral history of Australian Indigenous peoples has also left a record of the ancient world in the form of stories passed down through the generations.
- Museums work with traditional communities to give meaning to the artefacts they have in their collections.

3.3 The first people of Australia and the Torres Strait Islands

- Scientists believe that the low sea levels of the Ice Age made the settlement of Australia possible because First Nations people were able to walk much of the way from their place of origin in South-East Asia to the islands of the Torres Strait and on to the Australian mainland.
- As human settlement spread across Australia hundreds of different languages and beliefs developed to explain the nature of the land and the links between people.

3.4 Managing an ancient land

- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities used their detailed knowledge of climate, animal and plant life to manage their resources and survive in challenging natural environments.
- Fire was used as a tool to care for the land, hunt and promote the growth of new vegetation.
- Farming and fishing were central to life for people living in the Torres Strait.

3.5 Language and ceremony in ancient Australia

- At the time of European occupation, Australia was a multicultural society where there were at least 250 separate Aboriginal languages spoken and hundreds more dialects.
- The languages and traditions of the Torres Strait Islanders were related to both Papua New Guinea and Aboriginal Australia.
- Elders are the ceremonial leaders of Australian Indigenous communities with their knowledge of tradition, culture and spirituality.

3.6 The ancient Australian economy

- Dreaming tracks were well-established trade networks extending for hundreds of kilometres across the land to provide links between many clan and language groups.
- Sequences of songs provided a record of creation beliefs and helped people to create mental maps of their country, enabling them to travel long distances in safety.
- Large gatherings of many clan groups occurred annually to coincide with increased food supplies and to provide an opportunity for trade, feasting, ceremonial celebrations, marriage and business negotiations.

3.7 Society, custom and culture

- Relationships between clan groups and within families are complex in Indigenous communities and are known as kinship networks.
- Clans were identified by totems that were plants, insects, birds or animals regarded as sacred and expressing the spiritual connection between people and the natural world.
- Bora grounds were ceremonial places where initiation rites which gave young people the status and responsibility that came with adulthood were often carried out.

3.8 Conflict and death in ancient Australia

- A wide variety of ancient weapons, such as clubs and spears, developed as a reflection of the different traditions, geography, resources and climates of Australia.
- The ancient pukumani ceremony of the Tiwi Islands has survived into modern times as a beautiful art form showing the importance to Indigenous communities of funeral ceremony and ritual.

3.9 Conserving the past

- The ancient river bed of Lake Mungo in New South Wales has provided evidence of the oldest known funeral practices anywhere in the world.
- Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities play an important role in the conservation and cultural appreciation of archaeological sites like Lake Mungo.



A timeline of Ancient Australia

Approximate number of years before the present

176 000

120 000

110 000

100 000

90 000

80 000

70 000

60 000

50 000

40 000

30 000

20 000

10 000

0

c.120 000
Analysis of pollen and charcoal at Lake George (NSW) suggests people living there





c. 75 000
The world's earliest known rock art carved on rock outcrop in the Kimberley





c. 40 000
Humans in Lake Mungo (NSW)



c. 50 000
Humans in Arnhem Land (NT) using ochre



c. 38 000
Humans reached south-west WA and camped on upper Swan River near Perth

c. 31 000
Engravings carved in Olary region (SA)

c. 34 000
Humans around Hunter River (NSW)

c. 23 000
People in Arnhem Land using ground edge grooved axes; earliest in the world

c. 12 000
Land bridge between Australian continent and Papua New Guinea flooded creating Torres Strait Islands

c. 30 800
Humans in Tasmania

c. 13 000
Australia's oldest ornaments, bone beads, made in Devils Lair (WA)

c. 10 000
World's oldest boomerangs used in Wyrie Swamp (SA)



c. 8000
Coastlines of Papua New Guinea and Tasmania stabilised and separated from mainland

c. 2000
People fishing with hooks and lines

1788
First European colonists reach Sydney Cove

3.12.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

3.12 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Songlines, caring for country and the Dreaming. What can they teach us about the First Australians?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32118)
Crossword (doc-32119)

Interactivity Ancient Australia crossword (int-7692)

KEY TERMS

ancestral beings gods or deities who taught people how to live and the rules of society and who are regarded as the direct ancestors of Aboriginal peoples living today
anthropologist someone who researches the appearance and features of the life of prehistoric people and the connections they had with other human populations
artefact an object made or changed by humans
Before the Present (BP) a term use by archaelogists instead of BCE (Before the common era) for when time periods are vast
bettong small nocturnal marsupials, resembling a small wallaby, with browngrey fur on top and white on the underside
bull-roarer a sacred object used in Aboriginal religious ceremonies whirled around to produce a roaring noise
cassowary a large flightless bird related to the emu with a bare head and neck
cay a small island found on coral reefs
circumcision the surgical removal of the foreskin from a male penis
clan a group of people of common descent or ancestry
dialects different forms of a language
dugong a sea animal, sometimes called a sea cow, found mainly on the coasts bordering the Indian Ocean
ecosystem a community of organisms, plants or animals and the environment they exist in
fallow land that is being farmed but left uncultivated and seeded for a season to allow soil recovery
forage the search for provisions or food
genealogical an account of the descent or ancestry of a person or group
geologist someone who studies the sediments and landforms associated with ancient campsites
genetic relating to origin or heredity
Ice Ages long periods during which glaciers covered much of the northern hemisphere
lore the customs and stories that came from the Dreaming and continue to govern all aspects of traditional life
mallee a low growing bushy Australian eucalypt plant
mangrove area in a tropical or subtropical climate where vegetation grows in salty or brackish water
Melanesian belonging to the island groups of the South Pacific, north-east of Australia
ochre a natural pigment found in soil ranging in colour from pale yellow to orange and red
palaeontologist a scientist who studies fossils
plateau a high, flat topped landform
quarry an excavation or pit from which stone or building material is cut
radiocarbon dating a way of dating objects of plant or animal origin according to the amount of carbon left within them

rite of passage a ceremony or event marking an important stage in someone's life
sago a starch food obtained from palm used to produce a flour
seagrass a grass-like plant living in or close to the sea
sediment the material that settles at the bottom of a liquid
shell midden a mound of shells and other waste material marking the site of an ancient community
silt fine sand or earth particles carried and deposited by running water
slashing and burning a method of clearing land for farming where the vegetation is cut down and burned off before new seeds are sown
taboo something strictly forbidden
taro a plant with broad edible leaves and root vegetable, grown in the tropical regions, especially the Pacific Islands
the Dreaming in Aboriginal spirituality, the time when the Earth took on its present form and cycles of life and nature began; also known as the Dreamtime. It explains creation and the nature of the world, the place that every person has in that world and the importance of ritual and tradition. Dreaming Stories pass on important knowledge, laws and beliefs.

4 Ancient Egypt

4.1 Overview

Perplexing pyramids and mysterious mummies. What were the ancient Egyptians thinking?

4.1.1 Links with our times

Modern Egypt is one of the world's poorer countries. Unlike several other neighbouring nations, it lacks oil and other natural resources. Despite such disadvantages, until recently, vast numbers of visitors flocked to Egypt to marvel at traces of its glorious ancient past. They looked in awe at the pyramids at Giza and the royal tombs in the Valley of the Kings; they puzzled over questions such as why the ancient Egyptians were so fascinated by death and how the mighty pyramids were built without any modern construction devices.

When Egypt erupted in political conflict in early 2011, visitor numbers fell dramatically. Egypt is now considered a very volatile place. There have been many oppressive acts by its authorities, violent clashes between protestors and police and soldiers, and several terrorist attacks. However, thanks to improvements in security, there are signs that Egypt's tourism economy is recovering, with visitor numbers increasing since 2017. And, despite great dangers, archaeologists have continued the exciting work of discovering Egypt's tombs, mummies and other clues about the fascinating ancient history of this land.

Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient Egypt (eles-1835)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

4.1 Overview
4.2 Examining the evidence
4.3 The gift of the Nile
4.4 The people of Egypt
4.5 Pharaoh rules!
4.6 Gods and the afterlife
4.7 Mummies unwrapped
4.8 Write like an Egyptian
4.9 Pyramid builders
4.10 Tutankhamen, Akhenaten and Nefertiti
4.11 Expansion and fall
4.12 Rameses II — Egypt's greatest pharaoh?
4.13 Egypt's heritage
4.14 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing and corroborating sources online only
4.15 **Thinking Big research project:** Ancient Egyptian archaeological excavation online only
4.16 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of ancient Egypt











BCE

5000

4500

4000

3500

3000

2500

2000

1500

1000

500

BCE CE

CE

c. 5000–3100
People settle along the Nile and learn to use bronze. At least two separate states develop.

c. 3100
King Narmer unites Egypt. The Archaic period, also called Early Dynastic Period (to c. 2686 BCE), begins.

c. 2686–2181
The Old Kingdom: a long period of peace and order

c. 2551–2528
Khufu rules.
The Great Pyramid is built.

c. 2181–2025
The First Intermediate Period: a time of disorder and division as rival leaders fight for control

c. 2025–1650
The Middle Kingdom: Egypt is united under strong rulers. Nubia is conquered.

c. 1650–1550
Second Intermediate Period: the Hyksos invade and occupy Egypt.

c. 1550–1069
The New Kingdom: the Hyksos are driven out. Egypt dominates neighbouring lands.

c. 1479–1458
Hatshepsut rules.

c. 1279–1212
Rameses II rules.

c. 1069–332
The Late Dynastic Period: Egypt is invaded and ruled in turn by Nubians, Assyrians and Persians.

c. 332–30
Alexander the Great conquers Egypt. One of his generals founds the Ptolemaic Dynasty. The Ptolemaic Period lasts until Rome takes over.

30
Romans take control of Egypt.

4.2 Examining the evidence

4.2.1 How do we know about ancient Egypt?

As you study the pictures in this subtopic, you will notice many clues about life in ancient Egypt. This is because the ancient Egyptians left a huge amount of primary source evidence behind them. As in Mesopotamia, most Egyptian houses were made of mud bricks so they left few traces, but their pyramids, temples and tombs were made of stone. The pyramids and tombs of Egyptian kings and nobles contained mummies and brilliant artworks, including statues of gods, models and wall paintings. Many of these are very well preserved. There are also colossal stone statues of pharaohs and magnificent painted wall panels.

SOURCE 1 The gold mask found covering the face of the mummy of the New Kingdom pharaoh Tutankhamen



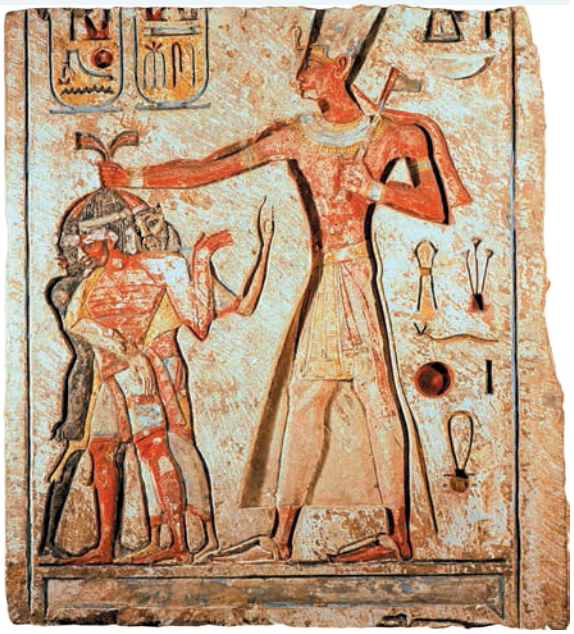
Ancient Egyptian written primary sources

Egyptians used writing, in the form of symbols called hieroglyphs, from about 3100 BCE. However, from the fourth century to the nineteenth century CE no-one knew how to read ancient Egyptian! Thanks to the discovery of the Rosetta Stone in 1798 and the dedicated work of two nineteenth-century scientists, the code was broken and scholars can now read the many primary source records of ancient Egypt (see subtopic 4.8).

Ancient secondary sources

Some ancient written sources on Egypt are actually secondary sources. This is because they were written a long time after the events they describe. Among them are the writings of the Greek historian Herodotus (c. 484–420 BCE), who travelled to Egypt to gather information. They also include the surviving pages of a history of Egypt written by an Egyptian priest called Manetho around 300 BCE.

SOURCE 2 A painted limestone panel showing the great New Kingdom pharaoh Rameses II striking bound prisoners of war



SOURCE 3 A wall painting from the tomb of Nebamun at Thebes (c. 1400 BCE), showing him hunting birds in the marshes with a throwing stick. With him are his wife, daughter and cat.



4.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What are some examples of primary sources that have survived from ancient Egypt?
2. **HS1** Why have some primary sources, such as the Egyptian pyramids and wall paintings, survived while others have left few traces?
3. **HS1** Why don't historians consider ancient written sources by, for example, Herodotus and Manetho to be primary sources for ancient Egypt?
4. **HS1** When was the Rosetta Stone discovered?
5. **HS1** What was most significant about the discovery of the Rosetta Stone?

4.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1** and explain what it can tell us about the wealth and power of the rulers of ancient Egypt.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) Describe the main features of this painted panel.
   (b) How can you tell that the men on the left are prisoners?
   (c) Why do you think the pharaoh is depicted as being much bigger than his captured enemies?
   (d) Why do you think an Egyptian ruler would want to be shown killing his prisoners?
3. **HS3** Look very closely at **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Describe the details of the painting.
   (b) What are the people standing on?
   (c) What is Nebamun using to hunt birds?
   (d) Compare and contrast this weapon with an Indigenous Australian boomerang.
   (e) What might we learn from this painting about a favourite Egyptian pastime?
4. **HS3** For which social classes do **SOURCES 1**, **2** and **3** provide evidence? Why do you think we have much more evidence for them than for the common people of Egypt?
5. **HS3** Write a summary of all you have discovered about ancient Egypt from these three sources.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.3 The gift of the Nile

4.3.1 Floods and irrigation

Like many other ancient civilisations, Egypt developed along a river — the Nile. The waters of the Nile are what made civilisation possible in Egypt's hot, dry, sun-baked land. The Nile is formed by the joining of two rivers, the White Nile and the Blue Nile, which flow north from the wet highlands of central Africa. The Nile flows through the deserts and finally empties through a long **delta** into the Mediterranean Sea. The people of ancient Egypt lived in 'the Black Lands', the river's floodplain. These parts of the land were covered by water whenever the Nile flooded.

Each year, between June and September, heavy rains in central Africa caused the Nile to flood. The annual flooding provided a layer of fertile soil. Without this flooding, civilisation would not have developed in Egypt. People began to live along the Nile from about 5000 BCE. Its waters, the plants that grew in the soil on its banks, and the birds, fish and mammals that lived around it provided all that they needed (see **SOURCE 3** in subtopic 4.2). They domesticated cattle, sheep, goats and geese and grew crops in the floodplains.

SOURCE 1 From *The Histories*, written by the ancient Greek historian Herodotus, who visited Egypt in 475 BCE

... it is clear to any intelligent observer ... that the Egypt to which we sail nowadays is ... the gift of the Nile ... When the Nile overflows, the whole country is converted into a sea, and the towns, which alone remain above water, look like islands. At these times water transport is used all over the country instead of merely along the course of the river.

The river provided reeds to make boats, roofs, baskets and **papyrus**, and a transport route for people and goods. The annual flooding also helped set Egypt's calendar. The **Inundation**, the period of flooding, was regarded as the start of each year.

To use the Nile's waters more efficiently, the Egyptians invented a way of irrigating their crops by lifting the water from the river and moving it through ditches in their fields. To do this they used a bucket device called a **shadoof**, a method that is still used today. Most importantly, irrigation enabled a smaller part of the population to produce enough food for the whole population. This freed others to do more specialised work.

SOURCE 2 Ancient Egypt — its main geographical features and key sites



Source: Map drawn by MAPgraphics

DID YOU KNOW?

Away from the floodplain of the Nile, 90 per cent of Egypt is desert. The arid deserts provided little to sustain the Egyptians, but deserts were difficult to cross and for centuries they helped Egypt to develop its civilisation without the constant threat of foreign invasion.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- Overview > **Early river civilisations**
- Overview > **Early urban civilisations**

4.3 ACTIVITY

Working in small groups, suggest reasons why it would have been impossible for a civilisation like ancient Egypt to have developed in a country like Australia. (*Hint*: Does Australia have rivers that flood each year? Does Australia have native plants and animals that could be domesticated?)

Analysing cause and effect

4.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Complete the following sentences by choosing the correct words from the alternatives in brackets:
   (a) The Nile is formed by the joining of two rivers, the (Green/White) Nile and the (Blue/Black) Nile.
   (b) Ancient Egyptians lived in the (deserts/floodplains).
   (c) The Inundation was the period of (drought/flooding).
   (d) Egypt's natural defences were provided by (mountains/deserts).
2. **HS1** Suggest why the lands along the Nile's floodplain were called 'the Black Lands'.
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**. What do you think Herodotus meant when he called the civilisation of ancient Egypt 'the gift of the Nile'?
4. **HS1** Explain how ancient Egyptians irrigated their crops.
5. **HS2** In approximately what year did people begin to live along the Nile?

4.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**. Make a list of other ways in which the flooding of the Nile affected the lives of the ancient Egyptians.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, locate the delta of the Nile and describe its shape and the geographical features that would have made it a good place for farming.
3. **HS5** In what sense can the Nile be considered to have contributed to Egypt's success in developing a civilisation?
4. **HS4** Explain how cultivating plants and domesticating animals would have transformed the lives of people living along the Nile.
5. **HS3** According to **SOURCE 2**, where is the earliest evidence of human settlement along the Nile and when does it date from?

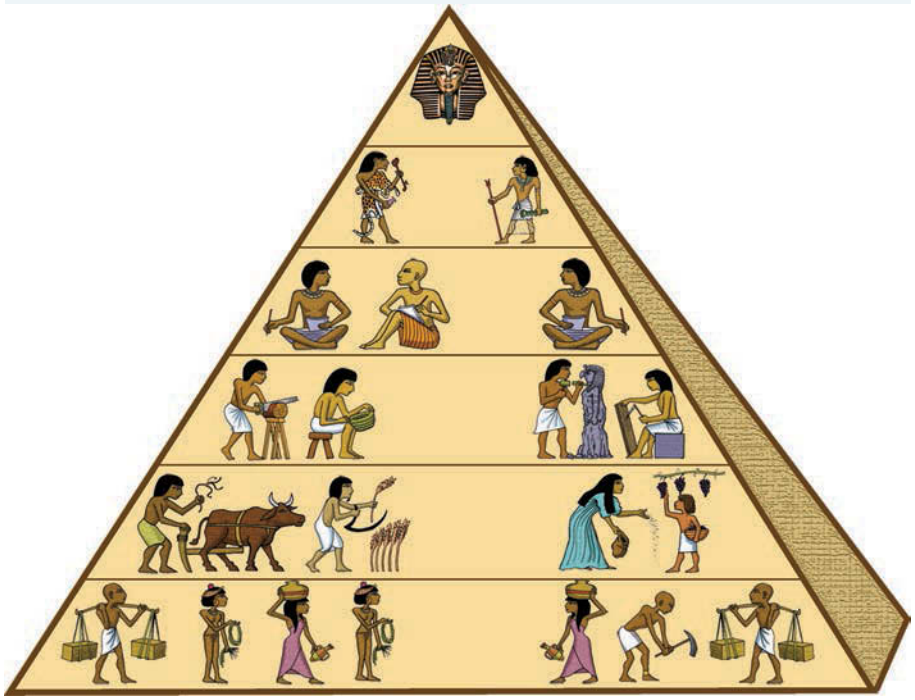
Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.4 The people of Egypt

4.4.1 The structure of ancient Egyptian society

Ancient Egyptian society was layered like a pyramid (see **SOURCE 1**). At the top was the pharaoh, who was considered both a king and a god. Beneath him was the vizier (prime minister) who was in charge of almost everything. Next in importance were the nobles, priests, officials and scribes. Then there were the common people, peasants and slaves.

SOURCE 1 A social pyramid showing where each class ranked in ancient Egypt



Nobles, priests, officials and scribes

Nobles formed a wealthy class in ancient Egyptian society. These landowning families lived privileged lives while their large estates were farmed by peasants and labourers. Priests controlled the temples and this role gave them enormous power. The work of administering Egypt and ensuring that the pharaoh's wishes were carried out was done by officials. Most high officials were nobles but some were common people who worked their way up as scribes. Egypt's many scribes, like the man in **SOURCE 2**, ranked below the ruling classes of nobles, priests and officials but above the common people. Because they had been trained to read and write, scribes were employed to keep state records including taxes.

SOURCE 2 A scribe sitting with a papyrus on his lap. It took 12 years of study to become a scribe. This statue depicts Nespekasut, a senior scribe of Karnak, in Upper Egypt.



The ordinary people

Among the common people, **artisans** formed a large group. Young men learned their craft from their fathers. Craftsmen included:

- stonemasons, who made temples, tombs, statues and monuments
- painters, who decorated temples, tombs, coffins and canopic jars
- woodworkers, who carved furniture and other objects
- wigmakers, who made wigs and false beards
- metalworkers
- weavers

- musical instrument makers
- paper makers, who made sheets of papyrus
- jewellers.

Because money was not used in Egypt until the fourth century BCE, craftsmen were paid in food and beer.

Among the more prosperous commoners were merchants, who conducted trade. Peasants were by far the largest group. They were mostly tenant farmers who worked the land owned by the pharaoh, priests and nobles. Most of what they produced went to their landlords or was paid to the state in taxes. Usually their lives were an unchanging cycle of ploughing, planting, harvesting and other farm work.

During the flood they were sometimes expected to labour on the construction of pyramids, temples or the pharaoh's other building projects. There were also many labourers, servants and some slaves.

SOURCE 3 An Egyptian papyrus depicting farming work



DISCUSS

It has been estimated that at least 95 per cent of ancient Egyptians were illiterate. This percentage probably included all Egyptians below the rank of scribe. Discuss what problems this would pose for historians trying to discover the thoughts and feelings of ordinary Egyptians. **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

4.4.2 Everyday life

All houses were made of mud bricks, but while nobles lived in great houses, artisans, peasants and labourers lived in simple huts. Their furniture was made of wood and rushes, and they stored food in pottery jars. From the evidence in sculptures and wall paintings we know quite a lot about people's appearance. Men are depicted wearing tunics or kilts. Women are shown wearing straight dresses (see **SOURCE 4**).

SOURCE 4 A painted limestone statue of a woman, called Merseankh, and her husband, Raherka, from about 2500–2350 BCE



The same sources tell us that Egyptians took part in hunting, enjoyed music and dancing, and played several kinds of board games (see **SOURCE 5**). Children appear to have been valued and loved; they were seen as the main reason for marriage.

SOURCE 5 This ancient Egyptian game box from c. 1400–1200 BCE includes a playing board and a drawer to hold playing pieces.



Food and drink

Ordinary Egyptians ate simple foods. They ate bread, onions and other vegetables, with occasional fish or meat, and drank beer. The ruling classes, however, enjoyed much more. In the tomb of one noblewoman, archaeologists discovered a meal that was meant for the **afterlife**. It consisted of porridge, fish, pigeon, quails, beef, bread, fruits, berries and cheese, with wines and beer to accompany the meal.

Stories, rituals and festivals

Stories played a big part in people's lives. The Egyptians shared myths about their gods, tales of travel and adventure, and stories designed to teach wisdom. Their religion featured many rituals and festivals. In the villages people worshipped their favourite gods at local shrines. At home, families worshipped at household shrines. In the temples, priests performed rituals. Temples, believed to be the dwellings of gods, were not public places. However, during festivals the ordinary people were permitted to take part in temple rituals. These festivals ranged from local celebrations to national events. Among them was the Festival of Opet, in which sacred barges were towed up the Nile while crowds applauded and danced along the river banks.

DID YOU KNOW?

Ancient Egyptians seasoned their food with salt and sweetened it with honey. Discoveries of children's toys from ancient Egypt include models of animals, dolls with movable legs and arms, leather balls and spinning tops.

4.4.3 Everyday lives of women in ancient Egypt

Women in ancient Egypt did not have the same rights as men. In all lower-class families, women were responsible for preparing food, including making bread and beer, and caring for children. In peasant families they also worked in the fields. They were usually not taught to read and write. Apart from work as singers, dancers, musicians, servants, nurses and funeral mourners (people paid to weep and wail at funerals), few careers were open to women. Despite this, they had more freedom than in most other ancient societies, where women were treated as the property of men.

Upper-class women

In ancient Egypt, a woman's rank in society depended on her husband's rank, but high status could also be achieved by the mother of a high-ranking son. Wives and daughters of pharaohs and nobles led privileged lives with fine clothes and many servants. By the beginning of the New Kingdom, about 1550 BCE, such women could inherit, own and sell property. They could work as part-time priestesses and decide whether to marry or divorce. However, marriages between wealthy families were often treated as business arrangements and some wealthy men had several wives. Frequently pharaohs married their own sisters but they had other wives as well.

Some upper-class women became high officials. A woman named Nebet became vizier under Pharaoh Pepy I. Another upper-class Egyptian woman who had great influence was Nefertiti. She was the main wife of Pharaoh Akhenaten (ruled c. 1351–1336 BCE). Queens were less important than pharaohs, but images depict Nefertiti as a very beautiful queen who accompanied her husband at ceremonies and on official occasions. Some images even show her in a war chariot.

SOURCE 6 Mourners painted on the tomb of the vizier Ramoseh



SOURCE 7 From a New Kingdom love poem in which the poet expresses his feelings for a woman he has been parted from for a week

She is more to me than the collected writings ...
When I see her, then I am well.
If she opens her eye, my body is young again;
If she speaks, then I am strong again;
When I embrace her, she drives all evil away from me ...
But she has gone forth from me for seven days!

DID YOU KNOW?

Upper-class women in ancient Egypt possessed a great range of cosmetics and jewellery. Items found include pots for holding kohl (eye shadow), hair curlers, hair tweezers, combs, cosmetics boxes, rings, bead necklaces and collars, amulets, and palettes and stones for grinding cosmetics.

Hatshepsut — a very significant woman

Only a few queens ever ruled in their own right. The most famous of those queens was Hatshepsut. If a pharaoh died while the heir to his throne was still very young, the highest-ranking royal wife could act as regent (someone who rules on behalf of the heir until he is old enough to take the throne). Hatshepsut became regent because, when her husband (and brother) Pharaoh Thutmose II died, Thutmose III, the heir to the throne, was only three years old. A few years later she had herself crowned as pharaoh. She ruled Egypt from about 1479 to 1458 BCE and appears to have led Egypt's armies in at least one war.

4.4 ACTIVITY

Look closely at the mourners in **SOURCE 6**. Working with a partner, design an advertisement for an ancient Egyptian mourner. **Using historical sources as evidence**

4.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was the role of a vizier in ancient Egypt?
2. **HS1** What were the sources of the power of nobles and priests?
3. **HS1** Name three types of artisans. Suggest which artisans might have been regarded as most important and why.
4. **HS1** Explain how the housing of ordinary Egyptians was different from that of the nobles.
5. **HS1** Describe the differences between the food and drink of ordinary Egyptians and that of the ruling classes.
6. **HS1** What did Egyptians do for recreation?
7. **HS1** What careers were open to women in ancient Egypt?
8. **HS1** How much equality did women have with men within:
   (a) lower-class families
   (b) the upper classes?

4.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 2**. Describe how this scribe is portrayed.
2. **HS3** Explain how a person may have become a scribe.
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 3**. Describe what is happening in this scene and explain what evidence it provides for the everyday lives of the peasants
4. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 1** and other information from this subtopic, identify barriers that existed to moving upwards in ancient Egyptian society and how people lower down the social scale might have felt about such barriers.
5. **HS3** Look very closely at **SOURCE 4**. What can this source tell us about everyday life in ancient Egypt?
6. **HS3** Why is **SOURCE 4** useful as evidence for everyday life in ancient Egypt?
7. **HS3** Look closely at the mourners in **SOURCE 6**. Analyse this source to explain what it can tell us about ancient Egyptian society and women's roles in it.
8. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 6** and **7** as your evidence, form a hypothesis about relationships between men and women in ancient Egypt. What other kinds of evidence would you need to support your conclusions?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.5 Pharaoh rules!

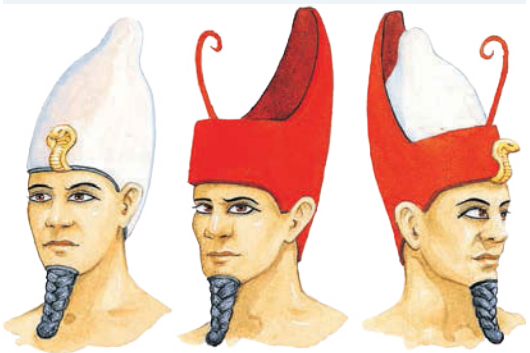
4.5.1 King Narmer and the rise of the pharaohs

The wealthiest, most powerful person in ancient Egypt was the pharaoh. He had the support of an army and a host of priests, scribes and officials, but the pharaoh alone decided how Egypt would be ruled. The people saw him as a god.

Ancient Egypt was once divided into two kingdoms — Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt. Each was ruled by a king. The king of Lower Egypt had his capital in Buto, and the king of Upper Egypt ruled from Hierakonpolis. Around 3100 BCE it is thought that these kingdoms were united under King Narmer. He set up his capital in Memphis.

During the next 2700 years, Egypt's history was divided into a number of distinct periods. Three of the more important of these — times when Egypt was united and powerful, with a rich culture — are called the Old Kingdom, the Middle Kingdom and the New Kingdom.

SOURCE 1 The king of Upper Egypt wore a white crown and the king of Lower Egypt, a red crown. Narmer's crown was said to be a mix of both, signifying a united Egypt.



During these three kingdoms, Egypt's rulers (eventually called pharaohs) came from some 30 dynasties. When a pharaoh died, his eldest son became the next pharaoh, unless a man from another family seized control and started a new dynasty. Sometimes the pharaoh's wife or eldest daughter ruled for a time if the eldest son was very young.

4.5.2 Power and responsibility

Heavenly powers

The ancient Egyptians saw their pharaoh as a man with supernatural powers. He was believed to descend from the sun god, Amun-Ra, and to have the sky god, Horus, living within him.

Egyptians believed that the laws the pharaoh made applied to the whole universe. They believed he made the Nile River flood and helped the land to produce good harvests. As a mark of respect, they did not call him by his name. Rather, they used the word 'pharaoh', which in ancient Egyptian meant 'great house'.

SOURCE 2 The pharaoh's power was evident in his appearance. He wore a false beard and a bull's tail (symbols of pharaonic power), and carried a flail (symbol of Osiris) and shepherd's crook (hieroglyphic sign for a crook meant 'king').



Earthly responsibilities

The people of ancient Egypt expected their pharaoh to protect and feed them, and to maintain a fair justice system and a peaceful society. He drew up the laws of the land and controlled the government and the army. In artworks, he was often portrayed as a military hero (see **SOURCE 3**). Exactly what laws the pharaohs made for their people is something for which we have very little evidence. No written code of laws has survived from ancient Egypt. Nor is there any evidence of a system of law courts. Rather, law cases appear to have been judged by officials who had many other responsibilities.

SOURCE 3 A gold emblem showing Pharaoh Tutankhamen returning from war. This was just one of many priceless objects found in his tomb.



DID YOU KNOW?

Relief carvings show that after battles Egyptian soldiers cut a hand off the body of each dead enemy. These were then heaped into piles, counted by scribes and included in the records to glorify the pharaoh's victories.

He was also in charge of temple building, tax collection, mines, irrigation, trade, important religious ceremonies and the appointment of officials and priests. His huge wealth came from the labour and produce that the people provided as their taxes. Thousands of ordinary people worked the huge farms he owned or helped in the running of his palace. There they worked as cooks, cleaners, dancers, stable workers, craftsmen, weavers and wigmakers.

An obedient, contented society?

Inscriptions and paintings in tombs of pharaohs and officials depict a harmonious society in which ordinary Egyptians worked contentedly in the fields or at their skilled crafts under the rule of the pharaoh. It was an image of a stable society in which everyone accepted their place and never questioned those above them. But how realistic was this?

Some text inscribed on pieces of pottery tell a different story. It is the story of the world's first recorded industrial dispute and it took place during the reign of Pharaoh Rameses III. It tells of tomb builders walking off the job of constructing the royal tomb after the officials in charge failed to pay them the food and supplies to which they were entitled.

SOURCE 4 An ancient scribe's record of the strike of workers employed to construct and decorate the tomb of Rameses III

[The] gang walked out [of the tomb] because they were hungry; there is no wood, no vegetables, no fish. So they went to consult the magistrate ... who declared, '[the people of the Tomb]' are in the right.

DISCUSS

SOURCE 4 describes a tomb builders' strike. Explain how our understanding of ancient Egypt might be very different if we did not have the evidence of this strike. **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

4.5 ACTIVITIES

1. A popular view of ancient Egyptian society until relatively recent times was one of harsh rulers and downtrodden slaves who worked in the fields and on building projects such as the pyramids. That view came from the Old Testament of the Bible and early twentieth-century Hollywood movies. It is contradicted by almost all reliable evidence from primary sources.

   The contrary view is that Egypt was a harmonious and generally stable society in which peasants toiled contentedly in the fields or on the Pharaoh's building projects, and craftsmen obediently carried out their work. This interpretation is supported by primary source evidence. However, **SOURCE 4** gives at least one counter example that supports a slightly different interpretation. That example comes from an inscription on pottery, which records the first known industrial dispute in history. It occurred during the reign of Rameses III, when tomb builders went on strike after officials failed to pay them the food and supplies they were owed.

   In small groups, role-play the discussions among the workers that led to the strike. Discuss the role of the historical context and experience of the workers in reaching their decision to take industrial action. **[Ethical Capability]**
2. Use the internet to locate images of some of the pharaohs' treasures. Several museums hold such objects and you can view them online. Present two images to the class with an explanation of their importance in representing the power of the pharaohs. **Determining historical significance**

4.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Fill in the gaps in this passage.
   It is thought that King Narmer united Egypt in _____ BCE and set up a new capital in _____. In Egypt's long history, the three periods called kingdoms were times when the country was _____ and _____.
2. **HS1** How did someone become a pharaoh?
3. **HS1** In what ways did ancient Egyptians associate their pharaoh with gods?
4. **HS1** What was the source of the pharaoh's wealth?
5. **HS1** Create a mind map to outline the powers and responsibilities of a pharaoh.

4.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS2** Examine the timeline in subtopic 4.1.
   (a) Find the years during which each of the following periods existed: the Old Kingdom, the Middle Kingdom and the New Kingdom.
   (b) Explain how the other periods were different to these three kingdoms.
2. **HS3** Explain how and why Narmer's crown (**SOURCE 1**) combined features of the crowns of Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt.
3. **HS3** Explain what conclusions you can draw from **SOURCES 1, 2** and **3** about the way that pharaohs wanted to be seen and thought of by their people.
4. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 4** using the following questions.
   (a) For what event does this source provide evidence?
   (b) What were the grievances of the striking tomb workers?
   (c) How do you think the workers regarded the pharaoh's officials who were responsible for paying them?
5. **HS3** How does **SOURCE 4** contradict the image in other ancient Egyptian sources of an unchanging, contented society?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.6 Gods and the afterlife

4.6.1 The journey to the afterlife

Death was a very important event for ancient Egyptians. It connected life on Earth with life ever after, so a lot of effort was spent preparing for it. This focus on death has been valuable to historians, because most of what we know about ancient Egypt comes from what has been found in tombs. Many of the **deities** of ancient Egypt, whether good or bad, played a role in a person's journey to the afterlife.

The ancient Egyptians believed the next world was a fantastic place. However, it was a long way away, and reaching it was not easy. First, the dead person had to cross a wide river. Then he or she had to chant secret spells to get through seven gates guarded by fierce monsters, all the while looking out for traps set by evil gods and attacks by savage crocodiles and venomous snakes. Then the dead person's heart was weighed on scales against a feather to see if it was 'heavy with sin'. Forty-two judges decided the outcome.

Preparing for the journey of the soul

The ancient Egyptians believed that a dead person had a number of souls. Two of these were the *ka* and the *ba*. The ka, the person's life force, stayed within the tomb, getting strength from the food and drink left there. The ba, the person's character, set off on its journey towards the afterlife, returning to the tomb to rest each night. To do these things, the soul needed a body. So dead people's bodies were carefully preserved, or embalmed, so they did not rot. An embalmed body is called a mummy.

SOURCE 1 Scenes from the *Book of the Dead of Hunefer*, which dates from around 1310 BCE. It is painted on papyrus. The Egyptians made books of the dead to protect their owners from the perils of the journey to the afterlife. If a heart was found to be 'as light as a feather', its owner joined the god Osiris in the afterlife. If heavy, it was chewed up by a monster god that was a cross between a lion or cheetah, a hippopotamus and a crocodile.



Mummies were buried with lots of the possessions the person's soul might need in the afterlife. They included food and drink, clothing, perfume, furniture, jewellery and special charms called **amulets**. Sometimes small wooden or stone figures representing servants doing activities such as making bread, ploughing a field or sailing a ship were placed in tombs. As well, prayers, hymns and magic spells from the 200 such texts in the *Book of the Dead* were often written on a scroll of papyrus and buried with the mummy or carved in hieroglyphs on the walls of the tomb. These texts were thought to protect the soul from evil and guide it through the afterlife.

SOURCE 2 The figurines were thought to come to life in the tomb and carry out the wishes of the dead person.



After a dead person's body was mummified, a funeral ceremony was held. The body was carried in a boat across the Nile and buried on the western bank, where the sun set. This was the direction in which the next world was believed to lie. Important people, such as pharaohs, were buried in elaborate underground tombs consisting of many rooms and tunnels. Poorer people were buried in the hot, dry sands to help preserve their bodies.

4.6.2 The gods of the ancient Egyptians

There were many deities in ancient Egypt, each looking after some particular area of people's lives. For example, the god Hopi was responsible for the Nile River. Some gods were portrayed as humans and some as animals. Others were a mixture of both — usually animal heads on human bodies.


Anubis


Osiris


Horus


Hathor


Thoth

Name of god	Responsibility	Associated animal or symbol
Amun-Ra	God of creation; god of the sun and king of the gods	The sun
Osiris	God of the dead; god of the afterlife; a judge in the underworld	Pharaoh mummy
Seth	God of confusion and chaos	Hippopotamus
Isis	Mother goddess; goddess of fertility; wife of Osiris	Woman wearing a throne as a crown
Horus	God of the sky; guardian of the pharaoh	Falcon
Hathor	Goddess of beauty and love; goddess of the sky	Woman with cow horns on her head
Thoth	God of the scribes; god of wisdom and knowledge; god of time	Man with the head of an ibis
Anubis	God of embalming; god of tombs and burials	Man with the head of a jackal

SOURCE 3 Herodotus observed how important cats were to the ancient Egyptians. They were thought to protect people's homes. It is no wonder they were chosen as one of the animals to be associated with a god.

What happens when a house catches fire is most extraordinary: nobody takes the least trouble to put it out, for it is only the cats that matter; everyone stands in a row, a little distance from his neighbour, trying to protect the cats, who nevertheless slip through the line, or jump over it, and hurl themselves into the flames. This causes the Egyptians deep distress. All the inmates of a house where a cat has died a natural death shave their eyebrows ...



4.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** Beginning with 'Step 1: The dead person's body was embalmed', list in chronological order each step it was believed an ancient Egyptian had to take to reach the afterlife.
2. **HS1** Explain why ancient Egyptians made books of the dead.

3. **HS1** What was the difference between the ka and the ba?
4. **HS1** Why were mummies buried with possessions?
5. **HS1** Which Egyptian deity (god) was linked to each of these animals: jackal, hippopotamus, falcon, ibis?
6. **HS1** In what ways were the gods Anubis and Osiris particularly important in the journey to the afterlife?

4.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 1** using the following questions.
   (a) The figure on the far left is the dead person. Which of the steps you listed in answering question 1 is shown in this source?
   (b) What is the god with the jackal's head weighing on his scales?
   (c) Why is he doing this?
   (d) According to ancient Egyptian beliefs, will this dead person's soul be allowed to enter the next world?
2. **HS3** Explain why the figurines in **SOURCE 2** would have been placed in a tomb.
3. **HS3** According to Herodotus, **SOURCE 3**, how did ancient Egyptians regard cats? Why might they have been associated with the gods?
4. **HS4** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, identify the main differences between ideas about gods and life after death in ancient Egyptian religion and in any one of the religions that have large followings in the modern world.
5. **HS5** Explain how beliefs about the gods and the afterlife could have contributed to making ordinary Egyptians content with their position in society.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.7 Mummies unwrapped

4.7.1 Dead mummies do tell tales!

The art and hieroglyphs found on the tomb walls of ancient Egyptians, and the mummies made of their dead bodies, have told historians a lot about the way of life of the ancient Egyptians.

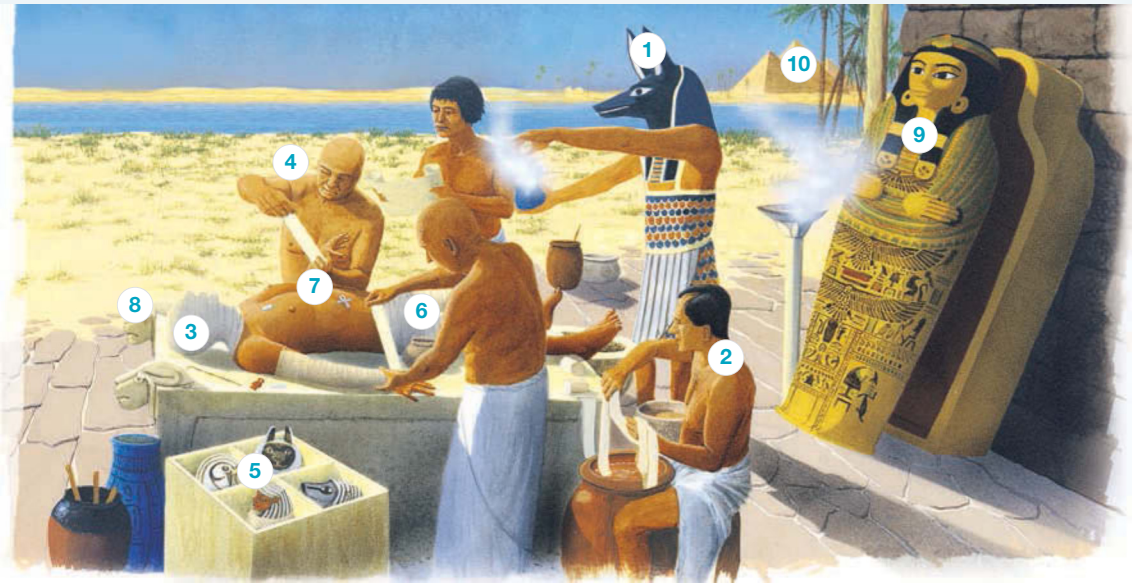
At first, all ancient Egyptians buried their dead in the hot desert sands. However, in time wealthier Egyptians, especially pharaohs, began to build elaborate tombs. They would also mummify bodies so their souls would always have a 'home' to rest in, and be able to 'eat and drink'.

SOURCE 1 The mummy of a six-year-old Egyptian boy



Mummies allow us to have some idea of what famous pharaohs looked like. Scientists and historians can also find out details such as their age, their body shape, whether they had had children, what diseases and health problems they suffered — even, sometimes, what caused their deaths. Researchers have found, for example, that cancer was probably rare or non-existent in ancient Egypt. On the other hand, broken and worn teeth were very common because of their crunching on sand grit and hard pieces of corn that were mixed up in bread.

SOURCE 2 Instructions to a priest for preparing a mummy



1. Have your jackal mask ready so you can dress up as the god Anubis. Learn the prayers and magic spells from the *Book of the Dead*. You will need to chant these over the dead body as you work.
2. Wash the dead body with water or palm wine.
3. Use a long hook to pull out the brains through the left nostril. Throw them away.
4. Cut open the left side of the stomach and remove the liver, lungs, intestines and stomach. Don't remove the heart as it contains the personality.
5. Cover the internal organs with **natron** to absorb all moisture. Rub the dried organs with oils and resin and wrap them in linen bandages. Then push them into **canopic jars**. Make sure you put each organ in the right jar.
6. Cover the body with natron for 40 days to dry it out. Then rub the dried skin with palm oils and ointments. Pack the stomach cavity with perfumed linen and sew up the wound.
7. Place a magic charm over the stomach wound and a scarab (beetle-shaped charm) over the heart. Then wrap the body with linen bandages dipped in gum. Wrap every part separately. You will need about 370 square metres of linen. Wrap amulets and magic charms such as ankhs ( ) in with the bandages. The dead person's soul will need these during its journey to the Kingdom of Osiris.
8. Place a mask made from linen and glue over the person's head and shoulders. If you have time, paint this or cover it in gold leaf. Also place a panel across the top part of the body, decorated with protective magic symbols and drawings.
9. Place the wrapped mummy in a body-shaped coffin that has been decorated with jewels, paintings and inscriptions of spells. Paint the coffin so it looks a bit like the person when he or she was alive. Be flattering!
10. Tell the relatives the mummy and the canopic jars are ready for burial. Your chief priest will need to accompany the funeral procession to the tomb so he can conduct the ceremony to open the mummy's mouth. The person's soul needs to talk in the afterlife. Remember, the professional mourners will be noisy!

4.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What have historians learned about ancient Egyptians by studying mummies?
2. **HS1** Where did all ancient Egyptians originally bury their dead?

3. **HS1** Which social classes changed their burial practices and how did they change them?
4. **HS1** Why did many mummies have broken or worn teeth?
5. **HS1** Write the sentences hidden in the table below by correctly matching the phrases in the left and right columns.

A mummy is	to assist the journey of the dead person's soul.
Natron is	to store organs that were removed from the body.
Bodies were mummified	a body that has been preserved by drying and wrapping.
Canopic jars were used	so that their souls would have a place to rest in.
Magic charms were wrapped in with the bandages	a mineral salt used to dry out dead bodies.

4.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) As the body of this boy is thousands of years old, what do you think would remain of it had it not been mummified?
   (b) Which dating technique could be used to tell us how old it is?
   (c) What might you conclude about the social rank of the boy's family from the fact that his face is painted with gold?
   (d) Explain what else his mummified body might be able to tell us about beliefs, values and practices associated with death and funerary customs in ancient Egypt.
2. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCES 1** and **2**, give a brief explanation of what examining mummified bodies could tell us about differences between the social classes in ancient Egypt.
3. **HS4** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, discuss as a class:
   (a) why preserving bodies was so important to ancient Egyptians
   (b) the similarities and differences between burial practices and ideas about death in ancient Egypt and the modern world.
4. **HS3** Why would a representation of the god Anubis have played a significant role in the scene in **SOURCE 2**? (You may need to look back to the previous subtopic to answer this question.)
5. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 2**, suggest a hypothesis that explains why ancient Egyptian ideas about anatomy led to them throwing away the dead person's brains while other organs were preserved in canopic jars.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.8 Write like an Egyptian

4.8.1 Unlocking the mystery of hieroglyphs

The ancient Egyptians used writing over 5000 years ago, possibly as early as 3100 BCE. At first, they used simple drawings and symbols to represent each word. They wrote on stone, pottery and paper, which they made from papyrus reeds. When the Greeks came to Egypt in the fourth century BCE and saw this writing on temple walls they called the symbols hieroglyphs, which meant 'sacred writing'.

Around the fourth century CE, the secret of reading hieroglyphs was lost and it remained lost for centuries. But in 1799, a French soldier discovered a large black stone at the Egyptian town of Rosetta (now called Rashid). The stone had a written message carved in three different scripts. The scripts were: ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs; a later simplified form of hieroglyphs known as demotic; and, very importantly, ancient Greek, which could still be read and understood. So the 'Rosetta stone', as it became known, made it possible to unlock the mystery of hieroglyphs. Thanks to many years spent by Thomas Young, who was an English scientist, and a Frenchman named Jean François Champollion, the code was broken.

SOURCE 1 The Rosetta Stone — interpretation of its hieroglyphs allowed scholars to learn much about ancient Egypt.



Scholars could now read the many records that the ancient Egyptians had written. These included the king lists, which were kept by priests, and listed the pharaohs and how long they had reigned, as well as myths, legends, hymns, medical and legal documents, and even graffiti.

4.8.2 Writing and reading in ancient Egypt

The hieroglyphic 'alphabet' was much larger than ours — it was made up of more than 700 symbols. Some of these were simple drawings, such as a bird, and others were shapes, such as a semicircle. At first, each symbol stood for a word. As the language became more complex, some symbols came also to stand for other language elements besides single words, such as:

- the sound of a consonant (for example, the symbol for an owl also stood for the sound of the letter *m*)
- the sound of a syllable (for example, the symbol for a board game also stood for the sound of the letters *men*)
- ideas or actions (for example, the symbol for a leg shown twice stood for the idea of movement)
- signals to help the reader understand what was meant. A signal might be put at the end of a word so readers knew it had a different meaning from another of the same symbol. (If we used this technique today, we might place a sketch of a bus at the end of the word 'trip' to show that it meant 'a journey' and not 'to fall over'.)

Reading hieroglyphs

At first, hieroglyphic symbols were laid out in columns. People read down each column, from top to bottom. From about 2000 BCE, the symbols were arranged in rows, more like our writing. Sometimes they were read from left to right (as we read) and other times from right to left. So that the reader knew where to start, a symbol of a person, animal or bird was put at the start or end of the line. The direction in which the symbol faced marked the start of a line. So, if a bird faced right, you would read the line from right to left.

Sometimes a symbol was placed above another, rather than to the side of it. In this event, the symbol on top was read first.

The name of a pharaoh was always enclosed in a cartouche — a bullet-shaped oval.

SOURCE 2 Translators have been able to link hieroglyphic symbols with most of the letters of our alphabet.

Symbols for single sounds

a	b	c, k	d	e,y
f	g	h	i	j
l	m	n	o	p
q	r	s	t	u
w	x	z	th	sh

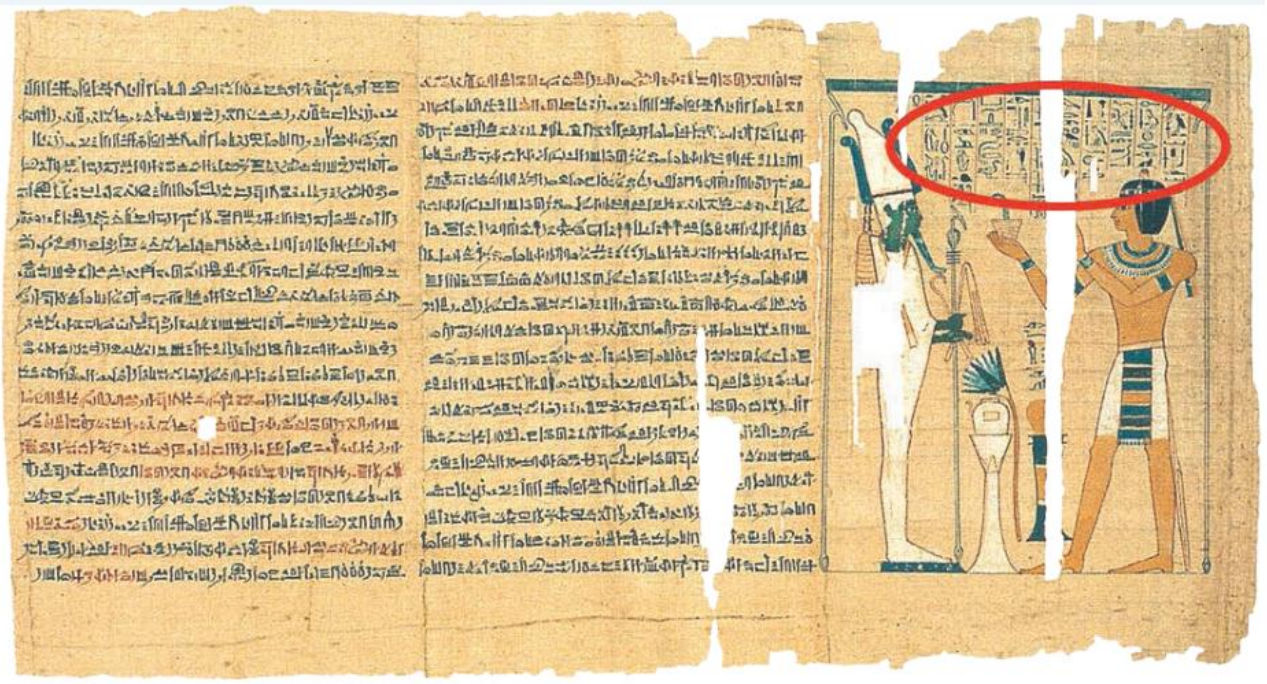
Symbols for syllables

neb	ankh	mer	mes
su	sha	ka	men

Simpler forms

Hieroglyphs were used mainly for religious purposes and in official documents. Priests and scribes could write and read using the system. This is why they can be found in tombs. But hieroglyphs took a lot of time to produce, so simpler, faster scripts were developed. Two other scripts—hieratic script (**SOURCE 3**) and **demotic script**—were used by ordinary people. Both these scripts used hieroglyphic symbols but in simpler forms.

SOURCE 3 This papyrus sheet shows an Egyptian high priest presenting an offering to Osiris, the god of the afterlife. It contains both the hieroglyphic script (circled) and the simpler **hieratic script** (left and centre).



Writing classes

Only boys were taught to read and write. At first, they scratched messages on broken pieces of limestone and pottery. Once they could write, they used sheets of papyrus as paper and sharpened bits of reeds as pens. Their inks were solid blocks of powdered minerals, in different colours, which they mixed with water.

4.8 ACTIVITY

Work in small teams to make a sheet of 'papyrus'. Cut a sheet of thick blotting paper (or similar) into strips. Spray strips with a starch solution until they are wet but not sodden. Then lay them in two crossing layers and beat them together. (Place a sheet of lightly oiled greaseproof paper underneath so the paper can be removed once dry.) Polish the beaten sheet with a stone. Then pin down the corners (to stop curling) and place it in the sun to dry.

Use the piece of 'papyrus' you have made and the hieroglyphic symbols in **SOURCE 2** to create a message for other members of the class to translate. Put these on the display board.

Using historical sources as evidence

4.8 EXERCISES

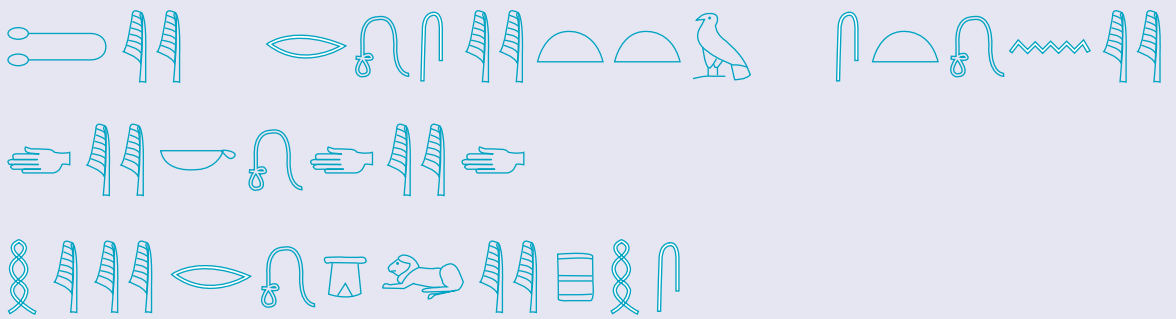
Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** Approximately how long ago was writing first used in Egypt?
2. **HS1** What is the meaning of the Greek word 'hieroglyph'?
3. **HS1** The first hieroglyphic symbols stood for complete words. How and why did that change?
4. **HS1** How were boys taught to write?
5. **HS1** What discovery made it possible for scholars to understand ancient Egyptian writing?

4.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. Describe the feature of the Rosetta Stone that made it possible to unlock the mystery of hieroglyphs.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 3**. Which of the two scripts looks most like modern writing?
3. **HS3** Why did ancient Egyptians need to develop scripts that were more like modern writing than the earlier hieroglyphs?
4. **HS3** Use **SOURCE 2** to decode this message.



5. **HS4** Explain why ancient Egyptians gradually developed scripts that were more like modern writing than the earlier hieroglyphs.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

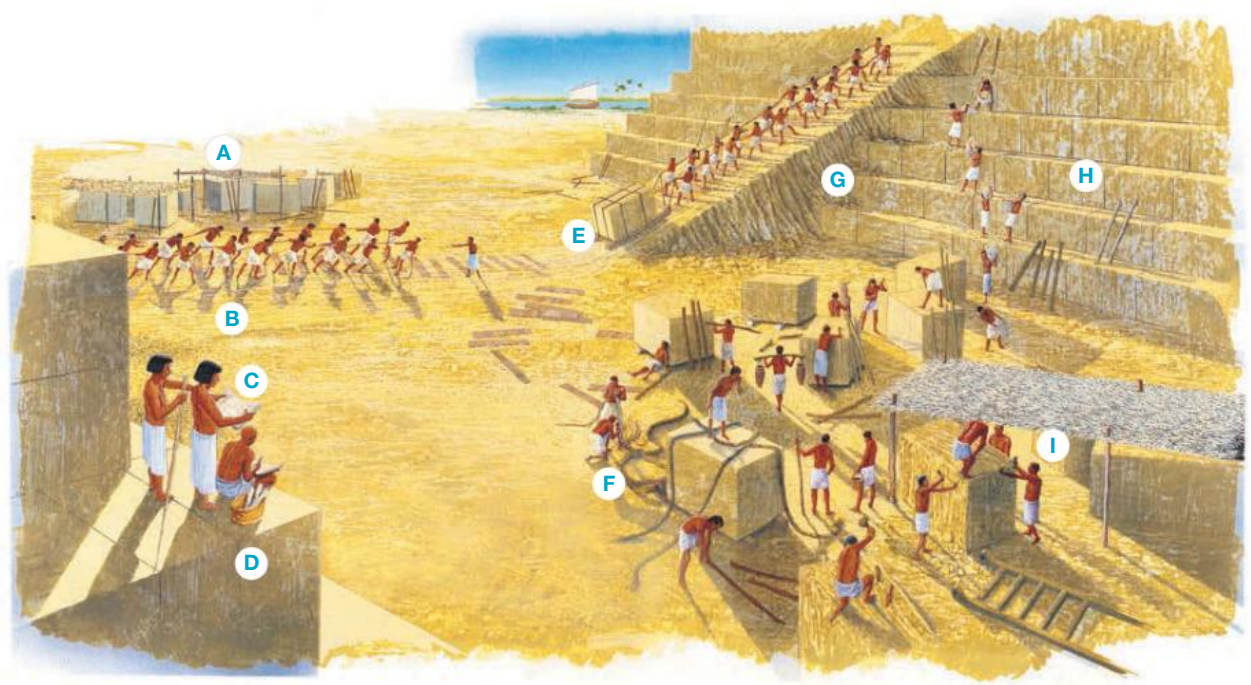
4.9 Pyramid builders

4.9.1 Pyramids and hidden tombs

Built about 4500 years ago, the 80 or so pyramids in Egypt are the oldest human-made structures in the world. Of these, the famous three at Giza, near Cairo, are the most impressive. Their construction is an amazing feat of technology. Yet no-one knows for sure how they were built. The ancient Egyptians had only simple tools made of stone, wood and bronze. They had no cranes, computers, rock cutters or heavy earth-moving equipment.

From about 2500 BCE, the mummies and treasures of important people, such as pharaohs, were usually entombed in pyramids. This practice lasted only about 500 years, however, because robbers were a major problem. Thereafter, tombs for such people were dug into mounds and cliffs in the **Valley of the Kings**. But even these were not completely safe. Over time, they were all raided, except one — the tomb of the pharaoh Tutankhamen.

SOURCE 1 The pyramids at Giza in Egypt are the only remaining 'wonder' of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.



- **A** Between 200 and 300 granite blocks would have been set in place every day.
- **B** It is thought the workmen might have dragged the blocks over soft sand on top of wooden sleds. On harder surfaces, the blocks may have been moved on top of rolling logs.
- **C** Architects and other overseers controlled different aspects of the work, using scribes to document details. Skilled craftsmen included stonemasons and carpenters.
- **D** The sides of the pyramids once had an outer layer of polished white limestone. Most of this was later taken down and used to decorate buildings in Cairo.
- **E** Some of the granite blocks are thought to have been cut from rock faces in Aswan, and the limestone from quarries to the east. Both are likely to have reached the site via barges on the Nile River.
- **F** Historians think that around 100 000 men (never slaves) would have worked full time for about 20 years to build the Great Pyramid.
- **G** Huge sand ramps may have been erected to drag blocks up to higher levels.
- **H** The blocks were cut so cleanly that a knife blade can barely be pushed in between them. Blocks may have been cut by driving wooden stakes into the stone and wetting them. As the stakes expanded, they would have split the rock.
- **I** Workers made sure the edges of blocks were square.

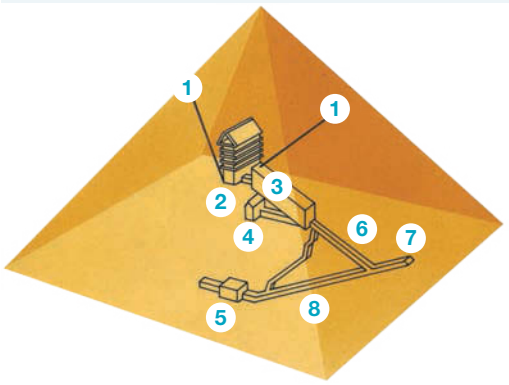
The **Great Pyramid** at Giza, built around 2550 BCE, was the tomb of the pharaoh Khufu. The other two were built for his son Khafre and grandson Menkure. The Great Pyramid, the biggest of the three, is close to 150 metres high and contains around 2 300 000 granite blocks, each of which weighs around 2.5 tonnes.

Pyramid mysteries

Some say the technology of the pyramids is so astonishing that they must have been built by an alien intelligence.

Another view is that those who built the pyramids at Giza, and the **Great Sphinx** that guards them, used knowledge and skills passed down from an old but highly advanced civilisation that existed long before the Old Kingdom in Egypt. But archaeologists and historians prefer more scientific explanations.

SOURCE 2 Inside the Great Pyramid



1. Air shafts
2. Pharaoh's burial chamber
3. Grand gallery
4. Queen's chamber
5. False chamber
6. Ascending corridor
7. Entrance
8. Descending corridor

Heavenly sails

One treasure the robbers missed in the Great Pyramid was a 43-metre-long boat, built to carry Khufu to the afterlife. It was not found until 1954. It had been broken into 1224 pieces before being packed into a rock cavity near the base of the pyramid. The cavity was so tightly sealed that when archaeologists broke into it they could still smell the cedar oil in the wood — after 4500 years!

4.9 ACTIVITY

Use the internet to conduct research on the Giza pyramids. Prepare a short report on your findings. Include appropriate images. **Using historical sources as evidence**

4.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the tools and equipment used by ancient Egyptian pyramid builders.
2. **HS1** How many famous pyramids are there at Giza?
3. **HS1** The Great Pyramid of Giza was built as the tomb of which ruler?
4. **HS1** What was the main purpose of the pyramids?
5. **HS4** Explain why the pharaohs stopped building pyramids after 500 years and switched to tombs dug into cliffs and mounds in the Valley of the Kings.

4.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** **SOURCE 1** shows the steps involved in the building of a pyramid. Select three of these steps and explain what tools and equipment would be needed by the workers in order to do their job.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**. Imagine that you are an ancient Egyptian who is planning to rob Khufu's tomb. Write a note to your accomplice explaining how to get into the pharaoh's burial chamber and what to look out for.
3. **HS4** Imagine that you are a worker on the pyramid who had access to two pieces of modern equipment. Explain what modern equipment you would use and how that would change your task.
4. **HS3** Many old Hollywood movies incorrectly gave the impression that the pyramids were built by slaves. Describe how the scene in **SOURCE 1** would have been different if they were correct.
5. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 2**, suggest a reason why a false chamber would have been incorporated in the design of a pyramid.

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4.10 Tutankhamen, Akhenaten and Nefertiti

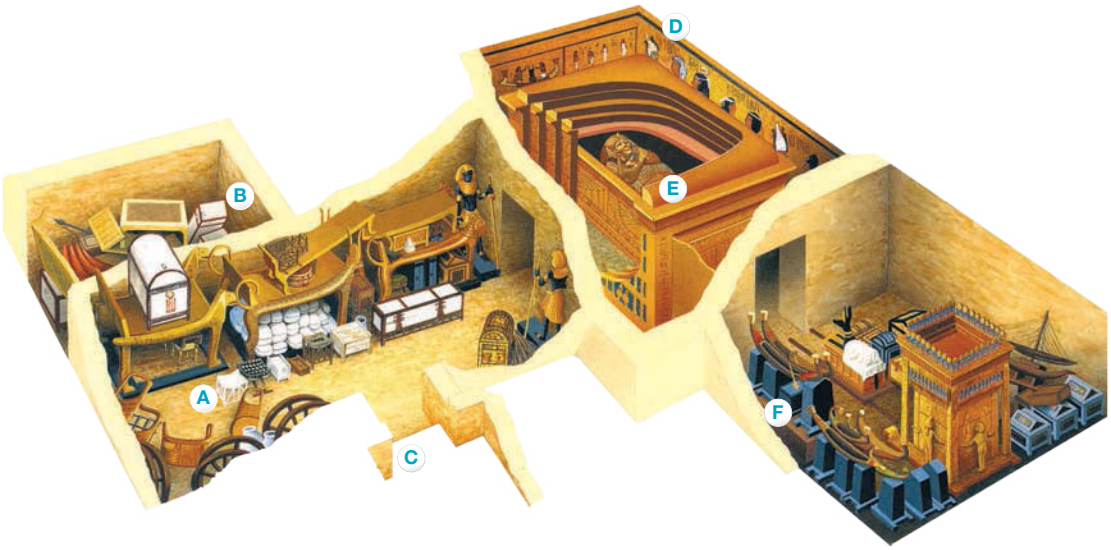
4.10.1 An archaeologist's dream

The discovery of the tomb of Tutankhamen was the key archaeological event of the twentieth century — but not because of the man or the size of his tomb. Tutankhamen was still a teenager when he died and the tomb had only four chambers. It was important because its contents were untouched. More than 5000 objects were found, some of them priceless. We can only imagine what might have been found in the large tombs of more famous pharaohs if they had not been robbed.

In 1922, the British archaeologist Howard Carter found the tomb of Tutankhamen. He had looked for it for years in the Valley of the Kings without success. Then he decided to dig up an area around some old workers' huts. To his excitement, a step was uncovered, carved into the rock. More digging revealed the sealed entrance to a passageway that carried the seal of Tutankhamen. Yet more digging to remove the tonnes of rubble in the passageway revealed the stone door to the tomb.

A hole was cut in the door and Carter inserted a lit candle into the darkness behind. He later said: 'At first I could see nothing ... But presently, as my eyes grew accustomed to the light, details of the room emerged slowly from the mist, strange animals, statues and gold — everywhere the glint of gold'.

SOURCE 1 The discovery of Tutankhamen's tomb was described in the *Illustrated London News* of 9 December 1922 as 'the most sensational Egyptological discovery of the century'.



- **A** The antechamber, the first chamber Carter entered, contained about 700 pieces of furniture including stools, beds and gold couches with animal heads, chairs, a chariot (in bits) and two black and gold life-size statues either side of the entrance. There were also jars of oil, lamps, vases, musical instruments, board games and clothing.
- **B** This side chamber contained about 600 items, including pieces of wooden furniture, baskets of food, jars of wine and oil.
- **C** About 200 000 tonnes of rubble had to be removed from this passageway to reach Tutankhamen's tomb.
- **D** Inside the gold-covered burial chamber, some five metres long and 3.5 metres wide, were three other decorated chambers, each inside the other. The inner one was a stone **sarcophagus**, carved with Tutankhamen's name. Inside this were three elaborately decorated body-shaped coffins. The inner one, made of 1100 kilograms of gold, contained Tutankhamen's **mummy**.
- **E** The face and shoulders of Tutankhamen's mummy were covered with a mask of solid gold. It was decorated with blue glass and semi-precious stones such as turquoise and lapis lazuli.
- **F** The treasury chamber contained the pharaoh's treasures. In it was the gold-lined shrine holding the canopic jars. Inside these jars were the pharaoh's mummified internal organs. The chamber also contained gold statues including one of the god Anubis (who guarded the treasures), as well as boats, weapons, a golden throne and chests of jewellery.

4.10.2 A new mystery?

The last significant pharaoh before Tutankhamen was Akhenaten, who became pharaoh in about 1353 BCE, under the name Amenhotep IV. In the fifth year of his reign he appears to have initiated a religious revolution in Egypt. He erected a new temple to the sun disk god Aten, changed his name to Akhenaten, meaning 'he who serves Aten' and decreed that in place of the many ancient gods of Egypt the people must worship only the Aten. Images of Akhenaten and many traces of the new religion were deliberately destroyed after his death.

SOURCE 2 Head of the 19-year-old pharaoh Tutankhamen



Akhenaten's first wife was Nefertiti. She was depicted as a very elegant and beautiful woman in a limestone bust dated c. 1340 BCE (see **SOURCE 4**) and in many images worshipping Aten with her husband.

Tutankhamen was married to the third daughter of Akhenaten and Nefertiti, and was only about nine years old when he became pharaoh in about 1336 BCE. Under Tutankhamen, Egypt made a complete return to the traditional gods. In inscriptions he was referred to as the good ruler who restored 'what was ruined'. He died aged just 19, leaving no heir to the throne. The head of his mummy is shown in **SOURCE 2**. As revealed in **SOURCE 5**, it now appears that Tutankhamen might not have been alone in his tomb.

SOURCE 3 Translated inscription Tutankhamen had carved into a stone column, marking a return to the worship of many gods

I found the temples fallen into ruin, with their holy places overthrown and their courts overgrown with weeds. I reconstructed their sanctuaries, I endowed the temples and made them gifts of all precious things. I cast statues of the gods in gold and electrum, decorated with lapis lazuli and all fine stones.

SOURCE 4 A limestone bust of Nefertiti. It is dated c. 1340 BCE and is held in the Egyptian Museum Berlin.



SOURCE 5 'Egypt's Queen Nefertiti may lie concealed in Tutankhamun's tomb, say archaeologists', ABC News, 5 October 2015

High resolution scans indicate that Queen Nefertiti is buried behind one or two hidden chambers in King Tutankhamun's underground tomb, a British archaeologist says.

...

Dr Nicholas Reeves, from the University of Arizona, has been using radar and thermal imaging technology to examine Tutankhamun's tomb ...

He told a news conference in Cairo that he believes Tutankhamun's mausoleum was originally occupied by Nefertiti.

...

His theory is that Nefertiti has lain undisturbed behind what he believes is a partition wall for more than 3000 years.

The archaeologist believes the boy king, who died unexpectedly at 19, was buried in a rush in an underground burial chamber that was probably not intended for him.

4.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why was Tutankhamen's tomb such a rare and significant discovery?
2. **HS1** How did Howard Carter find Tutankhamen's tomb?
3. **HS1** Explain the meaning of the following concepts and terms: burial chamber, treasury chamber, sarcophagus.
4. **HS1** Who were Akhenaten and Nefertiti?
5. **HS1** What big change did Akhenaten bring to Egyptian society and religion?

4.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 1**, identify and select one of the types of items that were found in each of the following: the antechamber, the side chamber, the burial chamber, the treasury chamber. Explain what archaeologists and historians might discover about life in ancient Egypt from each of your four chosen items.
2. **HS3** Where (see **SOURCE 1**) was Tutankhamen's head (**SOURCE 2**) found?
3. **HS3** Read Tutankhamen's inscription in **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Who caused Egyptian religion to change before Tutankhamen's reign?
   (b) How would you account for the temples having 'fallen into ruin'?
   (c) Describe the effect of Tutankhamen's reign on Egyptian religion and explain why Tutankhamen might have found it necessary to undertake the works referred to here.
4. **HS3** Describe the way that Nefertiti is portrayed in **SOURCE 4**, the limestone bust.
5. **HS3** Look again at **SOURCE 1** and read **SOURCE 5**.
   (a) What was Dr Reeves's hypothesis about Nefertiti and Tutankhamen's tomb?
   (b) Where in **SOURCE 1** do you think the partition wall and hidden chambers could possibly be?
6. **HS3** What evidence did Reeves offer to support his hypothesis?
7. **HS3** Reeves's theory was immediately criticised by other archaeologists. What does this tell you about contestability in history?
8. **HS4** Think about all you have learned about the ancient Egyptians in this topic.
   (a) Discuss and explore the way the ancient Egyptian people might have felt about Akhenaten's religious changes.
   (b) Explain why we have no real evidence of what ordinary Egyptians thought about these changes.
9. **HS4** Based on what you now know about religious issues from the reign of Akhenaten to the death of Tutankhamen, write a paragraph explaining what we can conclude about change and continuity in this period of ancient Egyptian history.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.11 Expansion and fall

4.11.1 From the Old Kingdom to the New Kingdom

Throughout history, all empires have been created by force and all have eventually fallen. There were periods in Egypt's long history when it suffered from **civil wars** and invasions. There were also times of strong governments that drove invaders out of the land and took control of other countries (see the timeline in subtopic 4.1).

One of the worst times was the First Intermediate Period. The collapse of the Old Kingdom was followed by a century of bloodshed as nobles fought each other for control of the country. This made it easy for foreigners to move into the Nile Delta.

Contacts and conflicts

Egypt's relations with other countries involved trade as well as war. Egypt traded with the Phoenicians and others to the north but its most important trade was with Nubia to the south. Egypt traded beer, wine, cheese, oil, linen and tools for Nubian copper, gold, jewels, ebony, ivory, exotic animals and

slaves (see **SOURCE 1**). Yet Egypt was also often in conflict with Nubia. During the Middle Kingdom, it took part of Nubia and built forts to control the routes to its gold mines. Around the same time Egypt attacked the Libyans and other desert tribes to its north.

SOURCE 1 A scene on a wall of the tomb of Sobekhotep. It shows Africans, probably Nubians, carrying ebony logs, leopard skins, gold rings, giraffe tails and a live baboon.



SOURCE 2 Wooden models of Egyptian soldiers of the Middle Kingdom in four columns



DID YOU KNOW?

Egypt's army was at first made up mostly of peasants called up whenever needed. By New Kingdom times Egypt had a permanent army with chariots, archers and infantry armed with spears, battle axes, swords and daggers. It appears also to have included conscripted prisoners of war and foreign **mercenaries**.

Wars of the New Kingdom

Egypt was again weak in the Second Intermediate Period when the Hyksos invaded from the north-east. This time was followed by the New Kingdom, the time of Egypt's greatest power. At the start of this period, the armies of Pharaoh Ahmose defeated the Hyksos who had occupied Egypt. Ahmose also regained control of northern Nubia. In the fifteenth century BCE, Egypt defeated a coalition of **Asiatic** princes at the Battle of Megido. The territory occupied by modern Israel, Lebanon and Syria became part of the Egyptian Empire. Later pharaohs fought against the Hittites to keep control of these lands. In these wars Egypt plundered its defeated enemies and gained more wealth from the tribute (treasure, slaves and livestock) that had to be paid by conquered rulers.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- The Mediterranean world > **Egypt — the Old Kingdom**
- The Mediterranean world > **Egypt — the Middle Kingdom**
- The Mediterranean world > **Egypt — the New Kingdom**

4.11.2 Decline and fall

Egypt became weaker after the time of Rameses II. Libyans and 'Peoples of the Sea' invaded the Nile Delta. These invaders were defeated many times (see **SOURCE 3**) but gradually Egypt lost its unity and its empire. The priests came to control Upper Egypt, while Lower Egypt was ruled by princes. In the Late Dynastic Period the country fell under the control of Nubians. In about 663 BCE the Assyrians took most of Egypt into their empire. Bronze Age Egypt had no iron ore and could not match the Assyrians' iron weapons. Later, Egypt fell under the rule of the Persians, followed by the Greeks and then the Romans.

SOURCE 3 From an inscription in the temple of Pharaoh Rameses III at Thebes describing a victory over the 'Peoples of the Sea', in about 1188 BCE

Year 8 under the majesty of [Rameses III] ... foreign countries made a conspiracy. No land could stand before their arms ... they were coming forward toward Egypt ... I have the river mouths prepared like a strong wall, with warships, galleys and coaster ... The troops consisted of every picked man of Egypt. They were like lions ... The chariotry consisted ... of every good and capable chariot-warrior. Those who reached my frontier ... were dragged in, enclosed on the beach, killed and made into heaps ...

4.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why were foreigners able to invade Egypt's Nile Delta during the First Intermediate Period?
2. **HS1** During which times was Egypt strongest and weakest?
3. **HS1** List the lands that Egypt controlled during its strongest period?
4. **HS1** Name the groups that invaded Egypt after the time of the New Kingdom Pharaoh Rameses II.
5. **HS1** Why was Egypt unable to match the military might of the Assyrians?

4.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Describe the details in the source.
   (b) Make a list of the things the Africans, probably Nubians, are carrying.
   (c) Outline what **SOURCE 1** can probably tell us about Egypt's trade with Nubia.
2. **HS3** Study the models of soldiers in **SOURCE 2**. Identify the two items that you can see the soldiers carrying.
3. **HS3** Analyse the inscription of Rameses III in **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Describe its style.
   (b) Suggest why it would be written in such a style.
   (c) Imagine that you are a high ranking official in the time of Rameses III. In the style of **SOURCE 3**, write a message congratulating the Pharaoh on his victory.
4. **HS2** Identify the groups that dominated Egypt during the Late Dynastic Period and afterwards and list them in chronological order.
5. **HS5** Using all three sources as your evidence, examine and write a short explanation of the roles played by war and trade in Egypt's rise and decline. In your answer, you could describe Egypt's changing relations with Nubia and explain why Egypt fought other peoples, how wars enriched Egypt during the New Kingdom and why Egypt eventually declined and collapsed.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.12 Rameses II—Egypt's greatest pharaoh?

4.12.1 Who was Rameses II?

You have already encountered several rulers of ancient Egypt. They include: Narmer, the first pharaoh of both Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt; Khufu, for whom the Great Pyramid was built; Hatshepsut, the most famous of Egypt's queens; and Tutankhamen, who became famous because his tomb was discovered with its contents untouched. However, many historians have regarded Rameses II, who ruled Egypt between c. 1279 and 1212 BCE, as the greatest of all pharaohs.

Rameses II (sometimes spelled *Ramses* and *Ramesses*) was probably born about 1303 BCE. He was a son of King Seti I. Rameses was in his early twenties when he became Egypt's ruler. He held that position for longer than any other pharaoh. Because of his military campaigns and building projects, including temples and cities, he became known as Rameses the Great.

SOURCE 1 The head of the colossal statue of Rameses II at the Temple of Luxor in central Egypt



The warrior king

In about 1278 BCE, Rameses' navy defeated the sea pirates who had been attacking Egyptian trading ships in the Mediterranean Sea. Rameses commanded an army of possibly 100 000 men. He gained fame through many battles in which Egypt fought the Hittite Empire to its north and the Nubians to its south. During these campaigns, Rameses' forces repelled invasions, regained territories Egypt had lost under previous pharaohs and secured Egypt's borders.

4.12.2 Fighting the Hittites

Over 20 years, from about 1277 BCE, Rameses led a series of campaigns against the Hittite Empire. In the first campaign, Rameses defeated several Palestinian princes and captured Amurra, a **vassal state** of the Hittite Empire in Syria.

SOURCE 2 This relief sculpture in Luxor shows Hittite soldiers being crushed under the wheels of Rameses II's chariot at the Battle of Kadesh.

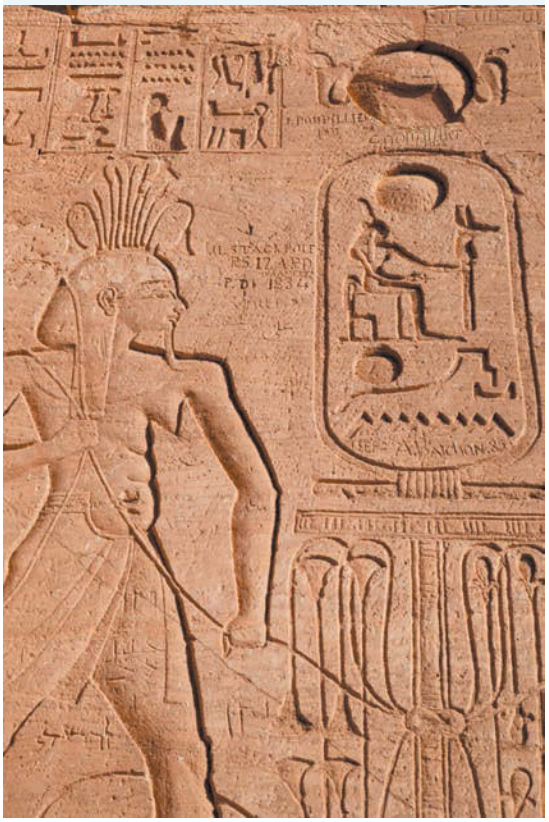


In the following year, Rameses led his armies to attack the Hittite-controlled city of Kadesh. His army consisted of four divisions, with Rameses personally leading the Amun division. However, the waiting Hittite army ambushed another Egyptian division as it was crossing a river, causing the soldiers to flee. According to Egyptian records, in the ensuing battle, Rameses found himself isolated from his forces but, almost single-handed, he defeated an overwhelming Hittite force, killing vast numbers as he escaped (see **SOURCE 3**). Although the Battle of Kadesh was a **stalemate** and the Hittites remained in Syria, Rameses declared the battle a great Egyptian victory.

SOURCE 3 From a poem inscribed by order of Rameses II on the walls of five temples to commemorate his victory at Kadesh

In the midst of many peoples, all unknown,
Unnumbered as the sand,
Here I stand,
All alone;
There is no-one at my side;
My warriors and chariots afeared [frightened],
Have deserted me ...
... Two thousand and five hundred pairs of horses were around,
And I flew into the middle of their ring,
By my horse-hoofs they were dashed all in pieces to the ground ...

SOURCE 4 Rameses II in a detail from sculptures and hieroglyphs on his temple at Abu Simbel



In later campaigns, spread between the seventh and twenty-first years of his reign, Rameses captured Hittite territory. But neither side was able to win a decisive victory and, in about 1258 BCE, the conflict ended with a peace treaty.

Great ruler or great bragger?

Historians have a vast number of primary sources about Rameses' achievements because, more than any other pharaoh, he was a great builder of monuments that glorified his deeds. Enormous numbers of huge statues were constructed, portraying him as a handsome, smiling and powerful ruler. At his temple at Abu Simbel, each of the four statues of Rameses II carved out of the face of a cliff is almost 20 metres tall. Records of his exploits, including scenes of him crushing the Hittites, were engraved deeply on monuments and temples throughout Egypt. So great was his reputation that nine future pharaohs took his name.

DID YOU KNOW?

During the 1960s, an international operation was conducted to save the temple at Abu Simbel and its statues. The entire site was carefully cut into sections and moved to higher ground. This was done to save it from being submerged beneath the rising water behind Egypt's new Aswan High Dam.

4.12 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the internet to find other images and inscriptions about Rameses II. Create a poster to display these images and inscriptions. **Determining historical significance**
2. Using evidence from all sources in this subtopic evaluate the significance of Rameses II in a response of at least one page to the following question: Which is more likely — that Rameses II was significant as a great leader or as a great bragger? **Determining historical significance**

4.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Name three groups of enemies defeated under Rameses II.
2. **HS1** Why did he come to be known as Rameses the Great?
3. **HS1** Who did Rameses II's forces fight at the Battle of Kadesh?
4. **HS1** Was the Battle of Kadesh really an Egyptian victory?
5. **HS1** How did the conflict with the Hittites end in 1258 BCE?

4.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**. Describe the impression of Rameses II that is conveyed by this colossal head and explain why he would have wanted to be portrayed this way.
2. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 2** and read **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) According to **SOURCE 2**, what happened to Hittite soldiers at the Battle of Kadesh?
   (b) According to **SOURCE 3**, why were Rameses II's soldiers not at his side, how many enemies did he face and how did he defeat them?
   (c) Do **SOURCE 2** and **SOURCE 3** give conflicting or supporting evidence?
   (d) Are these sources reliable or unreliable? Give reasons for your answer.
   (e) How might the soldiers who fought for Rameses II have felt about what was inscribed in **SOURCE 3**?
3. **HS3** What problems for historians are created by the fact that all four sources in this subtopic and most other primary sources about Rameses II were produced on his orders?
4. **HS2** Place the main events of Rameses II's life on a timeline.
5. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 3** and **4**, describe how Rameses II wished to be remembered.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.13 Egypt's heritage

4.13.1 The greatest legacies

The ancient Egyptian civilisation lasted for thousands of years. The Egyptians discovered how to make paper. They created a unique writing system, invented a calendar similar to the one used today and produced a system of mathematics that enabled them to make complicated calculations. Yet very little of ancient Egypt's culture has been handed down. In modern Egypt, nearly all people follow the religions of Islam or Christianity rather than the ancient beliefs of the land, and there is no connection between the arts, society and systems of government of modern and ancient Egypt.

SOURCE 1 'Ruins of 7000-year-old city found in Egypt oasis', ABC, 30 January 2008

A team of US archaeologists has discovered the ruins of a city dating back to the period of the first farmers 7000 years ago in Egypt's Fayyum oasis, the supreme council of antiquities said.

'An electro-magnetic survey revealed the existence in the Karanis region of a network of walls and roads similar to those constructed during the Greco-Roman period,' the council's chief, Zahi Hawwas, said.

The remnants of the city are 'still buried beneath the sand and the details of this discovery will be revealed in due course,' Mr Hawwas said.

'The artefacts consist of the remains of walls and houses in terracotta or dressed limestone as well as a large quantity of pottery and the foundations of ovens and grain stores,' he added.

The remains date back to the Neolithic period between 5200 and 4500 BCE.

The local director of antiquities, Ahmed Abdel Alim, said the site was just seven kilometres from Fayyum lake and would probably have lain at the water's edge at the time it was inhabited.

Egypt's greatest legacies to modern times are its archaeological wonders, especially its pyramids, tombs and temples, which have amazed generations. In the past, many of Egypt's archaeological treasures were taken to other lands, where they ended up in museums or private collections. There has been much debate about whether they should rightfully be returned to Egypt. Whatever happens in the future, we can be sure that people will continue to be fascinated by such artefacts, especially the many mummies that are displayed in museums throughout the world.

Ongoing discoveries

Egypt continues to yield up fascinating discoveries. In 1999, archaeologists discovered a tomb complex thought to contain thousands of mummies from the time when Egypt was ruled by Greeks and Romans. This was seen as proof that these conquerors adopted much of Egypt's culture. In 2008, another group of archaeologists discovered the ruins of a city from the time of Egypt's first New Stone Age farmers. Ancient Egypt has yet to reveal all its secrets.

SOURCE 2 The painted wood coffin of Pharaoh Rameses IV (1153–1147 BCE)



SOURCE 3 The mummy of Katebet, a woman of wealth and high status who died around 1300 BCE



SOURCE 4 Pyramids at Giza. The Great Pyramid of Khufu towers above the others.



4.13 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

4.13 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How has Egypt's culture changed since ancient times?
2. **HS1** Name one invention devised in ancient Egypt.
3. **HS1** What usually became of ancient archaeological treasures that were taken from Egypt?
4. **HS1** What did archaeologists discover in Egypt in 1999?
5. **HS1** What are ancient Egypt's greatest legacies?

4.13 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Why do mummies and coffins, such as those in **SOURCES 2** and **3**, continue to fascinate people?
2. **HS3** On Katebet's mummy, below the image of painted arms, are from top to bottom: a winged goddess, a scarab, an image of Anubis and a shabti figurine. Use the knowledge you have gained from this topic to explain the significance of at least two of these.
3. **HS3** How would the appearance of the Great Pyramid (as illustrated in **SOURCE 4**) have been different in ancient times from the way it appears today? *(Hint:* Refer to subtopic 4.9.)
4. **HS4** Explain how the discoveries in Egypt's Fayyum Oasis (see **SOURCE 1**) provide further evidence of continuity of ancient Egypt's civilisation.
5. **HS6** Describe the historical significance of the discoveries described in **SOURCE 1** for our understanding of New Stone Age times.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

4.14 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

online only

What are the main ancient Egyptian primary sources?

Ancient Egyptian primary sources include pyramids, tombs, temples, mummies, coffins, art and written records on stone and papyrus.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

4.15 Thinking Big research project: Ancient Egyptian archaeological excavation

online only

SCENARIO

Apply for a role at an archaeological dig in Egypt. Interested students have been asked to identify sites in Egypt where significant remains could be unearthed during an archaeological excavation, explain what types of traces might be found at these sites, and submit their research as an application.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Ancient Egyptian archaeological excavation (pro-0228)

4.16 Review

online only

4.16.1 Key knowledge summary

Use the dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

4.16.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32120)
Crossword (doc-32121)

Interactivity Ancient Egypt crossword (int-7693)

KEY TERMS

afterlife life after death
amulet charm believed to protect against evil
artisans skilled craftspeople
Asiatic peoples of Asia, including the Middle East
civil war war between rival factions within one state or country
canopic jars jars used to store the liver, lungs, intestines and stomach of the person being mummified
deities gods or goddesses
delta low, triangular area where a river fans out as it nears the sea
demotic script the simplest of the ancient Egyptian scripts, which was almost like handwriting
Great Pyramid the oldest and largest pyramid in Egypt; one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World
Great Sphinx monument with the body of a lion and the face of a man; located in Giza near the Great Pyramid
hieratic script Egyptian script that was less decorative and complex than hieroglyphs
Inundation the seasonal flooding of the Nile
mercenaries people who fight for a foreign country for money or other rewards
mummy body that has been embalmed
natron a mineral salt used to dry out dead bodies
papyrus paper made from crushing reeds
sarcophagus stone or wooden coffin (often inscribed or decorated) in Egypt
shadoof irrigation device used to lift water from the river
stalemate a situation in a contest or conflict in which neither side can defeat the other
Valley of the Kings gorge on the Nile in Upper Egypt that contains many royal tombs
vassal state a state whose ruler recognises another, more powerful ruler as his overlord

4.14 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

4.14.1 Tell me

What are the main ancient Egyptian primary sources?

Primary sources from ancient Egypt include pyramids, tombs, temples, mummies, coffins and written records on stone and papyrus. They also include art such as models, statues and the paintings that decorated papyruses, coffins, canopic jars and the walls of tombs and temples.

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate ancient Egyptian primary sources?

It is important to analyse and corroborate ancient Egyptian primary sources because almost all of our knowledge about ancient Egypt comes from primary sources. Works of art, in particular, tell us much about the lives of Egypt's rulers. Some also provide evidence about ordinary Egyptians. Some show peasants and labourers working in the fields, artisans busy at their trades and women grinding grain, weaving cloth and brewing beer.

4.14.2 Show me

How do we analyse and corroborate ancient Egyptian primary sources?

When you study a primary source, you need to think carefully about the clues it provides and ask questions about its accuracy, usefulness and reliability. You need to ask questions such as:

- What is it?
- Who created it and when was it created?
- Who or what was it created for?
- For what aspect of ancient Egyptian history does it provide useful evidence?
- Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
- What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Egyptian society?

These questions have been applied to **SOURCE 1**.

SOURCE 1 A fragment of a scene on a wall panel in the tomb of Sobekhotep, a senior Egyptian treasury official during the reign of Thutmose IV (c. 1419–1386 BCE)



- *What is it?* It is a scene from a wall panel in a tomb.
- *Who created it and when was it created?* We cannot know the name of the artist/s who created it but we do know that it was created around 1419 to 1386 BCE.
- *Who or what was it created for?* It was painted to decorate the tomb of an Egyptian official named Sobekhotep.
- *For what aspect of ancient Egyptian history does it provide useful evidence?* It provides evidence that ancient Egyptian craftspeople included talented artists, such as those who created this scene. It shows Egyptian craftsmen manufacturing jewellery so it provides useful evidence for such work. Therefore, it would be useful for any study of the skills and methods of Egyptian craftsmen.
- *Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?* We might assume that the artists who depicted such scenes based them on what they saw in Egypt. However, to test the accuracy and reliability of this source we would need to compare it with other artworks and written manuscripts that describe the same kinds of work.
- *What conclusions can we draw from* **SOURCE 1** *about ancient Egyptian society?* We could conclude that crafts, such as manufacturing jewellery, were highly organised with specialised workers in factory-type workshops. This meant that agriculture produced a surplus that freed such workers from the need to produce food. There must also have been a privileged class that consumed the luxury products produced in the workshops. There was probably also foreign trade in these products.

4.14.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

4.14 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the six questions to interpret **SOURCE 2** as evidence for the lives of the people of ancient Egypt.

SOURCE 2 A fragment of a painting in the tomb of Nebamun. It was made around 1350 BCE and shows a banquet scene divided into two registers (levels).



2. Apply your skills to answer the following questions.

(a) Using your answers to the questions on **SOURCES 1** and **2**, write a brief general statement about work and social life in ancient Egypt.

(b) Explain how you would differentiate between the primary and secondary sources for ancient Egypt.

(c) In this SkillBuilder you have worked with paintings from wall panels in tombs. Identify five other types of primary sources that a historian could use for a study of ancient Egypt.

(d) Explain why it is sometimes difficult to identify the origin and purpose of ancient Egyptian primary sources.

4.15 Thinking Big research project: Ancient Egyptian archaeological excavation

Scenario



An Australian university is planning to conduct some archaeological excavations in Egypt and is taking the unusual step of inviting a small number of school students to assist. To apply for this role, interested students have been asked to complete the following task and submit it to the university.

Task

You are to identify sites in Egypt where significant remains from Egypt's ancient past could be unearthed during an archaeological excavation and explain what types of traces might be found at these sites. Then compile all your research into an application for the job of research assistant. Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.



Process

- Open the projectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to set up your project group. Working in small groups will enable you to share responsibility for the project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find examples of sites you could use to begin your research. You can add further archaeological sites to the Research forum if you wish. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric and some weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research. Remember to record details of your sources so you can create a bibliography to submit with your completed project. Add your research notes and source details to the relevant topic pages in the Research forum. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered, if you wish.
- Revisit the timeline in the Overview for this topic. Then browse through all subtopics in this topic to help you to select the best sites for excavation.
- Select your archaeological sites.
- Conduct research to find information and a suitable image for each site by reading relevant sections of the topic and by using the resources listed in your Media centre.
- Make notes using these resources and the weblinks in your Media centre.
- Write up your findings under the heading for each site in your Research forum.
- You can view, share and comment on other group members' findings. Be sure to explain the reasons for choosing each site and to enter the source for any information you find online.
- Email your completed task and your bibliography to your teacher for assessment and feedback.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Ancient Egyptian archaeological excavation (pro-0228)

4.16 Review

4.16.1 Key knowledge summary

4.2 Examining the evidence

- Pyramids, temples, tombs, mummies and artworks, such as tomb wall paintings, models and statues, provide a huge amount of archaeological evidence.
- Scholars have been able to read ancient Egyptian written primary sources since the code for hieroglyphs was broken in the nineteenth century.

4.3 The gift of the Nile

- Civilisation could never have developed in Egypt without the Nile.
- The annual flooding of the Nile provided fertile soil for farming.

4.4 The people of Egypt

- Egyptian society was layered like a pyramid.
- Most ordinary people were peasants but others were engaged in a variety of skilled occupations.
- Women had fewer rights than men but more rights than women in most other ancient societies.

4.5 Pharaoh rules!

- Pharaohs came from some 30 dynasties over ancient Egypt's long history.
- Pharaohs were believed to have god-like powers but also had vast responsibilities.

4.6 Gods and the afterlife

- Ancient Egyptians had many different gods.
- They believed in an afterlife and buried possessions they might need in that afterlife.
- Burial customs have provided most of our evidence for ancient Egypt.

4.7 Mummies unwrapped

- Mummification was carried out to preserve bodies so that a dead person's soul would have a home.
- Mummification was a complex process that was carried out with great care wherever possible.

4.8 Write like an Egyptian

- The ancient Egyptians were probably the first people to use writing after the Sumerians.
- Early hieroglyphs took a long time to produce so the Egyptians developed simpler, faster scripts.

4.9 Pyramid builders

- During the Old Kingdom, pyramids were built to house the mummies of pharaohs.
- The Egyptians built them with tools made of stone, wood and bronze.
- Because the contents of the pyramids were robbed, later pharaohs were entombed in the Valley of the Kings.

4.10 Tutankhamen, Akhenaten and Nefertiti

- Tutankhamen's tomb is highly significant because, unlike tombs of greater pharaohs, its contents had not been robbed.
- Before Tutankhamen's reign, Akhenaten carried out a religious revolution, decreeing that Egyptians must worship only Aten, above all other gods.
- Nefertiti was Akhenaten's first wife and a woman of great influence in ancient Egypt.

4.11 Expansion and fall

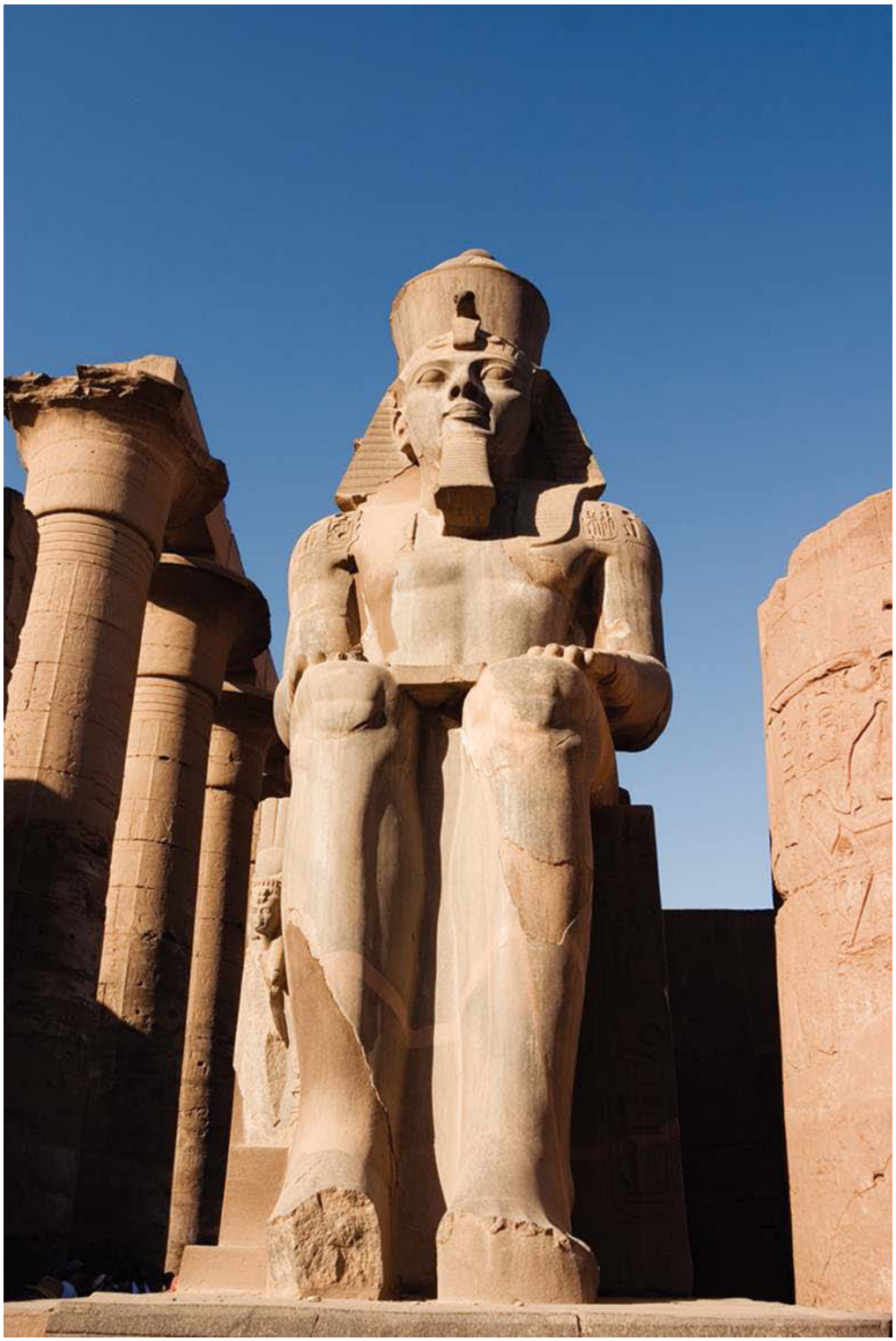
- Egypt's relations with other countries involved trade and war.
- During times of strength, Egypt drove out invaders and dominated other lands.
- During times of weakness and division, Egypt suffered invasions.

4.12 Rameses II — Egypt's greatest pharaoh?

- Rameses II has been regarded as Egypt's greatest pharaoh because of his military achievements and the monuments glorifying him.
- His greatness is contestable mainly because the evidence of it was constructed on his orders.

4.13 Egypt's heritage

- Archaeological treasures are Egypt's greatest legacies.
- There is ongoing archaeological work in Egypt and significant discoveries are continually being made.



A timeline of ancient Egypt











BCE

5000

4500

4000

3500

3000

2500

2000

1500

1000

500

BCE CE

CE

c. 5000–3100
People settle along the Nile and learn to use bronze. At least two separate states develop.

c. 3100
King Narmer unites Egypt. The Archaic period, also called Early Dynastic Period (to c. 2686 BCE), begins.

c. 2551–2528
Khufu rules.
The Great Pyramid is built.

c. 2686–2181
The Old Kingdom: a long period of peace and order

c. 2181–2025
The First Intermediate Period: a time of disorder and division as rival leaders fight for control

c. 2025–1650
The Middle Kingdom: Egypt is united under strong rulers. Nubia is conquered.

c. 1650–1550
Second Intermediate Period: the Hyksos invade and occupy Egypt.

c. 1550–1069
The New Kingdom: the Hyksos are driven out. Egypt dominates neighbouring lands.

c. 1479–1458
Hatshepsut rules.

c. 1279–1212
Rameses II rules.

c. 1069–332
The Late Dynastic Period: Egypt is invaded and ruled in turn by Nubians, Assyrians and Persians.

c. 332–30
Alexander the Great conquers Egypt. One of his generals founds the Ptolemaic Dynasty. The Ptolemaic Period lasts until Rome takes over.

30
Romans take control of Egypt.

4.16.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

4.16 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Perplexing pyramids and mysterious mummies. What were the ancient Egyptians thinking?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32120)
Crossword (doc-32121)

Interactivity Ancient Egypt crossword (int-7693)

KEY TERMS

afterlife life after death
amulet charm believed to protect against evil
artisans skilled craftspeople
Asiatic peoples of Asia, including the Middle East
civil war war between rival factions within one state or country
canopic jars jars used to store the liver, lungs, intestines and stomach of the person being mummified
deities gods or goddesses
delta low, triangular area where a river fans out as it nears the sea
demotic script the simplest of the ancient Egyptian scripts, which was almost like handwriting
Great Pyramid the oldest and largest pyramid in Egypt; one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World
Great Sphinx monument with the body of a lion and the face of a man; located in Giza near the Great Pyramid
hieratic script Egyptian script that was less decorative and complex than hieroglyphs
Inundation the seasonal flooding of the Nile
mercenaries people who fight for a foreign country for money or other rewards
mummy body that has been embalmed
natron a mineral salt used to dry out dead bodies
papyrus paper made from crushing reeds
sarcophagus stone or wooden coffin (often inscribed or decorated) in Egypt
shadoof irrigation device used to lift water from the river
stalemate a situation in a contest or conflict in which neither side can defeat the other
Valley of the Kings gorge on the Nile in Upper Egypt that contains many royal tombs
vassal state a state whose ruler recognises another, more powerful ruler as his overlord

5 Ancient Greece

5.1 Overview

Spartans, the Olympics and the birth of democracy. Was ancient Greece the happening place to be?

5.1.1 Links with our times

In 2004, the Summer Olympic Games, officially known as the XXVIII Olympiad (28th Olympiad), were held in Athens, the capital of modern Greece. Its motto, 'Welcome Home', was chosen because Greece was the birthplace of the Olympics. According to Greek tradition, the first ancient Greek Olympics were staged in 776 BCE. As we will see in this topic, the Olympics are far from being our only legacy from Greece. Greeks have settled in many places, bringing their culture with them. More people of Greek descent live in Melbourne than in any city except Athens. Much more importantly, many ancient Greek ideas were handed down to the present through other cultures. Ancient Greek influences are all around us.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient Greece (eles-1836)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

5.1 Overview
5.2 Examining the evidence
5.3 The Minoans and Mycenaeans
5.4 The 'Dark Age' to the Archaic Period
5.5 Government in Athens and Sparta
5.6 Everyday life in Sparta
5.7 Everyday life in Athens
5.8 Laws, myths, gods and oracles
5.9 The Olympic Games
5.10 Greeks, Persians and Alexander the Great
5.11 The heritage of ancient Greece
5.12 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing and corroborating sources online only
5.13 **Thinking Big research project:** Helot manifesto online only
5.14 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of ancient Greece















BCE

3000
c. 3000
The Minoan civilisation develops on Crete.

1500

1400
1300
1200
c. 1400–1200
The Great Age of Mycenae flourishes.

1100
c. 1150
The Greek 'Dark Ages' (to c. 750): Many Greeks migrate from the mainland to the Aegean islands and the coast of Asia Minor.

1000
c. 1000
Dorians settle in Sparta and other Mycenaean sites.

900

800
c. 800
The Greek alphabet is developed.

700
c. 750
The Greek archaic period (to c. 490)

c. 776
The First Olympiad is held.

600
c. 490
Greek Classical Age (to c. 323): a period of great achievements in art, literature and drama

500
508
Democracy is introduced in Athens.

490
The Persian Wars begin.

460–445
The First Peloponnesian War.

400
431–404
The Peloponnesian War is waged between alliances led by Athens and Sparta.

403–371
Sparta dominates the Greek world.

300
371
The Thebans defeat the Spartans.

336
Alexander the Great becomes ruler of Greece.

200
334
Alexander the Great invades the Persian Empire.

146
The Romans conquer Greece.

100

0

CE

5.2 Examining the evidence

5.2.1 How do we know about ancient Greece?

Every year millions of people visit Greece to marvel at the many surviving traces of its ancient civilisation. These include the shells of magnificent buildings such as the Parthenon and Erechtheion on the **Acropolis** of Athens, and the National Archaeological Museum, which holds the world's largest collection of ancient Greek artefacts. They also visit the extensive ruins of the original Olympic Games at Olympia and other sites, such as the god Poseidon's temple at Sounion and the sanctuary at Delphi, which the ancient Greeks called the 'navel of the Earth'. There are also great collections of Greek art in other parts of the world, including the famous Parthenon Marbles, which were taken from the Parthenon by the British diplomat Lord Elgin more than two hundred years ago and are now displayed in the British Museum in London.

SOURCE 1 Some of the many marble sculptures that once adorned the Parthenon in ancient Athens



SOURCE 2 Mycenaean soldiers painted on pottery. Mycenae was the earliest civilisation on the Greek mainland.



SOURCE 3 A theatre mask used in performances of plays in ancient Athens. Beside the mask you can see the excavated remains of an ancient Greek amphitheatre in Aphrodisias on the Turkish coast. It was in open-air theatres like this that ancient Greek actors performed wearing such masks.





Written sources

The Greeks also left many written records. Ancient Greek writers are still read today. Among the best known are the works of the epic poet Homer, the historians Herodotus (c. 484–425 BCE) and Thucydides (c. 460–403 BCE), the philosophers Plato (c. 428–348 BCE) and Aristotle (c. 384–332 BCE), and playwrights such as Sophocles (c. 495–405 BCE). Their works and other written records add much to our understanding of ancient Greece.

SOURCE 4 Part of the ancient Greek temple called the Parthenon, viewed from below the Acropolis of Athens



5.2 ACTIVITY

Design a theatre mask to represent a different kind of character from the one depicted in **SOURCE 3**. Use plasticine or other suitable material to make this mask. **Using historical sources as evidence**

5.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is the main reason that millions of people visit Greece each year?
2. **HS1** Name an ancient Greek writer whose works are still read today.
3. **HS1** Where were the original Olympic Games held?
4. **HS2** What was the earliest civilisation on the Greek mainland called?
5. **HS1** Who was Herodotus?

5.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Describe the details of the scene depicted in this sculpture.
   (b) What opinion could you form from this source about the artistic skills of ancient Greek sculptors?
   (c) Use this source to develop a hypothesis about the wealth and values of ancient Athens.

2. **HS3** What do you think we might learn from **SOURCE 2** about:
   (a) the skills of Mycenaean potters
   (b) the arms and armour of Mycenaean soldiers?
3. **HS3** What kind of character do you think the mask shown in **SOURCE 3** was meant to represent?
4. **HS3** Look closely at the building in the top left of **SOURCE 4**. Describe a feature of this ancient building that you recognise as having influenced the style of many modern-day public buildings.
5. **HS3** Write a short summary of what you have discovered about ancient Greece from these four sources.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.3 The Minoans and Mycenaeans

5.3.1 Minoan civilisation

Civilisation in Greece began before 3000 BCE when people started to grow crops and herd animals on Crete, the largest of the Greek islands. The archaeologist Arthur Evans was the first to excavate their cities. He called these people Minoans after their legendary King Minos. During the fourteenth century BCE, their peaceful civilisation appears to have been overrun by the more warlike Mycenaeans of mainland Greece.

By about 2500 BCE the Minoans had built towns. They had also learned to make tools, weapons and ornaments from bronze and to create beautiful pottery. The main Minoan city, Knossos, dates from about 1900 BCE. The walls of the buildings in Knossos were decorated with scenes of Minoan life, including athletes leaping and performing acrobatics on the backs of wild bulls (see **SOURCE 1**).

Around the time that Knossos was built the Minoans were building palaces, and most Minoans were living in large coastal towns. These were probably centres of their extensive sea trade. There is evidence that the Minoans set up trading bases on several Greek islands and exchanged goods with Egypt, Syria and other civilisations. The Minoans used a written language we call Linear A. It disappeared suddenly about 1450 BCE and it is still not understood. Around 1700 BCE the Minoan cities were destroyed following the eruption of a volcano on the island of Santorini, which triggered a massive tsunami. The cities were rebuilt but were destroyed again by earthquakes in about 1450 BCE.

SOURCE 1 A fresco (wall painting) from Knossos showing young Minoan men and women leaping on the back of a bull



SOURCE 2 Crete, Greece and Egypt at the time of the Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

5.3.2 The Mycenaeans

Most archaeologists believe that by about 1375 BCE, Mycenaean invaders from small kingdoms such as Mycenae, Athens and other hilltop cities on the Greek mainland had conquered the Minoans. Mycenaean civilisation flourished between about 1400 BCE and 1200 BCE. The Mycenaeans were great seafarers and traders and were highly skilled in the use of bronze. They appear to have copied some aspects of Minoan culture. The warrior ruling class lived in palaces and enjoyed music, dancing and sport.

The Mycaenaeans spoke an early form of Greek. Their written language, which we call Linear B, has been translated since its code was cracked in 1952. The earliest Mycenaean stories to appear in written sources are Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. These epic poems had been handed down by word of mouth for centuries before they were written down. The *Iliad* tells the story of how in about 1200 BCE the Mycenaeans laid siege to, and finally captured and destroyed, the city of Troy in Anatolia (present-day Turkey).

Homer's *Iliad* and the Trojan War

The story told in the *Iliad* is so popular that it has been told and retold, even by Hollywood in a twenty-first century movie. Whether any part of the story is true is still a mystery. Some archaeological discoveries have only added to the debate. The story was probably passed down by storytellers for three centuries before it was recorded in writing by Homer. Homer is believed to be a Greek who lived in the eighth century BC. However, some scholars think that his poems were the work of several people.

As the *Iliad* tells the story, there are several main characters. Among them are:

- Agamemnon, the king of Mycenae
- Menelaus, the king of Sparta and brother of Agamemnon
- Helen, the wife of Menelaus
- Priam, the king of Troy
- Paris, son of Priam
- Odysseus, a Mycenaean warrior hero.

According to the *Iliad*, the war started because Paris abducted Helen and took her to Troy. As Homer tells the story, Agamemnon gathered a great Greek navy and led a ten-year siege of Troy that included huge battles outside the city's walls. Troy was finally defeated by Mycenaean trickery. Pretending to have given up the siege, the Greeks left a giant wooden horse with their hero Odysseus and about twenty other warriors hidden inside. Seeing that the Greeks had sailed away, the Trojans thought that the Greeks had left the horse as a gift. After the rejoicing Trojans dragged the horse into the city, Odysseus and his companions crept out and opened the city gates for the returning Greeks, who seized and destroyed Troy.

SOURCE 3 A scene from one of the wall paintings found at Tiryns, a Mycenaean site from the fourteenth to thirteenth centuries BCE



Fact or fiction?

Even in ancient times the truth of the *Iliad* was doubted (see **SOURCE 4**). Until the late nineteenth century CE, the story was thought to be simply a myth. Then, in 1870, a German amateur archaeologist, Heinrich Schliemann, began digging on what he believed was the site of ancient Troy. He used the *Iliad* to help find its location and he discovered the ruins of a city that could have been Troy (see **SOURCE 5**). However, later excavations showed that the level Schliemann identified as Troy was hundreds of years too early.

SOURCE 4 From *The Histories*, written by the ancient Greek historian Herodotus (c. 484–425 BCE)

... had Helen really been in Troy, she would have been handed over to the Greeks with or without Paris' consent; for I cannot believe that either Priam or any other kinsman of his was mad enough to be willing to risk his own and his children's lives and the safety of the city, simply to let Paris continue to live with Helen.

SOURCE 5 At Canakkale, about 300 km south-west of Istanbul in Turkey, Schliemann dug up these city ruins. Later excavations have shown that the site contains ruins of nine different settlements, built one on top of the other.



The Mask of Agamemnon?

Four years later, Schliemann excavated Mycenae to find the grave of Agamemnon. He found at least five royal graves filled with gold and other treasure. His most exciting finds were several gold masks, including one pictured in **SOURCE 6** that became known as the 'Mask of Agamemnon'. Many archaeologists doubt that this really is Agamemnon's death mask for several reasons:

- Schliemann had a record of faking archaeological finds and he could have had the mask made.
- The grave where the mask was found is about 300 years earlier than the supposed date of the Trojan War.
- The 'Mask of Agamemnon' looks very different from the masks, including **SOURCE 7**, found covering the remains of other Mycenaean chieftains.

There is still no clear evidence that the Trojan War really happened or that the grave Schliemann unearthed at Mycenae was in fact the grave of King Agamemnon.

SOURCE 6 The gold 'Mask of Agamemnon'. Heinrich Schliemann claimed to have found it in 1876 when he excavated graves in Mycenae. It is held in the National Archaeological Museum, in Athens.



SOURCE 7 Another Mycenaean gold mask from excavated graves in Mycenae, now held in the National Archaeological Museum, in Athens



5.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** Describe the achievements of Minoan civilisation by around 1700 BCE.
2. **HS1** What appears to have caused the collapse of Minoan civilisation?
3. **HS1** Who were the Mycenaeans?
4. **HS1** What role might the Mycenaeans have played in the destruction of Minoan Crete?
5. **HS1** According to legend, what caused the Trojan War?
6. **HS1** How did the Mycenaean Greeks win the Trojan War?
7. **HS1** What was the main effect of the Trojan War?

5.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS2** List the main events in the rise and fall of Minoan civilisation in chronological order.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Describe what is depicted in this Minoan wall painting.
   (b) Do you think the Minoans did such things for sport or could there be another explanation for the scene? Give reasons for your answer.
3. **HS3** Referring to **SOURCE 2**, explain how the location of Crete would have helped the Minoans to trade with other civilisations and how the Minoans would have benefited from trade.
4. **HS3** Analyse **SOURCE 3**. What might it be possible to say about Mycenaean art and everyday life using it as your evidence?
5. **HS3** In **SOURCE 4**, what does Herodotus doubt about the account of the Trojan War in the *Iliad*?
6. **HS3** The *Iliad* was an epic poem, whereas Herodotus was trying to write history. How would this have led to him taking a different perspective on the cause of the Trojan War?
7. **HS3** Why is it likely that the walls in **SOURCE 5** are not the walls of ancient Troy?
8. **HS3** Compare **SOURCES 6** and **7**.
   (a) Describe the features of the mask in **SOURCE 6**.
   (b) Describe the features of the mask in **SOURCE 7**.
   (c) If both of these masks were really found in the graves at Mycenae, why do you think a decision was made to call **SOURCE 6** rather than **SOURCE 7** the mask of Agamemnon?
9. **HS3** Choose two sources in this subtopic and determine three questions you would ask about each of them to assess their accuracy, reliability and usefulness for a study of Minoan and/or Mycenaean history.
10. **HS3** Why do you think other archaeologists and historians have contested Heinrich Schliemann's interpretation of his findings about Troy and Agamemnon?
11. **HS4** Describe the main changes that took place in the ancient Greek world between 3000 BCE and 1200 BCE.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.4 The 'Dark Age' to the Archaic Period

5.4.1 The influence of geography

From their heavily fortified cities, the Mycenaean kings dominated the south of Greece from around 1600 BCE to 1200 BCE. But soon after 1200 BCE, Mycenaean culture suffered a sudden and violent collapse. This was followed by the Greek 'Dark Age', which lasted almost four hundred years. We know very little about ancient Greece between 1150 BCE and the development of the Greek alphabet around 800 BCE.

What we do know is that the landscape, climate and natural resources of Greece had a huge influence on its civilisations in this period and later. As you can see in **SOURCE 1**, 75 per cent of the Greek mainland is mountainous. This meant that settlements were isolated from each other, overland travel was difficult and only about 20 per cent of the land was useful for farming. This caused the Greek settlements to turn to the sea for contacts and trade.

Ancient Greece had long, hot summers and short, cool and wet winters. Rainfall was unreliable and long droughts could cause hunger, but floods could also destroy food crops. However, soils in many of

the valleys were suitable for growing barley, oats and some wheat, while the uplands provided slopes for grazing sheep and goats and growing grapes and olives. Most ancient Greeks were small farmers who lived in small villages. They provided the staples of the Greek diet — bread, wine and olive oil — as well as products from the herds — wool, skins, cheese and occasionally meat.

SOURCE 1 The origins of Greece



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

Trade

Although sudden storms made sea travel in ancient times very dangerous, the Greeks also relied on the sea for trade in bronze, timber and other materials they lacked. Some wheat also had to be imported because from around 600 BCE, the Greek population increased and wheat did not grow well in the steep terrain and limestone soils. The Greeks imported it and other foods from Egypt, southern Italy and around the Black Sea. They exported olive oil, wine and pottery.

5.4.2 The development of the Greek city-states

The Greek 'Dark Age', c. 1150–750 BCE

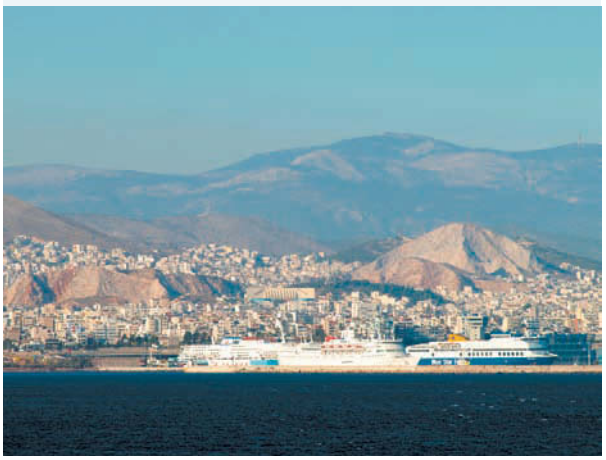
The period from about 1150 to 750 BCE is called the Greek 'Dark Age' partly because very little is known of it. Mycenaean palaces were looted and burned and nearly all the Mycenaean fortresses except Athens were abandoned. We do not know who the attackers were. Until the late twentieth century, historians mostly agreed that they were **Dorians** from northern Greece. Among these Dorians were people who settled in villages at the site of Sparta around 1000 BCE. However, archaeological evidence suggests that the Mycenaean kingdoms had collapsed before the Dorians moved south.

During the Dark Age, the art of writing was lost, trade collapsed and central government disappeared. A consequence was a lack of evidence for this period. Another important Dark Age development was the migration from around 1050 BCE of mainland Greeks to the Aegean islands and the coast of Asia Minor (modern-day Turkey). According to Greek legends, these migrants included people fleeing from the Dorians. Around the same time, the **Iron Age** reached Greece which meant the beginning of tool and weapon manufacturing using iron.

SOURCE 2 An archaeological excavation at the site of an ancient Greek settlement in what is now the Black Sea port of Odessa, in Ukraine



SOURCE 3 Athens today as seen from its port, Piraeus. The arid mountains in the background are typical of Greece.



The Archaic Period and the rise of the polis

The time between c. 750 and 490 BCE is called the Archaic Period. It describes the time leading up to the Classical Period. Many changes took place in the Greek world. **Pan-Hellenic** institutions, such as the Olympic festivals, came to express a common Greek culture. Around 750 BCE, Greeks set up colonies in southern Italy, Sicily and even as far away as the Black Sea. This was probably because of a growing shortage of farming land on the dry, rocky mainland. By the early seventh century BCE, throughout the Greek mainland, islands and colonies, a new kind of state developed. Greeks formed **poleis** — independent, self-governing city-states such as Athens, Sparta, Corinth and Thebes that often fought each other for territory.

5.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Complete the following paragraph by selecting the correct words from the list: sea; fifth; unreliable; mountainous; isolated; hot.

The type of civilisation that developed in ancient Greece was influenced by the _____ landscape, _____ summers and _____ rainfall. Only a _____ of the land was good for farming. Because Greek settlements were _____ from each other, the Greeks used the _____, despite the risk of dangerous storms.

2. **HS1** What is meant by the Greek 'Dark Age'?
3. **HS1** What became of the Mycenaean cites and writing in this period?
4. **HS1** To which areas did Greeks migrate during the Dark Age?

5.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) How much of Greece is mountainous and how would that have affected farming and travel by land?
   (b) Why is the Greek coastline very long relative to the size of Greece?
   (c) How would these geographical features have encouraged many Greeks to emigrate from Greece?
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 2**. What four questions would you ask about its usefulness and reliability as evidence for the establishment of ancient Greek colonies?
3. **HS3** Athens (see **SOURCE 3**) was an ancient Greek city-state and is the capital of modern Greece. Describe the landscape of its surroundings.
4. **HS3** Using all of the sources in this subtopic as evidence, explain why Greece became a country of independent, self-governing city-states that often fought each other.
5. **HS4** Describe the broad changes that occurred in Greece between c. 1200 and 490 BCE.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.5 Government in Athens and Sparta

5.5.1 Athens — the roots of democracy

Athens and Sparta were the two most powerful city-states in ancient Greece. They had many things in common with other ancient Greek city-states. For example, they generally worshipped the same gods and used the same language and alphabet. However, city-states had their own laws and traditions and their own ruling systems.

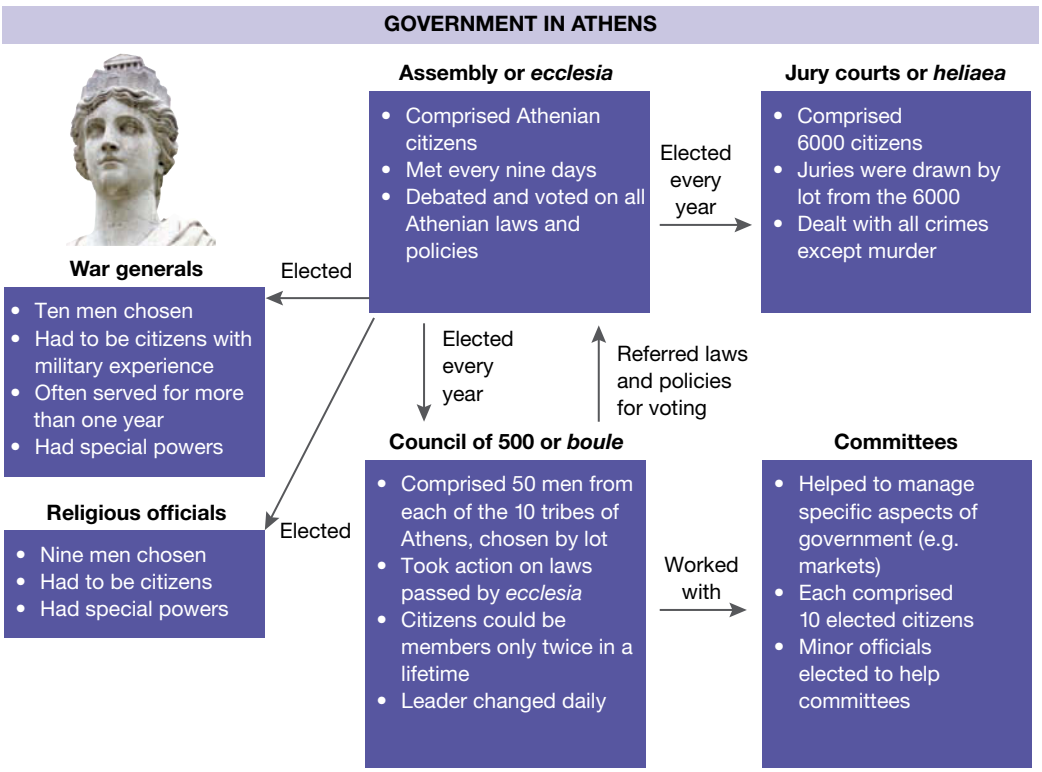
Greek city-states (or poleis) were originally ruled by kings. Later, most came under the control of **oligarchies**. From the seventh century BCE, many poleis were for a time led by absolute rulers called tyrants who, all the same, often carried out reforms to win popular support. In most cases the aristocrats (oligarchs) eventually regained power. Then in 508 BCE, Athens introduced a new system of government called **democracy**.

Democracy in Athens was well-established by the fifth century BCE. Athenian citizens decided how their city-state would be run. At meetings of the governing assembly (called the *Ecclesia*), they voted on laws and elected officials. Membership of the Council of 500 and jury courts was rotated. This meant that all citizens could participate, and no-one became too powerful. In fact, someone suspected of trying to grab power could be ostracised. **Ostracism** meant that if 6000 citizens spoke up against a man, he could be exiled from Athens for 10 years. Citizens expressed their concern by scratching the man's name on a piece of broken pottery called an *ostrak on*.

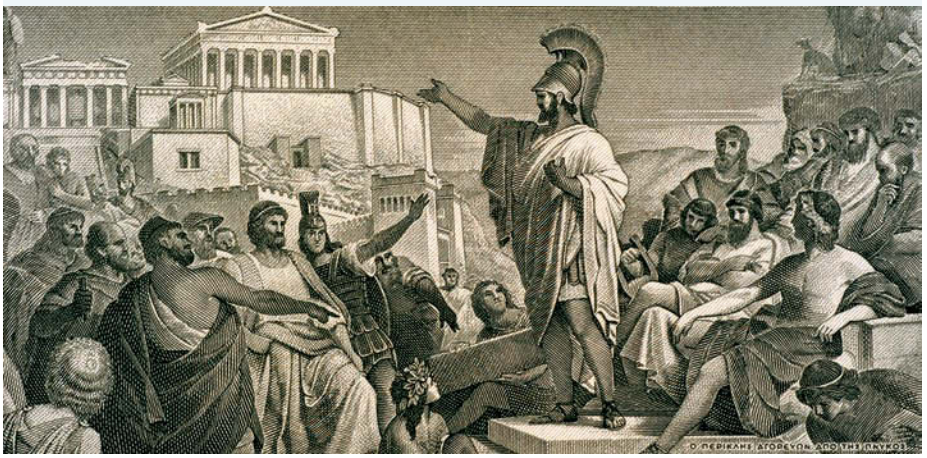
But was it democratic?

In Athens, as in Australia, only adult citizens could vote. In Australia today, most people who live here are citizens. However, during the fifth century BCE only about 45 000 of Athens' population of around 300 000 were citizens. Women and children (who made up nearly half the population), **metics** (who made up about 12 per cent) and slaves (who made up about 25 per cent) could not take part in the democratic process.

SOURCE 1 Government in Athens



SOURCE 2 Painting of Athenian Assembly after the death of Pericles in 429 BCE



DID YOU KNOW?

All citizens were able to participate personally in the government of Athens because the citizen population was fairly small. Each citizen could discuss and vote on Athenian laws. They could also be elected to work as public officials on a fair, rotational basis. This sort of democracy is called direct democracy.

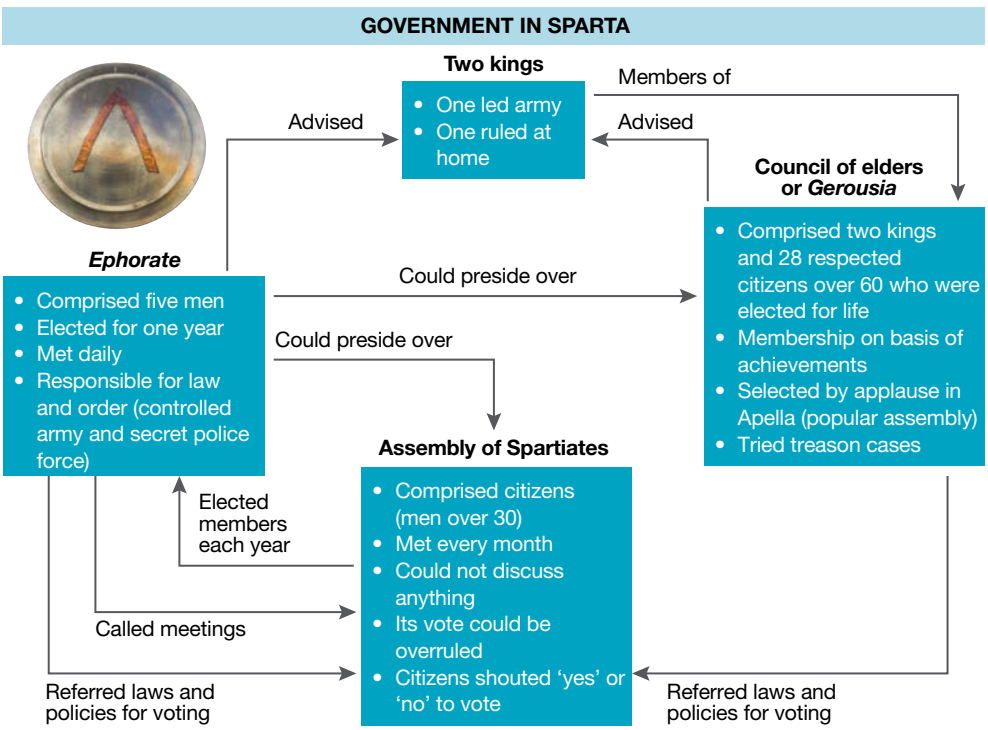
The form of democracy in Australia is called representative democracy. Australian citizens aged over 18 vote for politicians who they believe will best represent their or the community's interests. Generally, these representatives belong to political parties. The party or coalition winning most of the 150 seats in the federal House of Representatives forms the federal government. The main losing party or parties form the Opposition, whose role is to critically review what the government does. The Senate comprises 76 people — 12 from each state of Australia and two from each territory. Its role is to protect state interests.

5.5.2 Spartan rule

Dorians settled at the site of Sparta around 1000 BCE. During the eighth century BCE, Sparta took control of the Laconian plain and conquered neighbouring Messenia. The Spartans made most Laconians and Messenians slaves, called **helots**, whom they controlled brutally.

Initially, Sparta was ruled by two kings who inherited their position. By about the end of the seventh century BCE, the government had become an oligarchy. Most power was in the hands of a few families who controlled the **Ephorate** and dominated the council of elders. These two bodies decided what laws and policies the Spartan citizens in the Assembly of Spartiates would vote on. Citizens could not discuss these matters. They could only shout 'yes' or 'no' to a proposal. Even if they voted 'no', this decision could be overruled.

SOURCE 3 Government in Sparta



DISCUSS

In history, we use arguments to interpret and explain the past, including how events caused changes. But we have to be careful to ensure that our reasoning is sound.
Is the reasoning sound in the following statements? Why or why not?
Statement 1: Spartan women had more rights than most other women in ancient times.
Statement 2: The modern women's rights movement, called feminism, emerged in the second half of the twentieth century.
Conclusion: Feminism came from ancient Sparta. **[Creative and Critical Thinking Capability]**

5.5 ACTIVITY

Use the internet to find archaeological sources from Athens and Sparta. Develop a hypothesis to suggest why there are so many from Athens and so few from Sparta. **Using historical sources as evidence**

5.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What did the ancient Greek city-states have in common?
2. **HS2** When did Athens introduce a system called democracy?
3. **HS1** What percentage of the population of Athens were citizens?
4. **HS1** Why could citizens be ostracised and what happened to them?
5. **HS1** What was the effect of the Spartan conquest on the Messenians?
6. **HS2** Around what time did Sparta become an oligarchy and what did that mean?

5.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS2** In chronological order, list the three forms of government that existed in many Greek city-states before Athens introduced democracy. What were the differences between these forms of government?
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 1**, explain the difference between the Assembly and the Council of 500.
3. **HS3** Describe the scene in **SOURCE 2** and suggest what impression it gives of the character of the Athenian Assembly meetings.
4. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Explain who could be Spartan citizens.
   (b) Describe powers held in Sparta by each of the following institutions: the Ephorate, the Gerousia and the Assembly.
5. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 1** and **3** and other information in this subtopic identify whether the following statements are true or false.
   (a) In Athens, all citizens voted on laws. In Sparta, citizens (Spartan men aged over 30) could vote but their vote could be overruled.
   (b) Ordinary citizens had more power in Sparta than in Athens.
   (c) In both Athens and Sparta, women, slaves and non-citizens did not have the rights of citizens.
6. **HS3** Use the internet to find archaeological sources from Athens and Sparta. Develop a hypothesis to suggest why there are many from Athens and so few from Sparta.

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5.6 Everyday life in Sparta

5.6.1 A strong city-state

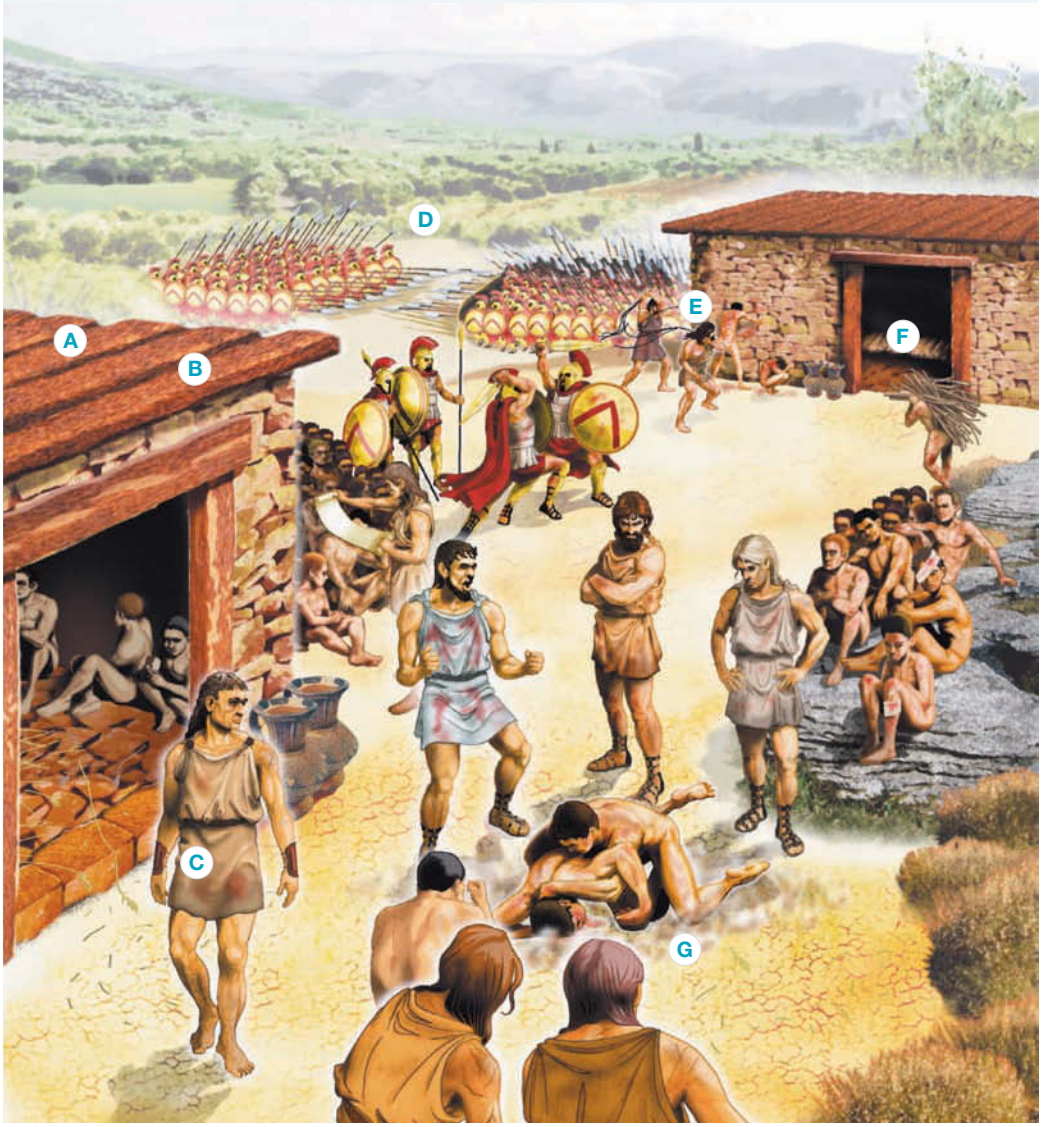
After brutally putting down a slave revolt in about 650 BCE, Sparta became a military state, and it remained so for the next 300 years. Culture and art were no longer valued, and luxuries were despised. The main role of a Spartan man was to be a brave warrior, while the main role of a Spartan woman was to bear strong children.

SOURCE 1 As the Greek writer Plutarch notes, the main aim of boys' education was to teach them to be fierce, disciplined soldiers.

The boys learned to read and write no more than was necessary. Otherwise their whole education was aimed at developing smart obedience, perseverance under stress and victory in battle. So as they grew older they intensified their physical training, and got into the habit of cropping their hair, going barefoot and exercising naked. From the age of twelve they never wore a tunic, and were given only one cloak a year. Their bodies were rough, and knew nothing of baths or oiling.

Like many settlements in ancient Greece, Sparta was a city-state. This means it was a fortified centre surrounded by a town community and farmlands. The farmlands provided the produce that people needed to survive. Like all city-states, it had its own laws and form of government. The city-state of Sparta became very powerful because it was the only one with a permanent army.

SOURCE 2 Spartan males lived a harsh and disciplined life, much of which was spent in military camps.



- **A** The army barracks and other Spartan settlements had no walls.
- **B** Even after they married, Spartan men still ate in the army barracks as a member of a mess. To become a citizen, a man had to be a member of an army mess.
- **C** Men lived in military camps until they were 30, when they could become a citizen and marry.
- **D** Spartan soldiers grew their hair long and usually wore little clothing. However, when fighting or training, they wore armour and bright red cloaks. When in their phalanx formation, they stood close together, with shields touching and their spears jutting straight out ahead.
- **E** Boys were often flogged to teach them to put up with pain and develop their courage. Being caught stealing was severely punished — though stealing itself was accepted.
- **F** Beds were a bundle of long reeds, cut from the riverbanks, and laid on the floor.
- **G** In the military camps, boys and young men exercised, played war games and learned about Sparta's rules of conduct. The boys enjoyed no 'home comforts' and discipline was very harsh.

A tough life

Sparta soon dominated the **Peloponnese peninsula**. But life in Sparta was harsh. Ancient Greek writers claimed that weak or sickly male babies were abandoned on a hillside to die of exposure. However, recent archaeological evidence casts some doubt on this story.

Boys left home at the age of seven to start their military training in barracks. Everything was geared to protecting the state — personal needs did not matter.

Spartan women

Spartan women could not become citizens, vote or hold public office. However, they could own land and represent themselves in court. There is evidence that Spartan women came to own about a third of Sparta's land and wealth because so many Spartan men were killed in battle. Like boys, they were taught to be brave and outspoken.

Women wore plain clothing, cut their hair short and did not wear perfume, makeup or jewellery. They trained to keep fit, and exercised and danced naked. Their role was to bear healthy children and to be tough for their men.

Such great importance was placed on producing Spartan children that it influenced the way Spartans viewed death and funerary customs. The most honourable death for a Spartan man was to die in battle. Along with men who died in battle, women who died in childbirth were the only Spartans who were permitted to have their names on tombstones.

5.6.2 The helots and the perioeci

Unlike slaves in other Greek states, the helots were not owned by individuals. They were the property of the Spartan state, which allocated families of helots to farm the land set aside for each Spartan. Because the helots greatly outnumbered them, the Spartans lived in fear of a helot rebellion. It was probably this fear that led the Spartans to cruelly control the helots and to adopt a system that made Sparta such a harsh military state.

The **perioeci** were descended from Dorian tribes who settled in other areas around Sparta. Though perioeci men had to serve in Sparta's army if required, they were otherwise free. They were mainly craftspeople and merchants — occupations forbidden to the elite Spartans.

How did the helots react to enslavement?

Ever since the Spartans conquered the Messenians, reducing them to the status of slaves, it was this slavery that made the Spartan way of life possible. Spartans could only be full-time soldiers because their state provided each Spartan family with sufficient helots to work their land and to provide those families with the produce they needed.

Evidence suggests the Messenian helots never lost the will to regain their freedom. They rebelled against Sparta around 650 BCE and again in 464–459 BCE. It is likely that the methods used by the Spartans to suppress the helots made the helots even more rebellious. The Spartan Ephorate ran a secret police force called the Krypteia. It recruited young Spartans and sent them out for a year to spy on the helots. They were authorised to kill helots, especially those who appeared to have the kinds of qualities that might fit them to lead a helot rebellion (see **SOURCES 3** and **4**).

SOURCE 3 A description of the treatment of helots, by the ancient Greek writer Plutarch (c. 46–120 CE)

The magistrates dispatched privately some of the ablest of the young men into the country, from time to time, armed only with their daggers... they... killed all the Helots they could light upon; sometimes they set upon them by day, as they were at work in the fields, and murdered them...

Aristotle, in particular, adds, that the ephori, [ephors] so soon as they were entered into their office, used to declare war against them [the helots], so that they might be massacred without a breach of religion.

SOURCE 4 A description of the treatment of helots who had fought for Sparta against Athens in 424 BCE, by the ancient Greek writer Thucydides (c. 460–403 BCE)

The Helots were invited by a proclamation to pick out those of their number who claimed to have most distinguished themselves against the enemy, in order that they might receive their freedom; the object being to test them, as it was thought that the first to claim their freedom would be the most high-spirited and the most apt to rebel. As many as two thousand were selected accordingly, who crowned themselves and went around the temples, rejoicing in their new freedom. The Spartans, however, soon afterwards did away with them, and no-one ever knew exactly how each one of them perished.

How have historians explained Sparta's treatment of the helots?

Our only ancient sources for Sparta are a few archaeological traces and the writings of several ancient Greeks, including Herodotus and Thucydides. Almost none of our ancient written primary sources were created by Spartans and none by helots. Yet an enormous number of books and articles have been written about ancient Sparta by historians using the little evidence that exists. **SOURCES 5** and **6** are two examples.

SOURCE 5 An account of Spartan motives for suppressing the helots, from Sarah B. Pomeroy, et al., *Ancient Greece: A Political, Social and Cultural History*, 1999

The Second Messenian War [of c. 650 BC] had been a terrifying revelation of the potential risks of the helot system, and the possibility of a repetition haunted the imaginations of Spartans and their enemies. One certain way of avoiding such a catastrophe, abandoning Messenia, was unthinkable... the Spartans realized that if all potential hoplites could be mobilized and trained to the highest degree of skill possible, Sparta would enjoy an overwhelming military advantage over its helots and other enemies... In effect they waged a perpetual war against the helots and were consequently always prepared to engage in other acts of aggression when necessary.

SOURCE 6 An account of Sparta recruiting helots as soldiers, from Antony Andrewes, Greek Society, 1991

The other main source [of recruits] was the helots. The 700 whom Brasidas took with him to the north [in 425 BC] were still formally slaves; they were only liberated on their return home... About the same time... Sparta created a whole new class... These were helots who were already liberated at the time when they were enrolled. For the next fifty years, they were a very important part in Sparta's military effort... The training-up of such numbers from a notoriously oppressed and ill-treated class looks like an appalling risk, though no doubt, in case of trouble, the Spartans could count on the *perioikoi* [perioeci] to support them.

5.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did Sparta need to develop such a strong army?
2. **HS1** What was life like for Spartan women?
3. **HS1** Look up the adjective 'spartan' in a dictionary. Explain why the word has the meaning it does today.
4. **HS1** Who were the perioeci and the helots?
5. **HS1** In what ways was the position of the helots different to that of slaves in other parts of Greece?
6. **HS1** Explain how the slavery of the helots made the Spartan way of life possible.

5.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**. Explain how you think the hardships Spartan boys had to endure would have helped them to develop obedience and perseverance.

2. **HS3** Look carefully at **SOURCE 2**, and read the labels. Then answer the following questions.
   (a) What did Spartan boys do to keep fit and increase their mental strength?
   (b) Would Spartan army camps have been easy targets for an enemy? Explain.
   (c) Why might the way Spartans lived have reduced the influence of the family? How might this have benefited the state of Sparta?
   (d) Describe what an approaching phalanx of Spartan soldiers would look like. Why might it frighten their enemies?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCES 3** and **4** and analyse them by answering the following questions.
   (a) What information about Spartan treatment of helots does each source provide?
   (b) What kind of source is it?
   (c) Who wrote each source and around when would it have been written?
   (d) Why do you think each source was written and how useful is it as evidence for this topic?
   (e) What more would you need to know about the author to judge the source's reliability?
4. **HS3** Do **SOURCES 3** and **4** provide complementary evidence or conflicting evidence for the Spartans' treatment of the helots? Give the reasons for your answer.
5. **HS3** Compare and contrast **SOURCES 5** and **6**. What conclusion does each of these secondary sources present on Spartan attitudes towards the helots?
6. **HS3** How do Pomeroy (**SOURCE 5**) and Andrewes (**SOURCE 6**) differ in their interpretations of Sparta's treatment of the helots?
7. **HS3** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, explain what life was like for a helot and how the helots might have viewed their situation.
8. **HS4** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, explain how Sparta's enslavement of the helots changed everyday life in Spartan society after 650 BCE.
9. **HS5** What can we tell about the effect of Sparta's almost constant involvement in warfare from the fact that the only Spartans allowed tombstones were men who died in battle and women who died in childbirth?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.7 Everyday life in Athens

5.7.1 The very different lives of Athenian men and women

Athens was the largest of the Greek poleis. It was very different from Sparta. From the fifth century BCE, it was one of the richest and most beautiful cities in the ancient world, famous for its temples, fine public buildings and love of the arts. Plays were often performed in theatres, and its citizens had a high regard for learning.

The man was the important figure in Athenian life. He decided everything — when and whom his daughters would marry, and even whether or not new babies would live or die. Most girls were married in their early teens to men twice their age (see **SOURCE 1**).

SOURCE 1 This painting from a small Greek pottery box shows a bride being escorted to the home of her new husband after a wedding feast at her parents' home.



After marrying, a man spent most of his time away from the house. He might carry out government duties, run a workshop, work out in the gymnasium, meet his friends in the **agora** for a chat or attend dinner parties. In contrast, a woman spent virtually the rest of her life in the home. She was expected to produce children, especially sons. With the help of slaves and older daughters, women ran the household. Marriage feasts were one of the few occasions when women were able to do something other than home duties and celebrate with their menfolk.

SOURCE 2 One of the few regular trips women could make outside the home was to collect water from public fountains near the agora. They carried the water in an **amphora**.



Education

Only boys went to school. Very privileged girls might have a home tutor to teach them to read or perhaps play the lyre. Boys started school — a dawn-to-dusk affair — at around the age of seven. Their teachers read to them from papyrus scrolls, and the boys learned how to write on a wooden-framed slate (a fine-grained stone that easily splits into sheets) coated with wax. They were also taught reading (including poetry), maths, music and physical fitness.

SOURCE 3 After a meal, men relaxed by telling jokes and riddles and playing musical instruments. Sometimes they might be entertained by singers, dancers, musicians or gymnasts.



Housing

Though most Athenian houses had two storeys, they were fairly small. Wealthy Greeks did not usually build impressive mansions, as most used their spare money to fund athletic and religious events. The home of a wealthy Greek family might have a central courtyard, a bathroom and a stone floor, rather than one made from packed earth. Apart from this, there was little difference between a mansion and the homes of poorer people.

Athenian houses were made of sun-dried bricks. All rooms faced inwards and were usually fairly dark, airless and smoky spaces. This was because windows were small and set high, and open fires were often lit indoors. Furniture was sparse, with household items mostly stored on the floor or hung from nails in the wall.

Men and women had separate living areas. The women's area was as far away as possible from the entrance and public areas of the house. It was forbidden to strangers and was often very dark.

5.7.2 Public life, death and burial

Only men could become citizens. Women generally had no legal or political rights. They could not hold public office or go shopping. They could, however, take part in some religious festivals and rituals.

Men's banquets were an important and common part of daily life as you can see in **SOURCE 3**. Slaves removed guests' sandals when they arrived and washed their feet. Lying around on low couches, the men enjoyed foods such as fish fried in olive oil, boiled vegetables, cheese made from goats' milk, bread, figs, dates and grapes. They ate with their fingers, drinking wine mixed with water.

The fifth century BCE was the peak of the Golden Age of ancient Greece. By this time, Athens was a wealthy city with a stable democracy, strong trade links, a thriving culture and a keen sense of civic pride.

Death and burial practices

Athenians, like most other Greeks, believed in an underworld, where Hades, the brother of Zeus, reigned over the dead. They believed that a person's *psyche* (spirit) left the body at the very moment of death. To make sure that the psyche would find its way to the afterlife, the dead person's mouth and eyes were closed. The body was anointed with oil, wrapped and displayed for two days while women stood by wailing, and friends and relatives visited to mourn. On the following day, the body was taken in a procession to the cemetery, which was outside the city gates of Athens, and placed in a tomb.

In the seventh and sixth centuries BCE, aristocratic families erected earth mounds, upright slabs or pillars, statues and some very elaborate monuments at grave sites. But by the end of the fifth century, Athenians were burying their dead in simpler stone coffins. In both eras, the aim was to ensure that the dead were remembered. They appear to have believed that such remembrance was needed to ensure life after death.

5.7.3 A city of beauty and bustle

Like most other city-states, Athens had a prominent acropolis at the centre of its cluster of houses and a large agora (or marketplace). It was surrounded by a large area of open country.

The acropolis

During this time, elegant buildings were erected on the Acropolis in Athens — a large, rocky hill about 150 metres high. The largest of these was the **Parthenon**, which is pictured in **SOURCE 4**. It was a temple dedicated to the goddess Athena. She was the city's patroness and protector in time of war.

The Parthenon was decorated with many beautiful sculptures as well as with carved panels of the gods, battles and festivals. During the early nineteenth century, many of these carved panels were removed, cut into pieces and shipped to Britain by Lord Elgin. He was at that time the British Ambassador to the Turkish Empire, of which Greece had been part for over a thousand years. Today more than half of the surviving panels are in the British Museum. The Greek government is trying to get the Parthenon Marbles back.

SOURCE 4 Work on the Parthenon started in 447 BCE and took 25 years to complete. Much of the building was destroyed in 1687 when it was being used by the Turks to store gunpowder, which exploded under enemy attack.



The agora

Below the acropolis was the agora (see **SOURCE 5**). This large tree-filled square, framed by public buildings, was the place where everything happened. It was the city's centre of government. It was also the place to buy goods such as food, animals, furniture, jewellery, musical instruments and pots. Men went there to shop, learn more about new ideas, watch plays and chat with their friends. Women were rarely seen.

Attica

Most of the population of Athens lived in Attica (the surrounding countryside that was ruled by Athens). Although many were farmers, the generally dry and rocky landscape meant crops such as grain were not always easy to grow. So Athens imported grain from places such as Egypt and Sicily. It also imported timber and metals. On the other hand, crops such as olives, figs and grapes grew well. The export of goods such as olive oil and wine made Athens very wealthy.

SOURCE 5 The agora was the political, legal, commercial and social heart of the city in ancient Greece.



- **A** Public buildings surrounding the Agora in Athens included the law courts (Heliaea), the mint, the military headquarters (Strategeion) and the Bouleuterion (meeting place of the Council of 500).
- **B** Plays were first held in the Agora and later in special amphitheatres. They began as religious ceremonies in honour of the Greek god Dionysus. He was the god of wine and merriment.
- **C** Athenian pots were usually decorated with detailed scenes of daily life and with the stories of myths and legends.
- **D** Slaves were bought and sold in the Agora. A highly skilled slave might cost 6000 drachma; a simple wooden couch might cost 20 drachma. A drachma was the main silver coin of the ancient Greeks. Before coins were introduced, goods in ancient Greece were bought and sold by bartering.
- **E** To build columns, ropes and pulleys were used to hoist blocks of stone into position. Metal rods joined each block to the one above and below.
- **F** The mass of men provided an audience for philosophers such as Socrates. Works by philosophers such as Plato (Socrates' star pupil) and Aristotle (a follower of Plato) have been translated into English.

5.7 ACTIVITY

Work in small groups to design a poster or a museum display for an exhibition on everyday life in ancient Athens. Use sources and other information from this subtopic along with images and information from websites, including museum websites. For each heading select a suitable image and write a paragraph about it. Arrange your display under at least four of the following headings:

- Eating and drinking
- Clothing, hairstyles, makeup and jewellery
- Worshipping
- Entertainment
- Marriage
- Children
- Occupations.

Identifying continuity and change

5.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the lifestyles of Athenian men and boys.
2. **HS1** To what roles were Athenian women and girls confined?
3. **HS1** Describe ways in which men were privileged in Athenian public life.
4. **HS1** How were the Athenian dead prepared for the afterlife?
5. **HS1** What do Athenian funeral rituals tell us about their beliefs?
6. **HS1** What was the Acropolis of Athens?
7. **HS1** To whom was the Parthenon dedicated?
8. **HS1** How were the Parthenon Marbles lost from Greece?
9. **HS1** Why did men visit the agora?

5.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Identify the bride and groom and discuss what evidence this source provides for the wealth and social class of the couple getting married.
2. **HS3** What evidence does **SOURCE 2** provide for the clothing and hairstyles of Athenian women and for their position in Athenian society?
3. **HS3** Describe the scene in **SOURCE 3** and discuss what Athenian women might have thought about men's banquets.
4. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 4** and use clues from **SOURCE 5** to explain how the Parthenon's supporting columns were built.
5. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 5**. In two columns make a list of similarities and differences between the activities in the agora and what would be seen in a modern market.
6. **HS4** Explain what similarities in the houses of rich and poor Athenians and changes in burial practices might suggest about the impact of democracy in Athens.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.8 Laws, myths, gods and oracles

5.8.1 Laws, myths and gods

The ancient Greeks lived in about a hundred separate city-states that often fought each other. However, they shared many aspects of their culture, which gave them a sense of shared identity. They all spoke dialects of the Greek language. They also shared the same myths, worshipped the same gods and took part in the same festivals to honour these gods.

Greek laws

There is evidence that each Greek city-state had its own laws, although no systematic collection of ancient Greek laws has survived. In some matters, such as inheritance, the laws of the city-states seem similar. But, even so, there were differences between Athens and Sparta. By the seventh century BCE, many Greek poleis chose men called 'law-givers' to make written records of their existing laws or set down new laws.

Athens is the city-state for which we have the most evidence. Athens appointed Draco as its first law-giver around 620 BCE. Around 594 BCE, he was followed by Solon, who created several new laws. Under Solon's laws, murderers were to be banished, but most crimes were punished only by fines. His laws also dealt with such matters as trade and the location and spacing of houses in Athens. Solon's laws also corrected at last one injustice that had threatened to cause civil war in Athens. In the seventh century BCE, creditors (people who were owed money) had the power to enslave those who could not repay their debts. Solon abolished this practice, freed debt-slaves and cancelled their existing debts.

Law courts were established in Athens to try cases and decide on punishments but there were no official judges or lawyers. For most court cases, decisions were made by Athenian citizens, who were chosen by lot.

Sparta's laws were not written down. However, according to ancient Greek historians, Lycurgus was the legendary law-giver who brought Sparta the 'Great Rhetra', the set of laws dictating the entire Spartan system. Most evidence suggests that these laws were probably introduced after 650 BCE. However, it is doubtful that Lycurgus actually existed and much more likely that his story was a myth.

SOURCE 1 Herodotus, The Histories, Book I, 66.

How the change to good government came about I will now relate. Lycurgus, a distinguished Spartan, visited the Delphic oracle, and no sooner had he entered the shrine than he was greeted with these words:

Hither to my rich temple have you come, Lycurgus,
Dear to Zeus and to all gods that dwell in Olympus.
I know not whether to declare you human or divine –
Yet I incline to believe, Lycurgus, that you are a god.

... [Lycurgus] made fundamental changes in the laws, and took good care that the new ones should not be broken. Later he reorganized the army, introducing the system of messes and the new tactical divisions of squadrons and companies... By these changes Spartan government was put upon a sound basis, and when Lycurgus died a temple was built in his honour.

Greek myths

In common with people in many societies, the early Greeks had their myths (see **SOURCE 2**), which were handed down from one generation to the next through epic poems recited by storytellers. From about 800 BCE these stories were written down. Homer's *Odyssey* and *Iliad* are the two best known of these epics. The *Iliad* tells the story of the siege of Troy. The *Odyssey* follows the ten-year homeward journey of Odysseus, hero of Troy, and his encounters with many strange creatures and great dangers. In these mythical stories, the gods behave like people, often taking sides in human conflicts.

The gods of Mount Olympus

The Greeks believed their lives were controlled by the many gods who lived on Mount Olympus in the north of Greece. These gods were **immortals** but they had all too human weaknesses. The chief god was Zeus. The other gods were his brothers, sisters, sons and daughters. Each was responsible for a different aspect of human life.

- Hera, Zeus's wife, was patroness (protector) of marriage and children.
- Ares was the god of war.
- Artemis was patroness of hunting and wild animals.
- Dionysus was the god of wine and pleasure.
- Athena was the goddess of wisdom.
- Hephaestus was the god of fire.
- Hermes was the messenger of the gods.
- Apollo was the sun god and god of law.
- Aphrodite was goddess of love and beauty.
- Poseidon was god of the sea.
- Pluto was god of the underworld.

These were the most important gods, but there were others, and there were many mythical heroes who were not immortals but had powers beyond those of ordinary people.

SOURCE 2 A relief sculpture from mid-fourth-century BCE Athens depicting two Amazons fighting a Greek warrior. In Greek mythology, the Amazons were a nation of female warriors. They were often depicted in battles with Greeks.



DID YOU KNOW?

In Greek **mythology**, the hero Heracles was not a god, but he was so strong that the gods sometimes depended on his strength. When he was still a baby, he strangled poisonous snakes. As a youth, he killed a ferocious lion. As a man he performed legendary feats that included abducting Cerberus, the three-headed hound that guarded the underworld. For a time he also held up the sky, which was normally supported by Atlas. His death came as a result of a trick played on him. He put on a poisoned robe that caused such pain that he threw himself onto a fire. The gods then took him up to dwell with them on Mount Olympus.

SOURCE 3 A **metope** from the Temple of Zeus at Olympia. The scene tells part of the myth of the 12 labours of Heracles (Hercules). It shows Atlas offering Heracles the apples of the Hesperides while Heracles and Athena hold up the sky and the world.



5.8.2 The oracles — messages from the gods

In our own times some people still believe in fortune tellers. Similarly, the ancient Greeks believed in oracles. An oracle was a place where people could question the gods about the future. It was also a message from the gods in answer to such a question. The most important oracle was at Delphi (see the map in subtopic 5.4). According to myths, Delphi was the 'navel of the world' so the Greeks built a sanctuary there. Any Greek who went to Delphi to consult the oracle had to pay a fee, sacrifice a goat and look for **omens** in its **entrails**. They would then ask questions of a priestess called the Sybil. The priests of Apollo would translate the Sybil's answers but they were usually vague enough to have many possible meanings.

SOURCE 4 From *The Persian Wars*, by the ancient Greek historian Herodotus

... the Athenians, anxious to consult the oracle, sent their messengers to Delphi... [They] went back with it to Athens. When, however, upon their arrival they produced it before the people, and inquiry began to be made into its true meaning, many and various were the interpretations which men put on it.

5.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Use your library or the internet to research a Greek myth. It could be related to the scene in **SOURCE 2** or **SOURCE 3**. Write a short summary of the myth and tell it to the class. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. In small groups, discuss similarities and differences between the roles and importance of myths, religion and predictions of the future in ancient Greece and in modern times. You could, for example, compare the role of oracles in ancient Greece with astrologers who write the horoscope columns today. **Identifying continuity and change**

5.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How were most crimes punished under Solon's laws?
2. **HS1** Which of Solon's laws would have been popular with poor citizens in Athens?
3. **HS1** What were the two meanings of the term 'oracle'?
4. **HS1** Explain why the ancient Greeks consulted oracles.
5. **HS1** In Greek mythology, who were the Amazons?

5.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Identify reasons why most historians would doubt the story in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** Suggest why the scene in **SOURCE 2** was a popular theme in ancient Greek art.
3. **HS3** Identify the three figures in **SOURCE 3**.
4. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 4**.
   (a) Identify reasons why the message from the oracle could have many different meanings.
   (b) What can you tell from this about the type of answers given to questions put to the oracle at Delphi?
   (c) Why might such answers have been given?
5. **HS6** Evaluate the role of shared myths and shared gods in contributing to a sense of Greek identity.

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5.9 The Olympic Games

5.9.1 The ancient Olympics

For modern athletes, the most important competition is the Olympic Games, which attracts top competitors from all over the world in a huge range of sports. These sports include running, high jump, swimming, soccer and discus throwing. For any modern athlete, to represent his or her country at the Olympic Games is considered the greatest honour. To win a medal at the Olympic Games is usually the peak of a top athlete's career. The idea for the modern games was taken from ancient Greece, but in many ways the ancient games were very different from those of today.

The ancient Greek city-states had many religious festivals but the most important of them was held every four years at Olympia, in the city-state of Elis, to honour the god Zeus. The Greeks regarded 776 BCE as the year of the first **Olympiad**. By the sixth century BCE, the Olympic festival was attracting competitors from all over the Greek world. During each Olympiad a truce was declared between any city-states that were in conflict. As the Greeks were scattered over mainland Greece, the islands and colonies, these festivals contributed to a common sense of Greek identity. The Olympic festival continued to be held until 393 CE, when it was abolished by the Christian Roman emperor Theodosius I, who was opposed to all pagan festivals.

SOURCE 1 From *History of the Peloponnesian War*, by the contemporary historian Thucydides

This summer were celebrated the Olympic Games... The Spartans were refused access to the temple by the Eleans and so prevented from sacrificing and competing in the games. This was because the Spartans had not paid the fine which had been imposed upon them by the Eleans according to the Olympic law. The Elean case was that the Spartans had made an attack... and had sent **hoplites** of theirs into Lepreum during the period of the Olympic truce.

5.9.2 The events

The main events in the ancient Olympics were running races. These included the stade (a sprint), the dolichos (a long-distance race) and a race in which the competitors ran in leg guards and helmets carrying their shields. Other events included boxing, wrestling and the pankration (see **SOURCE 2**). The pentathlon was the highlight of the festival. It included discus throwing, long jump, javelin throwing, running and wrestling. When chariot racing was added to the Olympics it became the most spectacular of all events, with up to forty chariots racing and turning at high speeds. The city-states gave many rewards to their athletic heroes but crowns of olive leaves were the only official Olympic prizes.

SOURCE 2 A fifth-century BCE Athenian vase depicting the pankration, a form of wrestling in which the only banned tactics were biting and eye-gouging.



SOURCE 3 The entrance to the ancient stadium at Olympia. The arch was added by the Romans.



DID YOU KNOW?

Games were the main part of the ancient Olympic festival, which began with a religious ceremony and lasted five days. For the amusement of the crowds there were also acrobats, plays and sideshows. As the ancient games expanded, new events were added, including poetry and music competitions. Merchants attended the games to sell souvenirs. Athletes competed naked and only men were allowed to take part in the events. At first, women were not even allowed as spectators, although this changed later.

5.9 ACTIVITIES

1. Work in groups to find out why any modern country has been excluded from the Olympic Games or has chosen not to take part in them. You can find information on this issue on the internet. Present your findings to the class.
   Identifying continuity and change
2. Use **SOURCE 2** and your imagination to write and present a sport commentary on the pankration.
   Determining historical significance

5.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Where did the idea for the modern Olympic Games come from?
2. **HS2** What date is given to the first Olympiad?
3. **HS1** What god was honoured at the ancient Olympic festival?
4. **HS1** Name three events in the ancient Olympics that are not in the modern Olympics.
5. **HS1** Explain why those three events would not be held in any modern Olympics.

5.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** According to Thucydides in **SOURCE 1**:
   (a) Which Greek city-state was refused permission to attend the Olympic Games?
   (b) What evidence does this source give for reasons why a city-state could be excluded from the ancient Olympics?
2. **HS3** Study the depiction of the pankration in **SOURCE 2**. Describe what it and the other events you identified in your answer to question 4 (in 5.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding) might reveal about one purpose of the ancient Olympics.
3. **HS3** What does **SOURCE 3** suggest about how the Romans came to regard the Olympics when they conquered Greece?
4. **HS4** Make a list of the differences between the ancient Greek Olympic Games and the modern Olympics. You could organise your notes under the following headings:
   - Locations where the games are held
   - Nationalities and gender of the athletes
   - Events
   - Rewards for winners and place-getters
   - Purpose of the Olympics
   - Periods of time from the beginning to the end of one Olympic Games.
5. **HS6** Based on your work in this subtopic, how would you evaluate the historical significance of the ancient Olympics?

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5.10 Greeks, Persians and Alexander the Great

5.10.1 The first Persian invasion, 492–490 BCE

The city-states of Greece were often at war with each other, but most of them united when the mighty Persian Empire attacked Greece in 490 BCE and again in 480–479 BCE. Together they saved Greece from being swallowed up by the Persian Empire. In the following century Greece was again invaded, but this time by their northern neighbours the Macedonians, who would soon set out to conquer the known world.

In ancient times Persia was the land we now call Iran. Under Cyrus the Great (559–529 BCE) and his successor, Cambyses, the Persians won a great empire that included Anatolia (modern Turkey), Palestine, Syria and Egypt. In 499 BCE, the Greek cities of Anatolia, with help from Athens, revolted against their Persian overlords. The revolt failed and Persia seized the offshore Greek islands.

The Battle of Marathon

To punish Athens for supporting the rebellion, King Darius I of Persia sent a fleet to invade the Greek mainland in 492 BCE, but the fleet was wrecked in a storm. Still Darius demanded that the Greeks submit to him. When Athens and Eretria refused, Darius sent another fleet carrying a large Persian army. His forces captured Eretria in 490 BCE and then sailed for Attica. They landed on the plain of Marathon, 40 kilometres from Athens (see **SOURCE 1**). There, 10 000 Athenians and their Plataean allies defeated 50 000 Persians in a surprise attack.

SOURCE 1 Naval and land campaigns of the Persian Wars



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

5.10.2 The second invasion, 480–479 BCE

Darius died in 486 BCE but his son, Xerxes, spent several years organising a still greater invasion of Greece. His preparations included building a floating bridge to carry his army across the narrow strait called the Hellespont that separates Europe from Asia. A huge army of spearmen, archers and cavalry from all over the Persian Empire marched into Greece. It was supported by a great fleet sailing down the coast (see **SOURCE 1**). To meet the threat, 31 Greek states called off their quarrels and agreed to unite against the Persians.

Athens played the leading naval role in the conflict but Sparta led the Greek armies in major land battles. At Thermopylae in 480 BCE the Spartan king, Leonidas, held a narrow mountain pass against the Persian horde with just 300 Spartans and about 7000 other Greek hoplites. They were eventually defeated and killed, but they crucially delayed Xerxes' advance.

SOURCE 2 A modern artist's impression of Greek and Persian infantry at Thermopylae in 480 BCE



Naval battles

Shortly after the Battle of Thermopylae, at Artemisium, 60 kilometres from Thermopylae, a Greek fleet fought three battles against the much larger Persian fleet. Both sides suffered heavy losses, but the Persians were greatly weakened, having already lost hundreds of ships in two storms.

As the Persian fleet approached Attica, Athens was evacuated and left to be burned by the Persians. Then the Greek navy attacked the Persians at Salamis, where the sea was too narrow for the Great Fleet to be used effectively. This time the Persians were completely defeated.

The final clashes

At Plataea in 479 BCE, the Spartans led a Greek army of about 100 000 in destroying a much larger Persian force. Only a fraction of the once mighty invading army survived to return to Persia. The Greek fleet then sailed for the island of Samos off the coast of Anatolia. They landed and defeated the Persian army at Cape Mycale. Although fighting continued for many more years, the Greeks no longer feared Persian invasion.

SOURCE 3 From the description of the Battle of Thermopylae in Herodotus, *The Histories*, Book VII, 227

Of all the Spartans and Thespians who fought so valiantly, the most signal proof of courage was given by the Spartan Dieneces. It is said that before the battle he was told by a native of Trachis that, when the Persians shot their arrows, there were so many of them that they hid the sun. Dieneces, however, quite unmoved by the thought of the strength of the Persian army, merely remarked: 'This is pleasant news that the stranger from Trachis brings us: if the Persians hide the sun, we shall have our battle in the shade.'

5.10.3 Alexander the Great

The Peloponnesian Wars

Cooperation among the Greeks did not last long. During the Peloponnesian Wars (460–445 BCE and 431–404 BCE), Greece was divided into two camps —the states and colonies dominated by Athens and those who allied with Sparta. The second war finally ended when Sparta, with Persian help, forced Athens to surrender. Sparta came to dominate Greece until the Greek city-state of Thebes defeated the Spartans in 371 BCE.

SOURCE 4 A detail from the Alexander Sarcophagus (stone coffin) showing Alexander on horseback (Sidon, in modern-day Lebanon)



Macedon conquers Greece

After so many years of fighting each other, the Greek city-states were too weak to withstand a new invasion when Philip of Macedon conquered Greece in 338 BCE. Two years later Philip was murdered and his son Alexander (356–323 BCE) became the ruler of Macedon and Greece. When Thebes again revolted, Alexander crushed the city ruthlessly, killing 6000 of its people and enslaving the rest.

Alexander creates an empire

In 334 BCE, Alexander led an army of Greeks and Macedonians eastward to invade the Persian Empire. They defeated King Darius III in battles at Issus and Gaugamela in 333 and 331 BCE (see **SOURCE 5**).

SOURCE 5 The empire of Alexander the Great was established through an 11-year military campaign during which his army marched nearly 34 000 kilometres.



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

In 330 BCE, Alexander conquered Persepolis, the Persian capital, and seized control of the empire under the title 'Great King'. But his armies pressed on. By 326 BCE, Alexander had reached India and defeated the Indian king Porus, whose forces included troops on war elephants. In every land he conquered, Alexander had cities built to strengthen his control. Many were named Alexandria.

Alexander died of fever when he was only 32 years old. His huge empire fractured into three main parts: his homeland of Macedon included all of Greece; Egypt was ruled by one of Alexander's generals, Ptolemy Soter, and his descendants for three centuries; in the east, the Seleucid Empire stretched from Syria to Afghanistan.

The age of the Greek city-states ended with Alexander. But although he adopted many of the customs of the peoples he conquered, he was devoted to Greek culture, which he spread throughout much of the east. Alexander's conquests were one important way in which Greek ideas were spread far beyond Greek shores and passed down through time.

SOURCE 6 Two sides of a silver coin of Alexander the Great, probably made around 324 BCE. The figure on horseback is believed to be Alexander. The figure at left is wearing a Macedonian cloak, Greek armour and a Persian headdress and carrying a thunderbolt. They are believed to be the only surviving images of Alexander from his lifetime.



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- The Mediterranean world > **Persian Wars**
- The Mediterranean world > **Peloponnesian Wars**
- The Mediterranean world > **Philip of Macedon**
- The Mediterranean world > **Alexander the Great**

5.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is the modern name of Persia?
2. **HS1** Name the modern countries that belonged to the Persian Empire under Cambyses.
3. **HS1** What did Athens do in 499 BCE that provoked a Persian invasion?
4. **HS1** Why did the Persian invasion of Greece fail in 492 BCE?
5. **HS1** Who was Xerxes?
6. **HS1** Describe the preparations Xerxes made for the second Persian invasion of Greece.
7. **HS2** Over how many years did the Greek city-states fight each other in the Peloponnesian Wars?
8. **HS1** How did the results of the Peloponnesian Wars help Philip of Macedon to conquer Greece?
9. **HS1** Describe how Alexander treated Greek city-states that revolted against his rule.

5.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) How close did the Persian force get to Athens in 490 BCE?
   (b) Who defeated the Persians at Marathon, ending the first Persian invasion attempt?
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3** and analyse and evaluate it using the following questions.
   (a) Who wrote this source and why might it have been written?
   (b) As the Spartans were all killed at the battle, how would the writer have obtained this source?
   (c) How could we know that it is reliable?
3. **HS3** What clues do **SOURCES 2** and **3** provide about the reasons why the Spartans and other Greeks were able to delay the Persian army at Thermopylae?

4. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 4** and **6**.
   (a) Describe the way that Alexander is depicted in these sources.
   (b) Why do you think he is depicted like this? (Clue: normally only a god would be shown holding a thunderbolt.)
5. **HS3** Study the map in **SOURCE 5** showing Alexander's conquests and compare it with a map of the same region in a modern atlas.
   (a) List the ancient countries conquered by Alexander.
   (b) Find the modern names of those countries.
6. **HS2** Place the major battles of the second Persian invasion on a timeline with notations to show who won each battle and how they won.
7. **HS2** List significant events in Alexander's career in chronological order.
8. **HS5** Identify one cause of war that was significant in the Persian Wars, Philip of Macedon's conquest of Greece and Alexander's wars to build his empire.
9. **HS4** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, evaluate the extent to which Greece remained the same and the extent to which it changed from the beginning of the Persian Wars to the death of Alexander the Great.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.11 The heritage of ancient Greece

5.11.1 Medicine, mathematics, science and philosophy

Along with the idea of democracy and the Olympic tradition, many ancient Greek ideas have influenced later times, even up to our present age. The heritage of ancient Greece includes developments in science, mathematics, architecture, medicine, philosophy, drama and poetry. Ancient Greek civilisation reached its high point in the fifth century BCE. By the fourth century BCE, Greek culture had spread as far east as India through the conquests of Alexander the Great. After the Romans conquered Greece in 146 BCE, Rome absorbed Greek culture and contributed to the passing down of Greek ideas through the ages.

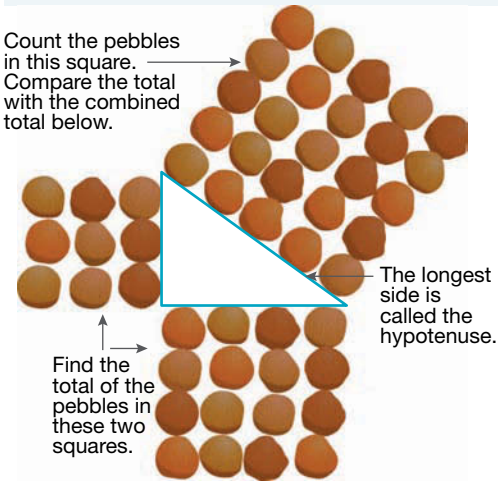
Medicine

Most ancient Greeks thought that sickness or disability was a punishment from the gods. Hippocrates (c. 460–377 BCE) practised and taught medicine, changing many of its ideas and methods. Among his teachings was the then new idea that sickness was caused by problems in the body, including diet. His set of principles to guide the conduct of medical practitioners, the Hippocratic Oath, is still widely observed today.

Mathematics, science and philosophy

Ancient Greece produced some remarkable thinkers. Anaxagoras, Aristarchus and Eratosthenes developed ideas based on observations in **astronomy**, including the idea that the Earth orbited the sun. Pythagoras (c. 582–500 BCE) arranged pebbles to show the connections between space and numbers; he is remembered today for Pythagoras's theorem (see **SOURCE 1**). As well as numbers and geometry, he was also interested in astronomy (he concluded that the Earth was round), musical notes and matter. He believed all things were made up of four elements: earth, air, fire and water. Euclid also developed explanations that are still used in geometry.

SOURCE 1 The philosopher and mathematician Pythagoras found that the square of the length of the hypotenuse (the side opposite the right angle) of a triangle was equal to the sum of the squares of the other two sides.



Thales (c. 624–546 BCE) discovered static electricity. Archimedes, who lived in the third century BCE, discovered important principles in physics.

Another achievement of the Greeks was the development of philosophy by thinkers such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. In the fourth century BCE, Aristotle taught that the other planets, the moon and the stars all moved around the Earth. This idea was mistakenly believed throughout Europe for nearly 2000 years after his death.

5.11.2 Architecture, drama and poetry

The Greeks developed building styles that are still used today. Many great modern buildings are influenced by ancient Greek styles. For example, the Melbourne Shrine of Remembrance, Geelong Town Hall, Ballarat Railway Station and the Art Gallery of New South Wales all have **porticos** like an ancient Greek temple.

Theatre was very popular in ancient Greece. One of the most famous Greek playwrights is Aristophanes (c. 448–380 BCE). He wrote brilliant comic plays that are still performed today. Few women had the chance to achieve fame in ancient Greek society, but one who did was Sappho from the island of Lesbos. Born in about 600 BCE, she became the greatest poet of the ancient Greeks. Some of her poems were preserved on Egyptian papyrus (an early form of paper), but only fragments remain. There are also many ancient Greek sayings that are still used because they remain as relevant today as they were when first written. Among them are the words of the fable writer Aesop, who lived in the sixth century BCE. He wrote, for example, 'We hang petty thieves and appoint great ones to public office' and 'In union there is strength'.

SOURCE 2 The ruins of the Erechtheion, regarded by many as the most beautiful building on the Acropolis of ancient Athens



5.11 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the internet to find out what international efforts have been undertaken to conserve the remains of buildings such as the Parthenon and Erechtheion and to conserve sculptures and other traces of ancient Greek culture. **Determining historical significance**
2. To find out more about the legacies of ancient Greece, work in groups to research one of the following questions.
   (a) What are the words of the Hippocratic Oath?
   (b) What is Archimedes' Principle and is it still used today?
   (c) Where and how were Greek plays performed in ancient times? And today?
   (d) How did the Greek idea about the elements differ from modern scientific understanding of the elements?

   Identifying continuity and change

5.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

5.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What did most ancient Greeks believe to be the cause of sickness?
2. **HS1** Draw up two columns. In the left column put the following names: Hippocrates, Pythagoras, Aristotle, Euclid, Thales, Archimedes. In the right column briefly describe their achievements or mistakes.
3. **HS1** Name two Victorian buildings that have been influenced by ancient Greek styles.
4. **HS1** Who was Aristophanes?
5. **HS1** What did Sappho achieve and why was her achievement very unusual in ancient Greek society?

5.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1** and use the pebble method to demonstrate Pythagoras's theorem.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) Describe the surviving features of the Erechtheion.
   (b) Why do you think it is regarded as an outstanding example of ancient Greek architecture?
3. **HS3** In **SOURCE 2** what evidence do the remains of the Erechtheion provide for the quality of ancient Greek building techniques?
4. **HS4** Is the observance of the Hippocratic Oath in modern times an example of continuity or change?
5. **HS5** Why did only fragments of the poetry of Sapho of Lesbos survive into later times?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

5.12 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

online only

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate ancient Greek sources?

Almost all of our knowledge of ancient Greece comes from such sources. Works of art tell us much about ancient Greek culture, especially myths and religious ideas. Buildings and sculptures tell us about technology, skills and values. Written records tell us about Greek ideas about politics, myths, history, science and a vast range of other subjects.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

5.13 Thinking Big research project: Helot manifesto

online only

SCENARIO

You are living somewhere between the seventh and fourth centuries BCE. You are a helot, one of the many Messenian and Laconian Greeks who were enslaved by Sparta in the eighth and seventh centuries BCE and who have suffered under Spartan control ever since. You are to write a manifesto (declaration) that will inspire your fellow helots to unite and rise up against Sparta.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Helot manifesto (pro-0229)

5.14 Review

online only

5.14.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

5.14.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32122)
Crossword (doc-32123)

Interactivity Ancient Greece crossword (int-7694)

KEY TERMS

Acropolis stronghold on high ground in an ancient Greek city-state
agora large open space in the centre of a Greek city that served as a public meeting area and marketplace
astronomy study of the stars and planets
democracy a political system according to which citizens choose the way in which they are governed
Dorians tribes from the north of Greece who moved into the south during the Dark Age
entrails internal organs of an animal
Ephorate five-man ruling body in Sparta that advised the kings
helot slave of the Spartan state
hoplites Greek foot soldiers
immortals gods who lived forever

Iron Age period in which people learned to use iron to make tools and weapons
metic free man living in Athens but not born there; could not vote or own property but served in the army and paid taxes
mythology a body of myths
oligarchy governing council of rich aristocrats
Olympiad a staging of the Olympic Games
omen sign that predicts good or evil
ostracism the punishment of being banished from Athens
pan-Hellenic for all the Greeks
Parthenon Athenian temple dedicated to the goddess Athena
Peloponnese peninsula the southern part of mainland Greece, joined to the north by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth
perioeci peoples of Laconian towns around Sparta who could be required to fight for Sparta but were not citizens
polis (plural **poleis**) ancient Greek city-state
portico a roof supported by columns, usually attached as a porch to a building

5.12 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

5.12.1 Tell me

What are the main ancient Greek sources?

Ancient Greek sources include pottery, tombs, temples, fortifications, weapons, tools, coins, theatres and written records. They also include artworks such as statues and other sculptures in stone and bronze and the paintings that decorated vases and other types of pottery.

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate ancient Greek sources?

Almost all of our knowledge of ancient Greece comes from such sources. Works of art, in particular, tell us much about ancient Greek culture, especially myths and religious ideas. Buildings and sculptures tell us about technology, skills and values. Written records tell us about Greek ideas about politics, myths, history, science and a vast range of other subjects. Not all ancient Greek sources are really primary sources as some were written long after the events they describe.

SOURCE 1 A sixth century BCE Spartan cup showing Spartan soldiers returning from war carrying a slain comrade



5.12.2 Show me

How do we analyse and corroborate ancient Greek sources?

When you study an ancient source, you need to think carefully about the clues it provides and ask questions about its accuracy, usefulness and reliability. You need to ask questions such as:

1. What is it?
2. Who created it and when was it created?
3. Who or what was it created for?
4. For what aspect of ancient Greek history does it provide useful evidence?
5. Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
6. What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Greek society?

These questions have been applied to **SOURCES 1** and **2**.

Ancient writers and many later historians have regarded Spartans as tough soldiers who would die fighting rather than surrender or run from battle. **SOURCES 1** and **2** are relevant to this issue.

1. *What is it?* It is a cup with a design showing Spartan soldiers carrying the body of a comrade killed in battle.
2. *Who created it and when was it created?* We do not know who made it but we know that it was created in Sparta in the sixth century BCE.
3. *Who or what was it created for?* We cannot know whom it was created for. It was made to be a cup but more likely as a decoration than for practical uses.
4. *For what aspect of ancient Greek history does it provide useful evidence?* It indicates that Spartans honoured their men who died in battle by carrying their bodies from the battlefield.
5. *Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?* Without other evidence, we cannot tell whether this source is accurate and reliable. However, several ancient Greek sources support this view of the Spartans.
6. *What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Greek society?* The Spartans regarded fighting bravely and dying in battle as great virtues.

SOURCE 2 Written by the Athenian general and historian Thucydides (c. 460–403) in his book, *History of the Peloponnesian War*, this extract describes the surrender of a force of 120 Spartans in the seventh year of this war between Athens and Sparta

was... made, to know if they [the Spartans] would surrender themselves and their arms to the Athenians... [Hearing] this offer, most of them lowered their shields and waved their hands to show that they accepted it. Hostilities now ceased... after consulting together they surrendered themselves and their arms...

Nothing that happened in the war surprised the Hellenes [Greeks] so much as this. It was the opinion that no force or famine could make [Spartans] give up their arms, but that they would fight on... and die with them in their hands: indeed, people could scarcely believe that those who had surrendered were of the same stuff as the fallen.

1. *What is it?* It is an account of the surrender of a force of Spartans during the Peloponnesian War.
2. *Who created it and when was it created?* It was written by Thucydides, an Athenian general and historian, in the fifth century BCE, soon after the events it describes.
3. *Who or what was it created for?* Thucydides wrote a history of the Peloponnesian War, a conflict that divided the Greeks for many years. The extract was part of that history. Its original readers would most likely have been other Athenians.
4. *For what aspect of ancient Greek history does it provide useful evidence?* It tells of an occasion when a Spartan army surrendered to Athenians rather than fighting to the death.
5. *Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?* In judging its accuracy and reliability, we should take into account that the writer was an Athenian general and therefore someone who had fought against the Spartans. Without other evidence, we cannot tell whether this source is accurate and reliable. However, as many other Greeks would have witnessed this event it is unlikely that Thucydides would have distorted the facts.
6. *What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Greek society?* We can conclude that, although the Spartans regarded fighting bravely and dying in battle as great virtues, they did not always carry out this ideal. If the source is reliable, we might conclude that Spartans were not always as heroic as many liked to think they were.

5.12.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

5.12 ACTIVITIES

1. Ancient writers and many later historians have regarded Spartan women as being as tough as Spartan men. **SOURCES 3** and **4** are relevant to this issue. Use the following questions to analyse **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
   (a) What is it?
   (b) Who created it and when was it created?
   (c) Who or what was it created for?
   (d) Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
   (e) Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
   (f) What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Greek society?

SOURCE 3 From Plutarch, *Moralia, III, Sayings of Spartan Women*, 241. Plutarch lived c. 46–120 CE. He was born in Athens but was an admirer of Sparta and was writing many centuries after the events he described.

Another Spartan woman killed her son, who had deserted his post because he was unworthy of Sparta. She declared: 'He was not my offspring... for I did not bear one unworthy of Sparta'.

Another, hearing that her son had fallen at his post, said: 'Let the cowards be mourned, I, however, bury you without a tear, my son and Sparta's'.

As a woman was burying her son, a shabby old woman came up to her and said, 'You poor woman, what a misfortune!' 'No, by the two goddesses, what a good fortune,' she replied, 'because I bore him so that he might die for Sparta and that is what happened for me'.

Another woman handed her son his shield, and exhorted him: 'Son, either with this or on this'.*

* In order to run from battle a soldier would have to throw away his heavy shield. A soldier who was killed in battle would be carried home on his shield.

SOURCE 4 A bronze figure of a running girl, 520–500 BCE, believed to have been made in or near Sparta



2. Apply your skills to answer the following questions.

(a) Explain how you would differentiate between ancient Greek primary sources and secondary sources about ancient Greece.

(b) Why should **SOURCE 3**, the extract from Plutarch, be classified as secondary source?

(c) In this SkillBuilder you have worked with a Spartan cup and a bronze figure (artefacts) and written accounts by two ancient Greek historians. Identify three other types of primary sources that a historian could use for a study of ancient Greece.

(d) Explain why it is sometimes difficult to judge the reliability of ancient Greek primary sources.

5.13 Thinking Big research project: Helot manifesto

Scenario

You are living during the period between the seventh and fourth centuries BCE. You are a helot, one of the many Messenian and Laconian Greeks who were enslaved by Sparta in the eighth and seventh centuries BCE, and who have suffered under Spartan control ever since. You know that the enslavement of your people has made it possible for all Spartan men to become highly trained full-time soldiers. Meanwhile you and your fellow helots are forced to work hard to provide these Spartans with their food and other needs. However, you know that your fellow helots vastly outnumber the Spartans and have never given up the desire to regain their freedom.



Task

You are to write a manifesto (declaration) that will inspire your fellow helots to unite and rise up against Sparta!

Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.

Process



- Open the projectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Working in small groups will enable you to share responsibility for the project.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric to guide your work.
- You should first read through subtopics 5.5, 5.6 and 5.12 to select relevant information and sources.
- Find further information by using other resources and weblinks listed in your **Media centre**.

- Write your manifesto using suitable subheadings in your Research forum.
- Use examples of Spartan mistreatment of helots to inspire your fellow helots to unite and rise up against Sparta.
- You can view, share and comment on other group members' writing.
- Be sure to enter the source for any information you find online.
- Check thoroughly to ensure correct spelling and grammar, and that you have completed all elements required. When happy with your work, submit your completed task to your teacher for assessment.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Helot manifesto (pro-0229)

5.14 Review

5.14.1 Key knowledge summary

5.2 Examining the evidence

- There is an abundance of archaeological evidence from ancient Greek civilisation including the remains of entire buildings, amphitheatres, statues, relief sculptures and vases.
- The ancient Greeks left many written sources, including histories, poetry and drama.

5.3 The Minoans and Mycenaeans

- Minoan civilisation developed on Crete from around 3000 BCE and was destroyed around 1575 BCE.
- Mycenaean civilisation flourished between 1400 and 1200 BCE.
- The Mycenaeans were legendary conquerors of Troy, as told in the *Iliad*.

5.4 The 'Dark Age' to the Archaic Period

- Geographical features shaped the kind of civilisation that developed in Greece and its patterns of trade.
- Most Mycenaean citadels were abandoned in this period and the art of writing was lost.
- Dorians occupied much of southern Greece.
- Many Greeks migrated from the Greek mainland.

5.5 Government in Athens and Sparta

- The city-states of Athens and Sparta developed very different forms of government.
- Under the Spartan system, power was concentrated in the hands of a few families.
- Athens adopted democracy from 508 BCE.

5.6 Everyday life in Sparta

- From around 650 BCE, Sparta became a harsh military state.
- Spartan enslavement of the Messenians made the Spartan way of life both possible and necessary.
- Spartan women had more power than Athenian women.

5.7 Everyday life in Athens

- From the fifth century BCE, Athens was a rich and beautiful city with a flourishing culture.
- Men ruled Athenian society. Women were denied education and had very few rights.
- Athenian burial customs reflected those of most of the ancient Greek world.

5.8 Laws, myth, gods and oracles

- Each Greek city-state appears to have had its own laws.
- The myths and gods of ancient Greece were common to all Greek city-states.
- The ancient Greeks believed in oracles, the most important of which was at Delphi.

5.9 The Olympic Games

- The ancient Greek Olympic festival was held every four years to honour the god Zeus.
- The festival contributed to a common sense of Greek identity.
- The festival was very different to the modern Olympic Games.

5.10 Greeks, Persians and Alexander the Great

- When the Persian Empire invaded Greece, many of the Greek city-states united and they were able to inflict crushing defeats on the Persians.
- The Greek city-states were weakened by the Peloponnesian Wars and were conquered by Macedonia.
- Philip's son, Alexander the Great, became ruler of Macedon and Greece.
- Alexander invaded the Persian Empire and created a vast empire.

5.11 The heritage of ancient Greece

- The heritage of ancient Greece includes the idea of democracy and the Olympic Games.
- Other legacies of ancient Greek culture were developments in science and the arts.
- Rome absorbed Greek culture and contributed to passing down Greek ideas through the ages.

A timeline of ancient Greece















BCE

3000
c. 3000
The Minoan civilisation develops on Crete.

1500

1400

1300

1200
c. 1400–1200
The Great Age of Mycenae flourishes.

1100
c. 1150
The Greek 'Dark Ages' (to c. 750): Many Greeks migrate from the mainland to the Aegean islands and the coast of Asia Minor.

1000
c. 1000
Dorians settle in Sparta and other Mycenaean sites.

900

800
c. 800
The Greek alphabet is developed.

700
c. 776
The First Olympiad is held.
c. 750
The Greek archaic period (to c. 490)

600
c. 490
Greek Classical Age (to c. 323): a period of great achievements in art, literature and drama

500
508
Democracy is introduced in Athens.
490
The Persian Wars begin.
460–445
The First Peloponnesian War.

400
431–404
The Peloponnesian War is waged between alliances led by Athens and Sparta.
403–371
Sparta dominates the Greek world.

300
371
The Thebans defeat the Spartans.
336
Alexander the Great becomes ruler of Greece.

200
334
Alexander the Great invades the Persian Empire.

100
146
The Romans conquer Greece.

0

CE

5.14.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

5.14 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Spartans, the Olympics and the birth of democracy. Was Ancient Greece the happening place to be?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32122)
Crossword (doc-32123)

Interactivity Ancient Greece crossword (int-7694)

KEY TERMS

Acropolis stronghold on high ground in an ancient Greek city-state
agora large open space in the centre of a Greek city that served as a public meeting area and marketplace
astronomy study of the stars and planets
democracy a political system according to which citizens choose the way in which they are governed
Dorians tribes from the north of Greece who moved into the south during the Dark Age
entrails internal organs of an animal
Ephorate five-man ruling body in Sparta that advised the kings
helot slave of the Spartan state
hoplites Greek foot soldiers
immortals gods who lived forever
Iron Age period in which people learned to use iron to make tools and weapons
metic free man living in Athens but not born there; could not vote or own property but served in the army and paid taxes
mythology a body of myths
oligarchy governing council of rich aristocrats
Olympiad a staging of the Olympic Games
omen sign that predicts good or evil
ostracism the punishment of being banished from Athens
pan-Hellenic for all the Greeks
Parthenon Athenian temple dedicated to the goddess Athena
Peloponnese peninsula the southern part of mainland Greece, joined to the north by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth
perioeci peoples of Laconian towns around Sparta who could be required to fight for Sparta but were not citizens
polis (plural **poleis**) ancient Greek city-state
portico a roof supported by columns, usually attached as a porch to a building

6 Ancient Rome

6.1 Overview

From republic to great empire. How did Rome use war to expand its power and control most of the world?

6.1.1 Links with our times

In the early twenty-first century, we live in a world in which one superpower, the United States of America, has such enormous military power that it can dominate much of the world. The last time one power was so dominant was the age of the Roman Empire. Between the second century BCE and the second century CE, Rome came to control most of the known world. For some, Roman rule brought peace and prosperity; for others it brought slavery and death. Rome was a violent society that spread its power through wars of conquest and entertained its people with cruel public exhibitions. But it was also a society that saw great achievements in science, engineering, politics, law and literature. In the fifth century CE, the Roman Empire collapsed, but many of its achievements lived on. Roman ideas have contributed in many ways to our own society. Today, largely because of the remaining traces of its ancient greatness, Rome continues to attract more visitors than almost any city in the modern world.

Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient Rome (eles-1837)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

6.1 Overview
6.2 Examining the evidence
6.3 The rise of the Romans
6.4 The spreading empire
6.5 The Roman army
6.6 Citizens and rulers
6.7 Spartacus and Nero: two significant individuals
6.8 Living in the Roman Empire
6.9 Death and the Romans
6.10 Roman law and religion
6.11 Decline and fall
6.12 Heritage of Rome
6.13 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing and corroborating sources
6.14 **Thinking Big research project:** Campaign manager for a Roman Magistrate
6.15 **Review**

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of ancient Rome















BCE

1000

900

800

753 BCE
Rome is founded, according to legend.

700

600

500

509 BCE
Rome becomes a republic.

400

390 BCE
The Gauls defeat the Roman army and sack Rome.

300

272 BCE
Rome dominates Italy.

264 BCE
The Punic Wars begin.

200

218 BCE
Hannibal invades Italy.

146 BCE
Rome destroys Carthage, ending the Punic Wars.

100

91–88 BCE
The Social War is fought between Rome and its Italian allies.

73–71 BCE
Spartacus leads the great slave revolt.

BCE
CE

27 BCE
Octavian ends the Roman Republic.

c. 30 CE
Jesus Christ is crucified.

100

43 CE
The Romans invade Britain.

200

212 CE
Roman citizenship is granted to free subjects of the empire.

303 CE
A great persecution of Christians occurs.

300

313 CE
Christianity is made legal.

378 CE
The Goths defeat a Roman army.

400

395 CE
The Roman Empire is divided into eastern and western empires.

410 CE
The Visigoths capture and sack Rome.

500

476 CE
The Western Roman Empire falls.

600

CE

6.2 Examining the evidence

6.2.1 How do we know about ancient Rome?

The Romans left many written records of their times. Among ancient Roman writers who are still read today are the historians Seneca (c. 4–65 CE), Tacitus (c. 55–117 CE) and Seutonius (c. 69–140 CE). The former Roman Empire is also rich in archaeological sources. Among the millions of visitors Italy receives each year are many who travel to see traces of ancient Roman civilisation. These traces include columns and arches erected by the Roman emperors, buildings such as the Colosseum and the remains of the ancient Roman Forum.

Pompeii

Many also visit the ruins of Pompeii, which reveal a picture of what life was like for ancient Romans. Pompeii is near the Italian city of Naples. Along with the nearby town of Herculaneum, Pompeii was destroyed when Mount Vesuvius erupted on 24 August, 79 CE. The volcano threw pillars of ash and a soft porous rock called **pumice** into the air. Pompeii, its buildings and people were buried in volcanic ash more than three metres deep. Herculaneum was hit by a blast of superheated gas that killed everyone. The town was then covered in boiling ash, pumice and rocks.

When archaeologists led by Giuseppe Fiorelli excavated Pompeii in the nineteenth century, they unearthed the streets, shops, houses and other structures of the coastal resort town of 15 000 people, along with games, decorations and even graffiti, all of which were as if 'frozen in time'. They pumped plaster into cavities left by bodies in the hardened ash to create the forms you can see in **SOURCES 1** and **2**. Pompeii provides us with detailed evidence of Roman town life because:

- the town was destroyed very quickly and few people escaped
- those lucky enough to escape had no time to take their belongings
- the town was preserved undisturbed under metres of ash for more than 1700 years.

SOURCE 1 Plaster casts of victims of the volcanic eruption that destroyed Pompeii



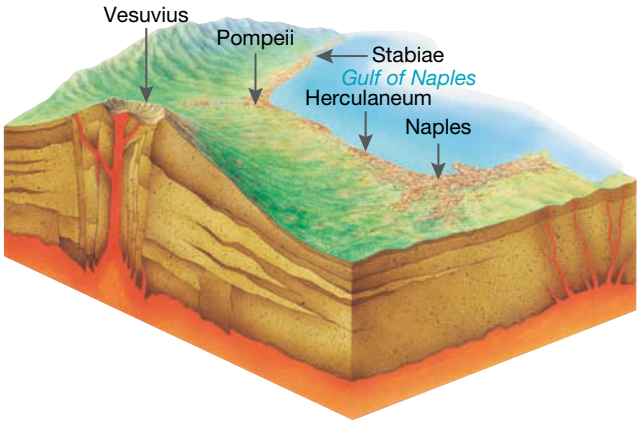
SOURCE 2 Plaster cast of a dog that was killed by the volcanic eruption



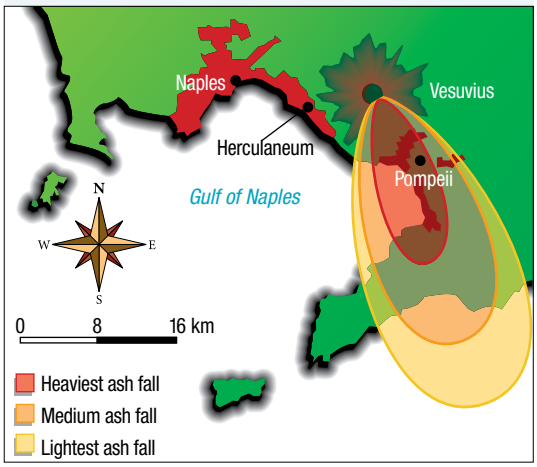
SOURCE 3 From an account by Pliny the Younger, who, as a young man, witnessed the destruction of Pompeii

By now ash, which became hotter and thicker... was falling on the boats. This was followed by pieces of tufa [porous rock] and stones blackened, burnt and cracked by the fire... Meanwhile sheets of flame and tall columns of fire were belching forth from several parts of Vesuvius, their flashing and intensity heightened by the darkness of the night... The buildings were being frequently and violently shaken and seemed as they tottered backwards and forwards to be being moved from their foundations ...

SOURCE 4 Pompeii and Herculaneum were totally destroyed by the eruption of Vesuvius. At first, the volcano spurted a column of ash and pumice high into the air, which fell back like rain. As the energy in the eruption weakened, the column collapsed into a glowing avalanche. Herculaneum, which had escaped the earlier fallout of ash, was covered by about 20 metres of boiling 'mud' — a mixture of hot ash, pumice and rocks.



SOURCE 5 The eruption of Mt Vesuvius. The prevailing winds carried most of the fallout from the explosion south, and Pompeii was soon covered by three to four metres of ash and pumice.



Source: © Wiley composition services

6.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What destroyed Pompeii?
2. **HS2** In what year did the eruption of Mount Vesuvius take place?
3. **HS2** When was Pompeii excavated?
4. **HS1** Approximately how many metres of ash and pumice covered Pompeii?
5. **HS1** What pieces of evidence do the ruins of Pompeii provide us with?

6.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Using the information in this subtopic, explain how the archaeologists created these forms.
   (b) Describe the positions of the bodies.
   (c) Do you think these people died quickly? Give reasons for your answer.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**. How can you tell that this dog suffered a very different death from the people in **SOURCE 1**?
3. **HS3** **SOURCE 3** is an eyewitness account.
   (a) What happened to people who tried to escape in boats?
   (b) How do we know that the eruption of Vesuvius was accompanied by earth tremors?
4. **HS3** List three questions you would ask about each of these three sources if you were using them as evidence for the destruction of Pompeii.
5. **HS6** Explain why Pompeii is considered one of our most valuable sources for understanding everyday life in the Roman Empire.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.3 The rise of the Romans

6.3.1 Rome's origins

Rome has a very long history — from at least 753 BCE, and possibly earlier, to the collapse of the Roman Empire in 476 CE. Historians call the period 509–27 BCE the Roman Republic and the following period the Roman Empire, because Rome was then ruled by emperors. However, Rome had been building an empire long before it was ruled by emperors.

The ancient Romans explained their origins through myths. In the myth of Romulus and Remus, twin boys were raised by a she-wolf. When they grew up they decided to establish a town on the site where the she-wolf found them. In 753 BCE, after killing his brother Remus during an argument, Romulus became the first ruler of a collection of villages on the site of present-day Rome. Over the following century these villages grew into a city, and the wolf became its symbol. The Romans and their neighbouring tribes were Latins. They lived on the plain of Latium, which had a mild climate, fertile soils and a reliable water supply from the Tiber River. The city is located where the Tiber is easy to cross and close to salt flats (salt was a very important commodity in ancient times). Rome's central location in Italy would make it easy for Roman armies to travel in several directions to combat enemies. During the sixth century BCE, Etruscan kings (from Etruria to the north) ruled Rome brutally. In 509 BCE the Romans rebelled. They expelled their last Etruscan king and developed a system of government unlike that of other city-states: Rome became a **republic**. By this time Rome was the most powerful city-state on the plain of Latium.

SOURCE 1 These items were found in a Latin (possibly Roman) tomb of a military commander who was buried about 475 BCE, soon after Rome became a republic. They include his bronze body armour, helmet, axe and spearheads (held in the National Archaeological Museum of Rome).



6.3.2 Rome's growing power

Over the next two centuries, Rome expanded its power through war. In 493 BCE, Rome made a treaty with the other Latin tribes to subdue the Aequi and Volsci, hill tribes that raided the plain of Latium. In 396 BCE, Rome captured the powerful Etruscan city of Veii. But a few years later the Gauls from the north defeated the Roman army and destroyed much of Rome. In time the Romans set about rebuilding their power, and by 272 BCE they had inflicted more defeats on the hill tribes and the **Etruscans**, suppressed revolts by their former Latin allies, crushed the **Samnites** and taken control of the Greek colonies in the south.

Tactics of power

By 272 BCE, Rome had almost 150 000 inhabitants and controlled most of Italy. It had become wealthy through plundering and taxing those it defeated. To control such a vast area, the Romans:

- used conquered peoples against one another
- made alliances with former rivals
- sold defeated enemies into slavery
- allowed conquered cities to keep their own local government, but forced them to supply troops for Rome
- colonised strategically important places with Roman citizens.

SOURCE 2 Italy in the sixth century BCE



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

DID YOU KNOW?

In the early Roman Republic most political power was held by the heads of a few powerful families. The most powerful position was consul. There were two consuls, who commanded the military and dealt with legal disputes. The republic lasted for almost 500 years.

SOURCE 3 From a description by the ancient Roman historian Livy of a Roman victory over the Volscians in 385 BCE

The large enemy forces, relying only on their numbers... were bold only in battle cry, throwing of missiles and the first onrush of the battle; sword-fighting, holding ground, an enemy's face flashing in its fury they could not stand up to. Their front lines were driven in and panic spread to the supporting troops... then the ranks were broken in many places... After that, as the first lines collapsed and everyone saw his own turn to be killed was coming to him, they turned and ran. The Romans followed hard on their heels, and so long as they kept their weapons and fled in a packed crowd, it was the infantry's task to keep up the pursuit. But when the enemy were seen to be throwing away their weapons and scattering widely over the land, then came the moment for the cavalry squadrons to be let loose... and by riding across their path hold the column until the infantry could catch up and finish the enemy off with a regular massacre.

Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- The Mediterranean world > **Republican Rome**

6.3 ACTIVITY

Create a comic strip to demonstrate the Roman tactics described by Livy in **SOURCE 3**.

Using historical sources as evidence

6.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** According to legend, why did the wolf become a symbol of Rome?
2. **HS1** How did Rome become a republic?
3. **HS1** What were Rome's geographical advantages?
4. **HS1** What caused Rome to be involved in several wars between 493 BCE and 272 BCE?
5. **HS1** What were the effects of these wars on Rome's power?

6.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Compare **SOURCE 1** with images of Greek soldiers in topic 5. Which items in **SOURCE 1** indicate that the Latins, including Romans, were influenced by the ancient Greeks?
2. **HS3** Use **SOURCE 2** to make a list of the peoples the Romans defeated to gain control of Italy.
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) According to this source, what were the weaknesses of the Volscians?
   (b) When the Volscians fled, what was the task of the Roman infantry?
   (c) How was the Roman cavalry used?
   (d) What hypothesis could you form from this source about Roman attitudes to defeated enemies?
   (e) Titus Livy (born in 59 BCE) spent more than forty years in Rome while writing his *History of Rome*. Do you think he could be biased? Give reasons for your answer.
   (f) How might a Roman soldier who had been in this battle have felt about Livy's description?
4. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**. Write an account of this battle as it might have been told by a surviving Volscian.
5. **HS4** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, identify the ways in which Rome changed between 509 and 272 BCE.
6. **HS5** Explain how Rome achieved the changes that occurred between 509 and 272 BCE.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.4 The spreading empire

6.4.1 Building the empire through war

Over the following centuries the Romans continued to expand their empire. By 146 BCE Rome was the strongest power in the area around the Mediterranean Sea. Its empire continued to grow, reaching its greatest extent in the late second century CE.

The Punic Wars

In the First Punic War (264–241 BCE), the Romans defeated Carthage, a powerful North African naval and trading city that had colonies around the Mediterranean. Rome's victory gave it control of Sardinia and Sicily and weakened a trading rival.

The Second Punic War (218–202 BCE) began when the Carthaginian general Hannibal led an invading army, including 40 elephants, over the freezing Alps and down into Italy (see **SOURCE 2**). In major battles at Trebia, Lake Trasimene and Cannae, Hannibal's force defeated Roman armies and gained allies in Italy. However, the Romans would not give in. On the advice of the general and consul Fabius Maximus, the Romans avoided further formal battles. When Rome launched counterattacks on Carthaginian Spain and North Africa, Hannibal's army had to return to defend Carthage. The Second Punic War ended with Hannibal's defeat at Zama in 202 BCE.

At the end of the Third Punic War in 146 BCE, following a long siege, the Romans finally captured Carthage. They destroyed the city totally. Every one of its people was killed or sold into slavery.

SOURCE 1 Hannibal's route and major battles in the Second Punic War



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

DISCUSS

Should we judge the actions of people from ancient worlds by the moral standards of our own age?

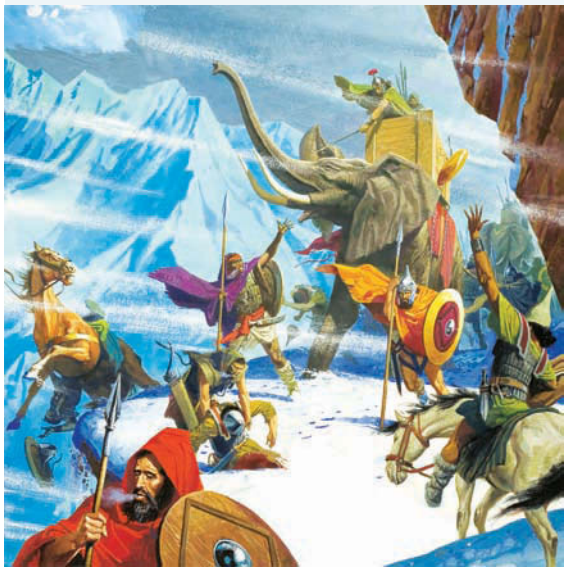
[Ethical Capability]

The Social War and the growing empire

In 91 BCE, Rome's Italian allies united against it. Their main grievance was that Rome would not allow them to become Roman citizens even though they provided most of the empire's soldiers. This conflict is known as the Social War. The Italian allies lost the war but won the right to be Roman citizens.

By about 30 BCE, the Roman Empire had grown to include most lands around the Mediterranean. It was extended far to the north when the Romans invaded Britain in 43 CE. They defeated the British tribes but were unable to defeat the tribes of Scotland. By 96 CE, the empire extended to the Rhine and Danube rivers in northern Europe, and to Armenia and Mesopotamia in the east (see the map in subtopic 6.6).

SOURCE 2 A modern artist's impression of Hannibal's forces crossing the Alps



Explore more with myWorldHistoryAtlas

Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.
- The Mediterranean world > **Punic Wars**

6.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Name the three major battles in which Hannibal defeated the Romans.
2. **HS1** How did Fabius Maximus out-manoeuvre Hannibal?
3. **HS1** What caused the Social War?
4. **HS1** How far north did the Roman Empire extend by 43 CE?
5. **HS2** When did the Roman Empire reach its greatest extent?

6.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Use **SOURCES 1** and **2** and an atlas to:
   (a) list the modern countries through which Hannibal's forces would have reached Italy
   (b) describe the hazards of Hannibal's route
   (c) suggest what this strategy might tell us about Hannibal as a military leader.
2. **HS4** In modern times, how would we describe a power that massacred and enslaved the entire population of a city, as the Romans did the people of Carthage?
3. **HS5** Identify the trade advantages, especially in sea trade, that Rome would have gained as a result of destroying the power of Carthage.
4. **HS5** General Fabius Maximus advised Rome to avoid fighting formal battles with Carthage. What alternatives to engaging in major battles could Rome have used to fight Carthage?
5. **HS6** Suggest reasons why being granted Roman citizenship after fighting in the Social Wars would have been so important to Rome's Italian allies.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.5 The Roman army

6.5.1 Roman army weapons and tactics

Until the end of the first century BCE, the Roman army was made up of citizens who owned land. They had to provide their own equipment and armour. The fighting season was from late spring until early autumn, after which the soldiers returned to their lives as farmers. Fighting was popular among Romans, as a successful general could earn much glory and become very wealthy.

As the area under Roman control grew, a bigger and better organised fighting force was needed. In 396 BCE, soldiers began to be paid, marking the start of Rome's professional army.

The Roman army was one of the most disciplined military forces that has ever existed. Men between the ages of 17 and 22 enlisted for around 20 years. They had to be fit.

SOURCE 1 Roman soldiers were well trained and well equipped.



A Each legion marched into battle behind a standard — a tall pole with a silver eagle at the top. This symbol of the 'king of the birds' represented the legion's power.

B Sandals had to be strong and well ventilated to stand up to long marches. A special pattern of iron studs was hammered into the leather soles to support the weight of the soldier evenly, and help protect the soles.

C The dagger had a double-edged blade.

D These tall, crested helmets helped soldiers see their leaders in battle.

E Roman forts were often protected against attack by palisades — sharp stakes of wood dug into the ground (some with barbs attached).

F Soldiers often stood side by side and overlapped their shields to form a protective cover called a testudo. The word 'testudo' comes from the Latin word for tortoise.

G The head of the heavy javelin was connected to the shaft by a long, thin strip of soft iron. When the point penetrated an enemy's shield, this strip would bend, making the javelin impossible to remove.

H The decorated leather strips on these belts showed the rank of a soldier. They also helped to protect against a groin injury.

I The short sword, about 60 cm long, was used to stab rather than slash. It was a very effective killing device at close quarters.

J The upper body armour was made up of metal strips held together by leather straps. It was very heavy.

6.5.2 A Roman soldier's harsh life

Soldiers were not supposed to marry, although many did in secret. As well, their food and equipment had to be paid for from their wages. Extra soldiers, called **auxiliaries**, were provided by the countries Rome had conquered.

When not marching or fighting, the soldiers, called legionaries, built camps, roads, walls and **aqueducts**. Sometimes camps were temporary; at other times, they became permanent forts that often developed into towns. They were always laid out the same way. This meant that soldiers knew how to build them and find their way around them.

SOURCE 2 The Roman historian Polybius reports that discipline in the army was harsh, with penalties that included death.

A court martial composed of the tribunes is convened at once to try [a soldier for being careless on patrol duty]. If he is found guilty he is punished by the bastinado. This is inflicted as follows: the tribune takes a cudgel [short, heavy stick] and just touches the condemned man with it, after which all in the camp beat or stone him, in most cases dispatching [killing] him in the camp itself.

Soldiers were often allowed to share the **loot** from a battle. Many were also given land when they retired. Such rewards helped to win support for military leaders who sought political power.

Organisation of the Roman army	
Unit	**Composition**
Century	About 80–100 men
Cohort	Six centuries
Legion	Ten cohorts

DID YOU KNOW?

The harshest punishment in the Roman army was decimation. It means 'removal of a tenth'. If a unit of the army was considered guilty of mutiny or cowardice, its soldiers were divided into groups of ten. Each group drew lots to decide which one would be killed. The remaining nine soldiers then had to kill their unfortunate comrade, usually by clubbing or stoning him.

6.5 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the internet to research and create an illustrated report on Roman siege engines and forts.
   Using historical sources as evidence
2. Use **SOURCE 1** to do the following.
   (a) Sketch and label a diagram of a testudo.
   (b) Explain what was meant to happen when a Roman javelin pierced an enemy's shield.
   (c) Discuss why the tactics and weapons shown in **SOURCE 1** made the Romans formidable enemies.
   Using historical sources as evidence

6.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Why did the Roman army originally fight only between spring and autumn?
2. **HS1** What began to change in the Roman army from 396 BCE and why?

3. **HS1** What did Roman soldiers have to pay for out of their wages?
4. **HS1** How were Roman soldiers employed when not fighting?
5. **HS1** Define the following key terms: 'auxiliaries', 'aqueduct', 'loot'.

6.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** According to Polybius in **SOURCE 2**, what punishment was given to a Roman soldier who was careless on patrol duty?
2. **HS3** Why do you think such brutal discipline was used?
3. **HS3** Imagine you are a new legionary. Using **SOURCES 1** and **2** as a reference, write a letter to your family describing what you see as the good and bad aspects of life as a Roman soldier.
4. **HS1** What benefits could soldiers receive and what was one motive of military leaders who provided such benefits?
5. **HS5** Rome's military leaders gained personal support by granting loot from battle to the soldiers who fought under them. Suggest what dangers this practice may have presented to Rome.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.6 Citizens and rulers

6.6.1 Social divisions

After the Romans had expelled the last Etruscan king (c. 509 BCE), they introduced a system of government called a republic. In theory, all Roman citizens had a say in how the city was to be run. In practice, power was controlled by the rich upper classes. Over the next 500 years, however, more of the people got a say, although women and slaves still had no voice at all.

To qualify as a Roman citizen you had to be 25 or older, a male and freeborn (not born a slave). Whether or not you were classed as a slave depended on the status of your mother: if she was freeborn, so were you. Citizens could vote on the way Rome was ruled. They were also protected by Roman laws.

SOURCE 1 Romans from the first century CE, depicted on an altar held in the National Museum of Rome



Roman citizens were divided into two classes — **patricians** and **plebeians** (see **SOURCE 2**). Patricians came from the small number of aristocratic families that had founded the Republic and tended to have both wealth and influence. Everyone else was a plebeian. This didn't stop some plebeians becoming very rich, but they rarely won the same influence as patricians.

There were many more plebeians than patricians, though, and in the fourth century the plebeians even went on strike to force the patricians to surrender some of their power!

One thing the plebeians won from this strike was the right to elect ten men every year as tribunes, or 'protectors of the people'. The tribunes could *veto* (Latin for 'I forbid') what any other politician was trying to do. In theory, this veto was used to protect the interests of the ordinary people.

6.6.2 Ruling the Roman Republic

Every year, Rome would elect more than fifty men to run the city. These men were known as **magistrates**, but they held office for only one year and they always had one or more colleague with the same degree of power. Roman politicians competed to get elected as more and more powerful magistrates. Once a man had held office as a magistrate, he became a member of the **Senate**. (The word *Senate* derives from the Latin *senex*, meaning 'old man'.) In theory, the Senate acted as a council of advisers to the consuls, but in reality they held much direct power. Meetings of the Senate were controlled by the consuls, the most senior magistrates (see **SOURCE 2**).

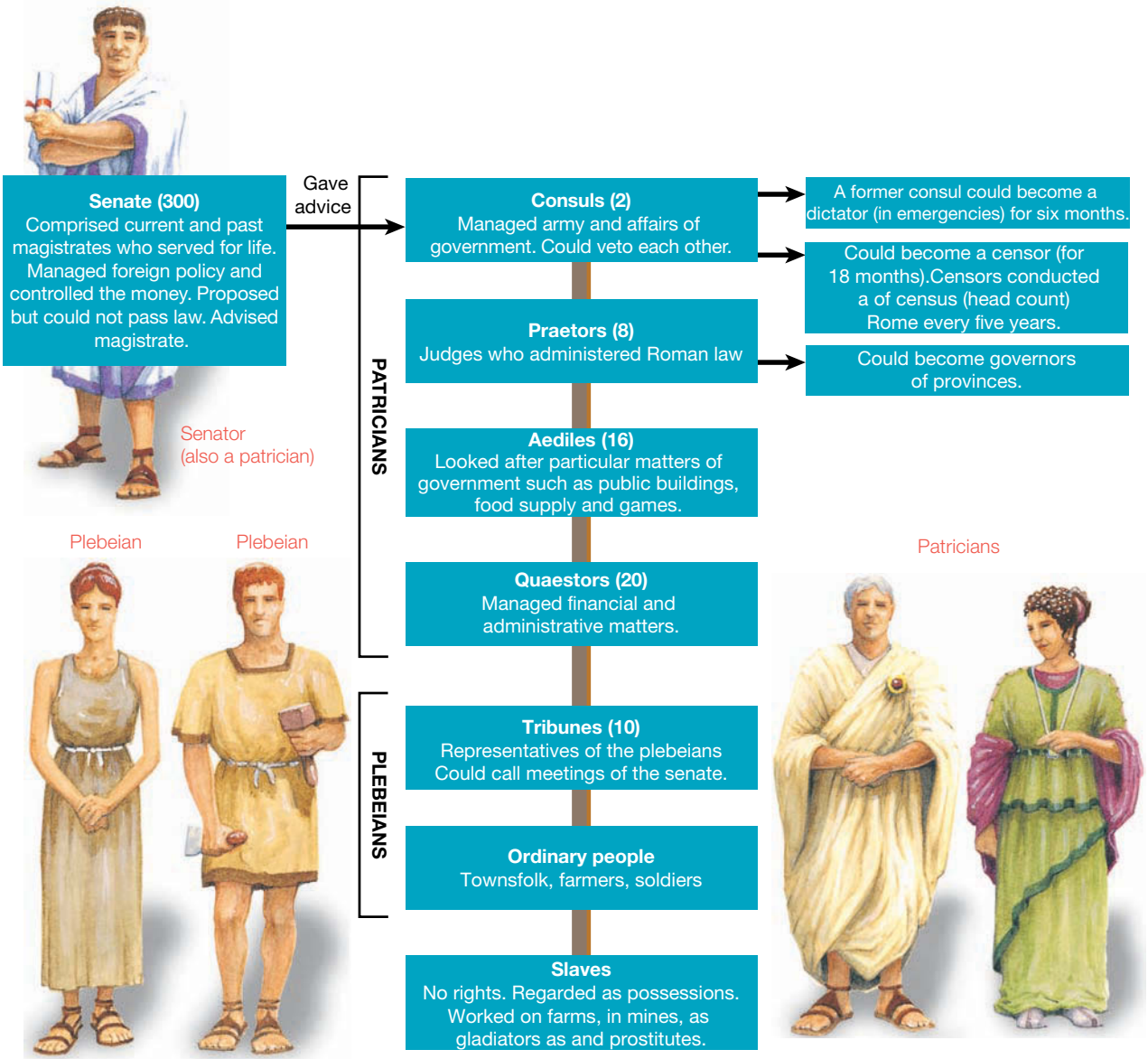
Voting in the Roman Republic

All citizens had the right to express their opinion by voting in one of several assemblies (similar to a modern parliament). These assemblies also elected the magistrates every year. Originally voting was by a show of hands, but eventually this public expression was replaced by a secret ballot. Citizens carved either 'V' (disagree) or 'A' (agree) on a small piece of wax. The pieces were then put in a container to be counted.

Democracy or not?

Although it might seem that the Roman Republic was a democracy, in reality it was not. When the republic first started, the plebeians, although citizens, had no real say, as their votes did not count as much as those of the patricians. This made the plebeians angry. In time, they set up their own assembly. The patricians were worried by this, as they knew that the plebeians (who had far greater numbers) could revolt and overrun them. So, eventually, the patricians let them elect tribunes to put forward their views. In 366 BCE, a tribune became a consul for the first time; consul was the highest rank in the republic. By 287 BCE, all decisions of the plebeians' assembly were seen as lawful. Even so, the plebeians only ever had limited power compared with that of the patricians.

SOURCE 2 Magistrates would try to move up through the ranks as this increased their wealth and power.



DISCUSS

Was the Roman Republic a republic as we understand the term today? **[Ethical Capability]**

DID YOU KNOW?

Every Roman province had to pay taxes to the Roman authorities. In 212 CE, Roman citizenship was granted to all free subjects of the empire. The empire's growth meant slavery for many. On the other hand, conquered people often adopted Roman ways, including styles of housing and dress, and many benefited from peace and increased trade. This peace imposed by the conquerors was called the *Pax Romana*.

6.6.3 From republic to empire

With increased wealth and opportunity, competition for power among the patricians intensified, plunging the city into chaos. In 27 BCE, the Roman Republic collapsed. So began the age of the emperors (a single ruler, often chosen by the Senate, but ruling much like a king). Although Julius Caesar (100–44 BCE) was not an emperor, his career marks the turning point from republic to empire (see **SOURCE 3**).

Julius Caesar

Julius Caesar outsmarted his political rivals and proved himself to be a brilliant general. His willingness to share the hardships of war, as well as the loot of battle, made him very popular with his soldiers. Using his loyal troops, Caesar seized power in 49 BCE by attacking the most powerful man in Rome, his great rival (and former friend) Pompey. In the ensuing **civil war** Caesar won control of Rome, and in 44 BCE he had himself appointed Dictator for Life.

SOURCE 3 Profile of Gaius Julius Caesar (based on the writings of the Roman historian Suetonius)

- Born 100 BCE; died 44 BCE. Class: patrician
- Well built, tall, fair hair, balding (combed his hair forward), dark brown eyes
- Very fit, but sometimes had epileptic fits
- Ambitious, but fair man who judged men on their fighting record
- Good at sword fighting, horse riding, public speaking, writing
- Often wore a wreath of laurel leaves on his head (as a sign of victory)
- Introduced the Julian Calendar, used for more than 1500 years
- Introduced a number of land, law, tax and social justice reforms



Caesar or rex?

Rex is the Latin word for king. Romans had hated kings since before they had thrown out their Etruscan rulers in 509 BCE. After Caesar's defeat of Pompey and seizure of power, some senators accused him of acting like a king. Perhaps this is why he chose not to take the title of *rex*.

Some of the senators who had survived the civil war decided they could not permit Caesar's power grab. They arranged for his murder on 15 March, 44 BCE. Among those involved in stabbing him to death were old and trusted friends such as Marcus Brutus.

SOURCE 4 Suetonius's description of Caesar's assassination (Suetonius lived about 69–140 CE)

As soon as Caesar took his seat [in the Senate House], the conspirators crowded around him as if to pay their respects. Tillius Cimber... came up close, pretending to ask a question... caught hold of [Caesar's] shoulders. 'This is violence!' Caesar cried, and at that moment one of the Casca brothers slipped behind and with a sweep of the dagger stabbed him just below the throat. Caesar grasped Casca's arm and ran it through with his stylus; he was leaping away when another dagger caught him in the breast. Confronted by a ring of drawn daggers, he drew the top of his gown over his face... Twenty-three dagger thrusts went home as he stood there.

The Roman Empire

After Caesar's assassination, his great-nephew Octavian (later called Augustus) took control of Rome. Eventually, following a period spent eliminating his rivals, he declared himself emperor. As Augustus, he founded a dynasty (family of leaders) that ruled the empire until 68 CE.

The Roman Empire endured until 476 CE under a series of emperors who either were given the title by the Senate or simply seized power.

SOURCE 5 The Roman Empire at its peak. The empire consisted of a number of provinces, each ruled by a governor.



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

DID YOU KNOW?

Australia today is a true representative democracy. All its citizens now have the same rights and privileges, no matter what their gender, race or wealth. One of their rights is the right to vote. Australian citizens can have their own opinions and may express them without fear of being punished. Citizens 18 and over can vote for politicians to represent them in government by marking a ballot paper issued during an election. Elections for Federal Parliament are usually held every three years. Federal Parliament consists of two houses — the House of Representatives and the Senate.

DISCUSS

Caesar's ambition and method of seizing power was the cause of his assassination. Discuss. **[Ethical Capability]**

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Deepen and check your understanding of this topic with related case studies and auto-marked questions.

- The Mediterranean world > **Roman Civil Wars**
- The Mediterranean world > **Roman Empire**

6.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Who could be a Roman citizen?
2. **HS1** In theory, who had a say in how the Roman Republic was run?
3. **HS1** In practice, which social class really ran Rome?
4. **HS1** How did some of the ordinary people gain a share of power in the fourth century BCE?
5. **HS1** What was a magistrate in ancient Rome?
6. **HS1** How did a Roman become a member of the Senate?
7. **HS2** When did the Roman Republic collapse?
8. **HS1** How did Julius Caesar seize power?

6.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** To which social class do you think the Romans in **SOURCE 1** would have belonged? Give the reasons for your answer.
2. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 2**, describe the roles and powers of the following: consuls, praetors, aediles, quaestors and tribunes.
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3**, identify and describe the characteristics of Julius Caesar that would have helped his quest for power.
4. **HS3** According to Suetonius in **SOURCE 4**, how many Romans must have taken part in the assassination of Caesar?
5. **HS3** How would you test the reliability of **SOURCE 4**?
6. **HS3** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, what features of Rome's society, political system and growth of its empire might have made it difficult for it to remain a republic?
7. **HS6** Evaluate the significance of Julius Caesar in changing the history of Rome.
8. **HS6** Do you think the concerns of the senators would have been shared by the common people? Why or why not?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.7 Spartacus and Nero: two significant individuals

6.7.1 Spartacus: leader of the great slave uprising

No two leaders could have been less alike, nor could they have played more different roles in Rome's history, than Spartacus the slave and Nero the emperor. Spartacus was a gladiator who led a massive slave rebellion that spread fear through Rome. Nero has long been regarded as a cruel and wasteful tyrant who became a symbol of the worst aspects of Roman power.

As the Roman Empire grew, so did the number of captives who were sold into slavery. Rome's wealth was built on slavery, and slaves usually had the most miserable lives of all people in its empire. Many slaves worked on the estates of rich Romans. Others were servants. For the slightest act of rebellion a slave could be killed by **crucifixion**.

Those who suffered most were miners, prostitutes and gladiators. Mineworkers rarely lived past the age of 21. Prostitutes often died young from abuse or disease. Few gladiators lived for long, as they were trained to fight to the death for the amusement of Roman crowds (see **SOURCES 2** and **3**). Unlike many slaves, however, gladiators knew how to fight.

SOURCE 1 A Roman stele (funerary monument) of a freedman (former slave), dressed in a toga, and his freedwoman wife



SOURCE 2 From an account of gladiators in combat by the Roman historian Seneca (4–65 CE)

I arrived at the Colosseum in the middle of the day... No sooner has a man killed his rival than the crowd shout for him to kill another, or be killed. In the end every fighter dies... why watch their sufferings?

In 73 BCE, at Capua, south of Rome, an event took place that started a rebellion that shook the Roman Empire. It began when a group of gladiators overpowered their guards and escaped. Their main leader was a **Thracian** gladiator called Spartacus. Their numbers soon grew to thousands as they freed other slaves and taught them how to fight. They defeated each Roman legion that was sent to crush them, and by the following year the rebel force numbered about 10 000 and was growing fast as it raided Roman towns and freed more slaves. Panic spread throughout Rome.

The rebels were eventually defeated. Two of their groups were wiped out by Roman legions. The main rebel force under Spartacus was at last defeated in a pitched battle in which as many as 60 000 rebels may have died fighting (see **SOURCES 4** and **5**). Six thousand were taken prisoner. To serve as an example to others who might consider rebellion, the entire 6000 were crucified along the road from Capua to Rome.

SOURCE 3 A relief sculpture depicting two gladiators named Scholasticus and Damascenus from the third century CE. The sign indicates that Damascenus died in the fight. Most gladiators' lives ended this way, although a few very successful fighters were able to buy their freedom.



SOURCE 4 From an account of the slave revolt by the Greek historian Plutarch (c. 46–120 CE)

Spartacus... was a Thracian from the nomadic tribes and not only had a great spirit and great physical strength, but was... most intelligent and cultured... Spartacus had grown to be a great and formidable power but... could not expect to prove superior to the whole power of Rome, and so he began to lead his army towards the Alps... His men, however, would not listen to him. They were strong in numbers and full of confidence ...

... both consuls were sent out to deal with what was considered a major war and a most difficult one to fight ...

SOURCE 5 From Plutarch's description of the final battles of the revolt

Crassus's troops killed 12 300 men, but he found only two of them who were wounded in the back. All the rest died... fighting back against the Romans.

... Spartacus... surrounded by enemies, still stood his ground and died fighting to the last.

DID YOU KNOW?

Slaves had no rights at all until a law enacted by Emperor Claudius banned the practice of torturing or killing them. In reality, however, this law often failed to protect them. A few educated slaves led fairly comfortable lives and some slaves were granted their freedom or were able to save enough money to buy it, but for most slaves life was harsh.

6.7.2 Nero: emperor, party-thrower and murderer

Nero Claudius Caesar Drusus Germanicus was the adopted son of Emperor Claudius. Nero was just 17 when he became emperor in 54 CE after his mother, Agrippina, had Claudius poisoned. At first Nero behaved like a competent and fair ruler, but within five years he had murdered his step-brother and his mother and divorced his wife and step-sister Octavia, whom he later murdered.

Nero sought popularity by spending vast sums of money raised by taxes on parties and public spectacles. Among the many terrible things attributed to him, Nero had high-ranking senators tortured and killed for treason so that he could confiscate their property to fund his wasteful lifestyle. By 68 CE, Rome's provinces rebelled against him. Fearing execution, Nero committed suicide.

SOURCE 6 An account of Nero's lifestyle by the ancient Roman writer Suetonius (c. 69–140 CE)

He gave an immense variety of entertainments... parties, chariot races in the Circus, stage plays, a gladiatorial show... and actually raced four-camel chariots! At the Great Festival, as he called the series of plays devoted to the eternity of the Empire... all kinds of gifts were scattered to the people...

Nero practiced every kind of obscenity, and... finally invented a novel game: he was released from a cage dressed in the skins of wild animals, and attacked the private parts of men and women who stood bound to stakes.

SOURCE 7 An extract from Alexander Canduci, Triumph and Tragedy: the rise and fall of Rome's immortal emperors, published in 2010

Nero was a conundrum [riddle]. His creative and artistic side sat uneasily next to his bloodthirsty paranoia [mental illness marked by fear of being persecuted] and... disregard for others... In the aftermath of the fire [the Great fire of Rome in 64 CE], rumours spread that Nero was the culprit who had started it. In order to throw suspicion off himself... Nero... began a campaign against the Christians... feeding them to the beasts at the great games, crucifying them and setting them alight.

SOURCE 8 An extract from an article written by Robert Draper 'Rethinking Nero', published in *National Geographic* in 2014

The case against Nero... would appear to be open and shut. And yet... his death was followed by outpourings of public grief... mourners long continued to bring flowers to his tomb...

The dead do not write their own history. Nero's first two biographers, Suetonius and Tacitus, had ties to the elite Senate and would memorialise his reign with lavish contempt ...

Nero's early reign was golden. He banished Claudius's secret trials, issued pardons, and when asked for his signature on a death warrant, moaned, 'How I wish I had never learned to write!'

SOURCE 9 The site of Rome's Circus Maximus, where, according to Suetonius, Nero drove a chariot in a race



6.7 ACTIVITIES

1. Working in small groups, write a racing commentary on Nero's chariot race in a style that would have won favour with him. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Imagine you are a slave who has joined Spartacus. Write a letter to your fellow slaves telling them your reasons. **Determining historical significance**

6.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Which group in Roman society benefited most from slavery?
2. **HS1** What do you think would have been the worst jobs for slaves?

3. **HS1** Why were the gladiators able to launch a slave revolt?
4. **HS1** How did Nero become emperor of Rome?
5. **HS1** What crimes did he commit against his own family?
6. **HS1** How did he gain popularity?

6.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Freedmen and freedwomen were former slaves. The toga was a sign of Roman citizenship. How does **SOURCE 1** provide evidence that some slaves were able to advance in Roman society?
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) How can you tell that not all Romans approved of gladiatorial combats?
   (b) Do you think many Romans would have shared Seneca's perspective? Why do you think this?
3. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3** as your evidence, how long do you think a gladiator's career would be likely to last?
4. **HS3** Read **SOURCES 4** and **5**. Explain what these sources say about:
   (a) how big a threat the slave revolt posed to the power of Rome
   (b) why Spartacus was finally defeated
   (c) the courage of Spartacus and the other rebels.
5. **HS3** For what two sides of Nero's character does **SOURCE 6** provide evidence?
6. **HS3** Does **SOURCE 7** accept or support the view of Suetonius?
7. **HS3** **SOURCE 8** questions the accepted view of Nero.
   (a) How does it cast doubt on the reliability of Suetonius?
   (b) What does it suggest about how the common people of Rome regarded the changes brought about by Nero?
   (c) How does this interpretation differ from that of **SOURCE 7**?
8. **HS4** Identify and describe ways in which people's lives were changed by Nero.
9. **HS6** Explain why Spartacus should be regarded as a significant individual in Roman history.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.8 Living in the Roman Empire

6.8.1 Changing Roman society

Around 90 per cent of people in the Roman Empire were peasants who lived on farms or in villages. Far fewer lived in towns and cities. Wherever they were, the poor lived very differently from wealthy Romans. Some plebeians became wealthy through trade but most were skilled or unskilled workers, shopkeepers or **tenant farmers**. As more slaves were used as workers, increasing numbers of poor citizens became unemployed. By contrast, wealthy Romans usually did no physical work and lived in luxurious villas with baths and even underfloor heating. As the empire grew, so did the gap between the rich and the vast numbers of the poor.

Large Roman towns were well planned, with government buildings and a **forum** where the citizens could gather. Within the city of Rome were expensive villas for the rich and fine government buildings. The rich feasted at banquets where they ate lying on their sides on couches while being entertained by dancers and musicians. Some made it a habit to overeat then vomit so they could continue to feast.

Meanwhile, the poor survived on bread and porridge and lived in rented slums without kitchens, toilets, heating or running water (see **SOURCE 1**). Their drinking water came from public fountains and they washed in public baths. To keep the poor from rebelling, the ruling classes provided free grain, public baths and toilets and cruel forms of entertainment. They also encouraged the poor to live in colonies in conquered lands.

SOURCE 1 From a description of housing conditions of the poor by the Roman writer Juvenal, first century CE.

We live in a city shored up with slender props... for that is how the landlords stop the houses from falling down.

The impact of slavery on social change

The main reason for the existence of large numbers of poor citizens in Roman towns was the vast number of conquered peoples who became slaves. The increased use of slave labour changed Rome from a society based mainly on small farmers to one based more on large agricultural estates owned by the very rich and worked by slaves. Many of the city-dwelling poor were displaced Roman citizens who moved from the countryside to towns and survived on casual work or on the dole.

DID YOU KNOW?

Public entertainments included executions, live animal hunts, fights between tormented animals and contests between gladiators and animals. So many lions were captured for wild animal shows that the species disappeared in the Middle East.

6.8.2 Roman culture

Rome produced a rich culture, but it was probably enjoyed by less than five per cent of the population. These Romans were influenced by the cultures of some of the peoples they conquered, especially the Greeks. From Greece, the Roman armies brought back paintings and statues. Rich Romans used Greek slaves to educate their children and to decorate their homes and public buildings with paintings, sculptures and statues. Many Roman statues of Roman leaders and gods were copies of Greek statues.

The Romans adopted and imitated Greek literature. Homer's *Odyssey* was translated into Latin and plays were performed at festivals. Many of these plays were comedies that ridiculed everyday events. Roman writers produced histories, poetry and books on military tactics, law and medicine. Among the most famous was the poet Virgil. His greatest work was the *Aeneid*, which tells the story of Aeneas, who, according to legend fled from the destruction of Troy and founded Rome. Virgil's success showed that some Romans could rise from poor backgrounds. He was the son of a peasant. Horace, another great Roman poet, was the son of an ex-slave. Both were encouraged by Augustus and benefited from the tradition of noble **patronage**.

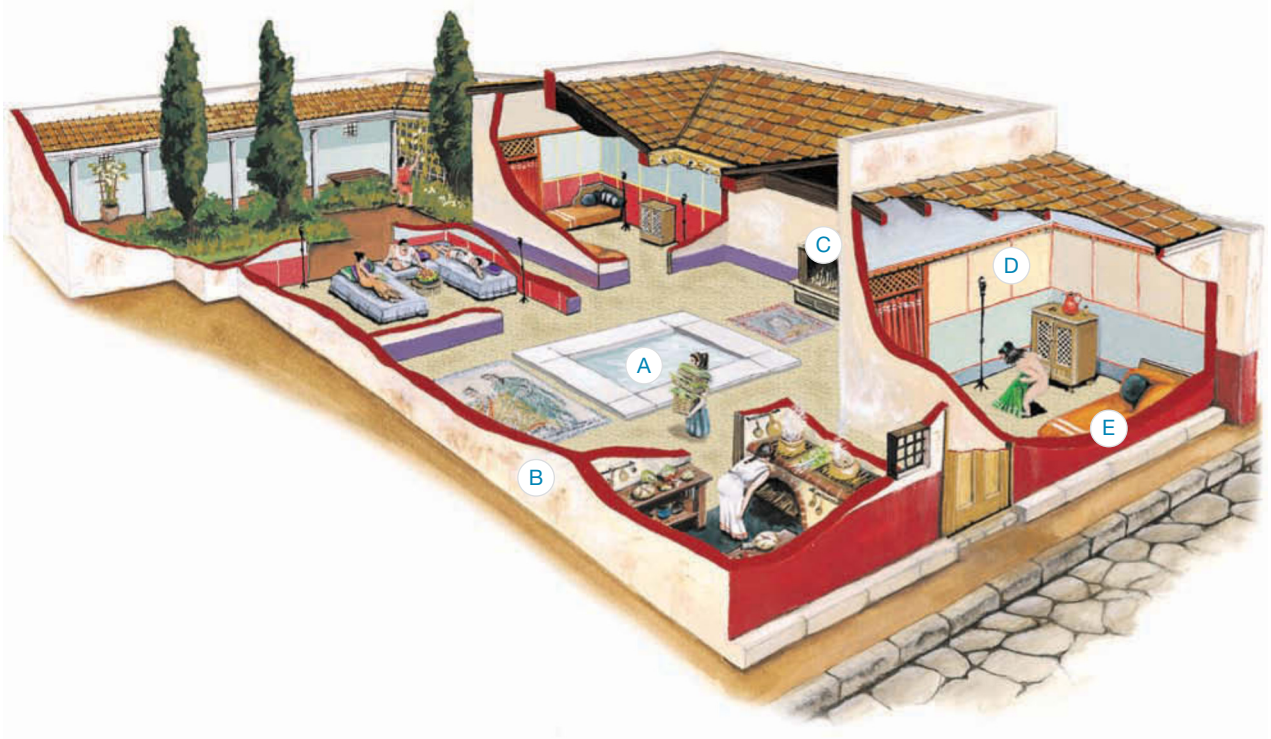
Virtues

Among the ideas of the ancient Romans, **virtue** was considered very important. Roman writers and philosophers praised such virtues as family values, patriotism and justice. In schools, boys were taught to read, write and use Roman numerals. They also learned **rhetoric** and logical thinking and studied the works of great classical writers.

DID YOU KNOW?

Roman fathers had total power over their families, including the power to kill their children or sell them into slavery. Girls received little schooling other than in household skills. Married women had few rights and could be killed if they committed adultery.

SOURCE 2 A typical villa of the type occupied by wealthy Romans



- **A** The atrium, or central courtyard, contained a shallow pool. The pool was filled by rain that entered through an opening in the roof (through which light also entered).
- **B** The solid high external walls had few or no windows.
- **C** The lararium, or household shrine, was also usually erected in the atrium.
- **D** Small olive oil lamps made of pottery or bronze provided lighting in the evening.
- **E** Furniture consisted mainly of beds, couches, low tables and chairs, which sat on a mosaic or tiled floor. The floor was sometimes heated from beneath.

6.8.3 Roman technology

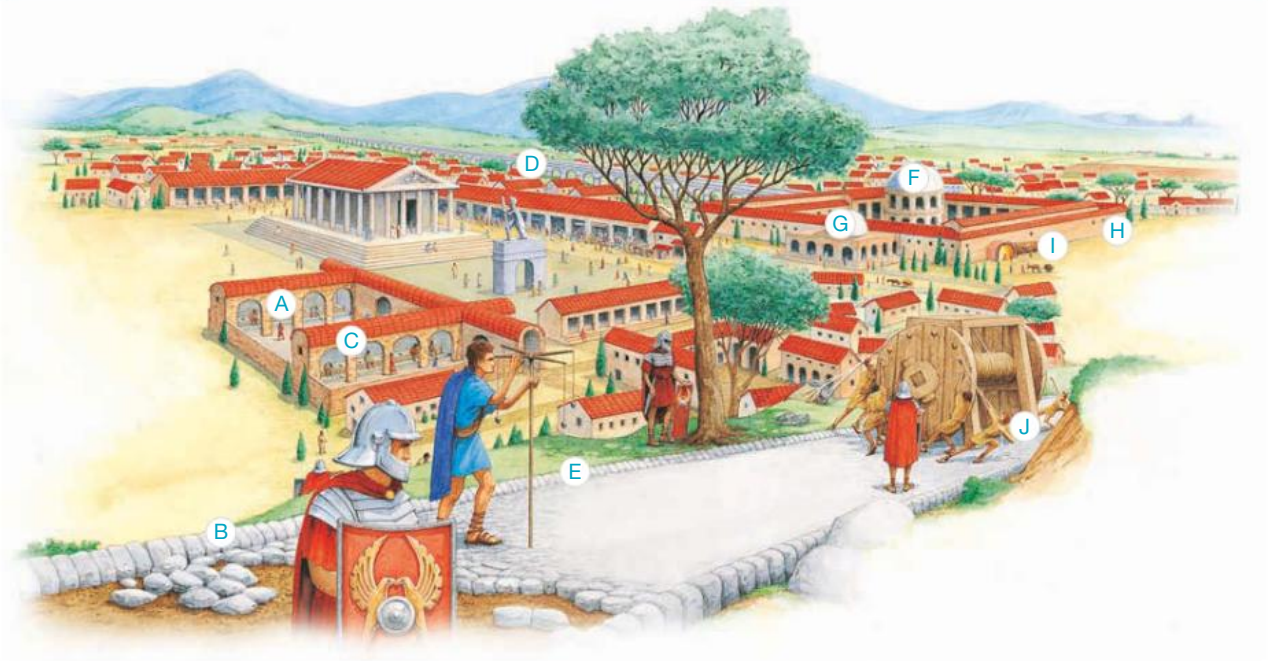
The Romans built some 84 000 kilometres of roads, as well as countless bridges, walls, aqueducts, temples and public buildings, including baths. They had no earthmoving equipment, steel cranes, power tools or computer-aided design, yet the way they built many of these structures was not bettered for nearly 2000 years.

As the Roman Empire expanded, it became important to master the skills needed to build it, protect it and connect and service its various parts. Roads, walls and towns had to be built, and towns needed facilities such as water supply, toilets and **public baths**. Much of the work was done by the army. The Romans became so good at engineering and construction that many of their structures are still used today.

DID YOU KNOW?

Roman engineering was so good that many Roman public buildings still stand. They supplied running water and sewerage to the homes of wealthy people who could afford pipes, taps and flushing toilets. Some blocks of flats for the poor, on the other hand, were so badly built that they fell down within a few years. Fires were such a problem in Rome that in the year 6 CE a fire-fighting force, called the Cohortes Vigilium, was set up.

SOURCE 3 The general layout of cities throughout the Roman Empire followed the pattern set for the city of Rome.



A Roman public toilets consisted of stone or concrete benches with holes in them. A channel of running water under the holes removed human waste. A sponge on the end of a stick was used for cleaning.

B Roman roads were usually straight, and often very long. They were usually laid on a bed of rubble, over which was poured a layer of concrete or gravel. Sometimes stone slabs were placed on top. They were slightly higher in the middle so that water and debris could wash off easily.

C The Romans further developed the Etruscans' arch to produce, first, the singletunnel vault (many arches joined together, one behind the other), then the cross-vault (two tunnel vaults crossing at right angles) and then the revolutionary dome.

D Aqueducts allowed water to flow down to a settlement by means of gravity. To ensure that the water flow did not stop, they had to be built very precisely.

E The Romans were also able to fire bricks, and to use building tools such as rulers, chisels, squares (to measure angles) and a surveying instrument called a groma. By lining up the two weighted strings on the end of each bar of the groma with landmarks, engineers were able to build roads that were straight and level.

F Domes were used on many public buildings, including some baths. The most spectacular example is the dome on the Pantheon, a temple built to all the gods in around 120 CE. Spanning 43 metres in diameter, it is still the second biggest in the world.

G Building was revolutionised when the Romans found out how to make concrete. It was discovered that when a volcanic dust called pozzolana was mixed with lime and water, it set into a hard material.

H People went to the public baths every day to wash and to socialise. The complexes contained hot and cold pools, saunas, reading rooms, hair salons, dressing rooms, exercise yards and shops. Some of them held thousands of people.

I The water in the public baths was heated by a **hypocaust**. Slaves kept large fires burning in the basements of buildings or outside them. The hot air was fed under the floors and up through a series of tunnels to heat some of the pools.

J Roman cranes were large wooden structures, powered by a big wheel turned by slaves.

6.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Draw a mind map to compare the lives of the rich and poor in the Roman Empire.

Remembering and understanding

2. Use the internet to research the construction and features of one famous Roman structure. You could choose, for example, the Pantheon, the Colosseum, the buildings of the Roman Forum or the Baths of Diocletian. **Using historical sources as evidence**

6.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What occupations were most plebeians engaged in?
2. **HS1** Why did large numbers of plebeians become unemployed?
3. **HS1** Describe some ways in which privileged Romans were influenced by Greek culture.
4. **HS1** What virtues were praised by Roman writers and philosophers?
5. **HS1** What powers did Roman fathers have within their families?
6. **HS1** How was the education of boys different from that of girls?
7. **HS1** What facilities were needed in a Roman town?
8. **HS1** What did the Romans do about the risk of fires?

6.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What evidence does **SOURCE 1** provide about the housing of the poor in Rome?
2. **HS3** Imagine you are a member of the wealthy Roman family who own the villa depicted in **SOURCE 2**. Describe how you would furnish and decorate your house and what preparations you would make for your first banquet.
3. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 3**.
   (a) Describe a Roman public toilet.
   (b) Explain how aqueducts worked.
   (c) Explain how public baths were heated.
   (d) Draw and label a diagram to explain how Roman roads were built.
4. **HS3** How would you account for the housing of the poor being so inferior, as described in **SOURCE 1**, when the Romans had the excellent building skills shown in **SOURCES 2** and **3**?
5. **HS3** Imagine you are one of the plebeians driven from the countryside to the city and with no choice but to live in a slum like those described in **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) How would you feel about the social changes that had brought this about?
   (b) How would you regard those who could live in a villa like that shown in **SOURCE 2**?
6. **HS4** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, explain how the growth of the Roman Empire changed Roman society.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.9 Death and the Romans

6.9.1 Beliefs and funeral customs

Death and the customs associated with funerals provide an enormous amount of primary source evidence for ancient Roman society and its values and beliefs. Roman cemeteries were located outside the boundaries of cities. The inscriptions and sculptures on tombs and altars, along with writings about death, reveal a lot of what Romans believed about honouring the dead and about souls and an afterlife.

On Roman ideas about life after death, we have the writings of just a few highly educated Romans and they expressed various different beliefs. However, at least some and possibly many Romans appear to have believed that souls went on living after the death of a body and that they might be judged in an afterlife. Sometimes a coin was placed in or over the dead person's mouth. This custom appears to have been adopted from the Greeks, who believed a coin was needed to pay the ferryman who transported souls of the newly dead across a river that separated the underworld from the world of the living.

Regardless of beliefs about an afterlife, Romans thought that they had a duty to care for their dead ancestors. When a family member died, their closest relative would close the eyes of the deceased and all family members would mourn, calling out the dead person's name. After the deceased person's body was washed and anointed it would be dressed in clothes that reflected their position in Roman society; for example, a deceased male citizen would be dressed in a toga.

Funeral processions took place between the deceased's home and the cemetery. Ceremonies were held at both places. They included chanting and a eulogy, which was a formal speech honouring the deceased. Families who could afford it would also sacrifice an animal in the presence of the dead body.

SOURCE 1 This stele (upright stone slab) served as the grave marker of a Roman family group of former slaves with a male child.



6.9.2 Tombs and commemorations

Throughout most of the period of the Roman Empire, dead bodies were usually cremated and the ashes were kept in urns. But this was later mostly replaced by burial. If they could afford it, people would have the body of a dead family member paced in a sarcophagus (a stone coffin). Wealthy Romans often owned very grand tombs that had several chambers for family visits. Poorer Romans had small, simple tombs. In the city of Rome, those who could not afford tombs used the catacombs. These were large networks of tunnels cut into soft rock below the city.

Following funerals, the dead continued to be commemorated in several ways. An epitaph would be inscribed on the tomb, often recording the deceased's span of life and information about their family relationships, occupations and any public offices they held. Each year, the dead were honoured during the nine-day festival called the Parentalia. In addition, portrait busts of a dead family member were often made of bronze or stone to be displayed in homes of wealthy families.

SOURCE 2 An inscription on this sarcophagus reveals that it was donated by two Roman citizens to their friend. The figures on the sarcophagus are a cobbler (shoemaker) and a spinner (a maker of thread for cloth). It is probable that one of these occupations was that of the deceased and the other was that of the donors.



6.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe what family members did at home and at the cemetery following a family member's death.
2. **HS1** What does the custom of placing a coin on or in a dead person's mouth reveal about:
   (a) the influence of Greek myths on Roman ideas
   (b) the belief, held by at least some Romans, in an afterlife?
3. **HS1** Where did the funeral ceremonies take place in ancient Rome?
4. **HS1** What was a sarcophagus?
5. **HS1** How different were the tombs and burial places of the rich and the poor?

6.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** The child in **SOURCE 1** is wearing a toga, a symbol of Roman citizenship. Explain what this tells you about the possibility of moving up in Roman society.
2. **HS3** Form a hypothesis that might explain the gift of the sarcophagus in **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** In a style that would appeal to their families, write a eulogy for any one of the figures in **SOURCE 1** or **SOURCE 2**.
4. **HS4** Use the sources and other information in this subtopic to explain some things about Roman society that we could discover from evidence about funeral customs. Use the following headings: attitudes to the dead, beliefs about an afterlife, occupations, social classes, changes enabling movement between social classes.
5. **HS6** There were at least 40 networks of ancient catacombs under the city of Rome, often decorated with wall paintings. Explain why the catacombs are important to Roman historians and archaeologists.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.10 Roman law and religion

6.10.1 Roman law

During the period of over 1200 years between Rome's foundation in 753 BCE and the fall of the Western Roman Empire in 476 CE, there were many changes that affected Roman society. None were more important than changes in law and religion.

It is probable that when Rome was ruled by Etruscan kings there were no laws other than a king's decisions. However, the system of government in the Roman Republic created the need for written laws to prevent the patrician class from always dominating matters of law and magistrates from interpreting the law unfairly. According to ancient Roman historians, in 451 BCE, ten Roman citizens were given the job of recording the laws that were in practice. These laws were approved and adopted in 450 BCE as the Twelve Tables (see **SOURCE 1**). These dealt mostly with the rights of citizens because women, children and slaves came under the authority of the male head of the family.

As Rome's society and economy became more complicated, new laws were added as the need arose. Roman law came to cover a huge range of matters that affected everyday life. These included crime and punishment, property, trade, industries, sex, slavery and politics. Although all Roman citizens were supposed to have the same rights under the law, the rich could often use bribery to get an advantage (see **SOURCE 2**).

SOURCE 1 Three laws from the Twelve Tables

Table IV, law 2: If a father sell his son three times, the son shall be free from his father.

Table V, law 1: Females shall remain in guardianship [under the control of their fathers] even when they have attained their majority [became adults].

Table XI, law 1: Marriages should not take place between plebeians and patricians.

SOURCE 2 From the Roman writer Petronius, who lived in the first century CE

What use are laws when money calls the tunes and people without a gentleman's income have no real rights at all?

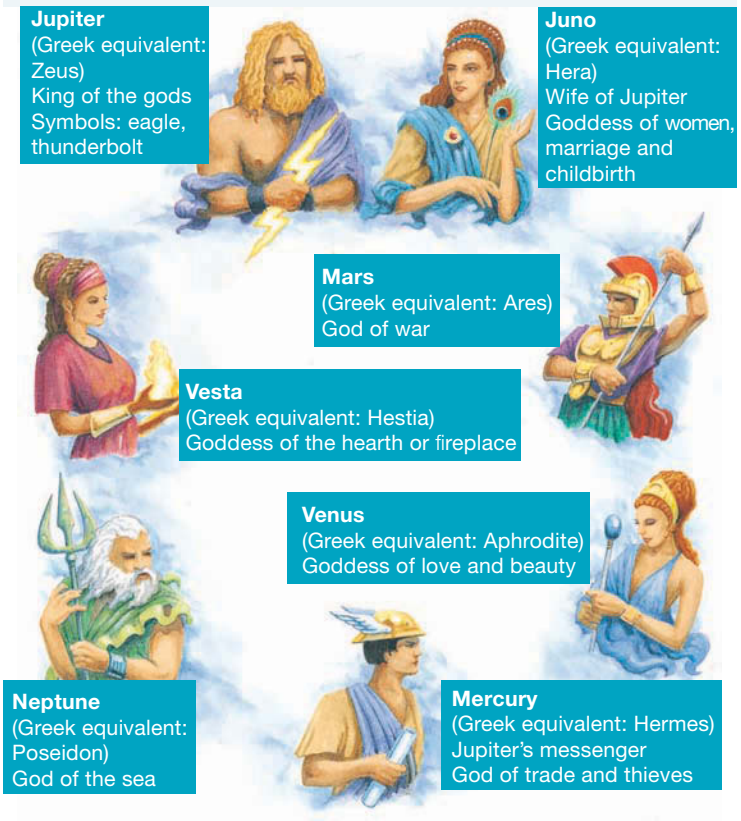
Changing laws

Over the many centuries of the Roman Empire, Roman law changed by many means. These included magistrates' decisions, decrees of the Senate, votes in the assembly, decisions of the jurists (a small group who were responsible for giving expert legal opinions) and edicts (orders) of emperors. Emperors increasingly assumed powers to create completely new laws. For example, in 212 CE, Emperor Caracalla issued an edict giving Roman citizenship to all free people within the Roman Empire. During the age of the emperors, Roman law became less harsh. New laws gave some protection to women, children and the poor.

6.10.2 Roman religion

The Romans believed in hundreds of gods and goddesses. They usually tolerated the religions of people they conquered as long as those people were willing to pay homage to the Roman emperor. Romans believed that religion was closely related to government and that other religions were a danger only if they threatened Rome's authority. Roman religion did not tell people how to live better lives and there was no fixed belief about an afterlife. It was more concerned with performing rituals in return for protection from misfortune.

SOURCE 3 Some Roman gods and goddesses and their Greek equivalents



Roman state religion

The Roman authorities built temples to the gods, conducted regular rituals to please them, and organised religious festivals with processions, music and animal sacrifices. Roman homes also had shrines at which families sacrificed to their household gods.

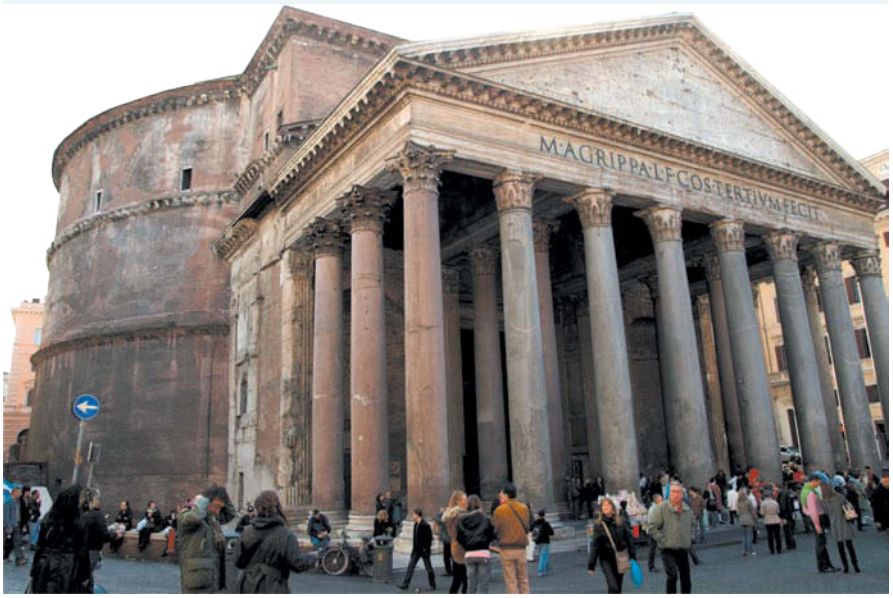
Romans believed that it was important to know the will of the gods before political decisions were made.

They believed that the gods sent signs, or omens; the skill of reading them was called **divination**. Methods of divination included studying the entrails of sacrificed animals, rolling dice, **astrology** and consulting oracles. Some oracles were inscriptions written on tablets. These were shuffled like cards by a child, who then gave one to the person seeking to discover the will of the gods.

Adopted gods

As the empire expanded, Romans adopted more gods from the people they conquered, especially the Greeks. The Greek sea god Poseidon was identified with Neptune, the Roman god of water. The Greek god Zeus was identified with Jupiter, the most important of all Roman gods. Several Egyptian and Persian gods were also adopted. Mithraism, the cult of Mithras, the Persian god of light, held that there was life after death. Mithras was especially popular among Roman soldiers. When the Romans decided to worship Sulis, a goddess of the Celts, they equated her with the Roman goddess Minerva and changed her name to Sulis Minerva.

SOURCE 4 The Pantheon, the largest Roman temple. It was built between 118 and 128 CE.



6.10.3 The spread of Christianity

Christianity arose in Roman Palestine (Judea) in the first century CE. It was based on the teachings of Jesus Christ, a Jew who preached that he was the son of God and that through faith people could receive forgiveness for their sins and gain eternal life. Jewish religious leaders saw Jesus as a threat, so they had him arrested and condemned to death. When Pontius Pilate, the Roman governor, approved the sentence, Jesus was executed by crucifixion.

SOURCE 5 Account by the Roman historian Tacitus (c. 56–117 CE) of the persecution of Christians by the Emperor Nero

Dressed in wild animals' skins [the Christians] were torn to pieces by dogs, or crucified, or made into torches to be ignited after dark. Nero provided his Gardens for the spectacle, and... mingled with the crowd... Despite their guilt as Christians, and the ruthless punishment it deserved, the victims were pitied. For it was felt that they were being sacrificed to one man's brutality rather than to the nation's interest.

Jesus' followers continued to spread his teachings, which offered hope especially to slaves and the poor. Christianity did not encourage rebellion, but the Romans saw it as a threat because Christians refused to worship the emperor, recognising only the Christian god. Several emperors ordered persecutions of the Christians, including mass executions. This persecution ended when, in 313 CE, Emperor Constantine legalised Christianity. It became the state religion of the Roman Empire in 391 CE.

DID YOU KNOW?

Roman priests and priestesses were state officials who performed rituals to maintain the goodwill of the gods towards the Roman state. The most important priestesses were the Vestal Virgins, who kept the fire burning on the altar of the goddess Vesta. Vestal Virgins could be executed if they were found to have had sexual relationships.

6.10 ACTIVITY

Use the internet and your library to find out how Emperor Constantine came to legalise Christianity and why he is considered to be a significant individual in Roman and religious history. **Determining historical significance**

6.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What were the Twelve Tables?
2. **HS1** Why did the Roman Republic need written laws?
3. **HS1** How did the nature of law-making change under the emperors?
4. **HS1** What were the purposes of Roman religious rituals and festivals?
5. **HS1** How did Roman religion change as the empire expanded?
6. **HS2** Where and when did Christianity begin?
7. **HS1** Why did Christianity have a special appeal for slaves and the poor?
8. **HS1** The Romans were tolerant of other religions, so why did they persecute the Christians?

6.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** In **SOURCE 1**, what do Table IV, law 2 and Table V, law 1 reveal about the powers of fathers over their children?
2. **HS3** Why would the patricians have supported Table XI, law 1?
3. **HS3** In 445 BCE, a new law allowed marriages between patricians and plebeians. What does this suggest about the growing influence of the plebeians and the ability of Roman law to change?
4. **HS3** In **SOURCE 2**, what did Petronius think about the fairness of the Roman legal system?
5. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 3**, list three Greek gods and/or goddesses and their Roman equivalents.
6. **HS3** The Pantheon (**SOURCE 4**) is considered an architectural wonder. What does the construction of such a building suggest about the importance of religion to the Romans?
7. **HS3** Using **SOURCE 5**, describe types of punishments that were dealt out to Christians.
8. **HS3** How can you tell that Tacitus disapproved of these punishments but also disapproved of Christians?
9. **HS3** Read the extract from the Edict of Milan in **SOURCE 6** and explain why it was a turning point in Roman history.
10. **HS4** What would you identify as the most significant changes in Roman law and religion over the history of the Roman Empire?
11. **HS4** How would key groups in Roman society (patricians, plebeians, slaves, Christians and non-Christians) have regarded these changes? For example, how would a Christian in 313 CE have felt upon reading the Edict of Milan?
12. **HS4** When Roman law was changed to make Christianity the state religion of the Roman Empire, persecution of Christians ended but it was replaced by persecution by Christians of those who followed the old Roman religion. What conclusions about continuity and change in religion and law can you draw from this?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.11 Decline and fall

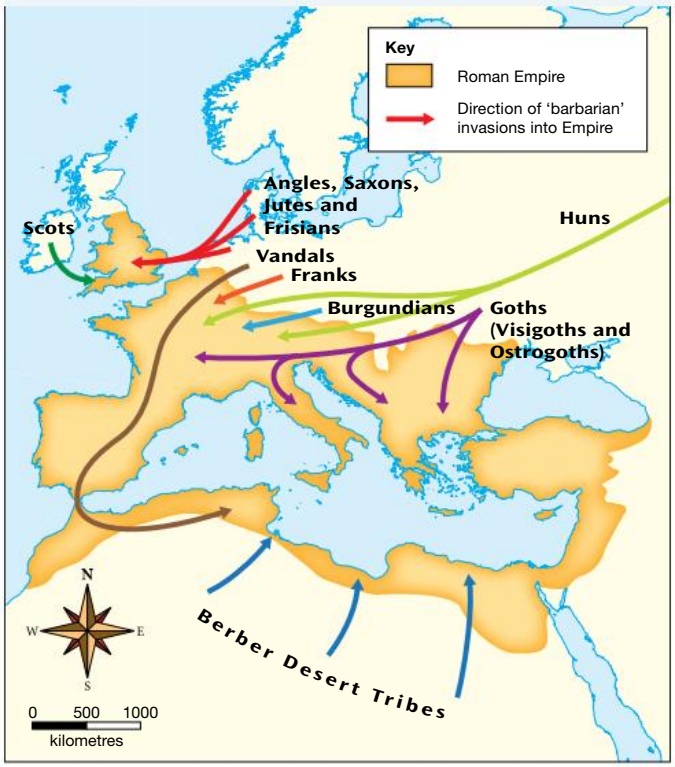
6.11.1 A weakening empire

The Roman Empire began to weaken from about 180 CE as rival Roman army generals fought each other for power. Trade that had enriched the empire began to decline as transport over long distances became more dangerous and tribes of **barbarians** increased their raids into the empire's lands.

In 284 CE, Emperor Diocletian, a Roman general who had won power through his soldiers, divided Rome into Eastern and Western empires under two separate emperors. Diocletian believed this would create stronger government, but the problems remained. From 307 to 310 CE civil war raged as six rival emperors competed for power. The victor, Constantine, ordered the building of a new capital, to be called New Rome, on the site of the old Greek city of Byzantium. The city was soon renamed Constantinople (Istanbul in modern Turkey).

In 378 CE, the Visigoths defeated Rome's armies. Emperor Theodosius (379–395 CE) agreed to allow them to form a separate state within the Roman Empire, while the Visigoths pledged to defend the empire's frontiers. Theodosius was more successful in reuniting the empire in 394 CE after the Western Empire broke away under a rival emperor. However, following the death of Theodosius the split into Eastern and Western empires became permanent.

SOURCE 1 The weakening of the Western Roman Empire. The arrows show the directions from which different barbarian groups invaded the empire.



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

6.11.2 The empire falls

There were vast movements of peoples through Europe in the fifth century CE. Burgundians and other 'barbarian' tribes invaded Gaul, while Angles, Saxons and Jutes from Germany and Denmark attacked Britain and Vandals, another Germanic tribe, invaded Spain. The Roman armies left Britain in 410 to defend the city of Rome, which was sacked by the Visigoths that same year.

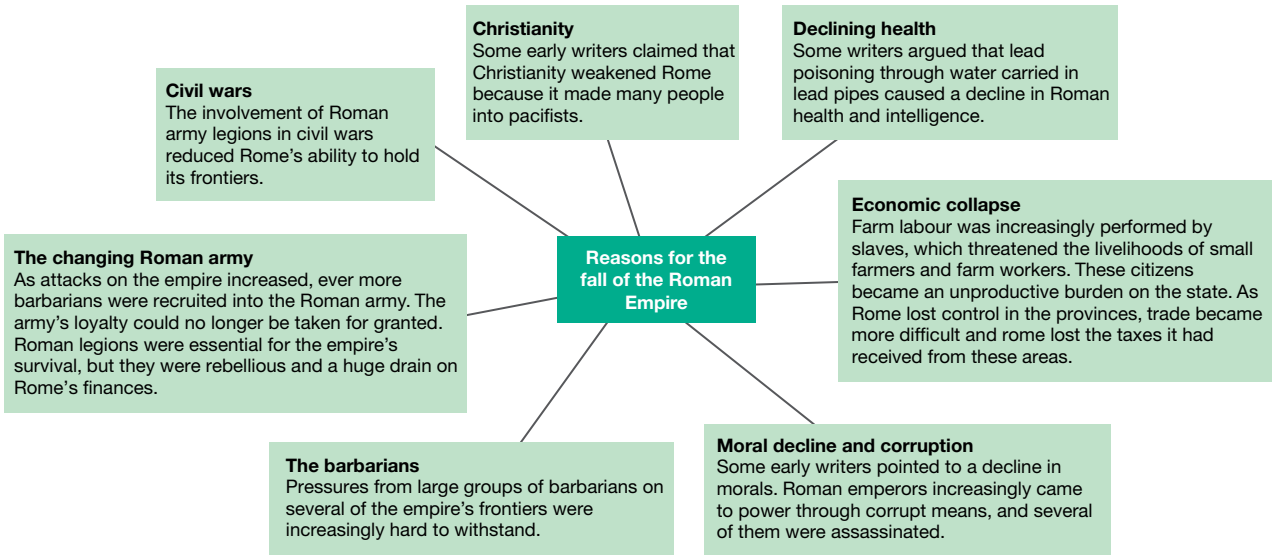
These invasions were not part of any general plan. Several barbarian groups who swept into the Roman Empire were fleeing other hostile tribes. For example, the Ostrogoths from eastern Europe were retreating before the Huns, who had overrun their homelands. This made it possible for Rome to form alliances with some groups against others. In 451, an alliance of Romans, Visigoths and Burgundians defeated the Huns. However, in 455 Rome was pillaged by the Vandals, and in 476 the last Western Roman emperor, Romulus Augustulus, was deposed by Odoacer, a German chief.

Historians past and present have suggested several reasons for the fall of the Roman Empire. The following mind map outlines some of them. War and economic collapse stand out as the key reasons.

SOURCE 2 Detail from The Big Game Hunt, a mosaic of the third to fourth century CE found at the Villa dei Casale, Piazza Armerina, Sicily



SOURCE 3 Reasons for the fall of the Roman Empire



6.11 ACTIVITY

Conduct research and present a report to the class on one of the barbarian groups that contributed to the fall of the Roman Empire. **Using historical sources as evidence**

6.11 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.11 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** In what year did the Roman Empire begin to weaken?
2. **HS1** Why did Diocletian divide the Roman Empire?
3. **HS2** What event in 378 CE showed Rome's weakness?

4. **HS1** Why did Rome abandon Britain in 410 CE?
5. **HS1** Define the term 'barbarian' in your own words.

6.11 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Who were the peoples who threatened the empire?
   (b) Which part of the empire did each group threaten?
2. **HS3** **SOURCE 2** depicts traders loading ships. Explain why declining trade would have been both a cause and a result of the weakening of the Roman Empire.
3. **HS2** Create a timeline of developments that led to the fall of the Western Roman Empire.
4. **HS3** Identify reasons in **SOURCE 3** that you think would have contributed most to the decline of the Roman Empire.
5. **HS1** What made it possible for Rome to form alliances with some barbarian groups against others?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.12 Heritage of Rome

6.12.1 The Eastern Roman Empire and Christianity

As the Western Roman Empire collapsed, it broke up into kingdoms ruled by non-Romans, although many people in these states continued to see themselves as Roman. Europe was entering what have been called the Dark Ages. Wars were frequent, population levels fell and cities almost disappeared, along with long-distance trade and literacy. However, the Eastern Roman Empire lived on for almost one thousand years, and Roman legacies survived to influence later ages.

When Odoacer deposed Romulus Augustulus, he had no wish to become emperor. Rather, he recognised the authority of the Eastern Roman emperor in Constantinople. The Eastern Roman Empire maintained Roman law along with its heritage of Greek and Roman culture. It kept Latin as the language of its court. In the sixth century, the Eastern emperor Justinian tried to restore the Western Empire. He was successful, but only briefly. As the **medieval** Byzantine Empire, the Eastern Roman Empire lasted until 1453 CE, when Constantinople was overrun by the Ottoman Turks.

Roman Christianity

The adoption of Christianity as the Roman state religion changed the Christian Church more than it changed the Roman Empire. The power of Roman Christianity was now supported by the power of Christian Roman emperors. Until the late fourth century, many Romans continued to hold **pagan** beliefs, and there were several different sets of beliefs within the Christian Church. Church leaders used the support of emperors to suppress rival interpretations of the Christian gospels, which were declared to be **heresy**. The continuing power of the Roman Christian Church was secured when Clovis, king of the Germanic Franks, gained control of Gaul and converted to Roman Christianity in the 490s. As the Christian Church outlived the Roman Empire, it helped to conserve Roman culture, which continued to be an important influence on ideas in medieval Europe.

SOURCE 2 From Hugh Trevor-Roper, *The Rise of Christian Europe*, 1966

In... some respects... the barbarians preserved rather than destroyed the Empire... The barbarian Christian kings who rule over Italy, France and Spain in the fifth and sixth centuries still regard themselves as Roman... they still acknowledge themselves subject to the emperor in the East; they still respect Roman traditions, Roman methods.

SOURCE 1 A mosaic in the Hagia Sophia, in Istanbul. This church was built on the orders of the great Eastern Roman emperor Justinian I (527–565 CE). The mosaic shows Emperor Constantine presenting the Virgin Mary with the city of Constantinople and Justinian presenting her with the Church.



DISCUSS

In history, we use arguments to interpret and explain the past, including how events caused changes. But we have to be careful to ensure that our reasoning is sound.

An **argument** is a group of sentences arranged so that the sentence called the conclusion is said to follow from the other sentences that are called the premises.

A **logical argument** is one in which the conclusion does follow from the premises.

A **fallacy** is a misleading argument, an argument based on reasoning errors.

One of the most common reasoning errors is assuming that because one event or change came before another event or change, the first event must be a cause of the second event. We call this a cause and effect fallacy.

An example could be the following argument:

Premise 1: In 284 CE, the Roman Emperor Diocletian divided Rome into Eastern and Western empires under two separate emperors.
Premise 2: The Western Roman Empire declined and fell during the following two centuries.
Conclusion: Dividing the Roman Empire caused the Western Roman Empire to collapse.

This argument might seem reasonable until you consider what you get if you use the same kind of reasoning for a different argument. For example:

Premise 1: The team ate big servings of oranges during half-time in the game.
Premise 2: The team scored its winning goals in the second half of the game.
Conclusion: Eating oranges caused the team to win.

The reasoning error with both arguments is assuming that the first event must be the cause of the second event without demonstrating any causal link between the two events.

Working in small groups, develop an erroneous argument about the cause of one other event in ancient Roman history. Use the same reasoning errors as in the above examples. Each group then presents its erroneous argument to the class. In a whole class discussion, decide whether or not the arguments can be changed to make them logical and, if so, then what needs to be done with each argument to make it logical.

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

DID YOU KNOW?

Roman law continued to form the basis of law codes in much of Europe in the Middle Ages and even in modern times. The Roman language, Latin, is the basis of modern Italian, French, Spanish and Portuguese. There are also many Latin words in English.

6.12.2 Passing on the culture

The classical books of ancient Roman writers influenced later writers. In the **Middle Ages**, Christian monks toiled at copying these books by hand. Many of these ancient writers are still widely read today. As Greek learning had been adopted by the Romans, the ideas of ancient Greece were also passed on. Latin, the language of the Roman Christian Church, became the language of the Church and of scholars in the Middle Ages. Despite the barriers caused by differing national languages, all educated writers and thinkers could communicate in Latin. Even today some sciences use Latin terms. For example, in botany they are used to classify plants.

In the fifteenth century the Renaissance brought a revival of interest in Roman ideas, arts and architecture. Roman influences can be seen in many buildings constructed from that time until the twentieth century. In the eighteenth century, ideas and institutions from the ancient Roman Republic influenced leaders who adopted new republican forms of government.

SOURCE 3 When the Pantheon was given to the Christians in 608, it was preserved with few changes apart from additions like this Christian altar.



DID YOU KNOW?

In the Roman calendar, the year was divided into 12 months, named after gods, emperors and numbers. The names we use for the months are based on theirs. For example, August is named after the emperor Augustus.

European unity

The Roman Empire was replaced by many different states. However, the idea of some kind of European unity was a legacy of the Romans. Around 800 CE, a powerful king called Charlemagne united much of Europe in a huge empire that he tried to base on the Roman model. This empire fell apart soon after his death, but in the twentieth century Europe was again unified through the European Community.

6.12 ACTIVITY

Using the sources and information in this subtopic, create a mind map to show what big changes took place with the fall of Rome and what Roman influences continued. **Identifying continuity and change**

6.12 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

6.12 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** As the Western Roman Empire collapsed, Europe was entering what have been called the_____ Ages.
2. **HS1** How did the Eastern Roman Empire maintain Roman civilisation after the fall of the Western Roman Empire?
3. **HS1** How was the power of the Roman Christian Church maintained?
4. **HS1** Describe the roles in preserving Rome's cultural heritage played by:
   (a) Christian monks and scholars in the Middle Ages
   (b) the fifteenth century Renaissance.
5. **HS1** After the death of the powerful king Charlemagne, Europe was able to remain unified. True or false?

6.12 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe ways in which **SOURCES 1** and **2** provide evidence of the continuation of Roman culture after the fall of Rome.
2. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 3** and explain how it provides an example of ways in which Rome's heritage has been preserved.
3. **HS1** Explain why the Latin language was such an important factor in maintaining the unity of Rome.
4. **HS3** The Emperor Justinian used religion to create political unity. Look at **SOURCE 1**, describe the scene and explain the message the early Christians were given by the source.
5. **HS4** The European Union (EU) of the twenty-first century has removed economic barriers, promoting free trade between member nations, and encouraged the free movement of people across borders. Suggest how this modern European unity could be seen as a legacy of the ancient Romans.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

6.13 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

online only

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate ancient Roman sources?

Almost all our knowledge of ancient Rome comes from such sources. Works of art and writings tell us much about ancient Roman culture. Buildings and sculptures tell us about entertainment, technology, skills, religious ideas and values. Written records tell us about Roman ideas about politics, history, law and a vast range of other subjects.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

6.14 Thinking Big research project: Campaign manager for a Roman Magistrate

online only

SCENARIO

It is the first century BCE and you are living under the rule of mighty Rome, and a system of government called a republic. It is election time and the candidates for the magistracies are running campaigns to gather as much support as possible for the upcoming elections. You have been appointed to the task of campaign manager for a very important man in Rome, Sextus Julius.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Campaign manager for a Roman Magistrate (pro-0230)

6.15 Review

online only

6.15.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

6.15.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32124)
Crossword (doc-32125)

Interactivity Ancient Rome crossword (int-7695)

KEY TERMS

aqueduct structure built to carry water long distances
astrology interpreting the influence of the stars on human affairs
auxiliaries soldiers in the Roman army drawn from areas conquered by Rome and made part of its empire
barbarians the Roman term for all peoples who lived beyond the borders of the empire
civil war war between rival factions within one state or country
crucifixion slow, painful execution by being nailed or bound to a cross or pole
divination the skill of reading omens

Etruscans advanced, civilised people who dominated early Rome from about 575 BCE to about 396 BCE
forum open meeting place of a town or city
heresy an opinion or belief that contradicts orthodox beliefs, especially in religion
hypocaust underfloor and water heating system used in Roman villas and public baths
loot goods or property taken from a defeated enemy after a battle
magistrates men elected by the citizens to run Rome for a year
medieval of the Middle Ages
Middle Ages between ancient and modern historical periods (generally between the fifth and fifteenth centuries)
pagan name used to refer to people who believed in non-Christian gods
patricians members of the aristocratic families that founded the Roman Republic
patronage supporting and encouraging authors and artists
plebeians all non-patrician citizens of Rome
public bath public building complexes containing baths of varying temperatures, and sports and beauty facilities; a popular meeting place for Roman citizens
pumice lava ejected from a volcano that solidifies into a light, porous rock
republic system of government in which the head of state is not a monarch
rhetoric the art of public speaking
Samnites a mountain tribe of central Italy
Senate governing body in ancient Rome, (in theory) an advisory body of ex-magistrates
tenant farmers poor farmers who rented small plots of land
Thracian a native of the Roman province of Thracia
virtue moral standard or value

6.13 SkillBuilder: Analysing and corroborating sources

6.13.1 Tell me

What are the main ancient Roman sources?

Ancient Roman sources include temples, amphitheatres, houses, fortifications, roads, aqueducts, weapons, tools, coins and many written records. They also include artworks such as mosaics, paintings, statues and other sculptures in terracotta, stone and bronze.

Why is it important to analyse and corroborate ancient Roman sources?

Almost all our knowledge of ancient Rome comes from such sources. Works of art and writings tell us much about ancient Roman culture. Buildings and sculptures tell us about entertainment, technology, skills, religious ideas and values. Written records tell us about Roman ideas about politics, history, law and a vast range of other subjects. Not all ancient Roman sources are really primary sources as some were written long after the events they describe.

6.13.2 Show me

How do we analyse and corroborate ancient Roman sources?

When you study an ancient source, you need to think carefully about the clues it provides and ask questions about its accuracy, usefulness and reliability. You need to ask questions such as:

- What is it?
- Who created it and when was it created?
- Who or what was it created for?
- For what aspect of ancient Roman history does it provide useful evidence?
- Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
- What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Roman society?

As you know, cruel public entertainments, including fights between gladiators, played a very big role in Roman life. **SOURCES 1** and **2** are both relevant to this issue.

SOURCE 1 Written by the Roman Emperor Augustus (Octavian), who ruled from 27 BCE to 14 CE

Three times I gave shows of gladiators under my name... Twenty-six times, under my name or that of my sons and grandsons, I gave the people hunts of African wild beasts in the circus, in the open, or in the amphitheatre; in them about 3500 beasts were killed.

These six questions have been applied to **SOURCE 1**.

1. *What is it?* It is a written account of the number of gladiatorial combats and staged animal hunts paid for by Augustus.
2. *Who created it and when was it created?* The writer was Augustus, who became emperor of Rome in 27 BCE.
3. *Who or what was it created for?* As Augustus founded a dynasty, he was probably boasting to win popularity with other influential Romans.
4. *For what aspect of ancient Roman history does it provide useful evidence?* It provides evidence about public entertainment in Roman society, ways in which Roman politicians and rulers won favour and Rome's treatment of animals and slaves.
5. *Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?* Other sources would be required to verify such details as the number of combats paid for by Augustus. Many other sources confirm that such entertainments were frequent.

6. *What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Roman society?* Cruel public entertainments were frequent and popular in ancient Rome, and they were often provided by political leaders to win popular support.

SOURCE 2 A terracotta figurine of two gladiators. The figurine is from the first or second century CE. By this time there were several different categories of gladiators, including the *hoplomoch* (with a circular shield) and the *thraex* (with a small rectangular shield). Several gladiator figurines have been found.



In the next example, the questions have been applied to **SOURCE 2**.

1. *What is it?* It is a terracotta figurine of two gladiators.
2. *Who created it and when was it created?* We do not know who created this figurine. We only know that it was made in the first or second century CE.
3. *Who or what was it created for?* As quite a few gladiator figurines have been found they must have been made to meet a popular demand for decorative souvenirs of the games.
4. *For what aspect of ancient Roman history does it provide useful evidence?* It provides evidence about issues of public entertainment in Roman society and Roman attitudes towards gladiators. It also provides evidence of the different types of gladiators who took part in combats and of their popularity.
5. *Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?* The accuracy and reliability of the source can be verified using similar sources (such as **SOURCES 3** and **4**).
6. *What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Roman society?* Cruel public entertainments were frequent and popular in ancient Rome but, in a strange way, gladiators also appear to have been admired in much the same way as modern football stars.

6.13.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

6.13 ACTIVITIES

1. Use the following six questions to analyse **SOURCES 3** and **4**.
   (a) What is it?
   (b) Who created it and when was it created?
   (c) Who or what was it created for?
   (d) For what aspect of ancient Roman history does it provide useful evidence?
   (e) Is the evidence it provides accurate and reliable and how can we tell this?
   (f) What conclusions can we draw from the source about ancient Roman society?

SOURCE 3 A relief sculpture from Turkey, first century CE, depicting three gladiators fighting



SOURCE 4 A marble relief sculpture of two female gladiators named Amazon and Achilia. It was found in the ancient Roman city of Halikarnassos (in modern-day Turkey).



2. Apply your skills to answer the following questions.

(a) Explain how you would differentiate between ancient Roman primary sources and secondary sources.

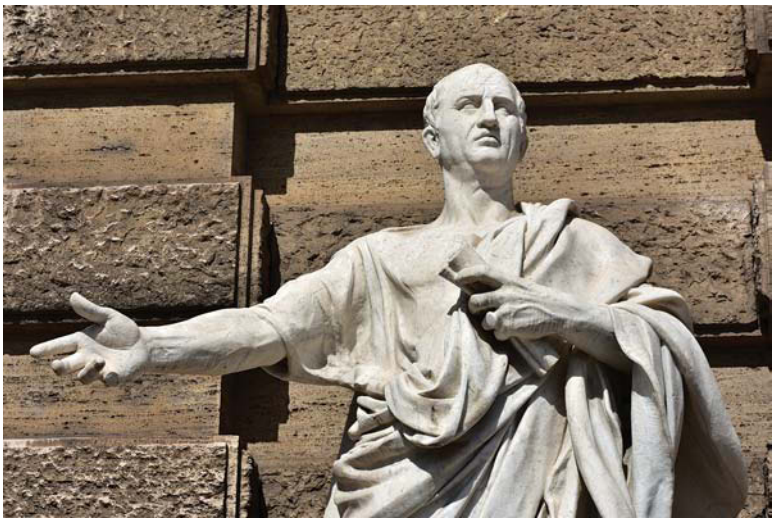
(b) Why is it sometimes difficult to judge the reliability of ancient Roman primary sources?

(c) Why would **SOURCE 1**, the extract from the Roman Emperor Augustus (Octavian), need to be questioned very thoroughly to assess its reliability?

(d) In this SkillBuilder you have worked with a written account by a Roman emperor, a figurine and two relief sculptures. Identify four other types of primary sources that a historian could use for a study of ancient Rome.

6.14 Thinking Big research project: Campaign manager for a Roman magistrate

Scenario



It is the first century BCE and you are a living under the rule of mighty Rome and a system of government called a republic. In theory, all Roman citizens have a say in their government, but in reality political power lies in the hands of a privileged and wealthy elite. Roman citizens are males over 25 years of age who were not born as slaves. Women and slaves have no political rights.

Every year the citizens of Rome elect approximately 50 men, known as magistrates, to run the city. The most senior magistracy is the position of consul; two are elected every year. It is election time and the candidates for the magistracies are running campaigns to gather as much support as possible for the upcoming elections. You have been appointed the task of campaign manager for a very important man in Rome, such as Sextus Julius. Sextus Julius is a member of one of the most ancient patrician families in Rome and the future uncle of the greatest Roman of them all — Gaius Julius Caesar.

Task

Your task will be to promote your candidate for the position of consul by writing speeches for him to deliver, designing placards and election banners, and constructing catchy slogans that will be painted as graffiti on the city walls. Politicians running for office in republican Rome need to please people by hosting lavish games in the amphitheatre. You will also need to advertise the generosity of your candidate by writing an advertisement to publicise the public entertainment he is sponsoring.



Begin by forming small groups to plan and share research, and discuss concepts to develop your own clear understanding of the Roman system of government and the position of consul. Each group should select a personality from the first century BCE as their candidate for political promotion.

Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.

Process

- Open the projectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Your group can have any number of members, but each student can be a member of only one group.

- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered. This is where the creation of your election campaign begins.
- Start your research by reading through subtopic 6.6 to familiarise yourself with the key features of Roman government and social structure. Locate at least three other sources of information to add depth to your knowledge of the Roman republic elections, the responsibilities of the magistracies and key personalities from the period. One source should be located offline.
- Decide on the headings you are going to use to organise your research findings; for example, the role of the senate; the role of the consul; and key personality biographical details. Enter your research findings under each heading in your Research forum. You can view, share and comment on other group members' research findings. Be sure to enter the source for any information you find online.
- Collect images to add to your election campaign resources to assist you in creating placards or banners.
- Present your election campaign to other groups in your class, delivering your candidate's campaign speech as an oral presentation.
- Email a transcript of the speech to your teacher for assessment and feedback.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Campaign manager for a Roman magistrate (pro-0230)

6.15 Review

6.15.1 Key knowledge summary

6.2 Examining the evidence

- Ancient Romans left vast amounts of written evidence.
- Rome is also rich in archaeological evidence, ranging from artworks to entire cities.

6.3 The rise of the Romans

- According to legend, Rome was founded in 753 BCE.
- In 509 BCE, the Romans rebelled against their Etruscan kings and founded a republic.
- Over the next two centuries, Rome expanded its power through alliances, wars, exploiting those it defeated and colonising strategically important places.

6.4 The spreading empire

- Through the Punic Wars, between 264 and 146 BCE, Rome eliminated a major rival and became the strongest power in the Mediterranean region.
- By 96 CE, Rome had extended its empire into northern Europe and to the Black Sea.

6.5 The Roman army

- From 396 BCE, the Roman army became a professional fighting force.
- Roman army discipline was harsh.
- Rewards given to legionaries helped to win support for military leaders who sought political power.

6.6 Citizens and rulers

- Roman citizens were divided into patricians and plebeians.
- Julius Caesar used his loyal troops to seize power in 49 BCE, but he was assassinated by a group of Roman senators.
- Caesar's great-nephew, Octavian, took control of Rome, ending the republic in 27 BCE.

6.7 Spartacus and Nero: two significant individuals

- Spartacus, a gladiator, led a slave revolt in 73 BCE. The rebels defeated several Roman legions before they were defeated in a huge battle.
- Nero became Roman Emperor in 54 CE. His brutal rule ended with his suicide in 68 CE.

6.8 Living in the Roman Empire

- Widespread use of slave labour changed Roman society.
- There were vast differences between the lives of rich and poor Romans.
- Greek culture influenced the lives of the more privileged Romans.
- Roman technology created many impressive structures that are still standing today.

6.9 Death and the Romans

- Customs associated with funerals provide a huge amount of evidence for ancient Roman beliefs and values.
- Care for dead ancestors was considered a duty and the dead were honoured in many ways.

6.10 Roman law and religion

- Roman law dealt mainly with the rights of men as citizens.
- Women, children and slaves were considered to be under the authority of the male head of a family.
- After the republic ended, laws were increasingly made through decrees of emperors.
- Romans worshipped hundreds of gods and goddesses.
- Christianity went from being a persecuted religion to become the state religion of the empire in 391 CE.

6.11 Decline and fall

- From around 180 CE, the empire began to weaken.
- Civil wars and barbarian invasions eventually led to the collapse of the Western Roman Empire.
- Historians have suggested many different reasons for Rome's fall.

6.12 Heritage of Rome

- The Eastern Roman Empire lived on for almost another thousand years.
- The Roman Christian Church helped to preserve Roman culture.
- The idea of European unity is one of many legacies of ancient Rome.

A timeline of ancient Rome















BCE

1000

900

800

753 BCE
Rome is founded, according to legend.

700

600

500

509 BCE
Rome becomes a republic.

400

390 BCE
The Gauls defeat the Roman army and sack Rome.

300

272 BCE
Rome dominates Italy.

264 BCE
The Punic Wars begin.

200

218 BCE
Hannibal invades Italy.

146 BCE
Rome destroys Carthage, ending the Punic Wars.

100

91–88 BCE
The Social War is fought between Rome and its Italian allies.

73–71 BCE
Spartacus leads the great slave revolt.

BCE / CE

27 BCE
Octavian ends the Roman Republic.

c. 30 CE
Jesus Christ is crucified.

100

43 CE
The Romans invade Britain.

200

212 CE
Roman citizenship is granted to free subjects of the empire.

303 CE
A great persecution of Christians occurs.

300

313 CE
Christianity is made legal.

378 CE
The Goths defeat a Roman army.

400

395 CE
The Roman Empire is divided into eastern and western empires.

410 CE
The Visigoths capture and sack Rome.

500

476 CE
The Western Roman Empire falls.

600

CE

6.15.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

6.15 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

From republic to great empire. How did Rome use war to expand its power and control most of the world?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32124)
Crossword (doc-32125)

Interactivity Ancient Rome crossword (int-7695)

KEY TERMS

aqueduct structure built to carry water long distances
astrology interpreting the influence of the stars on human affairs
auxiliaries soldiers in the Roman army drawn from areas conquered by Rome and made part of its empire
barbarians the Roman term for all peoples who lived beyond the borders of the empire
civil war war between rival factions within one state or country
crucifixion slow, painful execution by being nailed or bound to a cross or pole
divination the skill of reading omens
Etruscans advanced, civilised people who dominated early Rome from about 575 BCE to about 396 BCE
forum open meeting place of a town or city
heresy an opinion or belief that contradicts orthodox beliefs, especially in religion
hypocaust underfloor and water heating system used in Roman villas and public baths
loot goods or property taken from a defeated enemy after a battle
magistrates men elected by the citizens to run Rome for a year
medieval of the Middle Ages
Middle Ages between ancient and modern historical periods (generally between the fifth and fifteenth centuries)
pagan name used to refer to people who believed in non-Christian gods
patricians members of the aristocratic families that founded the Republic
patronage supporting and encouraging authors and artists
plebeians all non-patrician citizens of Rome
public baths public building complexes containing baths of varying temperatures, and sports and beauty facilities; a popular meeting place for Roman citizens
pumice lava ejected from a volcano that solidifies into a light, porous rock
republic system of government in which the head of state is not a monarch
rhetoric the art of public speaking
Samnites a mountain tribe of central Italy
Senate governing body in ancient Rome, (in theory) an advisory body of ex-magistrates
tenant farmers poor farmers who rented small plots of land
Thracian a native of the Roman province of Thracia
virtue moral standard or value

7 Ancient China

7.1 Overview

How did ancient China begin, grow and change to become the world's oldest continuous civilisation?

7.1.1 Links with our times

China is the world's oldest continuous civilisation. For thousands of years it remained isolated from the western world. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries China suffered invasions, revolutions and civil wars in which many millions of people died. Now, in the early twenty-first century, China is emerging as the world's next great superpower.

China has the biggest population and the fastest growing economy in the world. In recent years, it has experienced a massive building boom, with skyscrapers pushing ever upwards into the already polluted skies over vast cities like Shanghai. Its amazing industrial growth has increased the world's awareness of environmental issues, especially global warming. We know that if each person in China were to cause as much pollution as the average Australian our planet would become uninhabitable.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient China (eles-1838)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

7.1 Overview
7.2 Examining the evidence
7.3 China's civilisation begins
7.4 The people of ancient China
7.5 Everyday life and death
7.6 Ancient China and the natural environment
7.7 Confucianism, religion and law
7.8 Qin Shihuang, the first emperor of China
7.9 The rise and fall of the Han
7.10 The heritage of China
7.11 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing different perspectives online only
7.12 **Thinking Big research project:** Han dynasty guide online only
7.13 **Review** online only

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A timeline of ancient China



c. 1600 BCE
The Shang dynasty begins (lasts until 1046 BCE).

c. 2100 BCE
The legendary Xia dynasty is established.

c. 1200 BCE
Silk is first made in China.



1045 BCE
The Western Zhou dynasty begins (to 770 BCE).

770 BCE
The Eastern Zhou dynasty begins (to 256 BCE).



551–479 BCE
Confucius lives.

c. 500 BCE
Iron working begins in China.



475–221 BCE
The Warring States period

221–206 BCE
The Qin dynasty creates the Chinese Empire.

206 BCE
The Han dynasty is established.



9–25 CE
The Hsin dynasty (Wang Mang)

25 CE
The Han dynasty is restored (Eastern Han).

65 CE
Buddhism arrives in China from India.

105 CE
The Chinese invent a method of making paper from silk.

184 CE
Revolt of the Yellow Turbans



220 CE
The Han dynasty falls. The Three Kingdoms period begins.

7.2 Examining the evidence

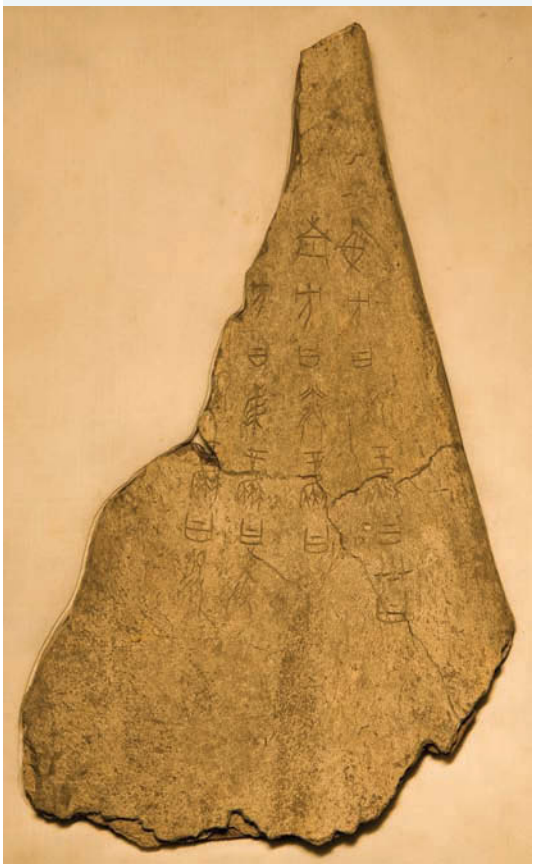
7.2.1 How do we know about ancient China?

From huge structures, such as the Great Wall of China, to the writings of ancient Chinese poets and historians, there are many primary sources that provide evidence of ancient China.

We know that at least 6000 years ago people settled in farming villages along China's Huang River (Yellow River). Shang dynasty inscriptions refer to harvests, rainfall, crops, silk and domesticated animals. Through inscriptions on bronze weapons, armour and vessels, and on tortoiseshell and bones, we know that by Shang times the Chinese had developed writing (see **SOURCE 1**). Inscriptions show that they believed that China was a place of civilisation surrounded by barbarians. Discoveries of cast-iron implements from Eastern Zhou times show that iron was then being used to make tools and weapons for the expanding armies. Iron gave those armies a great advantage over enemies who still used softer, bronze weapons.

Archaeological finds, including artworks and jade burial suits, tell us about the rich cultures that existed during the Qin (pronounced *chin*) and Han dynasties. The most exciting find of all was the discovery in 1974 by local peasants of a huge buried army of life-size terracotta warriors (see **SOURCE 2**). They stood guard over the tomb of China's first emperor, Qin Shihuang. Archaeologists estimate that the complex surrounding the tomb contains at least 7000 clay warriors, 600 clay horses and many weapons. Two bronze chariots, each made up of more than 3000 pieces, were also found.

SOURCE 1 Shang dynasty inscriptions on bone. In 1928, nearly 100 000 engraved bones and turtle shells from the Shang dynasty were found near the modern city of Anyang. They were covered in early Chinese writing.



SOURCE 2 Some of the thousands of terracotta warriors that were buried around the tomb of China's first emperor



SOURCE 3 From Sima Qian's book *Shiji*. Sima Qian was a Chinese historian who lived from about 145 to 86 BCE (during the Han dynasty).

In the ninth moon the First Emperor was buried in Mount Li . . . he employed his soldiery, to the number of 700 000, to bore down . . . and there a foundation of bronze was laid and the sarcophagus placed thereon. Rare objects and costly jewels were collected . . . in vast quantities. **Artificers** were ordered to construct mechanical crossbows, which, if anyone were to enter, would immediately discharge their arrows . . . On the roof were delineated the **constellations** of the sky, on the floor the geographical divisions of the earth . . .

The Second Emperor said, 'It is not fitting that the **concubines** of my late father who are without children should leave him now'; and accordingly he ordered them to accompany the dead monarch to the next world . . . someone suggested that the workmen who had made the machinery and concealed the treasure knew the great value of the latter . . . Therefore, so soon as the ceremony was over . . . the **mausoleum** was closed, so that not one of the workmen escaped.

7.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** How long ago did farming begin in China?
2. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. What clues about ancient China's civilisation have been provided by inscriptions and implements?
3. **HS1** By what time period had the Chinese developed writing by?
4. **HS1** What advantage did armies using iron weapons have over enemies using bronze weapons?
5. **HS1** What was found in the complex surrounding the tomb of Emperor Qin Shihuang?

7.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 1** provides evidence of a writing system during the Shang dynasty.
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) Describe the terracotta warriors.
   (b) How can you tell they were not mass-produced?
   (c) What do they tell you about the emperor's army, his wealth and his power?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 3**. Discuss the following questions in groups and report your findings to the class.
   (a) Why were crossbows installed in the tomb?
   (b) Why might the constellations of the sky have been represented on the roof of the tomb?
   (c) Why were the concubines and workers buried with the emperor?
   (d) What does the sacrifice of women and workers suggest about the rights of these two groups in ancient China?
   (e) What do you think the Chinese thought about life after death?
4. **HS3** Using **SOURCES 2** and **3** as your evidence, write a one-paragraph explanation of the position of emperor in ancient Chinese society and the burial practices that were carried out after his death.
5. **HS3** It is said that Qin Shihuang ruled as an autocrat (an absolute ruler who insists on complete obedience from his people). Refer to **SOURCES 2** and **3** to identify the evidence provided by the sources to either support or refute this statement.

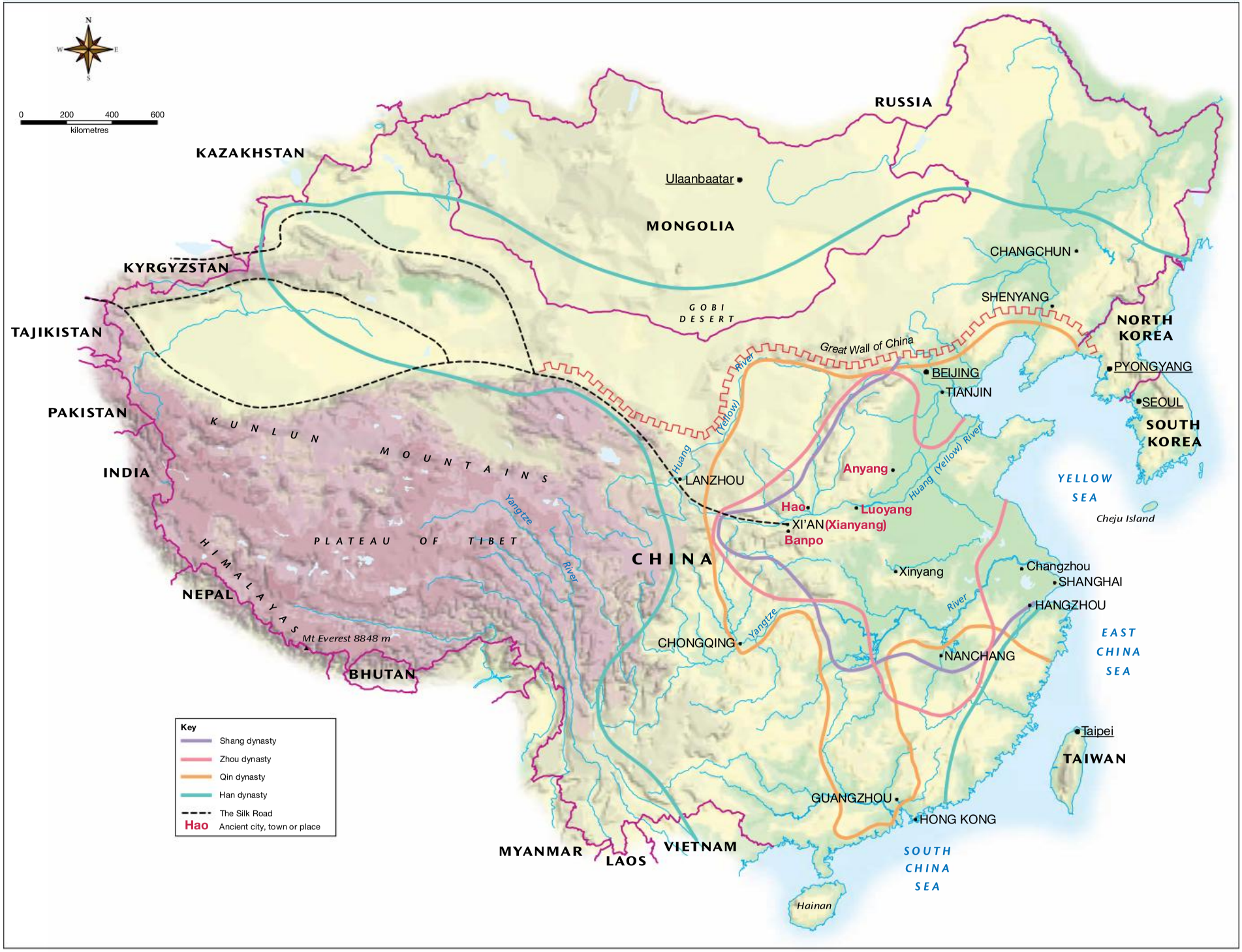
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7.3 China's civilisation begins

7.3.1 China's physical features and the beginning of civilisation

The ancient Chinese saw their country as the centre of the world. Until about 126 BCE they were unaware of the existence of other civilisations. According to legends in the ancient books of China, there was once a 'golden age' in which the arts of civilisation, morals and good government were established. The legends tell of a dynasty called the Xia (pronounced *shar*). It is possible that this dynasty ruled a state in China from about the twenty-first century BCE to the seventeenth century BCE, when its last king was overthrown. However, we have no primary evidence of its existence.

SOURCE 1 A map of ancient China



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

What we do know with certainty is that civilisation could not have developed where it did in China without its river valleys. They provided fertile land for farming. But farming along such river valleys could also be hazardous as the same floods that provided rich soil for crops could also devastate farms and villages. People looked to gods and rulers to protect them.

From earliest times, Chinese rulers based their authority on the **mandate of heaven**. This meant they had been chosen by the gods to rule. However, a ruler who failed to protect the people from floods, famine, wars or other disasters was considered to have lost the mandate of heaven and could be overthrown.

DID YOU KNOW?

The name 'China' comes from the name of the Chinese state Qin. People in India and Central Asia must have known of Qin's existence by about 300 BCE because by that time the word 'China' appeared in their languages. Modern Chinese call their country *Zhongguo*. In Eastern Zhou times, *Zhongguo* meant the central states of China.

China's earliest dynasties

The first dynasty for which we have evidence is the Shang dynasty (c. 1600–1046 BCE). The Shang rulers were often at war with neighbouring groups. Their dynasty fell when the Zhou (pronounced *jo*) defeated them and set up a new dynasty. Historians divide the Zhou dynasty into two periods: the Western Zhou dynasty (1045–771 BCE) and the Eastern Zhou dynasty (770–256 BCE), under which the capital was moved to the east.

The Warring States period (475–221 BCE)

Royal authority was weak under the Eastern Zhou rulers. There were many wars between local lords, who controlled their own states within the Zhou kingdom. The stronger states defeated and took over the weaker states. Finally, seven states — Qin, Han, Zhao, Wei, Ch'u, Yan and Qi — remained to fight for control of northern China.

SOURCE 2 Zhou dynasty China during the Warring States period, about 300 BCE



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

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- The Asian world > **Early Chinese kingdoms**

7.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Explain the idea of the mandate of heaven.
2. **HS1** How could a ruler lose the mandate of heaven?
3. **HS1** Why do you think the Xia dynasty is often referred to as the 'legendary' Xia dynasty?
4. **HS1** Why do we know more about the Shang and Zhou dynasties than other dynasties of ancient China?
5. **HS1** What was the Warring States period?

7.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) How big was China in Shang and Zhou times compared with modern China?
   (b) How many major rivers can you find in the area that was part of China under the Shang and Zhou dynasties?
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) During the Warring States period, which states occupied land surrounding river valleys?
   (b) Which states would appear to have had the most advantages in these wars?
3. **HS4** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, make a list of ways in which the adoption of farming must have changed ancient Chinese society.
4. **HS5** Suggest how China's rivers would have contributed to the development of its civilisation.
5. **HS5** Suggest how the natural features of China's varied geography would have protected it against invasion.

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7.4 The people of ancient China

7.4.1 The ruling classes

Chinese society was headed by rulers who were supported by lords, the landowning gentry (whose position was based on inherited status, wealth and education) and **bureaucrats**. These classes had authority over large populations of peasants, landless labourers, artisans and some slaves.

- Ancient Chinese rulers had great power. This is shown by Shang dynasty tombs containing war chariots and the bodies of thousands of followers. These people must have been sacrificed to serve their rulers in the afterlife.
- Below the supreme ruler were the powerful lords. They governed the states, such as Zhao, Qin and Wei, within the kingdom.
- Next came the landowning gentry. The warrior gentry headed the lords' armies. Bureaucrats were also recruited from the gentry, but they had to be scholars to become government officials.

SOURCE 1 A late Zhou dynasty bronze musical bell



SOURCE 2 An ox-shaped bronze *zun* (wine vessel) from the late Zhou dynasty



The lords of ancient China were often at war with neighbouring nomadic tribes to China's north and west. They also made war with each other. Warriors fought at first in chariots and later on horseback. The lords and warrior gentry regarded war almost as a sporting contest. When not fighting they spent much of their time hunting, feasting or attending ceremonies and entertainments at court.

Upper-class women had servants and luxuries. However, as girls they were considered inferior to boys. When they married they were treated as the property of their wealthy husbands, who were allowed to have several wives.

DID YOU KNOW?

In ancient China, women and men wore ornaments and jewellery as a badge of their social rank. This made it easy to tell at a glance their position in society.

7.4.2 The common people

The struggling peasants

Most of the people were powerless peasants whose lives changed little over thousands of years. They reared sheep, pigs, poultry, buffalo and oxen, and grew grains such as wheat, millet and barley. Most peasants were tenants who worked fields owned by the lords or gentry. They had to give their landlords about half of everything they produced, as well as paying taxes to the government. Times could be so hard that they were forced to sell their children into slavery.

Peasants had to cope with natural disasters, such as floods and famine, and with the constant threat of war. Most of the **infantry** in the armies were **conscripted** peasants. In hand-to-hand fighting their main weapons were at first **halberds** with bronze blades. Later they used swords made from bronze or iron. Many foot soldiers died in battle. Those who were captured could expect to be executed or condemned to slavery.

The lowest classes

Below the peasants came artisans, merchants and slaves. Artisans were skilled craftsmen such as armourers, metalworkers and carpenters. They were a small class because their products were mostly for the ruling classes. Merchants, who conducted businesses and trade, were an even smaller and lower class. Although some merchants were wealthy, they were not considered to play a useful role and were ranked just above slaves. There were fewer slaves in China than in many other ancient societies. Many slaves had been taken as prisoners of war. Others suffered slavery as punishment for crimes (sometimes committed by their relatives rather than themselves). Still others were peasants who were sold as slaves to pay debts.

SOURCE 3 A bronze *mao* (spearhead) from the late Shang dynasty



SOURCE 4 A *yue* (battle-axe head) with a dragon design, from the late Shang dynasty



7.4 ACTIVITY

In groups, write and perform a role-play of an imaginary discussion between peasants and members of the ruling classes on the topic of war. Suggest the feelings each would have about war and why their feelings would differ greatly.

Identifying continuity and change

7.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What were the functions of the lords and landowning gentry in ancient China?
2. **HS1** What was the role of the bureaucrats?
3. **HS1** How do we know that ancient Chinese rulers had great power?
4. **HS1** Why did peasants suffer in wars no matter which side won?
5. **HS1** How could people become slaves in ancient China?
6. **HS1** Why were merchants regarded as belonging to one of the lowest social classes, even though they might be wealthy?

7.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCES 1** and **2**. Describe each of these objects and explain why they would almost certainly have belonged to members of the ruling classes.
2. **HS3** Identify the objects in **SOURCES 3** and **4** and explain how they could provide evidence of the hardships faced by conscripted peasants.
3. **HS4** Draw and label a social pyramid showing the position of the different social classes in ancient China and explain why it would have been very difficult for Chinese society to change.
4. **HS5** Write one paragraph explaining how it could be argued that agriculture shaped China's traditional daily life and culture.
5. **HS6** With reference to **SOURCES 1**, **2**, **3** and **4**, suggest why the production of bronze objects became so important to the development of the Zhou and Shang Dynasties.

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7.5 Everyday life and death

7.5.1 Everyday life

How different were the everyday lives of people from different social classes in ancient China and how differently were they treated in death? Life and death were marked by extreme inequality between rulers, lords, gentry and bureaucrats on the one hand and peasants, artisans and slaves on the other. In addition, within all classes there was extreme inequality between men and women.

The vast majority of the Chinese people were peasant farmers for whom life was a constant struggle to survive. Most spent their entire lives in villages of around a hundred families, toiling on small family farms. They worked long hours every day and most of their work was done by hand. The threat of floods and droughts meant that groups of families often worked together on such tasks as maintaining irrigation canals. In towns and cities, crafts were usually hereditary; a son would learn the craft from his father and take over when his father died. The lives of craftsmen and merchants were also tough but often better than the lives of peasants. At least craftsmen and merchants got to travel about for work and trade.

Women's hard lives

Regardless of social class, women were considered inferior to men. Fathers ruled in ancient Chinese families. Women were expected to look after the household and children, and in peasant families they often worked in the fields as well. Their fathers arranged their marriages and, once married, a woman had to live with her husband's family in a dwelling that might house three generations. Married women had to obey their husband's family members but they could gain some respect by producing sons. Baby girls were not valued and were sometimes put out to die or sold to be servants. If a woman failed to give birth to boys her husband might take other wives. In a society where people venerated their elders, another way for a woman to gain respect was to outlive her husband.

Entertainment

The unending work of men and women in common families left almost no time or money for any kind of entertainment, apart from occasional festivals. In contrast, for the ruling classes, and some wealthy merchants, several forms of entertainment were available. During the Zhou dynasty acting, music and dance were combined into Chinese opera, in which famous legends were performed. There is evidence of a variety of board games from around 500 BCE. From the time of the Qin dynasty, acrobatics became another popular form of entertainment.

SOURCE 1 From Michael Lowe, *Everyday Life in Early Imperial China*

. . . evidence in the form of reliefs [sculptures] that decorated a tomb illustrates the type of entertainment that rich families could afford to stage, right at the end of the Han period. There was dancing and sword-play, juggling and acrobatic feats, accompanied by skilled players with their drums and bells, their wind and stringed instruments; and we know of other forms of amusements . . . such as cock-fighting, dog or horse racing and bird hunting.

7.5.2 Death and burials

We know little about death among the poor but a lot about the funeral customs of rulers and the ruling classes because they could afford elaborate tombs. Chinese ideas about death preceded the organised religions so most people did not restrict funeral rituals to any one religion. A rich family might employ Daoist and Buddhist priests and Confucian scholars to play official roles at a funeral (see subtopic 7.7).

SOURCE 2 Life-sized terracotta warriors were buried to guard China's first emperor, Qin Shihuang



SOURCE 3 Jade burial suit of Princess Dou Wan, who lived before 100 BCE. The pieces of jade (2150 of them) are held together with gold wire.



DID YOU KNOW?

Burial suits were often made of jade as it was believed that jade would stop the body from decaying and ensure immortality.

It was believed that when someone died their soul left the body to dwell in a spirit world. It was also believed that an elaborate funeral would inform the spirit world of the deceased's high rank in society. Another belief was that the living had to help the deceased into the spirit world so that the dead would not become evil spirits that would return to worry them. From about 5000 BCE to the seventeenth century CE, it was the custom of the ruling classes to bury goods, including food and drink, with the dead so that they would have them in the afterlife. Until Han dynasty times it was also common for rulers to have people buried with them to serve them in the spirit world.

The rich indulged in grand funeral feasts and ceremonies, and there is evidence of them being buried with puppets clothed in fine silk worth more than a peasant might earn in a year. Their tombs were painted with scenes of joyful banquets and dances. The poor had no such finery. Most were probably buried in simple pits. In famines, floods and wars, most of the poor may have received no burial at all.

7.5 ACTIVITY

Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, make a mind map to represent inequality in ancient China in life and death. **Using historical sources as evidence**

7.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe ways in which women were disadvantaged in Chinese society.
2. **HS1** Why did peasants have little entertainment?
3. **HS1** In ancient China, what beliefs were held about life after death?
4. **HS1** What took place at the funeral of a member of the ruling classes?
5. **HS1** How did this compare with the death and burial of a poor person?

7.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) How do we know about the entertainments enjoyed by the ruling classes?
   (b) What types of entertainments did the ruling classes engage in?
   (c) Why would it be more difficult to find evidence for the entertainments of the common people?
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 2** and **3**.
   (a) Describe each source.
   (b) Identify its purpose.
   (c) Suggest what it can tell us about beliefs associated with death.
3. **HS5** Explain why the power and wealth of the ruling classes could be described as a cause of the poverty and hardships suffered by the common people of ancient China.
4. **HS3** The ancient Chinese considered jade the most beautiful stone and believed that it provided a link between heaven and Earth. **SOURCE 3** is regarded as one of the most important archaeological finds of the twentieth century. Suggest what evidence it could provide about features of ancient Chinese life, such as social structure, technology, resources and crafts.
5. **HS6** 'The ancient Chinese created an empire of inequality.' Write a half-page response to this statement with reference to the text and **SOURCES 1**, **2** and **3**.

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7.6 Ancient China and the natural environment

7.6.1 China's natural environments

In our time, China faces enormous environmental problems. Since the late twentieth century, China's rapid economic growth has produced thousands of new factories making goods that are exported around the world. This industrial growth has depended on vast numbers of new power stations. Air pollution in many Chinese cities is so bad that when the 2008 Olympic Games were held in Beijing, many factories had to stop production and thousands of cars had to be taken off the roads. These problems are now huge, but even in ancient times China's population had a serious impact on its environment.

China is a vast country with a wide range of climates and landscapes. It has plateaus and mountains in the west, deserts and grasslands in the north, forests in the north-east, hills and low mountains in the south and plains along the coast. China's climate also varies greatly. Beijing has freezing winters while coastal southern China is subtropical.

SOURCE 1 This section of the Great Wall of China straddles mountains north of Beijing. The wall extends over some 5000 kilometres through many different landscapes.



DID YOU KNOW?

Over many centuries the mud from soil erosion raised the bed of the Huang River so much that the river flowed above the level of the countryside and had to be contained by man-made dykes.

When these dykes broke, floods drowned many people. According to Chinese records more than a million people died in the river's worst flood in 1117 CE.

In ancient times, China at first consisted mainly of the area around the fertile valleys of the Huang and Yangtze rivers. It was not until Han dynasty times that the outer areas were brought under Chinese control (see subtopic 7.3). Then, as now, more than 90 per cent of China's people lived in the country's heartland in the east, where the rivers provided water for agriculture. But these rivers often flooded, causing massive damage and loss of life.

7.6.2 A big population

One in every four people in the modern world is Chinese. Researchers have found that even in ancient times China's population was huge but that it could rise and fall rapidly. They estimate:

- in Qin dynasty times (221–206 BCE) there were 20 million people in China
- by 1 CE there were about 60 million people
- by 220 CE the population had fallen to about 40 million
- China's population took almost another thousand years to surpass 60 million.

The rapid population growth during the first Han dynasty (206 BCE–9 CE) was made possible by peace, improved farming methods and irrigation. However, these advances involved clearing forests and cultivating grasslands. Farming along the upper reaches of the Huang River caused massive soil erosion, filling the river with the mud that gave it the name 'Yellow River'. The falling population by 220 CE was probably caused by deaths in rebellions, soil erosion and famines.

Native animal populations fell as humans took more and more of their habitat. In modern times, China's pandas have barely been saved from extinction. In ancient times, elephants and rhinoceroses roamed across much of China. The rhinoceros was driven extinct in China, and elephants now survive in only a few protected areas of the south-west.

SOURCE 2 A constant haze of air pollution hangs over modern China's cities. This is a view of Shanghai.



7.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How has China's rapid economic growth and industrialisation affected the environment?
2. **HS1** Name at least five different types of natural environments that exist in China.
3. **HS1** Why have more than 90 per cent of Chinese people lived around the river valleys in the country's east?
4. **HS1** What are the most likely reasons for:
   (a) China's population growth between around 221 BCE and 1 CE
   (b) China's population decline by around 220 CE?
5. **HS1** How did rising populations and land clearance for farming affect China's rivers and wildlife?

7.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe the landscape in **SOURCE 1**. Then use your library or the internet to find other images of landscapes along the Great Wall. Explain why few of those regions would have been able to support the levels of population that existed in China's east.
2. **HS3** What are the signs of pollution in **SOURCE 2**?
3. **HS4** Explain what has changed and what has remained the same in China from ancient to modern times with regard to:
   (a) population levels
   (b) environmental problems.
4. **HS5** Explain how population growth could have been both a cause and an effect of the clearing of forests and cultivation of grasslands in ancient China.
5. **HS5** Consider the many landscape and environmental differences between the various regions of China. Suggest the difficulties this would have presented the government of China and why the first emperor Qin Shihuang commenced construction of the Great Wall of China.

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7.7 Confucianism, religion and law

7.7.1 The ideas and influence of Confucianism

The oldest Chinese religious ideas involved worshipping gods of the sun, rivers and mountains. People worshipped ancestors and believed in good and evil spirits. Ancient China was also influenced by three great and lasting traditions — Daoism, Confucianism and Buddhism. China was tolerant of different beliefs partly because Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism encouraged tolerance. Confucianism also had a strong and lasting influence on law in ancient China.

Confucius (551–479 BCE)

Amid the ongoing wars of the second half of the Zhou dynasty, **philosophers** taught ideas to solve the problems of their age. Confucius (K'ung Fu-tse) is regarded as the greatest of these thinkers. Born into a minor noble family, his education qualified him to become a high official. Instead he became a philosopher who taught about life and government. Some of his disciples gained high positions during the Warring States period, but Confucius himself never held anything more than a low post.

SOURCE 1 An ancient drawing of Confucius made many centuries after his death



The philosophy of Confucius

What we know of Confucius comes from a book called *Lun-yu* (*The Analects*). It is a collection of his sayings recorded by his followers. Confucius was not concerned with religion, but rather with how personal and governmental good conduct could ensure a just and harmonious society. He taught the ideals of family duty and believed that superior people behaved humanely. He taught that government should exist for the people's welfare and that people would follow a good ruler who led by example. He tried without success to convince the rulers of each of the states to restore good government.

By the time of his death Confucius had many followers. The best known of them was Mencius (372–289 BCE), who did succeed in influencing the rulers of his age. Confucius's ideas survived and influenced Chinese thought right up to modern times, as his ideal of the official as a scholar–gentleman replaced the earlier ideal of the warrior noble.

SOURCE 2 From *The Analects*

The princes of today are greedy in their search after material goods. They indulge themselves in pleasure and neglect their duties and carry themselves with a proud air. They take all they can from the people and invade the territory of good rulers against the will of the people, and they go out to get what they want without regard for what is right. That is the way of the modern rulers . . .

SOURCE 3 From *The Analects*

When the ruler himself does what is right, he will have influence over people without giving commands, and when the ruler does not do what is right, all his commands will be of no avail.

DISCUSS

What might a Confucian scholar have decided to do if he recognised that the Han emperor was not providing for the people's welfare and was failing to provide a good example?
Consider how his decision might be influenced if this scholar:

a. believed that as a civil servant he had an ethical obligation to obey the emperor
b. believed that the emperor's policies were so unjust that he had lost the mandate of heaven
c. believed that as a follower of Confucius he, the scholar, had to stand up for Confucian principles and speak critically to the emperor regardless of the consequences
d. knew that, like Sima Quian before him (see subtopic 7.8), he would probably be castrated and imprisoned for speaking out.

[Ethical Capability]

7.7.2 Religions in ancient China

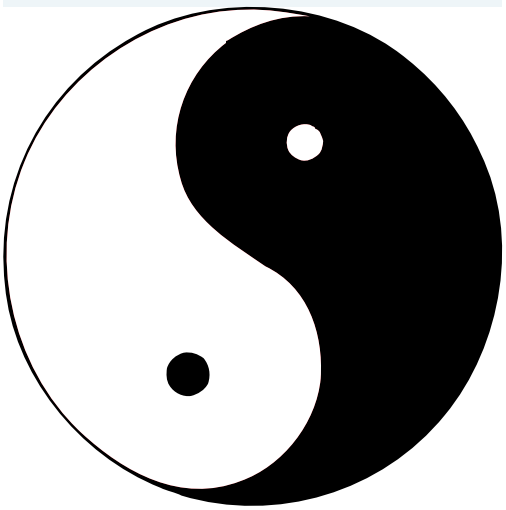
Daoism

According to legend, **Daoist** ideas were first taught by a man call Laozi, who lived around the same time as Confucius. However, there is no evidence that Laozi existed. The main teaching in ancient Daoist texts is the need to retire from worldly concerns and follow the Dao ('the way'). Daoism holds that nature works in harmony and that people should see themselves as parts of nature in order to find happiness and health. Another Daoist belief was that it was possible to become immortal. Daoists developed the martial art of kung fu and the idea of the yin and yang, complementary opposing forces that together produce harmony and balance.

SOURCE 4 Kung fu is a Daoist martial art that has been practised for thousands of years.



SOURCE 5 The Daoist symbol for yin and yang



Buddhism

Founded in India in the sixth century BCE, Buddhism expresses the teachings of the Buddha (born Siddhartha Gautama in what is now Nepal, in about 563 BCE), who gave up worldly pleasures and devoted his life to the search for enlightenment. Central ideas of Buddhism are that suffering is caused by desire and that people have many lives. In each of these lives, people should try to live better until they reach nirvana. When a person reaches nirvana they do not need to be reborn, as nirvana is a state of bliss free from the cares of the world. Buddhism came into China via the Silk Road (see subtopic 7.9) and became an important influence by the late first century CE.

SOURCE 6 Chinese Buddhism spread to neighbouring countries. This Buddhist statue in Korea reflects Chinese influence.



7.7.3 Laws in ancient China

Confucianism has had an ongoing influence on Chinese traditions, and that influence is especially evident in present-day Chinese beliefs about the need to respect elders and to revere ancestors. But Confucius had no real influence on Chinese government and laws during his lifetime. However, his ideas later had an important and ongoing influence. Confucius taught that a golden age of good government and good law had existed in early Zhou times. Long after his death, his teachings continued to have many followers. The best known of them was Mencius, who lived during about 372–298 BCE. Mencius taught that the Confucian 'five relationships' — those between father and son, husband and wife, elder brother and younger brother, friend and friend, and ruler and subject — were the basis of any well-ordered society. He succeeded in presenting Confucian ideas in ways that influenced some rulers during the late Warring States period.

Laws of the first Qin emperor

When the Warring States were united under the rule of China's first emperor, Qin Shihuang, in 221 BCE, the laws of the state of Qin were adopted throughout the newly created Chinese Empire. Confucianism had very little influence on these laws and Confucian scholars were suppressed by Qin Shihuang. Instead, the emperor's laws followed the tradition of Legalism, a school of thought that held that people were bad by nature. So the laws that prevailed throughout China under the Qin dynasty were very harsh, with cruel punishments (see **SOURCE 7**).

SOURCE 7 An extract from the laws of the state of Qin before 221 BCE. Such laws operated throughout China under the Qin emperors.

When five men jointly rob something worth one cash or more, they should have their left foot amputated, be tattooed, and be made convict labourers. If fewer than five men were involved but what they robbed was worth more than 660 cash, they should be tattooed, their noses cut off, and made convict labourers . . .

Suppose the holder of a low rank stole a sheep. Before the case was judged, he falsely accused someone else of stealing a pig . . . He should be left intact and made a convict labourer.

Anyone who kills a child without authorisation is to be made a convict labourer. This does not apply to killing a deformed or abnormal newborn.

Suppose A ran away from her husband and married B . . . After they are caught, what should the sentence be? They should be tattooed and made convict labourers . . . Convict labourers . . . are to be manacled and fettered.

Laws change after the fall of the Qin

The Han dynasty, which replaced the Qin in 206 BCE, employed Confucian scholars as its officials. These men used their positions to revise the laws, restoring Confucian ideas. Those ideas continued to influence Chinese thought and Chinese law under a succession of dynasties until the end of the last Chinese Empire in 1911 CE. China's laws in turn influenced the legal systems of countries where China had influence, especially Vietnam and Korea.

7.7 ACTIVITY

Find images of the Buddha from South-East Asia and compare them with **SOURCE 6**. Explain why it is clear that the Buddha figure in **SOURCE 6** has been influenced by Chinese Buddhism.

Using historical sources as evidence

7.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS2** When did Confucius live?
2. **HS2** When did the ideas of Confucius begin to influence Chinese thought?
3. **HS1** How old is Daoism? Describe the main ideas of Daoism.
4. **HS2** When did Buddhism become an important influence in China?
5. **HS1** What are the central ideas of Buddhism?
6. **HS2** When did Confucian ideas first come to influence Chinese law?
7. **HS1** What school of thought was the main influence on Chinese law under the Qin dynasty?
8. **HS1** How was Confucianism restored as an influence on Chinese law under the Han dynasty?

7.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. Identify aspects of this drawing which suggest that Confucius was highly regarded many centuries after his death.
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCES 2** and **3**.
   (a) Why was Confucius critical of the rulers of his time?
   (b) What did Confucius regard as qualities of a good ruler?
3. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 7**.
   (a) According to the laws of Qin, a robber should have his left foot cut off and be made a convict labourer. How difficult would such a life be with only one foot?
   (b) In this source, 'left intact' means not mutilated. Using this source as your evidence, explain which crimes were considered the most serious and punished the most severely under Qin law.
   (c) Explain what conclusions you can draw from this source about the rights of women and children under Qin law.
   (d) How do you think the ordinary people would have felt about Qin laws?
4. **HS4** Using the sources and other information in this subtopic, describe ways in which Confucianism continued to influence Chinese culture over many centuries.
5. **HS6** Discuss why Confucius deserves to be regarded as one of the most significant individuals in Chinese history.

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7.8 Qin Shihuang, the first emperor of China

7.8.1 Qin rule

Ying Zheng, the ruler of Qin, ended the Warring States period by completing his conquest of the other states of China. He founded the Qin dynasty (221–206 BCE) and gave himself the title Shihuangdi. In modern Chinese he is called Qin Shihuang (pronounced *chin shir hwang*), which means 'First Emperor of the Qin'.

The Qin dynasty was the shortest in Chinese history, but it was also one of the most important. It was China's first centralised empire and its legacies include the Great Wall.

From 221 BCE, the harsh laws of the Qin state were imposed throughout China. Qin Shihuang sent armies south, conquering much of what is now southern China. To remove threats to his power, the emperor confiscated all weapons held by his people. He banished many nobles of the conquered states and forced others to live in his capital, where they could be watched. In 213 BCE, to stamp out rebellious ideas, he ordered a public burning of books, including those of Confucian scholars (see **SOURCE 1**). Scholars who kept their books were executed by being buried alive.

Previously in China, the nobles had held huge areas of land in return for services to the king. Beneath them, millions of peasants toiled for the nobles in return for the right to use the land. This is what we call a feudal system. Qin Shihuang changed this by dividing the country into local government areas administered by officials. He also allowed farming land to be bought and sold freely.

SOURCE 1 A Chinese painting illustrating Qin Shihuang's burning of the books and the execution of scholars



7.8.2 The Great Wall and other achievements of Qin Shihuang

From as early as the seventh century BCE, the Chinese states had built walls to protect themselves from invasion by the northern nomadic **Xiongnu** tribes. During the Warring States period, states had also built walls between themselves and neighbouring states. To unify China, Qin Shihuang ordered the destruction of the walls between former states. To prevent invasion, he ordered his people to link the walls that defended China from the Xiongnu. About half of the present length of the Great Wall was first linked into one continuous barrier under the Qin (see **SOURCES 2** and **3**).

SOURCE 2 The Great Wall of China is the world's biggest single construction project. It is more than 5000 kilometres long and has 20 000 watchtowers and 10 000 beacon towers. The present wall is much longer and stronger than that completed under the Qin. It took many more centuries to complete, and over time its construction may have cost a million lives.



A The height and width of the Great Wall vary along its length. On average, the wall is 7 metres high and 5 metres wide.

B Qin Shihuang began linking existing short walls built by earlier rulers into one continuous wall to protect his empire from attacks from the north.

C Throughout successive dynasties, the wall was extended and repaired. Most of the present wall was built between the fourteenth and sixteenth centuries.

D The wall was topped by a road wide enough in parts to accommodate marching soldiers, horsemen and chariots.

E Soldiers on the watchtowers would signal an attack by lighting a fire.

F Watchtowers were protected by battlements. Soldiers would fire arrows down on the enemy as they tried to scale the wall.

Qin reforms

To strengthen central rule and make China more efficient, Qin Shihuang introduced many reforms.

- Separate states were replaced with central rule and one set of laws.
- The calendar and people's dress were standardised throughout the empire.
- A single form of writing, a single system of weights and measures and a single currency (money) were to be used throughout the empire. This made trade and taxation more efficient.
- His new capital was Xianyang. Highways were built from it to unite the country, and new trading cities were founded.
- He ordered that all carts were to have the same axle width. This made it possible for carts to move more easily along the dirt roads as the wheels of all carts could travel in the same wheel ruts.

SOURCE 3 A section of the Great Wall of China



DID YOU KNOW?

About 5800 kilometres of roads were built in China by the time the Qin dynasty fell — more than the Romans built almost four centuries later.

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- The Asian world > **Unification of China**

7.8.3 The fall of the Qin

Qin Shihuang wanted to live forever. He sent hundreds of men and women to sea on rafts in search of the secret of everlasting life, but none ever returned. He surrounded himself with fortune-tellers and others who promised him immortality. Despite these efforts he died at the age of 49 in 210 BCE, while on a journey. His chief minister, Li Si (pronounced *lee shir*), and others pretended for a while that the emperor was still alive. This gave them time to forge a decree that would place their choice of successor on the throne. It was summer, however, and the body of the emperor soon began to smell, so Li Si ordered a cart filled with rotting fish to follow the imperial carriage to disguise the smell. Only later did they announce the emperor's death, which was possibly due to poisoning by mercury, commonly used in 'immortality' drugs at that time.

His successor, the Second Emperor, lasted only a few years. Higher taxes and forced labour had made the lives of the peasants unbearable. Hundreds of thousands of peasants had been conscripted to build palaces, roads and the emperor's tomb and to link the Great Wall and serve in the army. A peasant rebellion from 209 to 206 BCE destroyed the Qin dynasty. Liu Bang, a leader of the rebellion, became the new emperor and founded the Han Dynasty. Qin Shihuang thought he had founded a dynasty that would last for thousands of emperors. He failed to achieve this goal. He had, however, turned a group of rival states into an empire and created a central system of government that lasted until the twentieth century.

DID YOU KNOW?

In ancient China, dragons were sometimes depicted with their mouths open, roaring as if to frighten away evil spirits. The dragon is a symbol of wisdom, strength and goodness. It was under Qin Shihuang that the dragon was first used as a symbol for Chinese emperors.

SOURCE 4 An extract from Thomas Bartlett, *Qin Dynasty: China's Ancient Revolution*

The overall image of the Qin state and its imperial phase [the period of the Qin dynasty], as transmitted through history by surviving records, is a grimly harsh one ... These charges [against the Qin rulers] reflect early Han writers' self-interested writing of Qin history ... Overall, the Qin reflects in concentrated form the inhumane aspects of the Warring States period ... But, from the perspective of nation building, some modern Chinese ... emphasise his achievements, typically saying that 'he sacrificed one generation to benefit 10 000 future generations'.

7.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Working in pairs, role-play a situation in which a Confucian scholar is appealing to Emperor Qin Shihuang to change his mind about burning Confucian books. One of you should represent the perspective of the scholar and the other that of the emperor. **Using historical sources as evidence**
2. Hold a debate on whether or not Qin Shihuang should be regarded as the most significant ruler of ancient China. In your arguments, consider Qin Shihuang's achievements as well as his methods. **Determining historical significance**

7.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did the king of the Qin become the ruler of China's first centralised empire?
2. **HS1** What area did Qin Shihuang conquer?
3. **HS1** How and why did Qin Shihuang weaken the power of the nobles?
4. **HS1** How did he reduce the influence of Confucian scholars?
5. **HS1** Why had the Chinese states built walls before the time of Qin Shihuang?
6. **HS1** What walls did Qin Shihuang have destroyed and which walls did he have linked? Why?
7. **HS1** How would standard calendars, laws, weights and measures, standardised money and a standard system of writing have made trade, taxation and government more efficient?
8. **HS1** Why would the emperor have wanted to also standardise people's dress and the width of axles on carts?
9. **HS1** How might Qin Shihuang's attempts to live forever have contributed to his early death?
10. **HS1** How did Li Si try to disguise the smell of the emperor's rotting body?
11. **HS2** When did the Qin dynasty fall?
12. **HS1** Why was the Second Emperor unable to hold onto power?

7.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe what is happening in **SOURCE 1**.
2. **HS3** **SOURCE 2** is a secondary source and **SOURCE 3** is a primary source. Compare them to judge the accuracy of **SOURCE 2**.
3. **HS3** Describe features of the Great Wall that could have made it an effective barrier to invasion.
4. **HS3** Look at the landscape in **SOURCE 3** and read the **SOURCE 2** caption. Why do you think so many people could have died building the Great Wall?
5. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 4**.
   (a) Why would writers in the early Han dynasty have wanted to portray the Qin dynasty as a harsh one?
   (b) Why have some modern Chinese taken a more favourable view of the Qin dynasty?
6. **HS4** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, answer the following questions.
   (a) How was Chinese society changed under the first emperor?
   (b) How would groups, such as the nobles, the peasants and Confucian scholars, have regarded these changes?
7. **HS5** Identify reasons why the Qin dynasty was able to rise and why it fell after such a short time.

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7.9 The rise and fall of the Han

7.9.1 Reforms, expansion and trade

The fall of the Qin dynasty was followed by four years of bloody civil war before Liu Bang defeated his rivals and became the first ruler of the Han dynasty. This dynasty lasted, except for a brief interruption, for four centuries and made important achievements in education, science and trade. The Han dynasty had such influence on later dynasties that modern Chinese people call themselves 'Han' people.

SOURCE 1 Chinese life under the Han



- **A** **The marketplace** As in Xianyang, large and lively marketplaces were usually just inside the city gates. This allowed access by travelling merchants. Merchants were looked down on by society even if they were rich. They were not seen as contributing in the way farmers did. Goods from all over China and the known world were sold and traded in the market.
- **B** **People you might see** In the noisy markets, people bought and sold food and animals. There were musicians, acrobats, jugglers, letter writers, dentists and craftworkers.
- **C** **Livestock available** Owls, panthers, deer, dogs, pigs, ant eggs, snails and turtles were mostly bought by the rich.
- **D** **City walls** Ancient Chinese cities were circled by two walls. City walls were built to protect the people. If you visit China today, you will still be able to see the remains of these walls in many cities. The inner wall was called *cheng* and the outer wall was called *guo*. Often moats, called chi, surrounded these walls. The inner city was called *geng*, and together they were known as *cheng chi*.
- **E** **Family values** Rich and poor people lived in extended family groups. Their belief in Confucian values strengthened family ties. Ancestor worship and respect for elders were important values.
- **F** **Crafts and goods** Murals, jade jewellery and carvings, glazed pottery, silk goods, and objects made from cast iron such as ploughs were bought and sold.
- **G** **Women** According to Confucian principles, women were subordinate to men, and life was difficult for females living in a male-dominated society. A daughter was given no education and worked under the direction of her mother. Her father decided whom she would marry. Once married, a girl would live with her husband's family and obey her mother-in-law. A female had no status until she gave birth to a male child.

Han reforms

Liu Bang did not want to share the same fate as the Qin dynasty so he took steps to restore prosperity. The size of the army was reduced. He also reduced taxes on the peasants and encouraged farming to ensure plentiful supplies of food. As a result, China's population reached 60 million by the end of the first century BCE. However, landlords continued to exploit the peasants.

A system of state education was founded. It included a Great Academy, in which boys studied the classic books of Confucianism. No girls were enrolled. The boys were expected to memorise what they studied and were not allowed to criticise or challenge ideas. Through examinations they were selected for positions as bureaucrats in the civil service.

DID YOU KNOW?

The Han dynasty is usually regarded as more tolerant than the Qin dynasty. However, when the great historian Sima Qian dared to speak in defence of an officer who was unfairly blamed for a Chinese defeat by the Xiongnu, Emperor Wudi had Sima Qian **castrated** and thrown into prison.

China expands

China expanded under the Han. In 138 BCE, Emperor Wudi (140–87 BCE) sent Zhang Qian and 99 others on a mission to establish relations with people in the remote west. After twice being captured and enslaved by the Xiongnu and twice escaping, Zhang returned in 125 BCE with stories of civilisations that China had never heard of before. Zhang Qian was sent on two further missions to find a trade route to Central Asia and India. In the following years, Chinese rule was extended into the north of Korea in 109 BCE, and from Korea the influence of Chinese culture spread to Japan. Much of what is now south-eastern China and western China was brought under Han control by about 102 BCE.

SOURCE 2 The Silk Road — the world's longest trade route in continuous use



Source: Map drawn by Spatial Vision.

The Silk Road

By the early first century BCE, further Chinese missions led to the founding of the famous Silk Road. From this time onward, camel trains loaded with valuable silk were able to make the hazardous journey from China through the deserts and mountains of Central Asia to India, Persia and the Roman Empire. Traders from other lands used the Silk Road to bring products including jade, silver and Roman glassware to China.

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- The Asian world > **Silk Roads**

7.9.2 Growing discontent, rebellion and the fall of the Han

The rich get richer and the poor get poorer

To control newly conquered territories, the Han rulers **deported** many local people and settled their lands with Chinese. The ruling classes and merchants benefited from this growth of the empire, but the ordinary people of China paid a terrible price. The Han rulers paid for wars of conquest through increased taxes on the peasants. Many peasants had to sell their land to pay taxes. Others were so desperate that they were forced to sell their children or themselves into slavery.

SOURCE 3 Terracotta figures representing Han dynasty cavalry. Cavalry became a major part of the Han army because of the mobility it gave Chinese armies fighting mounted nomads.



Wang Mang

The peasants became more desperate while powerful landlords became richer. Even among the privileged there were people who saw this as unjust. Wang Mang was an official who had support from many Confucian scholars. In 9 CE he seized control of China from the infant Han emperor and set up the Hsin dynasty. In his first year as ruler, Wang Mang proclaimed many reforms.

- All land was to become the property of the emperor so that the estates of big landlords could be given to the peasants.
- The slave trade was to be banned.
- Government loans were to be given to peasants at low interest rates. This would have helped peasants who had to borrow from moneylenders at high interest to pay taxes but lost everything when their debts became too big to repay.

SOURCE 4 From a Chinese scholar of the early second century BCE, in the *Han-shu Han History*

These days a family of five peasants will have at least two persons who are liable for labour-services and conscription. What with their ploughing in the spring and hoeing in the summer, harvesting in the autumn and storing in the winter, with felling firewood, repairing government offices and rendering labour-service . . . in none of the four seasons will they have a day of rest. And, in spite of all this painful toil, they will still have to endure such natural disasters as flood and drought and also the cruelty of an impatient government which imposes taxes . . . those who own something sell it off at half its price; and those who own nothing borrow at doubled rates of interest. It is for this reason that some dispose of their lands and houses, and sell their children and grandchildren to redeem their debts.

SOURCE 5 From the statement of a Han dynasty official in 81 BCE

Those who live in . . . spreading mansions ... know nothing of the discomforts of one-room huts and narrow hovels, of roofs that leak and floors that sweat.

Those with a hundred teams of horses ... and wealth heaped in their storehouses ... do not know the anxiety of facing days that have a beginning but no end ...

The fall of the Hsin dynasty

The privileged classes forced Wang Mang to abandon these reforms, and so peasant revolts began in 14 CE. Four years later, led by a secret society called the Red Eyebrows, the rebels attacked towns, killing officials and landlords. When powerful members of the old ruling family joined the fight against Wang Mang, his armies were defeated. Wang Mang was killed and beheaded in 23 CE. This was the end of the Hsin dynasty. The armies of the old ruling family crushed the Red Eyebrows and in 25 CE a new Han emperor took the throne.

The Eastern Han dynasty

The second period of Han rule is called the Eastern Han dynasty because the capital was moved to the east. So many people had died in the rebellion that there was now enough land for the peasants. Large areas of state land were given to them and taxes were reduced. But the big landowners benefited most from these reforms. They paid the lower taxes but continued to take at least half the harvest of their tenant farmers. Increasingly, the great landowning families were becoming more powerful than the Han government.

The Yellow Turbans and the fall of the Eastern Han

By the middle of the second century CE, more local peasant uprisings had broken out. These were crushed, but in 184 CE a secret society called the Yellow Turbans led a countrywide revolt. As the central government collapsed, **warlords** became the absolute rulers of their own local areas. Their armies massacred many peasants during the years that it took to smash the revolt. When they finally defeated the Yellow Turbans, the warlords fought each other for the throne of China. By 220 CE, the Han dynasty was finished and China began centuries of civil war, division and suffering.

DISCUSS

Peasant rebellions were able to overthrow dynasties but were unable to change the system that caused their problems. **[Creative and Critical Thinking Capability]**

7.9 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.9 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** How did Liu Bang become the founder of the Han dynasty?
2. **HS1** Why do modern Chinese people call themselves 'Han'?
3. **HS1** How did the Han try to win support for their rule?
4. **HS1** In what ways did the Chinese education system suppress critical thinking?
5. **HS1** How were China's trade, territory and influence expanded under the Han?
6. **HS1** Why did the Han rulers establish colonies of Chinese in newly conquered lands?
7. **HS1** Which social class benefited and which suffered as a result of wars waged to expand the empire? How would members of those classes have regarded colonisation and war?
8. **HS1** How did Wang Mang try to help the peasants and how did the ruling classes regain control?
9. **HS5** What events brought about the end of the Eastern Han dynasty?

7.9 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 1** and analyse it using these questions.
   (a) Why were cities enclosed by walls?
   (b) What role did marketplaces play in expanding trade?
   (c) What can you discover from this source about activities, clothing and hairstyles in a Han-era town?
2. **HS3** Study **SOURCES 2**.
   (a) Use the scale to work out approximately how far Zhang Qian travelled.
   (b) Explain how China would have benefited from the contacts established through the Silk Road.
3. **HS3** Study **SOURCE 3**. Why did the Han adopt cavalry as a major part of their army?
4. **HS3** Read **SOURCES 4** and **5**.
   (a) What social problems do the sources describe?
   (b) What are the perspectives of the writers of each source?
   (c) What evidence do the sources provide for the motives of peasants who rebelled against Han rule.
5. **HS5** Using the sources and information in this subtopic, explain what caused rebellions such as that of the Red Eyebrows and the Yellow Turbans.

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7.10 The heritage of China

7.10.1 Some great Chinese inventions

There are many legacies of ancient China. One of the most significant was the system of rule by emperors, which persisted until 1911. Even in modern times, Chinese leaders have continued to exercise powers that are not very different from those of the emperors. China's heritage also includes traces of the ancient past, such as the Great Wall and the amazing discoveries from Qin and Han tombs. Perhaps the most remarkable part of China's heritage is the scale of discoveries and inventions that originated in ancient China, in many cases long before similar developments occurred in the western world.

Many things we take for granted today were invented by the people of ancient China. Here is a list of some of the more important ones:

- paper
- printing
- decimal system
- wheelbarrow
- seismograph
- matches
- gunpowder
- parachute
- kung fu/wushu
- cast iron
- ink
- helicopter rotor and propeller
- horse collar
- silk
- kite
- rocket
- compass
- umbrella
- printed book
- fan
- abacus
- origami
- cannon
- bomb
- acupuncture
- spinning wheel
- iron ploughshare
- paper money
- chopsticks.

SOURCE 1 An ancient compass



SOURCE 2 Paper-making in ancient China



Compass

The Chinese invented the magnetic compass. Compasses were first used to ensure houses were built facing a direction that was in harmony with nature.

SOURCE 3 Printing in ancient China



Paper and printing

The inventions of paper and printing were to have an enormous impact on people's lives. The earliest paper was made by mixing rags, rope, bark and even fishing nets in a watery solution and crushing the material down to a wet pulp (see **SOURCE 2**). The disintegrating fibres were used to create sheets of paper, which were used for many things including umbrellas, clothing, toilet paper, curtains, money and wallpaper. Paper revolutionised communication. Traditionally, silk had been used for writing, but it was expensive. Paper was cheaper, so more people could afford to use it for writing.

Following the invention of block printing (see **SOURCE 3**) in 750 CE, every Chinese scholar and public servant bought copies of the most important books for their shelves. With paper, records could be kept and instructions sent more easily and more often. Today we still rely heavily on paper for communication.

7.10.2 Also made in China

Today we are used to buying all sorts of goods that are made in China. But how many people realise that, long ago, China led the world in inventions such as gunpowder and in developments in medicine, earthquake detection and even a favourite hobby of many people's childhoods, flying kites?

Gunpowder

From very early times the Chinese searched for a drug that would give the emperor eternal life. By accident they discovered gunpowder. At first, gunpowder was used in fireworks for entertainment and in religious ceremonies. Later it was used in making simple bombs. Lengths of heavy bamboo were loaded with gunpowder and a fuse set in the side. When cast iron was developed, pipes were loaded to create the first cannons. The Chinese then developed cannons that fired arrows with individual rockets attached — the first multi-stage rocket. Flame-throwers, mines and hand grenades were also used by Chinese armies.

SOURCE 4 Gunpowder was first used in fireworks.



Medicine

Acupuncture appears to have been used in China since the third century BCE. Needles were understood to block or stimulate the flow of yin and yang to certain areas of the body. The ancient Chinese were also the first to understand blood circulation, and, by 200 CE, were using an **anaesthetic** based on hemp. Possibly the first human **dissection** was carried out on the body of a criminal in 16 CE by a doctor and a skilled butcher. Human dissection was soon banned, though, as it conflicted with the Confucian belief in the purity of the body.

Seismographs

Zhang Heng invented the world's first seismograph — an instrument for detecting earthquakes — in 132 BCE. An earth tremor caused a ball to be released from a dragon's mouth and fall into a toad's mouth farthest away from the earthquake epicentre. This showed the emperor the direction of the disaster.

SOURCE 5 Zhang Heng's seismograph



Kites

Kites were first made out of bamboo and silk and, later, paper. They were used mostly during festivals, but they were also used in battle to frighten enemies (by creating unusual sounds through the strings) and to send signals to the troops. Kites were even used for fishing and for scaring birds away from crops.

SOURCE 6 Kites like this could also be seen in ancient China.



7.10.3 Conserving China's cultural heritage

The United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is the world body responsible for identifying natural and cultural sites in all countries that are of such great value that they must be conserved. These sites include the remains and heritage of ancient civilisations. UNESCO maintains a list of these World Heritage Sites, which you can view on its website. You will not be surprised to find that China has more UNESCO-listed sites than almost any other country and that the Mausoleum of Qin Shihuang (see **SOURCE 7**) and the Great Wall of China are among the listed sites.

SOURCE 7 Terracotta soldiers and horses at the Mausoleum of Qin Shihuang



7.10 ACTIVITY

Look at **SOURCES 4**, **5** and **6**. Choose one of these ancient Chinese inventions and conduct research on the internet to prepare a PowerPoint presentation that answers the following questions:

a. When was it first discovered?
b. How was it made?
c. How did it work?
d. How was it used?
e. What effect did it have on people's lives?
f. Is the invention used today and, if so, how is it now used?

Using historical sources as evidence

7.10 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

7.10 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** For what purpose were compasses first used in China?
2. **HS1** What material was traditionally used for writing in China and what was gained from the invention of paper?
3. **HS1** How did the Chinese discover gunpowder?
4. **HS1** In what medical advances did China lead the world?
5. **HS1** What is the role of UNESCO?
6. **HS1** Name two UNESCO World Heritage-listed sites in China.

7.10 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 1** and suggest how this early compass worked.
2. **HS3** What can you tell from **SOURCE 2** and **3** about early Chinese methods of paper-making and printing?
3. **HS3** In **SOURCE 7** what evidence can you see of measures that have been taken to conserve the objects that were excavated from around the tomb of China's first emperor?
4. **HS6** Compare the various ancient Chinese inventions described in this subtopic and choose one that you think had the biggest impact on people in its time and on future generations. Write an advertisement for it.
5. **HS6** Refer to the text and sources to write a one-paragraph explanation of the meaning of 'cultural heritage'. Identify cultural heritage sites within China that are in great need of protection and conservation.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

7.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

online only

How do we analyse the different perspectives of people in ancient China?

Primary sources often give different perspectives because not everyone will have seen an event or problem from the same point of view. It is important to analyse different perspectives, especially for bias and propaganda, when trying to determine what happened in the past.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

7.12 Thinking Big research project: Han dynasty guide

online only

SCENARIO

As the official guide and cultural envoy in the court of the Western Han dynasty, it is your job to create a printed guide to ensure that several visiting foreign dignitaries behave according to Chinese tradition in the presence of the emperor.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

on Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Han dynasty guide (pro-0231)

7.13 Review

online only

7.13.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

7.13.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32126)
Crossword (doc-32127)

Interactivity Ancient China crossword (int-7696)

KEY TERMS

acupuncture a medical practice in which long, sharp needles are inserted under the skin as a means of diagnosing, relieving or curing illness
anaesthetic drug to deaden pain
artificer craftsperson or inventor
bureaucrat government official
castrated having had the testicles cut off
concubines women who lived with the emperor in a sexual relationship but were not married to him
conscripted forced to become a soldier
constellations groups of stars
Daoist a follower of Daoism
deported forced to leave the country
dissection systematic cutting up of body for medical study
halberds daggers mounted on axe handles
infantry foot soldiers
mausoleum large tomb structure
mandate of heaven Chinese expression meaning that a ruler had been chosen by the gods
philosopher one who studies the fundamental principles and causes of things
warlords generals from powerful landowning families
Xiongnu the ancient Chinese name for the nomadic Turkic tribes of Central Asia

7.11 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

7.11.1 Tell me

What are different perspectives and why do they occur?

A perspective is a point of view, which is formed from someone's values and beliefs, attitudes and experiences. In a study of a period of history, perspectives on an event or a period can be gathered from primary sources, especially eyewitness accounts as might be found in a source such as a diary, as well as official sources such as records produced by those in power. Primary sources often give different perspectives because not everyone will have seen an event or problem from the same point of view. Some primary sources are biased (one-sided or prejudiced) or were created as propaganda (attempts to persuade people to accept a biased view). Each source will reflect the perspective of its creator and their target audience and purpose.

Why is it important to analyse different perspectives, especially bias and propaganda?

To find the truth on any matter, we have to be aware that what someone says or writes about it may be one-sided and an attempt to persuade and possibly to deceive. This is as important when trying to make up our minds on current issues as it is when trying to understand the past. For example, when buying a product you do not necessarily trust what advertisements say about it. An advertiser will wish to show a product in its best light — that is, present only positive aspects of it, so that a consumer will buy it. In the same way, a ruler may only want positive records of their rule to be made or displayed to ensure no dissent from those they rule or that their legacy is protected. Sometimes, the perspectives of those not part of the ruling group may be silenced — their absence from the public record also tells a historian something about that period. Historians must often research extensively to find the perspectives of a range of people about events from the past in order to build up a balanced picture of the event or time period.

7.11.2 Show me

How to analyse different perspectives in primary sources

When you read an interpretation of a historical event or development you need to ask:

1. What is the subject or main idea of the source?
2. When was the source created?
3. Who created the source?
4. Why was it written?
5. Does it try to persuade and if so how does it do this?
6. Is the source supported or contradicted by the evidence of other sources?

An example: Qin Shihuang's achievements

Qin Shihuang wanted to be seen as a great and powerful ruler who brought peace and happiness to his people. **SOURCE 1** is an example of his propaganda. **SOURCES 2** and **3** provide other evidence. The six questions have been applied to **SOURCE 1**.

SOURCE 1 From an inscription ordered by Qin Shihuang (shown in image). It was carved in 219 BCE.

. . . Great are the Emperor's achievements . . .
All people under heaven
Work with a common purpose.
Tools and measures are the same . . .
The written script is made the same . . .
He defines the laws, leaving no one in doubt,
Making known what is forbidden . . .
No evil is tolerated,
So all strive to be excellent people . . .
None dare to be lazy . . .
The ordinary people know peace . . .
People help each other,
There are no robbers or thieves:
People delight in his rule . . .
Wherever life is found,
All acknowledge his supreme rule . . .



SOURCE 2 From a Qin imperial edict. When the First Emperor decided to standardise weights and measures, his order was published on bronze plates. Attached to the plates were wooden measures.

In the twenty-sixth year of his reign [221 BCE], the Emperor unified all the lands under heaven, brought peace to the people, and mounted the throne as Emperor. [He] ordered the prime minister to reform the measures and weights. For those who do not know the new system, this [object] is a standard model for making more copies.

SOURCE 3 Hsun-tzu, a Confucian scholar of the third century BCE, commenting on the methods of the rulers of the state of Qin in the last years of the Warring States period. These same methods were used throughout China under the Qin dynasty.

The Qin rulers employ their people harshly, terrorise them with authority, embitter them with hardship, bribe them with rewards, and destroy them with punishments.

1. *What is the subject or main idea of the source?* The main idea is that the First Emperor's reforms have unified China, given its people certainty about the laws, protected them from wrongdoers and made them hardworking, responsible, happy and grateful to their ruler.
2. *When was this source created?* It was written in 219 BCE.
3. *Who created the source?* Qin Shihuang ordered it to be written.
4. *Why was the source written?* It was written to tell people that the emperor acted for their benefit.
5. *Does it try to persuade and if so how does it do this?* It tries to persuade by giving a distorted account of what was happening. It makes no mention of forced labour, high taxes and the cruelty of the emperor's punishments.
6. *Is the source supported or contradicted by the evidence of other sources?* **SOURCE 2** supports the statement about measures. **SOURCE 3** contradicts most of the source by accusing the Qin rulers of causing misery and suffering rather than happiness.

7.11.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

7.11 ACTIVITIES

1. In 213 BCE, Qin Shihuang ordered the burning of many books. He followed this up by executing hundreds of scholars who kept their books. **SOURCE 4** gives the official reasons for these harsh measures. Now use the six questions to see if you can recognise the bias in this source and analyse it. **SOURCE 5** provides other evidence.

SOURCE 4 Advice given by Prime Minister Li Si to Qin Shihuang

Your Majesty rules a unified Empire in which the difference between right and wrong is as clear as your own total authority. Yet there are people who unofficially spread teachings that are against official orders . . . they openly criticise your commands . . . The people are thus encouraged to be disrespectful. If this lying is not stopped the imperial authority will be weak . . . all people owning books . . . should destroy them.

SOURCE 5 From Sima Qian's book *Shiji*, 91 BCE

But the First Emperor was greedy and short-sighted, confident in his own wisdom, never trusting his meritorious officials, never getting to know his people . . . outlawing books and writings, making the laws and penalties much harsher, putting deceit and force foremost and humanity and righteousness last, leading the whole world in violence and cruelty.

2. Sima Qian was Grand Historian of China during the Han dynasty. He did not live in the period when Qin Shihuang ruled. How does this fact affect your assessment of the usefulness of **SOURCE 5**?
3. Suggest sources or people from the time that might present other perspectives on Qin Shihuang's book-burning edict.
4. Explain why primary source evidence from ancient China often provides different perspectives.
5. Explain why, despite differing perspectives, primary source evidence from ancient China rarely gives the perspectives of the lower classes.
6. Why would **SOURCES 1** and **2** need to be questioned very thoroughly?
7. Explain why differing perspectives can sometimes make it difficult to judge the reliability of ancient Chinese primary sources.

7.12 Thinking Big research project: Han dynasty guide

Scenario

It is the first century BCE and you are an important official in the court of the western Han dynasty. Several foreign dignitaries are expected at court; they are making their first visit to the Middle Kingdom. You have been appointed as their guide and cultural envoy. It is your responsibility to ensure that these visiting foreign 'barbarians' behave according to Chinese tradition in the presence of the emperor. They will also need to have a basic understanding of the way your government operates, the philosophy of Confucianism, which has shaped China's government and cultural values, and the key features of Chinese daily life.



Task

The highly developed technology of your ancient Chinese civilisation has been producing a type of paper made from hemp from the second century BCE. You are required to create a short, printed guide to understanding the position of emperor, the basic structure and functioning of government, the principles of Confucianism and the etiquette of court behaviour. Begin by forming small groups to plan and share research and discuss concepts to develop your own clear understanding of terms such as the 'mandate of heaven'.

Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.

Process

- Open the projectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to enter the project due date and set up your project group. Your group can have any number of members, but each student can be a member of only one group.



- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered.
- Begin your research by reading through subtopic 7.7 to familiarise yourself with the principles of Confucianism and the influence the philosophy had on Han dynasty government. Locate at least three other sources of information. In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric to guide your work and some weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.
- Decide on the headings you are going to use to organise your research findings; for example, The mandate of heaven and government; Confucius and philosophy; the Han Empire.
- Enter your research findings under each heading in your Research forum. You can view, share and comment on other group members' research findings. Be sure to enter the source for any information you find online.
- Collect images to add to your guide to assist you in explaining the unique features of the life, beliefs and government of China during the Han dynasty. Look at the Media centre template of your 'dynasty guide' to provide ideas on how to creatively organise your research.
- Try to make each of the headings in your Han dynasty guide sound interesting and informative; for example, 'the Han Book of Politics, Politeness and Protocol' sounds more engaging than 'Han Dynasty Guide'.
- Email your Han dynasty guide to your teacher for assessment and feedback.

on Resources

ProjectsPLUS Han dynasty guide (pro-0231)

7.13 Review

7.13.1 Key knowledge summary

7.2 Examining the evidence

- Shang dynasty inscriptions are our earliest written evidence of ancient China.
- Archaeological finds provide evidence of rich cultures during Qin and Han times.
- The most exciting find was the discovery of the terracotta warriors guarding the tomb of Qin Shihuang.

7.3 China's civilisation begins

- There is no primary source evidence for the legendary Xia dynasty.
- Early Chinese rulers based their authority on the mandate of heaven.
- Early Chinese civilisation was based on farming in river valleys in eastern China.

7.4 The people of ancient China

- Rulers were supported by powerful lords and landowning gentry, who included warriors and bureaucrats.
- Women had an inferior status.
- Peasants formed the largest group and they suffered through natural disasters and wars.
- Merchants and slaves were at the bottom of Chinese society.

7.5 Everyday life and death

- Life for all classes of the common people was harsh, especially for women.
- We know much more about death and funeral customs of the ruling classes than of the common people.
- It was the custom of the ruling classes to bury goods with the dead to provide for them in the afterlife.
- Until Han times, people were also buried with rulers to serve them in the afterlife.

7.6 Ancient China and the natural environment

- China is vast country with a wide variety of climates and landscapes.
- Ninety per cent of the large population lived in the east, where agriculture was based along river valleys.
- Intensive clearing of land for farming caused massive soil erosion and other environmental damage.

7.7 Confucianism, religion and law

- Confucianism is not a religion. It is concerned with how good conduct can create social harmony.
- Confucianism had no influence in its founder's lifetime but much influence in later periods.
- Daoism and Buddhism became major religious influences in ancient China.
- The laws of China's First Emperor were based on the harsh laws of the state of Qin.
- Confucianism regained influence under the Han and later dynasties.

7.8 Qin Shihuang, the first emperor of China

- Qin Shihuang took control of China in 221 BCE after completing his conquest of the other Chinese states and turned the system of defensive walls into the Great Wall of China.
- He stamped out potential threats to his power through several measures, including confiscating weapons, controlling the nobles and burning books.
- In 209 BCE, the Qin dynasty was destroyed in a peasant rebellion.

7.9 The rise and fall of the Han

- The Han dynasty carried out reforms to avoid the fate of the Qin, and China expanded under the Han.
- Chinese missions led to the founding of the Silk Road, which opened trade between China and India, Persia and the Roman Empire.
- Inequality grew under the Han and rebellions led to its fall in 220 CE.

7.10 The heritage of China

- China's legacies include an amazing number of inventions, including printing and gunpowder.
- China's cultural heritage includes many UNESCO-listed sites, among which is the Great Wall and the Mausoleum of the First Emperor.

A timeline of ancient China



c. 1600 BCE
The Shang dynasty begins (lasts until 1046 BCE).

c. 2100 BCE
The legendary Xia dynasty is established.

c. 1200 BCE
Silk is first made in China.



1045 BCE
The Western Zhou dynasty begins (to 770 BCE).

770 BCE
The Eastern Zhou dynasty begins (to 256 BCE).



551–479 BCE
Confucius lives.

c. 500 BCE
Iron working begins in China.



475–221 BCE
The Warring States period

221–206 BCE
The Qin dynasty creates the Chinese Empire.

206 BCE
The Han dynasty is established.



9–25 CE
The Hsin dynasty (Wang Mang)

25 CE
The Han dynasty is restored (Eastern Han).

65 CE
Buddhism arrives in China from India.

105 CE
The Chinese invent a method of making paper from silk.

184 CE
Revolt of the Yellow Turbans



220 CE
The Han dynasty falls. The Three Kingdoms period begins.

7.13.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

7.13 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

How did ancient China begin, grow and change to become the world's oldest continuous civilisation?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32126)
Crossword (doc-32127)

Interactivity Ancient China crossword (int-7696)

KEY TERMS

acupuncture a medical practice in which long, sharp needles are inserted under the skin as a means of diagnosing, relieving or curing illness
anaesthetic drug to deaden pain
artificer craftsperson or inventor
bureaucrat government official
castrated having had the testicles cut off
concubines women who lived with the emperor in a sexual relationship but were not married to him
conscripted forced to become a soldier
constellations groups of stars
Daoist a follower of Daoism
deported forced to leave the country
dissection systematic cutting up of body for medical study
halberds daggers mounted on axe handles
infantry foot soldiers
mandate of heaven Chinese expression meaning that a ruler had been chosen by the gods
mausoleum large tomb structure
philosopher one who studies the fundamental principles and causes of things
warlords generals from powerful landowning families
Xiongnu the ancient Chinese name for the nomadic Turkic tribes of Central Asia

8 Ancient India

8.1 Overview

Lost cities, life-giving rivers and the rise and fall of an empire. How did ancient India's civilisations emerge?

8.1.1 Links with our times

With more than a billion people, India has the world's second largest population. India's economy is growing rapidly and will soon become the world's third largest. Yet, while some Indians have become wealthy, there is still terrible poverty. Around half of all Indian children do not have enough to eat.

India has also become an important trading partner for Australia. Large numbers of Indians have migrated to Australia, and many Indian students study at Australian colleges and universities.

When we speak of ancient India, we refer to the Indian subcontinent. Along with modern India, the subcontinent includes Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal and Bhutan. In ancient times these modern states did not exist. Great civilisations emerged on the Indian subcontinent, and some of their customs have survived to the present day.

on Resources

eWorkbook Customisable worksheets for this topic

Video eLesson Ancient India (eles-1839)

LEARNING SEQUENCE

8.1 Overview
8.2 Examining the evidence
8.3 The geography of India
8.4 Lost cities of the Indus Valley
8.5 Contacts and conflicts: India and the ancient world
8.6 The Mauryan Empire: India's first unified state
8.7 Ashoka the Great
8.8 The religions of ancient India
8.9 **SkillBuilder:** Analysing different perspectives online only
8.10 **Thinking Big research project:** Hindu god fact cards online only
8.11 **Review** online only

To access a pre-test and starter questions, and receive immediate, **corrective feedback** and **sample responses** to every question, select your learnON format at www.jacplus.com.au.

A timeline of ancient India













BCE

3000 — **c. 3000 BCE**
The Indus Valley Civilisation is established.

2500 — **c. 2500 BCE**
The cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro are built.

2000

c. 1600 BCE
The Aryans invade India.

1500

c. 1100 BCE
Iron is first used in India.

c. 750 BCE
Indo-Aryans rule 16 great states in northern India.

1000

c. 527 BCE
Prince Siddhartha Gautama becomes the Buddha.

500

c. 327 BCE
Alexander the Great of Macedon invades India.

304 BCE
The Mauryan Empire is founded.

259 BCE
The Mauryan emperor Ashoka converts to Buddhism.

220 BCE
The *Mahabharata*, a famous Hindu epic, is composed.

BCE / CE

200 CE
Hindus are divided into four main castes under the Manu code.

320 CE
The Gupta Empire is launched.

500

528 CE
The Gupta Empire collapses.

1000

CE

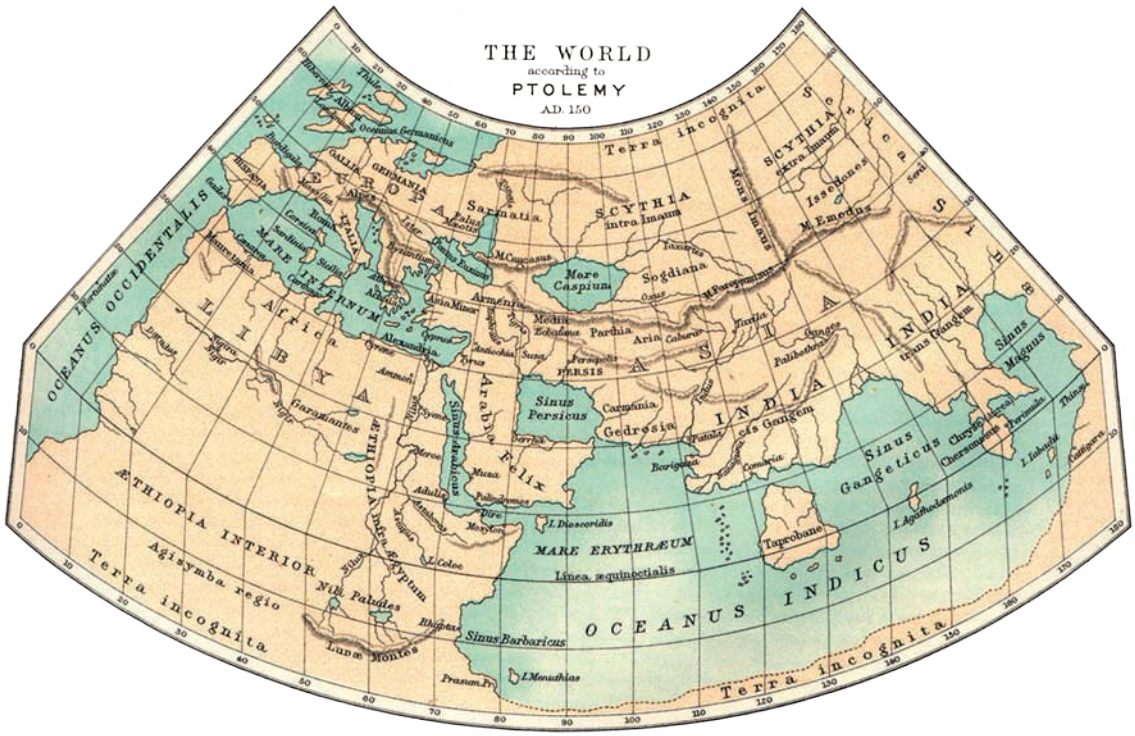
8.2 Examining the evidence

8.2.1 How do we know about ancient India?

Ancient India has a rich history spread over more than three and half thousand years. Over this time, many different civilisations have cast their influence over the subcontinent. The oldest of these, the Indus Valley Civilisation, originated in what is now known as Pakistan. Archaeologists know far more about later ancient Indian civilisations than they do about the Indus Valley. This is largely because the first Indus Valley ruins were only discovered by archaeologists in 1921. Until this time, the remnants of this incredible culture lay hidden for thousands of years.

It is extremely difficult to find artefacts, records and information about many ancient civilisations. The main forms of information about ancient civilisations come from pottery, engraved stone artefacts and the walls of ancient structures. Some civilisations such as those from Rome, Greece, Egypt and China have left behind a considerable legacy of large-scale artefacts. The records we have from other civilisations, such as the Indus Valley, have been more difficult to find. We first became aware of the Indus Valley when archaeologists began to unearth two of its cities in 1921. Before this time no-one knew that these were the ruins of a very ancient civilisation. Most of what we now know about the Indus Valley Civilisation has come from the excavation of three important sites: Harappa, Mohenjo-daro and Lothal. These ancient cities will be examined later in this topic.

SOURCE 1 A version of the Greek mathematician Ptolemy's map of the world, which he drew about 150 CE



Evidence from other civilisations

We also have evidence of connections between ancient India and other civilisations. King Darius I of Persia is believed to have sent Greek explorer Scylax of Caryanda on a voyage to the East. On this voyage, Scylax travelled down the Ganges until it emptied into the Indian Ocean. Later, Alexander the Great conquered the Persian Empire in 334 BCE and then set his sights on India. Although his conquests were short-lived, they

were significant enough to influence Buddhist art in northern India. Before Greek exploration, the Buddha was never depicted in human form. It is thought that the Greek focus on natural and realistic art influenced Indian artists to create **anthropomorphic** depictions of Buddha (see **SOURCE 3**).

SOURCE 2 From *The Histories* by the Greek historian Herodotus, written about 440 BCE

[The Indians of the north-west] go out to fetch gold — for in this region there is a sandy desert ... the sand has a rich content of gold ... There is found in this desert a kind of ant of great size — bigger than a fox, but not so big as a dog ... [These] Indians plan their timetable so as to actually get their hands on the gold during the hottest part of the day, when the heat will have driven the ants underground ... When the Indians [on their camels] reach the place where the gold is, they fill the bags they have brought with them with sand, and start for home again as fast as they can go; for the ants (if we may believe the Persians' story) smell them and at once give chase; nothing in the world can touch these ants for speed, so not one of the Indians would get home alive if they did not make sure of a good start while the ants were mustering their forces.

SOURCE 3 Humanesque depiction of Buddha from Gandhara



8.2 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.2 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** The Indus Valley Civilisation originated in which modern-day country?
2. **HS2** When did archaeologists first discover the Indus Valley ruins?
3. **HS1** Where do the main forms of information about ancient civilisations come from?
4. **HS1** Give one reason why there are not a lot of records of the Indus Valley Civilisation.
5. **HS1** What influenced the creation of anthropomorphic depictions of Buddha?

8.2 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Engravings from religious buildings provide much of the archaeological evidence we have from ancient India. List three strengths and three weaknesses of this form of evidence.
2. **HS3** Read **SOURCE 2**.
   (a) List the observations Herodotus makes about India and its culture.
   (b) Evaluate the accuracy of these observations.
3. **HS3** Describe the depiction of the Buddha as shown in **SOURCE 3**. Explain how this depiction differs from those seen in India before contact with the Greeks.
4. **HS4** Compare **SOURCE 1** to a modern map of India. Identify and describe the key differences.
5. **HS4** Identify one reason for the differences between Ptolemy's map and a modern map.
6. **HS4** Name three key cities of the Indus Valley Civilisation. Suggest reasons why these cities are no longer as important to India as they once were.
7. **HS6** It is easier for archaeologists to learn more about ancient Egypt than ancient India. Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Justify your response.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.3 The geography of India

8.3.1 Region and climate

The modern nation of India is the seventh largest country in the world. This in itself is impressive. However, if you add the other modern nations that were once a part of greater India — Pakistan, Bangladesh and the island state of Sri Lanka — then the Indian land mass is bigger still. It is so big that the region is often called the Indian subcontinent. A subcontinent is a large land mass attached to a **continent**. In the case of the Indian subcontinent, the land mass is attached to Asia.

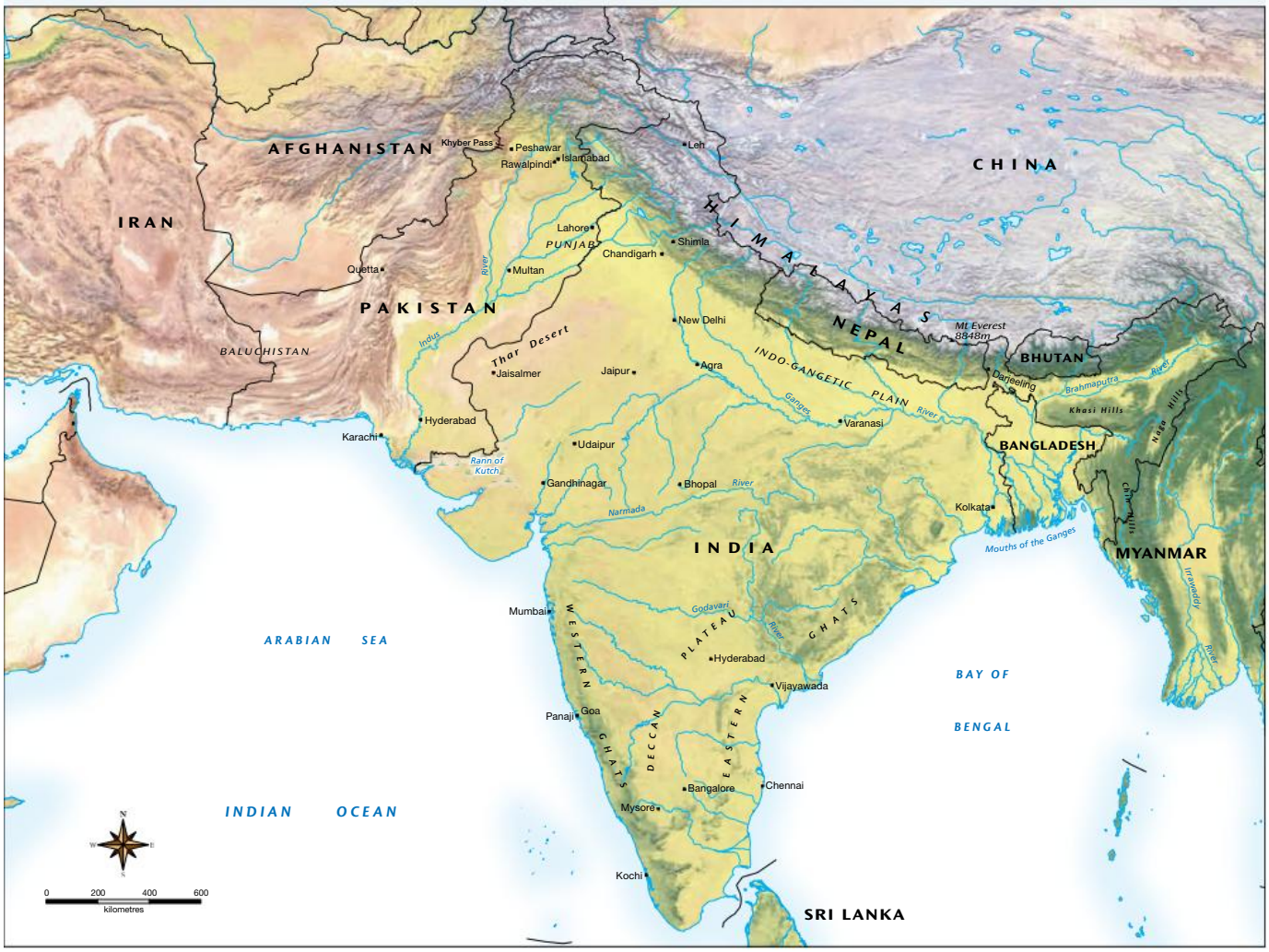
The Indian subcontinent is made up of three geographical regions: the Indian Himalayan Region, the Indo-Gangetic Plain and the Deccan Plateau.

The Indian Himalayan Region is part of the Himalayan mountain range. These mountains are the highest in the world and provide the snow that feeds into three of the subcontinent's major rivers — the Ganges, the Brahmaputra and the Indus. As it reaches the Bay of Bengal, the Ganges forms a delta that is 350 kilometres wide.

The Indo-Gangetic Plain is a flat, well-watered area. It is the most fertile and densely populated region of the subcontinent. Its western section is drier, merging into the Thar Desert.

The Deccan Plateau in the south is rocky and barren. Farmers here use the rivers to water their crops. Unlike the rivers of northern India, these southern rivers depend on **monsoon** rains to fill their banks.

SOURCE 1 A map of the Indian subcontinent



Source: Spatial Vision

Given its vast size and varied terrain, the Indian subcontinent has a wide range of weather patterns. The seasonal monsoons also influence its climate. There are six seasons each year: summer, autumn, winter, spring, summer monsoon and winter monsoon. In the Himalayan north, winters may be freezing and, in some areas, summers are cool. In the central and southern areas of the subcontinent, the tropical climate produces temperatures ranging from warm to hot, with some inland areas reaching as much as 50 °C in summer.

India's geographical features had a strong influence on the location of its ancient civilisations. They developed mainly along river valleys that provided reliable water supplies, fertile soils for growing crops and access to the sea for trading. Such conditions were also seen in some of the world's great early civilisations, including ancient Iraq and Egypt.

8.3 ACTIVITY

Add the following features to a blank map of India (you may need to do some additional research to locate the areas mentioned):

a. major geographical features (rivers, mountain ranges, plateaus, deserts)
b. main areas of food production
c. major cities
d. two areas of high population density and two areas of low population density.

Identifying continuity and change

8.3 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.3 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What is a subcontinent?
2. **HS1** List the nations that make up the Indian subcontinent.
3. **HS1** Name the three regions of the Indian subcontinent.
4. **HS1** Name the three main rivers of the Indian subcontinent.
5. **HS1** Which region tends to be cool to cold, and which regions tend to be warm to hot?

8.3 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 1**. Calculate the distance of the Indian subcontinent from east to west and from north to south.
2. **HS3** Given the size of the Indian subcontinent and the variety in terrain and climate, do you think it possible that its population could share the same language and culture? Explain.
3. **HS6** Describe the role that rivers played in India's early history.
4. **HS6** What other geographic features influenced the development of ancient Indian civilisations?
5. **HS5** Explain how the rivers of the Indian subcontinent might have helped to develop a civilisation based on farming.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.4 Lost cities of the Indus Valley

8.4.1 The Indus Valley Civilisation

People have lived in the Indian subcontinent since the Old Stone Age. Some rock paintings found there date as far back as 50 000 BCE. The Neolithic Revolution, when people began to settle in farming communities, began about 7000 BCE. The first towns and cities in the subcontinent arose around 3000 BCE. They flourished for around 1400 years before their mysterious decline. For thousands of years all that was known was that people had once lived in the cities, but only the brick ruins remained. What sort of buildings they had been, who built them and what became of them — all of this was unknown.

SOURCE 1 The main archaeological sites of the Indus Valley Civilisation



Source: Spatial Vision

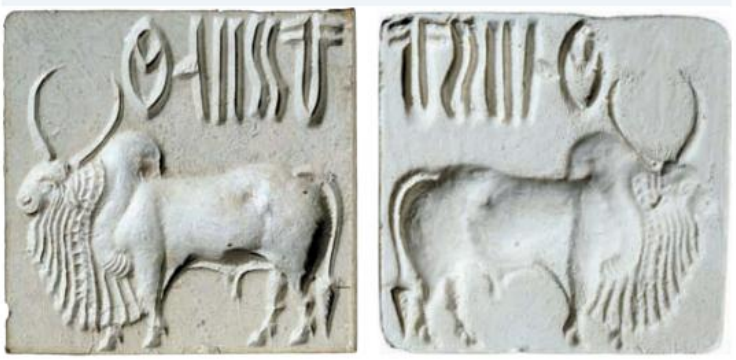
As in Egypt and Mesopotamia, the first Indian cities were built in a fertile river valley, with good soils and a reliable water supply for growing crops. This was the valley of the Indus River and its tributaries. So this first civilisation, arising at much the same time as those in Egypt and Sumer (in Mesopotamia), has become known as the Indus Valley Civilisation. It is also sometimes called the Harappan Civilisation because Harappa was the first of its cities to be excavated.

The cities of the Indus Valley thrived. Farmers worked the fields surrounding the cities and officials organised the sale and distribution of agricultural produce. They had governments and used writing. Artisans created ornaments and tools, while traders plied their goods in boats up and down the river and its tributaries, and even across the sea to Mesopotamia. Artefacts from Mesopotamia have been found in the Indus Valley. This means there were probably trade links between these civilisations.

SOURCE 2 An Indus Valley stamp-seal, excavated at Mohenjo-daro.



SOURCE 3 An Indus Valley seal and its impression. Such seals have been found at the Mesopotamian city of Ur and other sites in that region. Similarly, seals from Mesopotamian cities have been found at Indus Valley locations such as the port city of Lothal. Animals on the seals include rhinoceros, elephants, unicorns and bulls.



DID YOU KNOW?

Stamp-seals were designed to leave an impression when pressed into wet clay. The imprint would be fixed to bundles of merchandise as merchants' marks.

SOURCE 4 The Indus Valley Civilisation and Mesopotamia



Source: Spatial Vision

8.4.2 Living in the lost cities

Our knowledge of the structure and function of cities during the Indus Valley Civilisation comes from several important archaeological sites. These cities have been well preserved and contain the remains of buildings and other pieces of important infrastructure. The largest Indus Valley sites that have been excavated are the cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro. Four hundred kilometres apart, both cities were based on a **grid system**, much like many modern cities. Each city was divided into 12 main blocks and had strong outer walls.

Many buildings were made of kiln-fired bricks similar, even in size, to the kinds of bricks used in many modern houses. Historians assume they used kiln-fired bricks because the Indus Valley had a wetter climate in those times. Such bricks were harder to make than mud bricks, dried only by the sun, but they were more durable in a wet environment. There is evidence that mud bricks were also used, but only the kiln-fired bricks have survived.

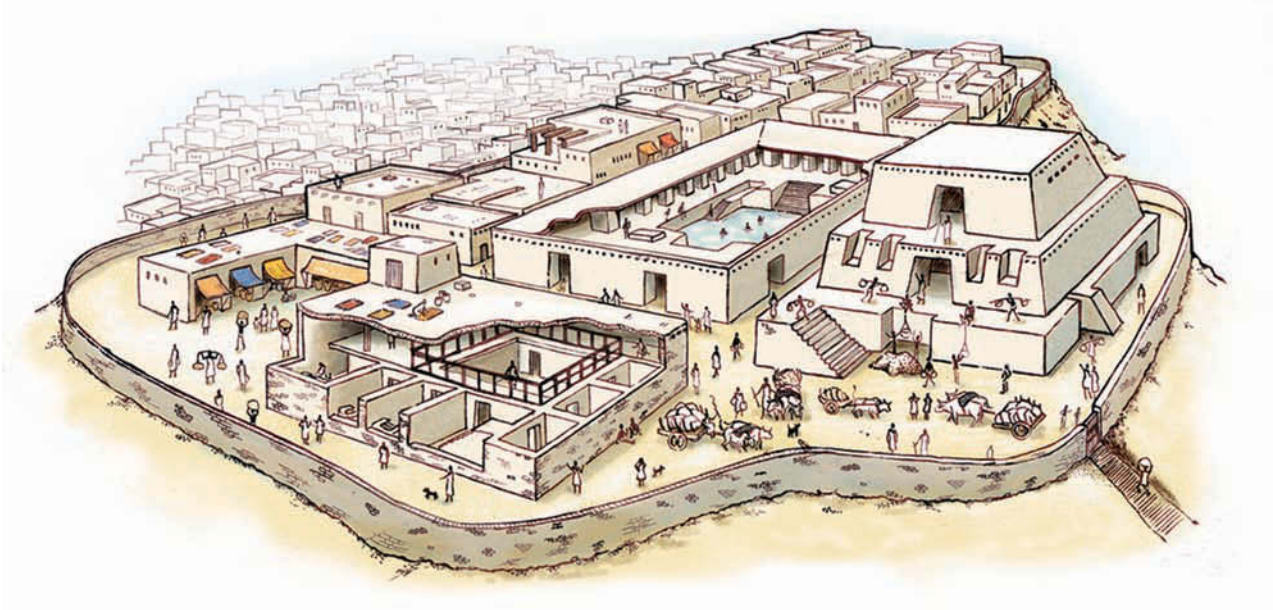
Most of the people of the Indus Valley would have been farmers. Cities could grow only where agriculture could produce a surplus to feed people who were not engaged in farming. So we know the farmers must have produced such a surplus. Excavations have given us some ideas about other kinds of work. Finds include seals, gold jewellery, combs, bronze statues and pottery. Such items would have been made by artisans in the cities and transported and traded by merchants.

Features of Mohenjo-daro

The grid system is clearly visible in the modern artist's impression of Mohenjo-daro shown in **SOURCE 5**. There are two levels to the city. The first level is called the Higher Town or the 'citadel'. Although it looks like a citadel, or fortress, the Higher Town is actually a mound topped by a huge **granary** and communal baths.

The granary was positioned high above the floodplain and was immense. The inhabitants of Mohenjo-daro depended on this building and its vast stores of grain, such as wheat and barley. The granary needed to be on high ground, beyond the reach of floodwaters. Ox-carts laden with produce would have been stationed in the recesses as workers raised produce to the platforms above.

SOURCE 5 A modern artist's impression of Mohenjo-daro. In the centre is the Great Bath and granary in the Higher Town.



SOURCE 6 The Great Bath of Mohenjo-daro



The surviving walls reveal a row of ventilation ducts. These allowed air to circulate inside to prevent the produce from going mouldy. The roof of the granary was probably constructed of timber and has long since rotted away.

A brick-lined, sunken structure is thought to have been an enormous bath. Traces of bitumen have been found in the bath, suggesting that it was sealed to prevent leakage. While we cannot know the purpose of the bath for certain, we can use contemporary knowledge of Indian customs to make an informed assumption. Ritual bathing is a common aspect of several Indian religions. We can also infer that as the bath has stairs and ledges the Great Bath was used for similar purposes.

The second level of Mohenjo-daro is the Lower Town. Here were the houses of the citizens. Like the buildings of the Higher Town, they are made of kiln-fired bricks. Larger houses often had courtyards. The windows faced inward and were high above ground level, ensuring privacy. A broad street, up to 10 metres wide, runs through the Lower Town, with narrower streets running off it.

There were many wells in Mohenjo-daro. These provided the population with fresh water for drinking and washing. They were constructed of special wedge-shaped bricks. Some bricks had a groove in them to make it easier to send down a bucket on a rope: the groove prevented the rope from slipping sideways and spilling the water. Mud brick often covered the walls of the wells. Most wells were built inside dwellings. However, wells have also been found adjoining the city streets.

For one of the world's first cities, Mohenjo-daro was remarkably **hygienic**. Many of the houses unearthed in the city had baths. Structures resembling toilets have also been unearthed. Many houses had drainage outlets onto the street, where gutters carried away waste water. Sometimes terracotta pipes were used. Chute systems were also used to expel water. Often a notched brick was placed at the end of the chute so solid waste could be trapped, preventing rubbish from accumulating in the street. Drains below the city streets were enclosed channels big enough for a person to walk through. This made it possible for workers to unblock the drainage system if the need arose.

SOURCE 7 Structure believed to be a toilet at Mohenjo-daro



SOURCE 8 Large covered drain at Mohenjo-daro — tall enough for a person to walk through



Harappa had similar features to Mohenjo-daro. Their populations were also similar: Harappa's is estimated at 35 000 people and Mohenjo-daro's at 30 000. There is no evidence that a central government ruled the whole valley and used one of the cities as its capital.

SOURCE 9 A well at Mohenjo-daro



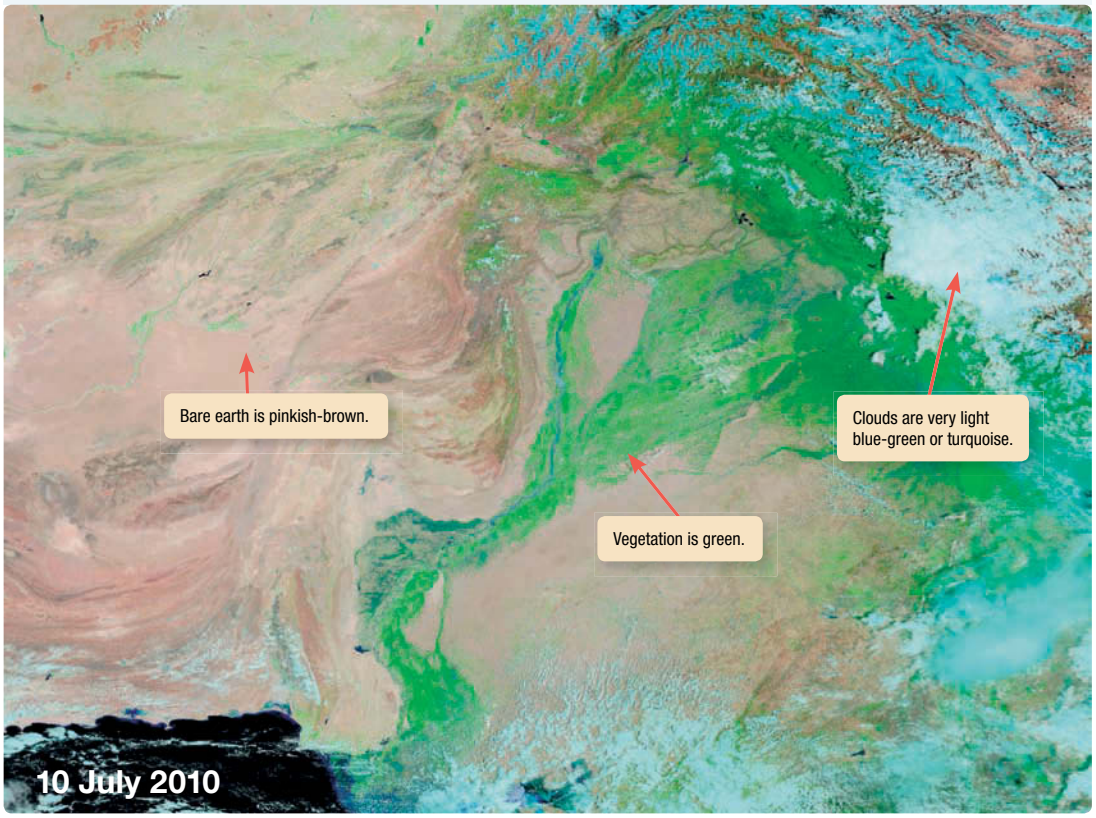
8.4.3 The end of a civilisation

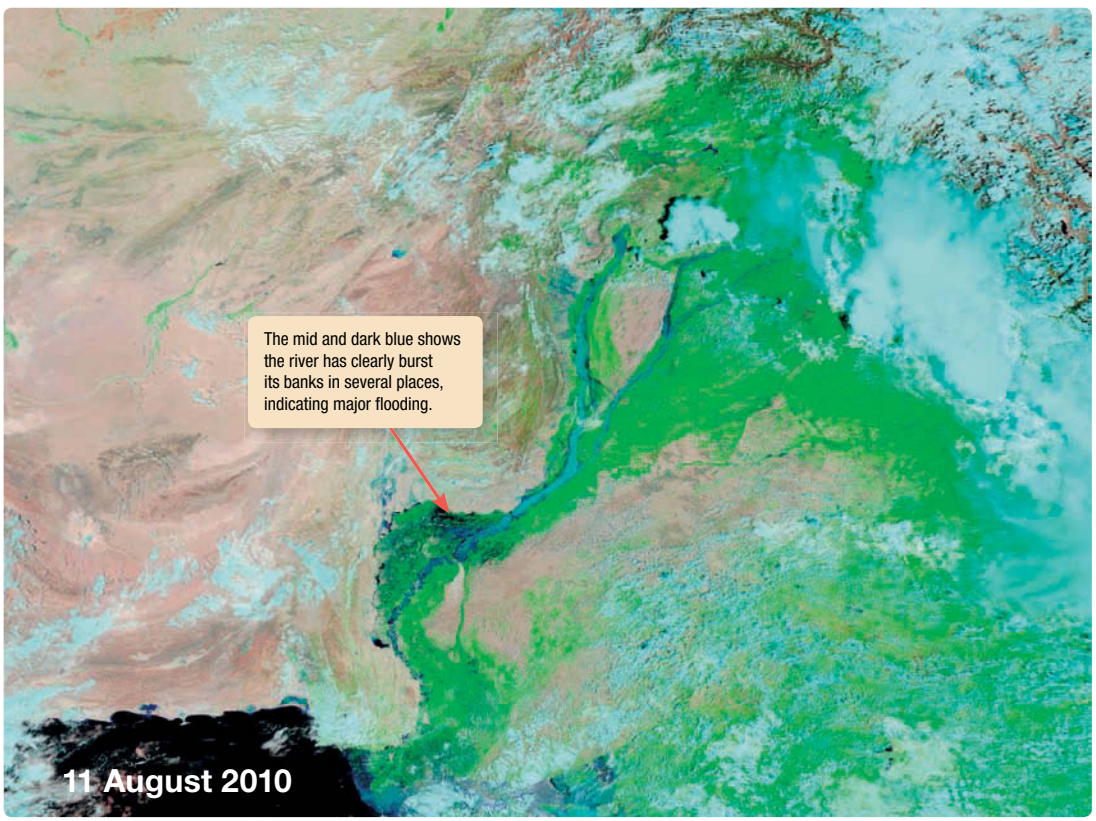
The end of the Indus Valley Civilisation is another mystery. However, historians and archaeologists have at least formed some solid hypotheses about the last days of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro.

Originally it was thought that the Aryan invasion (see subtopic 8.5) led to the fall of the Indus Valley Civilisation. Few scholars now accept this theory. Firstly, the Indus cities had already been abandoned by the time of the Aryan invasion. Secondly, there is no evidence of warfare in or around the cities. There are none of the weapons, chariots, armour or remains of men and horses that would have been scattered across battlefields. Some skeletons found in Harappa that show signs of violent death were once thought to be the victims of Aryan invaders. The problems with this theory are that these victims do not occupy strata levels that coincide with the last days of the city itself.

The Indus River flows through an earthquake-prone region and has changed its course many times. Excavations reveal that in the last years of Mohenjo-daro there was a series of floods and that repairs were carried out in their wake. One earthquake blocked the Indus River downstream from Mohenjo-daro, resulting in the creation of a huge lake. This increased the flooding problems for the city. There is evidence that Mohenjo-daro was rebuilt at least seven times as a result of heavy flooding in the Indus River basin. Most recently, the disastrous floods of 2010 (see **SOURCE 10**) threatened the site, although fortunately the floodwaters did not reach it. (These floods affected 20 million people; at one point as much as one-fifth of the modern country of Pakistan was underwater.)

SOURCE 10 NASA images from space showing the flooding of the Indus River in 2010. The top image shows the Indus River Valley on 10 July, just before the floods. The bottom image shows the valley on 11 August, at the height of the floods. These images combine infra-red and visible light to give us a clearer picture of the difference between water and dry land.





SOURCE 11 From Robert R. Raikes, 'The End of the Ancient Cities of the Indus', *American Anthropologist*, 1964

Uplift, almost certainly accompanied by more or less violent earthquake shocks, would not only have caused destruction of cities and settlements but would have disrupted the system of river and coastwise communications on which the commercial life of the culture must have largely depended. Damage to the cities and settlements in the Indus Valley would have been due rather to flooding than to the shocks ... a point would have been reached when it would no longer have been considered worth the trouble and expense of rebuilding ...

A gradual end?

Most historians now believe that the cities *were* gradually abandoned when it ceased to be practical to live in them, but that their culture lived on. Even today there are pottery styles in the Indus Valley similar to those of the ancient Indus Valley Civilisation. The ox-carts are still in use, and the mud brick platforms around houses would have been familiar to anyone from those ancient communities. So the Indus Valley Civilisation may not have come to an end after all. Perhaps its culture simply blended into, and became a part of, the rich array of cultures that now span the Indian subcontinent.

SOURCE 12 From Chris J. D. Kostman, 'The **Demise** of **Utopia**', *Journal of the Association of Graduates in Near Eastern Studies*, 1995

A careful review of the literature suggests that although the Harappans did experience great natural disasters and a dramatic [shift] in their urban process, they never declined or fell at all: the Harappan **legacy** continues to this day.

8.4 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.4 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** About how long ago did cities first emerge in the Indus Valley?
2. **HS1** What geographical feature did the Indus Valley Civilisation share with ancient Egypt and Sumer (in Mesopotamia)?
3. **HS1** What two structures dominate the Higher Town at Mohenjo-daro?
4. **HS1** What substance was used to prevent water leaking out of the Great Bath?
5. **HS1** What sort of buildings were in the Lower Town of Mohenjo-daro?
6. **HS1** Explain why the drains under the city streets were so big.
7. **HS1** What was the purpose of wells at Mohenjo-daro?
8. **HS1** List two reasons why it is unlikely that the Aryans destroyed the Indus Valley Civilisation.
9. **HS1** What two natural disasters affected the cities of the Indus Valley Civilisation?
10. **HS1** What may have finally led to the cities being abandoned?
11. **HS1** Where might the people have gone after abandoning their cities?
12. **HS1** Outline the evidence that suggests the Indus Valley Civilisation was not warlike.

8.4 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. Look at **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Why do you think the cities and other settlements (shown by dots) are mostly located along the Indus River and its tributaries?
   (b) Why would Lothal be a suitable place for a port to serve these cities?
2. Consider **SOURCES 2** and **3**.
   (a) Describe the similarities and differences between these two seals.
   (b) Give two reasons for including both animals and writing on the seals.
   (c) What conclusions can you draw about contacts between the civilisations of Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley?

3. Using the scale in **SOURCE 4**, calculate how far people would have had to travel by sea and river to trade goods between the Indus Valley and Sumer.
4. **HS3** Look at **SOURCE 5**.
   (a) In a short paragraph, describe the layout of Mohenjo-daro as seen in this source.
   (b) Why do you think the people of Mohenjo-daro would have needed such a huge granary for their produce?
   (c) What does such a large single granary tell us about the way society would have been organised at Mohenjo-daro?
   (d) From where would they have brought the produce to store in the granary?
5. **HS3** Why do some historians suggest that the Great Bath shown in **SOURCE 6** was intended for bathing as part of some religious ritual?
6. **HS3** Describe the features of the structures shown in **SOURCES 7, 8** and **9** that could have led archaeologists to conclude that these are toilets, drains and wells.
7. **HS3** How does the evidence in **SOURCE 10** support the idea that the Indus River can cause problems when it floods?
8. **HS3** Why does the author of **SOURCE 11** say 'it would no longer have been considered worth the trouble and expense of rebuilding'?
9. **HS3** The author in **SOURCE 12** mentions 'Harappans'. Who were the Harappans? (You will find out by revisiting earlier parts of the subtopic.)
10. **HS3** According to **SOURCE 12**, what became of the Harappans?
11. **HS3** Compare the photo of the excavated Great Bath at Mohenjo-daro in **SOURCE 6** with the artist's impression of the same location in **SOURCE 5**. Compile a list of the similarities and differences.
12. **HS3** Review all images of archaeological sites in this subtopic. Explain why it is difficult for archaeologists to determine the exact purposes of particular structures and buildings.
13. **HS3** Compare the satellite images in **SOURCE 10** with the map in **SOURCE 1**.
    (a) Which ancient Indian city was flooded in August 2010?
    (b) What could modern Indian governments do to protect this and other important archaeological sites from the dangers of flooding?
14. **HS4** Explain how the cities of Harappa, Mohenjo-daro and Lothal were so well preserved.
15. **HS5** Identify the reasons for the flourishing of human civilisation in the Indus Valley.
16. **HS5** Compile a table that summarises the factors that contributed to the end of the Indus Valley Civilisation.
17. **HS6** Rank the factors identified in question 16 in terms of their importance. Which factor was the most significant contribution to the decline of the Indus Valley Civilisation?

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.5 Contacts and conflicts: India and the ancient world

8.5.1 Trade during the Indus Valley Civilisation

From as early as 3000 BCE, members of the Indus Valley Civilisation had begun trading with the outside world. Home to unique and exotic items, such as precious stones, hardwoods and spices, international trade developed quickly in the Indus Valley. Once word of India's riches had spread, the region soon attracted explorers and traders from around the ancient world. However, India's abundant resources also caught the attention of individuals with less peaceful intentions, such as Alexander the Great. Evidence of this contact and conflict has been uncovered in several locations around Europe and Asia. In ancient Mesopotamia, **Indus seals** have been discovered; the city of Lothal was one of the world's earliest ports; and India features prominently in early Roman maps. In this subtopic, we will learn about ancient Indian civilisations and their contact and conflict with the outside world.

The lost cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro have provided us with incredible insight into the Indus Valley Civilisation. As we have seen previously, the archaeological remains of these sites reveal much about the social, religious and political features of the Indus Valley. Countless examples of Indus Valley

Civilisation jewellery, pottery, everyday items and seals have been discovered at Harappa and Mohenjo-daro. These highly sought-after goods would have been traded with other civilisations across Asia and Europe. This raises the question of how this trade actually occurred. The answer can be found in the ancient port city of Lothal (see **SOURCES 1** and **2**).

SOURCE 1 A map showing the location of important cities of the Indus Valley Civilisation



Source: Spatial Vision

SOURCE 2 A photograph of the ancient dock at Lothal



Excavated from 1955 to 1960, Lothal is one of the oldest docks in the world. Goods from Harappa and other Indus cities were transported to the port at Lothal. Small compared to modern examples, the port was large enough to house boats capable of international journeys. Exiting the port via the ancient Sabarmati River, these boats then made their way down the Gulf of Khambhat and across the Arabian Sea. The Indus Valley traders may have then met with their Mesopotamian counterparts in what we now call Iran. The strongest evidence of this activity comes in the form of seals. A small block engraved with pictures and writing, seals were used to stamp pottery and other items. The fact that Harappan seals (see **SOURCE 3**) have been found in places previously occupied by the Mesopotamians strongly suggests that trade occurred between these two civilisations. It is also interesting to note that activity at Lothal continued many years after the decline of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro.

SOURCE 3 Harappan pottery stamp-seal (left) and modern impression (right): unicorn and incense burner



8.5.2 The Vedic Civilisation

The next civilisation to develop in India was named after a collection of sacred writings — mostly hymns, prayers and poems. These writings, called the *Vedas*, form the oldest books of the Hindu religion. They were written in **Sanskrit**, the language of this civilisation. The most important of these books, the *Rig-Veda*, was composed around 1000 BCE. The Vedic (sometimes called Aryan) culture came from western Asia. Some groups of Aryans moved westward into Europe. Others entered the Indian subcontinent around 1600 BCE.

The Aryans were warlike **nomads**. With horses and chariots they stormed across the Indus River Valley and the floodplain of the Ganges River. They had no interest in building cities, such as those of the Indus Valley Civilisation. They were not united as a nation, but rather were made up of numerous tribes, each ruled by a chief or *raja*. Often, they fought among themselves.

SOURCE 4 Alexander's Macedonian and Greek army encountering an Indian army under the Hindu king Porus at the Battle of Hydaspes



With civil conflict common, the Aryans eventually divided their territory into 16 *mahajanapadas* or 'city-states'. Soon after this, a series of Persian leaders, including Cyrus the Great and Darius I, invaded Northern India and the Indus Valley. With its strong and well-organised armies, the Persian occupation of India continued until that empire was defeated by the famed Macedonian ruler, Alexander the Great. Believing the Greek theory that the known world ended in India, Alexander invaded northern India and then swept through the subcontinent towards the Middle East. Although Alexander's Indian campaign was swift and ultimately successful, it also included one of his most costly battles: the Battle of Hydaspes.

8.5.3 The Mauryan Empire

The Mauryan Empire is believed to have created the first unified Indian state. In 321 BCE, a leader called Chandragupta Maurya set out to create an empire across the subcontinent. It is believed that he was inspired by the exploits of the **Macedonian** conqueror Alexander the Great. Alexander had tried to conquer India only a few years before. When he withdrew from western India, Alexander left a **power vacuum** in the region. Chandragupta took advantage of it.

Ashoka and Buddhism

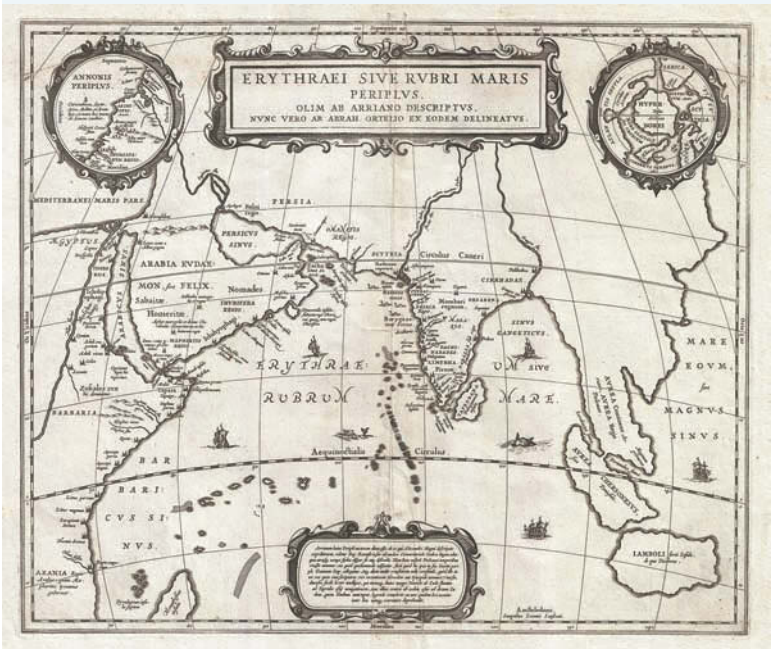
The Mauryan Empire offered India stable government and a regulated economy. It was also during the time of the Mauryans that a system of writing was reintroduced. However, the texts that were popular in Mauryan times were not the traditional Hindu religious writings normally associated with this group. Instead, they were Buddhist. It was the ambitious and highly successful ruler Ashoka who was responsible for this change.

Ashoka was the grandson of the founder of the Mauryan Empire, Chandragupta Maurya, and he ruled when the empire was at its peak. With a reputation as a fierce warrior, Ashoka expanded his family's empire until it covered most of the Indian subcontinent, including modern-day Afghanistan and Bangladesh. However, the years of bloodshed took their toll on Ashoka and as a result he began to see the world differently. In 259 BCE, Ashoka converted to Buddhism, which was a relatively unknown religion at the time. He gave up his violent and warlike ways, embracing peace in accord with his new-found beliefs. He even sent Buddhist missionaries to other regions and assisted the spread of Buddhism in Asia. Therefore, the first known writings since the fall of the Indus Valley Civilisation were Buddhist religious texts.

The Mauryan Empire declined after Ashoka, and finally fell apart when its last ruler was assassinated. A turbulent period directly followed the fall of the Mauryan Empire. The ancient Greek and then Roman empires attempted to assert their control over the subcontinent.

First, it was the Indo-Greek rulers who invaded India. In nearly two hundred years of rule, over thirty kings struggled to keep control over the region. Despite the tumultuous political events, Greek culture had significant effects on Indian life. In fact, as previously mentioned, it was the influence of Greek art that influenced the first representation of Buddha in human form.

SOURCE 5 Seventeenth century representation of the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea



The Roman Empire also had a strong connection to ancient India, particularly in the last stages of its rule. Trade between Rome and India was frequent, and strong evidence of this relationship exists today. The Greco-Roman document the *Periplus of the Erythraean Sea* is a record of trade routes and partnerships that existed between Rome, North Africa and the Indian subcontinent (see **SOURCE 5**). Archaeological evidence also exists at the southern Indian site of Arikamedu. Excavations at this site have revealed many Roman artefacts, including unique Roman pottery, coinage, wine jugs, glass and stone beads, and other pieces of jewellery. Evidence suggests these important relationships continued well into the reign of the Guptas — the so-called 'Golden Age' of India.

SOURCE 6 An Indian silver coin (c. first century BCE) depicting the local ruler wearing a Roman-type helmet with bristles



SOURCE 7 Buddhist bas-relief in the Ajanta Caves, created during the Gupta dynasty



8.5 ACTIVITIES

1. Create a timeline of the Mauryan Empire using the dates and events mentioned in this subtopic.
   Sequencing chronology
2. Using your library and the internet, explore the battle shown in **SOURCE 4** and its outcome. This was the first time the Macedonian and Greek army had encountered elephants in battle. Find out how useful elephants were in situations like this. Also find out whether Alexander's army was impressed enough by the Indians' use of elephants to include them in their own armed forces. **Using historical sources as evidence**
3. Using the library and the internet, research the Ajanta Caves (see **SOURCE 7**). Explain what you have learned about them in your research. **Using historical sources as evidence**

8.5 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.5 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the route taken by traders leaving Lothal.
2. **HS1** Explain what types of goods were traded from India.
3. **HS1** Seals can be found on artefacts from many different civilisations across the ancient world. Explain the purpose of this practice.
4. **HS1** What is another name for the Vedic Civilisation?
5. **HS1** List ways in which the Vedic Civilisation was different from the Indus Valley Civilisation.
6. **HS1** Who was the first ruler of the Mauryan Empire?
7. **HS1** What did the Mauryans offer the Indian people?
8. **HS1** Explain why Ashoka adopted the Buddhist faith.
9. **HS1** Identify the foreign forces that attempted to control India after the fall of the Mauryan Empire.

8.5 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** What evidence is there to suggest that trade occurred between the Indus Valley Civilisation and Mesopotamia?
2. **HS3** Describe the seal shown in **SOURCE 3**. Explain what you think is represented on the seal.
3. **HS3** Look closely at the location of Lothal on the map in **SOURCE 1**.
   (a) Considering that it was a port town, what is strange about its location?
   (b) Given the nature of the location of Lothal, suggest why this may not have been a problem during the time the port was in operation.

4. **HS3** Look closely at **SOURCE 4**.
   (a) Describe some of the weapons and the means of battle engagement.
   (b) Why may the Battle of Hydaspes have been so costly for Alexander the Great?
5. **HS3** What do **SOURCES 5** and **6** suggested about Indian contact with the Roman Empire?
6. **HS6**
   (a) Create a table that summarises the accomplishments of the Vedic Civilisation and the Mauryan Empire.
   (b) Using the table, evaluate the accomplishments of the Vedic Civilisation and the Mauryan Empire. Which of the two do you believe had the most significant impact on the development of Indian culture and beliefs? Provide historical evidence to support your arguments.
7. **HS5** Explain the relationship (cause and effect) between the following events, people and/or beliefs.
   (a) The writing of the *Vedas*
   (b) The defeat of Alexander the Great
   (c) Ashoka's brutal experiences of war
   (d) The assassination of the last Mauryan ruler
8. **HS6** Evaluate the impact of foreign countries on ancient Indian society. Which other empire(s) had the greatest influence on the development of Indian culture, beliefs and traditions? Provide historical evidence to support your arguments.

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8.6 The Mauryan Empire: India's first unified state

8.6.1 Chandragupta Maurya and Kautilya

The Mauryan Empire, sometimes called the Mauryan dynasty, ruled the Indian subcontinent from about 323 BCE to 185 BCE. The Mauryan emperors conquered a region reaching from Bangladesh in the east to Afghanistan in the west. This was the first state to stretch over most of the Indian subcontinent.

The dynasty was founded by Chandragupta Maurya. Little is known of his early life. However, we do know that he overthrew the last ruler of the preceding dynasty, the Nanda, with the aid of a former Nanda minister, Kautilya. It appears Kautilya helped Chandragupta raise an army against his former leader.

SOURCE 1 Mauryan silver **medallion** from the second century BCE. It shows riders on an elephant under a decorative umbrella who are likely part of a royal procession.



Kautilya is also credited with compiling a set of rules on running a government, called *The Arthashastra*. Some of these rules appear ruthless and cruel. For example, the punishment for murder was not just death but torture too. If you injured someone in a drunken brawl you would have your hand cut off. However, *The Arthashastra* also laid the basis for responsible administration. For example, Kautilya advised the ruler to meet every petitioner who entered his court and not leave them to talk only to his officials. This, Kautilya said, would avoid confusion and discontent that might lead to rebellion, and would ensure satisfaction with the ruler's government.

DID YOU KNOW?

Elephants have been used in India for both transport and heavy labour for thousands of years up to the present day. However, Mauryan emperors employed elephants in their armed forces as well. Ashoka is reputed to have had several thousand war elephants. They were used to destroy enemy fortifications and villages, as well as to trample infantry.

Kautilya's rules laid the basis for a powerful unified government across the subcontinent. The Mauryan Empire was divided into districts run by administrators whose duty it was to report to the emperor. It was their job to ensure law and order, provide troops for the army and collect taxes. The central government kept a network of spies to ensure that these district officers followed directions properly. In this way India became a single state under central rule. The state regulated the economy and introduced a standardised system of weights and measures.

SOURCE 2 Bas-relief from the Great Stupa of Sanchi. It shows what appears to be a festive scene from a Mauryan city.



The observations of Megasthenes

The efficiency of the Mauryan Empire under Chandragupta is described in the only written primary source apart from *The Arthashastra*. This is an account by a Greek ambassador, Megasthenes, from the Seleucid Empire. We know that Megasthenes visited the court of Chandragupta as a representative of the first Seleucid emperor, Seleucus Nikator, one of Alexander the Great's generals. The empire founded by Seleucus ruled over much of the old Persian Empire from 313 to 65 BCE. In **SOURCE 3**, Megasthenes describes the wonders of Chandragupta's capital city, Pataliputra. According to Megasthenes, it was a vast and splendid city ringed with a high wooden wall and 570 towers.

The account Megasthenes wrote about India, called *Indika*, has been lost. What have survived are small infrequent references to it in the works of other Greek writers. Added together, these have helped us to build up a picture of India under Chandragupta Maurya.

Chandragupta extended the Mauryan Empire across the northern half of the subcontinent, expanding westwards into lands held by the Seleucid Empire. In 324 BCE, he pushed Seleucid garrisons out of the Indus Valley. Seleucus Nikator tried to regain this region but was defeated in battle in 305 BCE. After Chandragupta's death, his son Bindusara continued to extend Mauryan power. He conquered 16 kingdoms. But the ruler under whom the empire would grow to its furthest extent was the next emperor, Ashoka.

SOURCE 3 From an ancient Greek account of a report by a Greek ambassador, Megasthenes, who had visited the Mauryan capital, Pataliputra, on a mission from the Seleucid Empire

Megasthenes informs us that this city [Pataliputra] stretched in the inhabited quarters to an extreme length on each side of eighty **stadia**, and that its breadth was fifteen stadia, and that a ditch encompassed it all round, which was six hundred feet in breadth and thirty **cubits** in depth, and that the wall was crowned with 570 towers and had four-and-sixty gates. The same writer tells us further this remarkable fact about India, that all the Indians are free, and not one of them is a slave.

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- The Asian World > **Mauryan Empire**

8.6 ACTIVITY

Create a timeline and insert on it the events discussed in this subtopic. **Sequencing chronology**

8.6 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.6 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** Describe the region conquered by the Mauryan emperors.
2. **HS2** Arrange the following events in chronological order: beginning of the Mauryan dynasty; beginning of the Seleucid Empire; end of the Mauryan dynasty; Chandragupta defeats the Seleucids and drives them out of the region.
3. **HS1** Who was the leader credited with creating the first unified Indian state?
4. **HS1** How many written primary sources are there from the time of the Mauryan Empire?
5. **HS1** What religion was adopted by the Mauryan ruler Ashoka, leading him to embrace peace in place of his formerly warlike behaviour?

8.6 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Describe what you believe is happening in **SOURCE 2**. How does this source help us understand what life was like in the Mauryan Empire?
2. **HS3** To what extent does **SOURCE 2** support Megasthenes' description of a Mauryan city in **SOURCE 3**?
3. **HS3** How do we know from **SOURCES 1** and **2** that during the Mauryan Empire Indians relied heavily on the elephant? How was the elephant helpful to them?
4. **HS4** Which empire did Chandragupta drive out of the Indus Valley, thus expanding the Mauryan Empire?
5. **HS4** Identify and explain the administrative changes Kautilya undertook.
6. **HS5** How do you believe the changes identified in question 5 allowed the Mauryans to control India?
7. **HS6** 'It was Kautilya not Chandragupta who was responsible for the success of the early Mauryan Empire.' Do you agree or disagree with this statement? Justify your response.

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8.7 Ashoka the Great

8.7.1 The warrior repents

Chandragupta's grandson Ashoka was remarkable not only by the standards of ancient India. The famous, respected English writer H. G. Wells, in his book *A Short History of the World*, claimed that Ashoka was 'the greatest ruler in world history'! Often referred to as 'Ashoka the Great', in this subtopic we will see exactly why this ruler was so 'great' and why he was seen as such an important individual.

Like his predecessors Chandragupta and Bindusara, Ashoka was a warrior king. He was already a successful general under his father, putting down several rebellions. After his father's death, Ashoka vied with his brothers for the throne, a struggle that Ashoka eventually won. Legend claims that Ashoka may have even killed his brothers during this conflict.

Over the next eight years, Ashoka conducted wars of conquest that extended the Mauryan Empire to its furthest limits. His final military campaign was in Kalinga, a kingdom on the north-east coast of India. During this bitter campaign, tens of thousands were slaughtered and the cities of Kalinga sacked.

Then something truly amazing and profound happened to Ashoka. It is said that when Ashoka visited the battlefields and ruined homes of the Kalingans, the sight of so much death and suffering sickened him, and he vowed never to wage war again. Although he probably already regarded himself as a Buddhist, he underwent a complete transformation and devoted his life to Buddhist principles. Ashoka vowed to look after his people in the same way that a father looks after his children. To this end, he promised he would extend his empire no further through war. Instead, Ashoka sent missionaries to persuade people to live according to the moral principles of the Buddhist faith.

The edicts of Ashoka

Much of what we know about Ashoka's rule we have learned from **edicts** inscribed on pillars and rocks that were erected throughout the empire. According to the edicts, Ashoka provided medical care for people and animals alike, and planted shade and fruit trees to be enjoyed by all. Sacrifices were banned, as was hunting, a sport that Ashoka himself had loved in his youth. The burning of forests for agriculture was banned, because this could harm animals that sheltered there. Ashoka also promoted a vegetarian diet to reflect his care and regard for the animal world. Many of the harsh punishments decreed by Chandragupta's chief minister, Kautilya, such as torture and the death penalty, were abolished. Parents, teachers, priests, servants and those practising religions other than Buddhism — all were to be equally respected.

The edicts of Ashoka can be seen as demonstrations of *dharma* (or *dhamma*) — the moral teachings upon which Buddhism is based. Essentially, dharma recognised the individual's duties and obligations to both other people and animals, and to nature.

Following Ashoka's death in 232 BCE, his son succeeded in bringing Buddhism to Sri Lanka, but such achievements failed to halt the rapid decline of the Mauryan Empire. Nonetheless, the Mauryan Empire had provided India with a model for a unified state and represented a high point in its history.

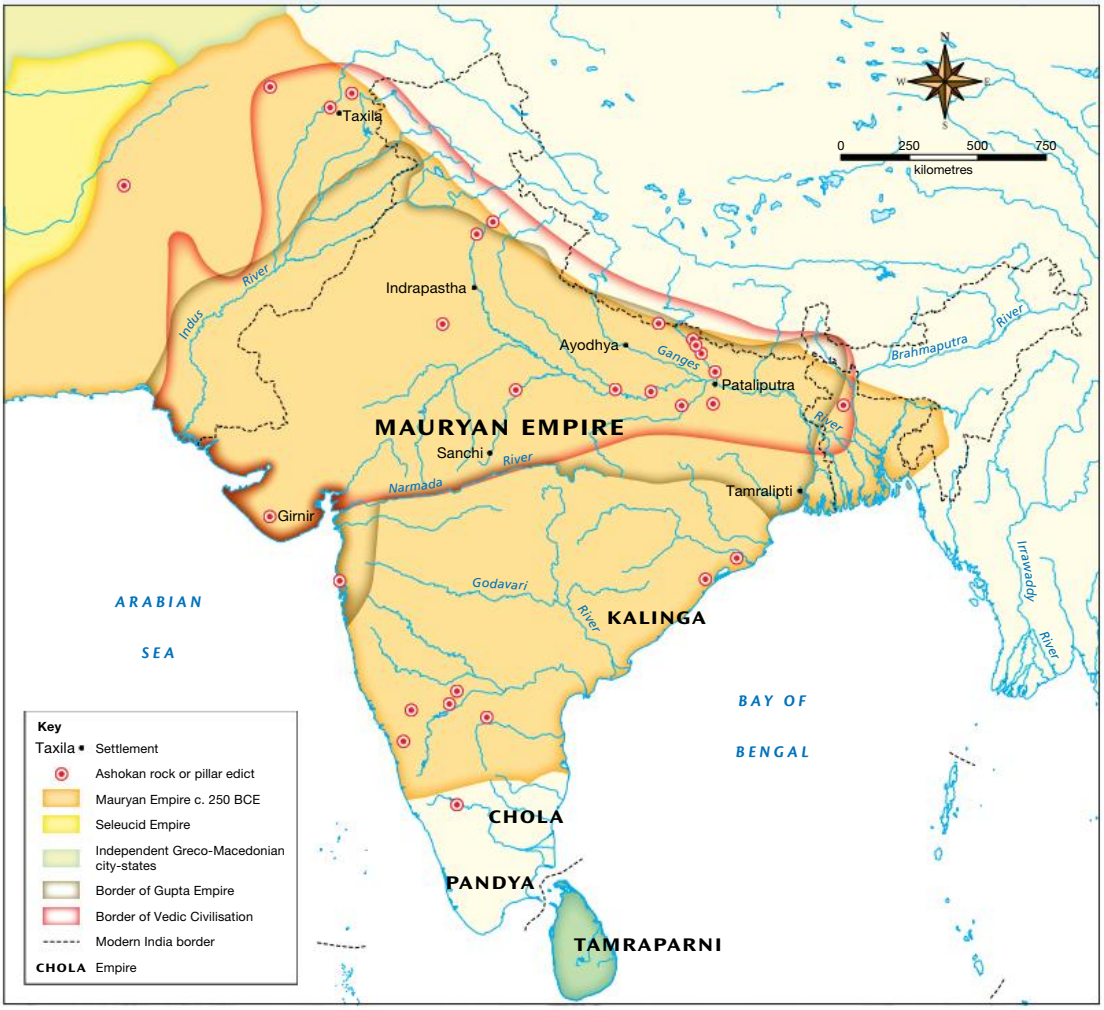
SOURCE 1 A stamp issued on 15 August 1949, the second anniversary of modern India's independence. It shows lions on top of a pillar erected by Ashoka at Sarnath in northern India.



SOURCE 2 Another of Ashoka's pillars, this one with a single lion on top, at Kolhua. Behind it is a Buddhist stupa.



SOURCE 3 Map of India showing the furthest extent of the Mauryan Empire, as achieved by Ashoka. Also shown are the sites where Ashoka erected his rock or pillar edicts.



Source: Spatial Vision

SOURCE 4 From the pillar edicts of Ashoka

Dhamma is good, but what constitutes Dhamma? [It includes] little evil, much good, kindness, generosity, truthfulness and purity. I have given the gift of sight in various ways. To two-footed and four-footed beings, to birds and aquatic animals, I have given various things including the gift of life. And many other good deeds have been done by me. People see only their good deeds saying, 'I have done this good deed.' But they do not see their evil deeds saying, 'I have done this evil deed' or 'This is called evil.' But this [tendency] is difficult to see. One should think like this: 'It is these things that lead to evil, to violence, to cruelty, anger, pride and jealousy. Let me not ruin myself with these things.' And further, one should think: 'This leads to happiness in this world and the next.'

DISCUSS

Discuss how Ashoka's edicts, as shown in **SOURCE 4**, differ from the ideas of Chandragupta's chief minister, Kautilya, described in subtopic 8.6. How do you think Ashoka's subjects would have felt about these changes?

[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]

8.7 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.7 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What was Ashoka's relationship to Chandragupta?
2. **HS1** How did Ashoka change after witnessing the appalling suffering brought about by war with Kalinga?
3. **HS1** Where were the edicts of Ashoka inscribed?
4. **HS1** What is dhamma?
5. **HS4** Describe how the Mauryan Empire grew under Ashoka's rule.

8.7 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Examine **SOURCE 1**. Why do you think modern India's government, on the second anniversary after independence, issued a stamp with one of Ashoka's pillars on it?
2. **HS3** Why do you think Ashoka inscribed his edicts on monuments, as seen in **SOURCES 1** and **2**?
3. **HS3** Explain how **SOURCE 3** supports the idea that Ashoka was trying to get his message across to all Indians through his edicts?
4. **HS5** Describe the effects a life of battle had on Ashoka.
5. **HS5** How did Ashoka's reign influence religious observance in ancient India?
6. **HS6** Now you have read about Ashoka, what do you think inspired H. G. Wells to describe him as 'the greatest ruler in world history'?

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8.8 The religions of ancient India

8.8.1 Hinduism and the natural world

As we learned earlier, India's unique geographic characteristics enabled the expansion of human civilisations in the area. The plentiful waters of the Ganges, Brahmaputra and Indus rivers became the life-blood of the Indian people. Enriching the surrounding lands, these rivers allowed people to farm and cities to grow. The importance of the natural world can be seen in the evolution of Indian religions, with environmental themes particularly apparent in Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism. In the following sections, we will investigate some of India's oldest religions and discover the ways in which they represent, symbolise and seek to protect the natural world.

The oldest of the world's major religions, Hinduism is followed by almost 80 per cent of modern Indians. Hinduism is full of symbols, references and customs that relate to the natural world. In fact, the very name India is derived from the word Hindu, which comes from the Sanskrit word *sindh*, meaning 'river'. Ancient Hindu texts, including the *Vedas* and the *Mahabharata*, frequently mention the divine presence in nature. They describe how Hindu gods such as Krishna often took the form of features in the natural world. As such, animals and the environments in which they lived had to be worshipped and protected. These texts also taught that humans had a duty to live in harmony with the natural world. This duty is often referred to as dharma. A word used across many different Indian religions, dharma can be described as a person's responsibility to follow religious and cultural teachings and laws.

SOURCE 1 An excerpt from the Sanskit verse *Srimad Bhagavata Mahapurna (2.2.41)*

Ether, air, fire, water, earth, planets, all creatures, directions, trees and plants, rivers and seas—they all are organs of God's body. Remembering this, a devotee respects all species.

Hinduism explained

Hinduism is both a pantheistic and polytheistic religion. The first term describes religions that see the entire universe as being divine. Pantheists do not believe in a single god-like being, but rather see god in all aspects of the natural world. This means that Hindus are also polytheists as they worship the natural world through a variety of divine beings.

SOURCE 2 Hindus bathing in the Ganges River during a major religious festival in northern India. They believe that the water of the Ganges purifies the soul and washes away sin.



SOURCE 3 A sadhu, or Hindu holy man, at the Ardh Kumbh Mela, the world's largest religious festival. Millions of Hindus attend this festival, held twice a year at the meeting place of the Ganges and two other rivers.



Did you know?

During the Ganesha Festival in August, Hindus place statues of the elephant god, Ganesh, in their homes and in decorated tents to receive his blessing. On the eleventh day, the statues are taken to a river or the sea and immersed in water.

Another key Hindu belief is reincarnation, through which a person's spirit or soul is reborn in another body after death. Hindus believe that after many cycles of death and rebirth the individual may achieve joy and freedom through eventual unity with a universal spirit, called Brahman.

Hindus also believe that a person's current life will determine what form the next life will take. If you perform religious duties and live a moral life, you may be born to a higher class in the next life. But a sinful life would mean being born into some lower life, perhaps as a poor person, a slave or an animal. Hinduism holds that every living thing contains a part of the universal spirit and is therefore sacred. For this reason, vegetarianism is widely practised. Cows are particularly honoured and protected.

SOURCE 4 The Ganesha Festival, held in August

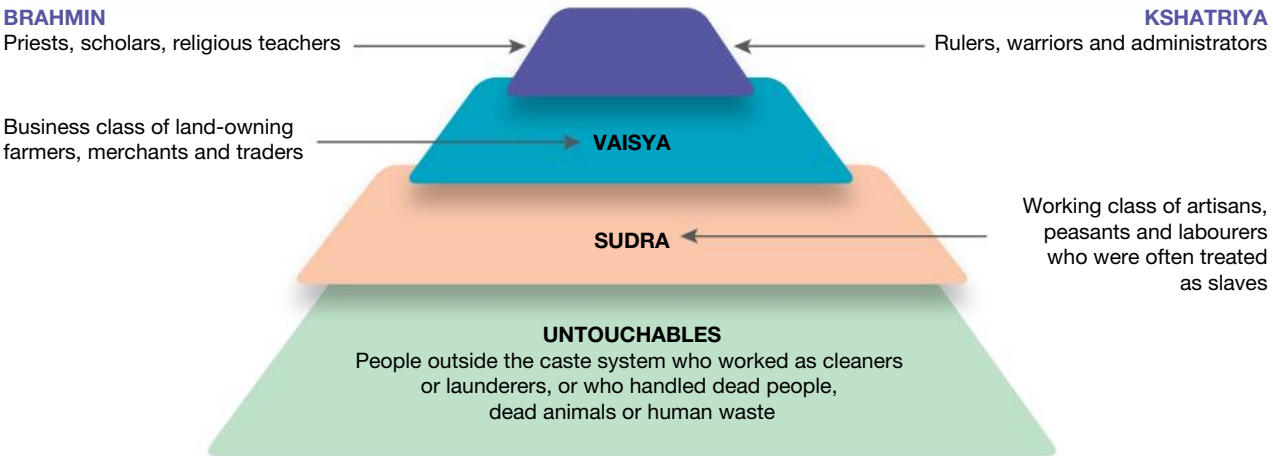


8.8.2 The caste system

As in all ancient societies, civilisation brought increased inequality, with privileged classes oppressing less privileged classes. In India, class differences were reinforced by religious ideas as the Indo-Aryan conquerors set about creating oppressed classes out of the peoples they conquered.

From Vedic times, Hinduism divided society into classes called castes. The caste system (see **SOURCE 5**) was a means of social control — of keeping people in the social classes into which they were born. From around 200 CE, four main castes were described under the Manu code. These castes were the Brahman or priestly class, warriors and landowners, farmers and craftsmen, and Untouchables or outcasts. These main castes developed further into a complex system of hundreds of castes, each with its own rules, occupations and restrictions. A contested verse of the *Purusha Sukta* states that the castes originated from different parts of giant deity, Purusha. It claims that the Brahmin came from its mouth, the kshatriya from its arms, the vaisya from its thighs and sudra from its feet. The dalit or Untouchables were not mentioned in the verse. However, in recent years, historians and commentators have doubted whether the verse was actually written during the Vedic period. In modern times there have been attempts to change this social system.

SOURCE 5 This social pyramid represents the main castes and social classes of ancient India by about the time of the Mauryan Empire. Children were born into a caste. It was almost impossible to move between castes, especially as Sudra and Untouchable children were denied any formal education. Buddhism rejected the caste system.



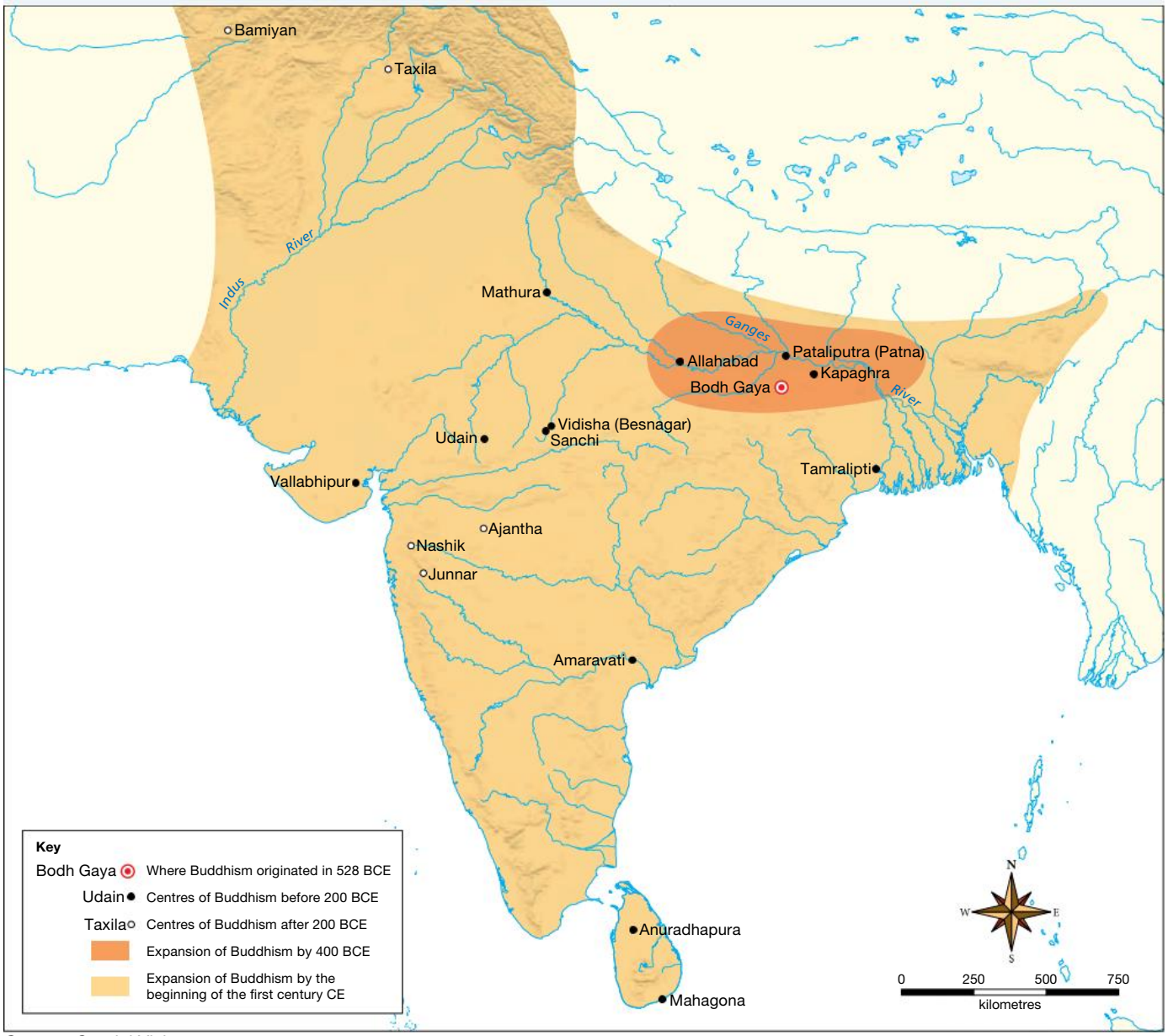
DISCUSS

Most people in the modern world regard the caste system as cruel and unjust. **[Ethical Capability]**

8.8.3 Buddhism and the natural world

A deeply spiritual religion, Buddhism originated in India and then spread throughout Asia and beyond (see **SOURCE 6**). Buddhism also sees humankind as part of a sacred natural world. Buddhism advocates contentment. The Buddha taught that humans must understand nature in order to satisfy their needs without harming the natural world. Whenever humans became corrupted by unrestricted greed, both humanity and the natural world suffered. Buddhists see the natural world as being filled with interconnections. Buddhism also teaches that humans must achieve a balance between themselves and the environments in which they live. An important element of Buddhism has always been the belief that people can be reincarnated as animals. In Buddhist thought, this provided another reason for a gentle relationship with nature, and sympathy and respect for all living creatures.

SOURCE 6 Map showing the spread of Buddhism within India up to the first century CE



Source: Spatial Vision

Buddhism explained

Buddhism was founded by a Hindu prince named Siddhartha Gautama in the sixth century BCE. After observing the suffering of people in his kingdom, Siddhartha decided to give up his worldly riches and seek deeper truths about life. It is said he lived as a hermit for seven years, and then set out to teach people what he called the Four Noble Truths. It is at this time that people began calling him the Buddha, which means 'the Enlightened One'.

The Four Noble truths are:

- All people, regardless of wealth, suffer pain.
- People suffer pain so long as they remain locked in the cycle of the soul's reincarnation — through birth, death and rebirth.
- Pain is caused by the desire, or craving, for things.
- To overcome desire, a person must follow the Eightfold Path.

The Eightfold Path is concerned with the seeking of wisdom, resisting and freeing the mind from wrongdoing, serving one's neighbours, and 'right concentration' or meditation. The goal is to rid oneself of desire.
By following this path, the Buddha taught, one could achieve *nirvana*, a state of spiritual peace and joy, free from worldly desires and attachments, suffering and individual consciousness.
The soul ceases to exist as it comes into harmony with the universe.

Buddhism spread throughout ancient India, but by the twelfth century CE it had lost much of its influence. Today there are about five million Buddhists in India. But Buddhism also spread throughout much of Asia, including China, Japan, Tibet, Korea and South-East Asia. Today its influence is more marked in these countries than in India.

SOURCE 7 Statue of the Buddha from the Gandhara region in northern Pakistan, first century CE



8.8.4 Jainism and the natural world

Another of ancient India's three religions, Jainism is often mistakenly seen as a branch of Hinduism and Buddhism. Although the three religions do share common values and ideas, Jainism should be viewed as a separate belief system. One of the most important principles in Jainism is *ahimsa*, or non-violence. Jains believe that violence against any living thing is wrong and must be avoided at all costs. They believe that living a non-violent life will bring you closer to holiness. For this reason, Jains commonly practice vegetarianism and adopt lifestyles that reduce their environmental impact. Strict Jains will even sweep the ground in front of them to avoid killing insects. This custom demonstrates just how important the natural world is in Jainism.

Jainism explained

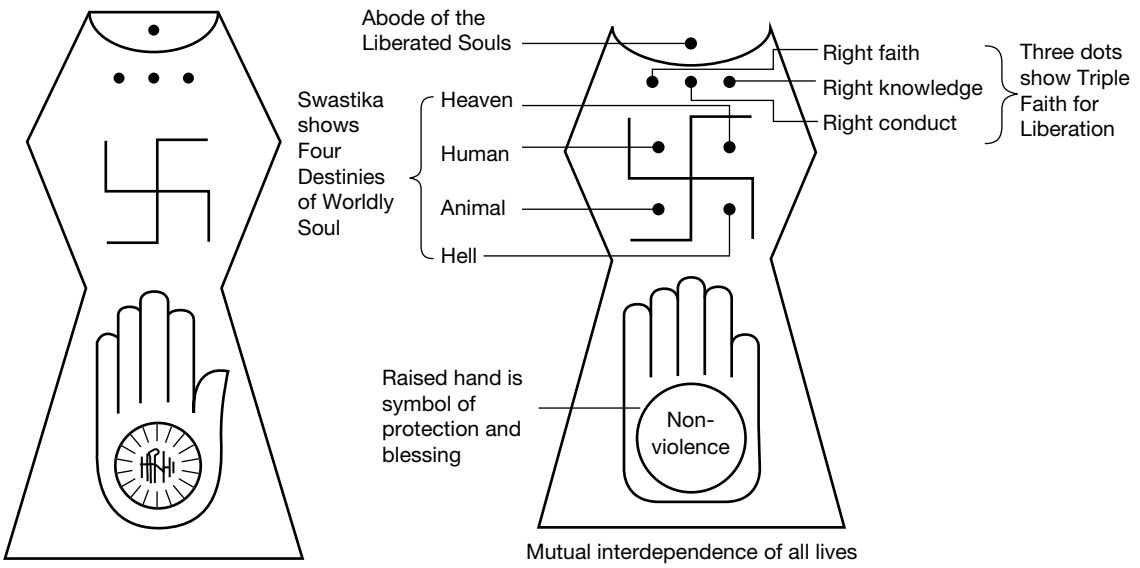
Ahimsa is not the only important aspect of Jainism. In fact, it is only one of the five major vows that all Jains must take. By fulfilling these vows, Jains believe that all people have the opportunity to become gods.

The Five Vows of Jainism are:

- *ahimsa* — non-violence
- *satya* — truthfulness
- *asteya* — non-stealing
- *brahmacharya* — celibacy/chastity
- *aparigraha* — non-attachment.

By living their lives according to these vows, Jains attempt to seek liberation from the cycle of reincarnation in which they also believe. Once a person attains liberation, their soul becomes immortal and stays in an ever-lasting state of bliss. In modern times, Jainism remains a relatively minor religion in India. It was popularised in the western world by the famous Indian political leader, Mahatma Gandhi. Though not a Jain by birth, Gandhi's non-violent methods of protest closely follow the teachings of Jainism.

SOURCE 8 An explanation of Jainism symbols



8.8.5 Rites of passage in ancient India

Life-cycle events are a large part of many religions. In Catholicism, a newborn baby's baptism is a significant religious event, as is a *bar* or *bat-mitzvah* to a young Jewish boy or girl. In ancient India, life-cycle events were known as *samskara*. A term with different meanings, in this instance samskara refers to the moment in the lives of Hindus, Buddhists and Jains. **SOURCE 9,** outlines the most important samskara in Hinduism.

SOURCE 9 The most important samskara in Hinduism

Samskara	Description
Garbhadhana	A ritual that signified the intent to conceive a child
Pumsavana	A ritual to increase the chances of conception
Simanatonayana	'Parting of the hair' ceremony; completed to ensure the safe delivery of a baby
Jatakarman	A ritual to celebrate the birth of a baby
Namakarana	A baby-naming ceremony usually performed on the tenth to twelfth day after its birth
Nishkramana	A ritual during which a baby is formally introduced to the world for the first time; the timing usually corresponds to sunrise or sunset
Annaprashana	A ritual during which a baby will eat solid food for the first time
Chudakarana	The ritual of a child's first haircut (usually involves shaving the head, especially for boys)
Karnavedha	An ear-piercing ceremony that in modern times is more common for girls than boys
Vidyarambha	A ritual to celebrate the beginning of a child's education
Upanayana	A rite of passage during which a child receives a sacred thread, usually from a teacher
Praishartha	A ritual that marks the beginning of the study of sacred texts including the Hindu Vedas
Keshanta and Ritusuddhi	Rituals that mark a young man's first shave (the former) and a young woman's first menstruation cycle (the latter)
Samavartana	A ritual to celebrate graduation from the education system
Vivaha	The range of rituals in a marriage ceremony
Antyeshti	Funeral rites often including cremation

There are many reasons why ancient Indians took part in these rituals, and continue to do so today. The most simple of these reasons is that the various samskara allowed people to demonstrate their commitment to what they believe. Take the ritual of *upanayana*, for example. Conducted between a *guru* (teacher) and a student, this ritual is conducted by only the upper three castes of Indian society. The ceremony marks the beginning of a student's educational journey. Yet, more importantly, it also signifies a young person's acceptance as a full member of their community. During the ceremony, a sacred thread is tied across the student's chest. While it may need to be replaced over the years, this thread is worn for the remainder of the bearer's life — a constant reminder of their connection to their beliefs.

SOURCE 10 A modern example of the upanayana ritual



DISCUSS

'The customs of ancient India share nothing in common with modern Indian society.' Discuss this statement in groups, using examples to support your arguments. **[Critical and Creative Thinking Capability]**

Death and funerary customs

The concept of death in ancient Indian belief systems is extremely interesting. With the belief in incarnation strong in many Indian religions, death is seen as a transition from one life into another. For Hindus, the funerary ceremony, or *antyesti*, signifies the separation of the soul from the body. For this reason, adults are usually cremated with their ashes scattered either in a sacred river such as the Ganges or a place of importance to the deceased. The funeral occurs in the days that follow the death and is usually presided over by the oldest son of the grieving family. An interesting, but rare, custom in Indian funerals is the use of professional mourners. People referred to as *rudaali* are employed by the grieving family to attend the funeral. Rudaali are only employed by members of the upper castes who, because of their status, are not allowed to publicly show their emotions. Due to this social restriction, the role of the rudaali is to mourn on their behalf.

SOURCE 11 The Great Stupa at Sanchi and a small personal stupa





Cremation was also practised by Buddhists in ancient India. Buddhist monks would chant with the grieving family while the body was set alight. Their prayers were thought to help the soul of the deceased leave the body and transition into its next incarnation. Another Buddhist funerary custom was the construction of *stupa*. Found at monasteries and religious centres, stupas usually took the form of a hemispherical structure. The shape of the stupa represents the original burial mounds of the Buddha. While the central mound was usually left plain and undecorated, the surrounding walls and arches were covered with elaborate engravings. On early Indian stupas, the Buddha himself was never depicted in human form. Instead, the Buddha was represented through symbols such as the footprints shown in **SOURCE 12**. The relics of great Buddhist scholars and monks were stored within the structure. Small ceramic, stone or metal stupas were also used to house the ashes of the deceased. It was (and still is) common for these smaller stupas to become the focus of family shrines.

SOURCE 12 Engraved stupa walls at the Great Stupa of Sanchi, showing footprints of the Buddha with a wheel — the Ashoka Chakra — embedded in them



8.8 ACTIVITIES

1. Create a visual representation of the caste system (as shown in **SOURCE 5**). You can either copy the format shown in this source or create a new image. **Using historical sources as evidence**

2. Examine **SOURCE 12**. What object is located within the Buddha's footprints? Conduct research to find out the significance of this object. **Using historical sources as evidence**
3. Conduct research to find out to what extent is the caste system still functioning in India today. **Identifying continuity and change**

8.8 EXERCISES

Historical skills key: HS1 Remembering and understanding **HS2** Sequencing chronology **HS3** Using historical sources as evidence **HS4** Identifying continuity and change **HS5** Analysing cause and effect **HS6** Determining historical significance

8.8 Exercise 1: Check your understanding

1. **HS1** What percentage of modern Indians identify as Hindu?
2. **HS1** Explain *dharma* and how it relates to the natural world.
3. **HS1** Explain what is meant by a 'divine presence in nature'.
4. **HS1** List examples of three monotheistic and three polytheistic religions.
5. **HS1** Explain the concept of reincarnation.
6. **HS2** During which period of ancient Indian history was the caste system introduced?
7. **HS1** Identify and explain the key reason for the introduction of the caste system.
8. **HS1** Which two groups occupied the top caste of the system?
9. **HS1** Why was the lowest ranked group known as the Untouchables?
10. **HS1** Who was Siddhartha Gautama?
11. **HS1** According to Buddhist belief, what happens to the soul when it reaches nirvana?
12. **HS1** Name three modern countries where Buddhism is one of the major religions.
13. **HS1** Explain what is meant by the Eightfold Path.
14. **HS1** Explain the concept of *ahimsa*.
15. **HS1** Why do many Jains practise vegetarianism?
16. **HS1** What are the Five Vows of Jainism?
17. **HS1** What do Jains believe happens to the soul after a person attains liberation from the cycle of reincarnation?
18. **HS1** Provide a broad definition of *samskara*.
19. **HS1** Why do people participate in the various rituals explained in this subtopic?
20. **HS1** Explain why death is such an important event in Indian society.
21. **HS1** Who were *rudaali* and what was their role?
22. **HS1** What does the shape of a stupa represent?

8.8 Exercise 2: Apply your understanding

1. **HS3** Consider the sources included in this subtopic. From what you have learned in this topic, why do you think water plays a key role in these Hindu festivals?
2. **HS3** What do you believe the phrase 'they are all organs of God's body' refers to?
3. **HS3** Why would someone have written the *Purusha Sukta* after the Vedic period? What purpose might the author have had?
4. **HS3** According to **SOURCE 6**, in which part of India were most centres of Buddhism by about 200 BCE?
5. **HS3** What do you notice about the representation of the Buddha shown in **SOURCE 7**?
6. **HS3** Use **SOURCE 8** to complete the following table.

Symbol	Element of Jainism	Meaning

7. **HS3** After reading the table in **SOURCE 9**, list the three rituals that you found most interesting. Explain your choices.

8. **HS3** Compare representations of Hindu gods (such as Ganesha in **SOURCE 4**) with representations of the Buddha (shown in **SOURCE 7**). What are the major differences between these two religious figures?
9. **HS5** Death is an important event in Indian society. Explain what each of India's three major religions believe happens to the soul after death.
10. **HS6** The major religions of India are closely linked through shared beliefs and customs. Evaluate the accuracy of this statement with examples.
11. **HS6** Discuss the ways in which connections to the natural world are present within Indian religions.

Try these questions in learnON for instant, corrective feedback. Go to www.jacplus.com.au.

8.9 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

online only

How do we analyse the different perspectives of people in ancient India?

Primary sources often give different perspectives because not everyone will have seen an event or problem from the same point of view. It is important to analyse different perspectives, especially for bias and propaganda when trying to determine what happened in the past.



Select your learnON format to access:

- an explanation of the skill (Tell me)
- a step-by-step process to develop the skill, with an example (Show me)
- an activity to allow you to practise the skill (Let me do it)
- questions to consolidate your understanding of the skill.

8.10 Thinking Big research project: Hindu god fact cards

online only

SCENARIO

It can be challenging to remember the many gods and deities of the Hindu religion. To make learning about them easy and fun, you are to create a series of fact cards depicting a selection of these gods, including their image, mythology, incarnations and responsibilities.



Select your learnON format to access:

- the full project scenario
- details of the project task
- resources to guide your project work
- an assessment rubric.

Resources

projectsPLUS Thinking Big research project: Hindu god cards (pro-0232)

8.11 Review

online only

8.11.1 Key knowledge summary

Use this dot point summary to review the content covered in this topic.

8.11.2 Reflection

Reflect on your learning using the activities and resources provided.

on Resources

eWorkbook	Reflection (doc-32128)
	Crossword (doc-32129)
Interactivity	Ancient India crossword (int-7697)

KEY TERMS

anthropomorphic describing or representing something as having human traits, despite its original lack of these characteristics
continent one of seven very large, continuous bodies of land; they are Europe, Asia, Africa, Antarctica, Australia, North America and South America.
cubit an ancient measure of length, based on an adult's forearm
demise death
edict order issued by a sovereign to his or her subjects
granary place for storing grain
grid system a street network that creates square and rectangular blocks
hygienic healthy, sanitary
Indus seals imprints of stamps found on pottery made during the Indus Valley Civilisation
legacy something handed down from the past
Macedonian native of Macedon, an ancient kingdom north of Greece
medallion a coin-shaped, usually metal, decorative disk
monsoon rainy season accompanied by south-westerly summer winds in the Indian subcontinent and South-East Asia
nomads tribal groups who wander from place to place, generally in search of food or pasture
power vacuum a situation in which there is a lack of political leadership
Sanskrit ancient Indian language used in classical Hindu literature
stadia the plural form of stadium, which is a measure of about 200 metres
utopia a perfect social and political system

8.9 SkillBuilder: Analysing different perspectives

8.9.1 Tell me

What are different perspectives and why do they occur?

A perspective is a point of view, which is formed from someone's values, beliefs, attitudes and experiences. When studying a period of history, perspectives on the period or an event can be gathered from primary sources, especially eyewitness accounts, such as those found in a diary, as well as official sources, such as records produced by those in power. Sources give different perspectives because not everyone sees an event or problem from the same point of view. Some sources are biased (one-sided or prejudiced) or are based on insufficient understanding or information to be reliable. Each source will reflect the perspective of its creator and their target audience and purpose.

To uncover the truth on any issue we have to be aware that what someone says or writes about it may be one-sided or incorrect. It may even be an attempt to deceive. This is as important when trying to make up our mind on current issues as it is when trying to understand the past. For example, when buying a product, you don't necessarily believe what advertisements say about it. An advertiser will wish to show a product in its best light; that is, present only positive aspects of it so that a consumer will buy it. In the same way, a ruler may only want positive records of their rule to be made or displayed to ensure there is no dissent from those they rule or that their legacy is protected.

Sometimes, the perspectives of those not part of the ruling group may be silenced — their absence from the public record also tells a historian something about that period. Historians must often research extensively to find perspectives of a range of people about events from the past in order to build up a balanced picture of the event or time period. Since secondary sources rely on interpretations of primary sources, these are based on the perspectives or bias of the creator of the secondary source. This may add another layer of perspective on top of the perspective of the creator of the primary source.

8.9.2 Show me

How to analyse different perspectives in primary and secondary sources

When you read an interpretation of a historical event or development, you need to ask:

- What is the subject or main idea of the source?
- When was the source created?
- Who created the source?
- Why was it written?
- Is the source based on reliable information?
- Is the source supported or contradicted by the evidence of other sources?

The six questions have been applied to **SOURCE 1**, an ancient Greek account of the Indus Valley Civilisation.

SOURCE 1 From *Geography*, a book by the Greek historian and geographer Strabo (c. 63 BCE–24 CE). Strabo's book was an encyclopaedia of geographical knowledge of his time. Here he was recounting observations made by an earlier historian, Aristobulus, who accompanied Alexander the Great to India around 327 BCE. Aristobulus's book has been lost.

[Aristobulus] says that when he was sent upon a certain mission he saw a country of more than a thousand cities, together with villages, that had been deserted because the Indus had abandoned its proper bed, and had turned aside into the other bed on the left that was much deeper, and flowed with precipitous descent like a **cataract**, so that the Indus no longer watered by its overflows the abandoned country on the right, since that country was now above the level, not only of the new stream, but also of its overflows.

- *What is the subject or main idea of the source?* The subject is the abandoned cities of the Indus River Valley. According to the writer, the cities were abandoned because the river changed its course so that it no longer provided water at a level suitable for use by the people of those cities.
- *When was the source created?* The source was created between c. 63 BCE and 24 BCE.
- *Who created the source?* Strabo is using information he obtained by reading Aristobulus, who was in India around 327 BC.
- *Why was the source written?* Aristobulus wrote an account of what he observed during his journey to India. Strabo used Aristobulus as a source for his own book.
- *Is the source based on reliable information?* We know that Aristobulus could not have seen 'more than a thousand cities' because there is archaeological evidence of only a few cities. If he exaggerated this, he may be wrong about other things.
- *Is the source supported or contradicted by the evidence of other sources?* Aristobulus's statements about the river changing course are supported by archaeological evidence (see 8.4.3 The end of a civilisation). This change had a different effect in Mohenjo-daro from that described by Aristobulus, but his description could be accurate for other Indus Valley towns and cities.

8.9.3 Let me do it

Complete the following activities to practise this skill.

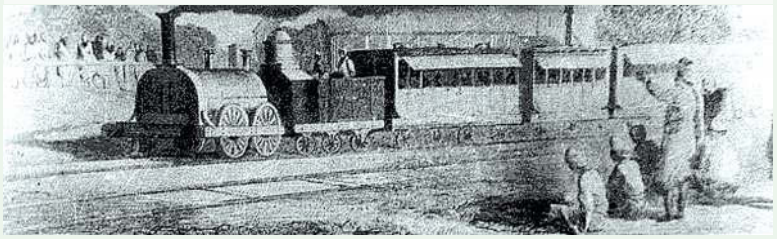
8.9 ACTIVITIES

1. **SOURCES 2** and **3** will help you understand some of the difficulties people faced in interpreting the ruins of Indus Valley cities. Now use the six questions to see if you can recognise and analyse the different perspectives in **SOURCES 4**, and **5**.

SOURCE 2 A Buddhist stupa on top of the Higher Town of the city of Mohenjo-daro. The stupa and the nearby **monastery** were constructed around 200 CE from bricks taken from the surrounding abandoned buildings. The stupa is itself now a ruin. Anyone who was untrained in archaeology might have had difficulty in recognising that the stupa belonged to a different age from the earlier ruins.



SOURCE 3 The first locomotive on the East India Railway. In the 1850s the British began to use crushed bricks taken from the ruins of Harappa as ballast under the tracks and sleepers for the rail line.



SOURCE 4 From the account of Charles Masson, a British army deserter who in 1826 stumbled on the ruins of what later would be called the Indus River Valley city of Harappa

I found . . . in front of the village [of Harappa] a ruinous brick castle. Behind us was a large circular mound . . . and to the west was an irregular rocky height, crowned with the remains of buildings, in fragments of walls, with **niches**, after the eastern manner . . . The walls and towers of the castle are remarkably high, though, from having been long deserted, they exhibit in some parts the ravages of time and decay. Between it and our camp extended a deep trench . . . overgrown with grasses and plants . . . Tradition affirms the existence here of a city . . . [It] was destroyed by a particular visitation of **Providence**, brought down by the **lust** and crimes of the **sovereign**.

SOURCE 5 Archaeologist John Marshall, recollecting his colleague R. D. Banerji's discovery of Mohenjo-daro in 1922, from John Marshall, *Mohenjo-daro and the Indus River Civilization*, [1931] 2004

. . . [I]t was not until 1922, when Mr R. D. Banerji started to dig there [in Mohenjo-daro], that the prehistoric character of its remains was revealed. This was not greatly to be wondered at; for the only structures then visible were the Buddhist Stupa and Monastery . . . and these were built exclusively of brick taken from the older ruins, so that it was not unnatural to infer that the rest of the site was referable to approximately the same age as the Buddhist monuments [around 200 CE]. Indeed . . . Mr Banerji himself . . . had no idea of finding anything prehistoric. His primary object was to lay bare the Buddhist remains, and it was while engaged on this task that he came by chance on several seals which he recognized at once as belonging to the same class as the remarkable seals inscribed with legends in an undecipherable script which had long been known to us from the ruin of Harappa . . . The few structural remains of that civilization which he had unearthed were built of bricks identical with those used in the Buddhist Stupa and Monastery, and bore so close a resemblance to the latter that even now it is not always easy to discriminate between them. Nevertheless, Mr Banerji **divined**, and rightly divined, that these earlier remains must have **antedated** the Buddhist structures, which were only a foot or two [30–60 cm] above them, by some two or three thousand years. That was no small achievement!

2. Apply your skills to answer the following questions.
- (a) Explain why primary source evidence from ancient India often provides different perspectives.
- (b) Why would **SOURCE 4**, the extract from the account of Charles Masson, need to be questioned very thoroughly?
- (c) Explain how multiple primary sources can be used to increase the accuracy of a historical investigation.
- (d) How do historians decide which is the most reliable source of evidence when choosing between two very different perspectives?
- (e) Suggest which kind of primary sources from the Indus Valley Civilisation provide the most information about ancient culture and traditions.

8.10 Thinking Big research project: Hindu god fact cards

Scenario



Hinduism is a polytheistic religion and, as such, allows for the existence of multiple gods and deities. In fact, some scholars believe there are over 33 million gods worshipped by followers of Hinduism! Others believe this number simply represents the almost infinite number of incarnations of Hindu gods. Hinduism is not a homogenous religion, which means there are several different versions of Hinduism. This number of 33 million also includes the different incarnations that gods have taken at various times throughout history. As with other polytheistic religions, each god has its own mythology, responsibilities and physical forms.

Task

With so many different Hindu gods and deities, it is a challenge to remember each one. To make this task of recalling the Hindu gods easier, you are going to make a series of trading cards. Each card should have an image of the god on the front. On the back write a summary of the god's mythology, responsibilities, incarnations and any other information you think is relevant. Relax, you don't need to make 33 million cards! Each student should make a pack of five cards of Hindu gods that you choose.

Follow the steps detailed in the **Process** section to complete this task.

Process



- Open the ProjectsPLUS application for this topic. Click the **Start new project** button to set up your project. Save your settings and the project will be launched.
- Navigate to the **Research forum**, where you will find starter topics loaded to guide your research. You can add further topics to the Research forum if you wish. When you have completed your research, you can print out the **Research report** in the Research forum to easily view all the information you have gathered.
- In the **Media centre** you will find an assessment rubric to guide your work and some weblinks that will provide a starting point for your research.
- Choose the five Hindu gods you want to focus on.
- Once you have your list of five gods, you need to research them in more detail, including their mythology, responsibilities and various incarnations.
- Find suitable images for each of your chosen gods. You can search for images on the Internet or draw them yourself.
- Now that you have all the information you need, you can begin making your trading cards.
- Submit your cards to your teacher for assessment and feedback.

Resources

ProjectsPLUS Museum exhibition guide (pro-0232)

8.11 Review

8.11.1 Key knowledge summary

8.2 Examining the evidence

- To discover information about ancient India, archaeologists and historians must use a range of techniques and methods.
- Primary sources provide historians with information directly from a period of history. As such, they remain the most valued of historical sources.
- Secondary sources or interpretations of direct evidence can also be used to provide a more complete understanding of past events, beliefs and individuals.

8.3 The geography of India

- The unique physical factors found within the Indus Valley were crucial to the development of early Indian civilisations.
- The great Himalayan rivers of the Ganges, Brahmaputra and the Indus provided the area with a reliable supply of fresh water.
- The rivers also left the surrounding soil rich with sediment eroded from the mountain ranges that lay to India's north.
- The supply of fresh water from the rivers and the rich sediment allowed early Indian farmers to establish permanent settlements in the Indus Valley. From these settlements, the Indus Valley civilisation arose.

8.4 Lost cities of the Indus Valley

- Archaeological excavations and important sites have revealed much about India's past. In particular, the sites of Harappa, Mohenjo-daro and Lothal have yielded pottery, jewellery, engraved walls and religious structures, ports and even entire street plans.
- Given the importance of early Indian archaeological sites, it is crucial that the relevant authorities strive to conserve and protect them.
- Increased urban development, increased numbers of tourist visitors and climate change are all real threats to the survival of Harappa, Mohenjo-daro, Lothal and other key archaeological sites.

8.5 Contacts and conflicts: India and the ancient world

- Early Indian society was significantly influenced by its frequent battles against invaders from a range of other peoples.
- Trade between Europe and the East became more common, and knowledge of the unique goods and resources India had been blessed with became more widely known.
- Increased knowledge of India's unique resources made the area a target for the powerful armies of Greece, Persia and Macedonia.
- Contact and conflicts with Greece, Persia and Macedonia left cultural and religious impacts on ancient Indian society.

8.6 The Mauryan Empire: India's first unified state

- Before the Mauryan Empire, Ancient India was ruled by separate tribal families and civil conflict was common and fierce.
- The Mauryan Empire was the first dynastic power in India and brought relative peace to the area through its unified government.
- This period of history witnessed significant developments in law-making and other government regulations.

8.7 Ashoka the Great

- Several key individuals influenced ancient Indian society. One of those individuals was Ashoka the Great, a ruler from the Mauryan Empire.

- Ashoka was a famed warrior who led his forces fiercely, extending the boundaries of his empire. However, years of bloody battles took a spiritual toll on Ashoka and he began to see the error of his previous strategies.
- Ashoka's inner turmoil eventually led him to convert to Buddhism; this change significantly increased the practice of Buddhism in India.

8.8 The religions of ancient India

- Indian society became highly controlled and regulated with the introduction of the caste system.
- A rigid social hierarchy, the caste system made it virtually impossible for people to move between castes.
- Introduced by Hindus, the caste system was rejected by followers of Buddhism.
- The caste system is still in place in modern India to some extent.
- Indian society was and still is steeped in religion and tradition.
- Several key belief systems developed in ancient India.
- Each of these belief systems participated in similar, yet varied, daily customs and rituals. In particular, funerary customs were of importance to all Indian religions. With belief in reincarnation and an afterlife common in Indian religions, it was crucial that death be handled in the right way.
- Elements of these funerary practices can still be seen in Indian society today.



A timeline of ancient India













BCE

3000

c. 3000 BCE
The Indus Valley Civilisation is established.

2500

c. 2500 BCE
The cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro are built.

2000

c. 1600 BCE
The Aryans invade India.

1500

c. 1100 BCE
Iron is first used in India.

c. 750 BCE
Indo-Aryans rule 16 great states in northern India.

1000

c. 527 BCE
Prince Siddhartha Gautama becomes the Buddha.

500

c. 327 BCE
Alexander the Great of Macedon invades India.

304 BCE
The Mauryan Empire is founded.

259 BCE
The Mauryan emperor Ashoka converts to Buddhism.

220 BCE
The *Mahabharata*, a famous Hindu epic, is composed.

BCE
CE

200 CE
Hindus are divided into four main castes under the Manu code.

320 CE
The Gupta Empire is launched.

500

528 CE
The Gupta Empire collapses.

1000

CE

8.11.2 Reflection

Complete the following to reflect on your learning.

8.11 ACTIVITIES

Revisit the inquiry question posed in the Overview:

Lost cities, life-giving rivers and the rise and fall of an empire. How did ancient India's civilisations emerge?

1. Now that you have completed this topic, what is your view on the question? Discuss with a partner. Has your learning in this topic changed your view? If so, how?
2. Write a paragraph in response to the inquiry question outlining your views.

on Resources

eWorkbook Reflection (doc-32128)
Crossword (doc-32129)

Interactivity Ancient India crossword (int-7697)

KEY TERMS

anthropomorphic describing or representing something as having human traits, despite its original lack of these characteristics
continent one of seven very large, continuous bodies of land; they are Europe, Asia, Africa, Antarctica, Australia, North America and South America.
cubit an ancient measure of length, based on an adult's forearm
demise death
edict order issued by a sovereign to his or her subjects
granary place for storing grain
grid system a street network that creates square and rectangular blocks
hygienic healthy, sanitary
Indus seals imprints of stamps found on pottery made during the Indus Valley Civilisation
legacy something handed down from the past
Macedonian native of Macedon, an ancient kingdom north of Greece
medallion a coin-shaped, usually metal, decorative disk
monsoon rainy season accompanied by south-westerly summer winds in the Indian subcontinent and South-East Asia
nomads tribal groups who wander from place to place, generally in search of food or pasture
power vacuum a situation in which there is a lack of political leadership
Sanskrit ancient Indian language used in classical Hindu literature
stadia the plural form of stadium, which is a measure of about 200 metres
utopia a perfect social and political system

GLOSSARY

absolute dating techniques methods used to assess the age of something (e.g. radiocarbon dating, tree-ring dating)
Acropolis stronghold on high ground in an ancient Greek city-state
acupuncture a medical practice in which long, sharp needles are inserted under the skin as a means of diagnosing, relieving or curing illness
afterlife life after death
agora large open space in the centre of a Greek city that served as a public meeting area and marketplace
agriculture the cultivation of land, growing of crops or raising of animals
amulet charm believed to protect against evil
anaesthetic drug to deaden pain
ancestral beings gods or deities who taught people how to live and the rules of society and who are regarded as the direct ancestors of Aboriginal peoples living today
ancient history the period from the beginning of civilisation to the fall of the Roman Empire
anno Domini Latin for 'in the year of our Lord'
anthropoid human-like
anthropologist someone who researches the appearance and features of the life of prehistoric people and the connections they had with other human populations
anthropomorphic describing orrepresenting something as having human traits, despite its original lack of these characteristics
aqueduct structure built to carry water long distances
artefact an object made or changed by humans
artificer craftsperson or inventor
artisans skilled craftspeople
Asiatic peoples of Asia, including the Middle East
astrology interpreting the influence of the stars on human affairs
astronomy study of the stars and planets
auxiliaries soldiers in the Roman army drawn from areas conquered by Rome and made part of its empire
barbarians the Roman term for all peoples who lived beyond the borders of the empire
Before the Present (BP) a term use by archaelogists instead of BCE (Before the common era) for when time periods are vast
bettong small nocturnal marsupials, resembling a small wallaby, with browngrey fur on top and white on the underside
biased one-sided or prejudiced; seeing something from just one point of view
bitumen tar, as used on modern road surfaces
bull-roarer a sacred object used in Aboriginal religious ceremonies whirled around to produce a roaring noise
bureaucrat government official
canopic jars jars used to store the liver, lungs, intestines and stomach of the person being mummified
cassowary a large flightless bird related to the emu with a bare head and neck
castrated having had the testicles cut off
cause and effect the concept that every historical event will have a cause, and every event or action is likely to be the cause of subsequent effects or consequences
cay a small island found on coral reefs
chronology a record of past events in order of time, from Latin *chronos* meaning time and *logos*, meaning to work out
circumcision the surgical removal of the foreskin from a male penis
civil war war between rival factions within one state or country

civilisation term used to describe societies that have towns and features such as complex forms of government and religion
clan a group of people of common descent or ancestry
colonies countries or regions taken over and controlled by another state
concubines women who lived with the emperor in a sexual relationship but were not married to him
conscripted forced to become a soldier
constellations groups of stars
contestability when particular interpretations of the past are open to debate
continent one of seven very large, continuous bodies of land; they are Europe, Asia, Africa, Antarctica, Australia, North America and South America.
continuity and change the concept that while many changes occur over time, some things remain constant
crucified killed by crucifixion, an ancient form of execution in which the victim was tied or nailed to a pole or (as was Jesus) a cross and left to die slowly in agony
crucifixion slow, painful execution by being nailed or bound to a cross or pole
cubit an ancient measure of length, based on an adult's forearm
Daoist a follower of Daoism
deities gods or goddesses
delta low, triangular area where a river fans out as it nears the sea
demise death
democracy a political system according to which citizens choose the way in which they are governed
demotic script the simplest of the ancient Egyptian scripts, which was almost like handwriting
deported forced to leave the country
dialects different forms of a language
dissection systematic cutting up of body for medical study
divination the skill of reading omens
Dorians tribes from the north of Greece who moved into the south during the Dark Age
dugong a sea animal, sometimes called a sea cow, found mainly on the coasts bordering the Indian Ocean
dynasty a line of rulers from the same family, and the period during which they ruled
ecosystem a community of organisms, plants or animals and the environment they exist in
edict order issued by a sovereign to his or her subjects
Ensi ruler of any Sumerian city-state
entrails internal organs of an animal
Ephorate five-man ruling body in Sparta that advised the kings
eternal life living forever
Etruscans advanced, civilised people who dominated early Rome from about 575 BCE to about 396 BCE
evidence information that indicates whether something is true or really happened
extinct died out
fallow land that is being farmed but left uncultivated and seeded for a season to allow soil recovery
fauna animals
Fertile Crescent the area now roughly covered by Israel/Palestine, Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, south-east Turkey and Iraq
flint a very hard stone, useful for tools and for making sparks to start fires
forage the search for provisions or food
forum open meeting place of a town or city
fossils remains of plants or animals found in rocks
genealogical an account of the descent or ancestry of a person or group
genetic relating to origin or heredity
genetics study of heredity
geologist someone who studies the sediments and landforms associated with ancient campsites
granary place for storing grain

Great Pyramid the oldest and largest pyramid in Egypt; one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World
Great Sphinx monument with the body of a lion and the face of a man; located in Giza near the Great Pyramid
grid system a street network that creates square and rectangular blocks
halberds daggers mounted on axe handles
helot slave of the Spartan state
heresy an opinion or belief that contradicts orthodox beliefs, especially in religion
heritage everything that has come down to us from the past
hieratic script Egyptian script that was less decorative and complex than hieroglyphs
Holocene Epoch the past 10 000 years
hoplites Greek foot soldiers
hunter-gatherers people who live by hunting animals and gathering plants
hygienic healthy, sanitary
hypocaust underfloor and water heating system used in Roman villas and public baths
hypothesis (plural: hypotheses) a theory or possible explanation
Ice Ages long periods during which glaciers covered much of the northern hemisphere
immortals gods who lived forever
Indus seals imprints of stamps found on pottery made during the Indus Valley Civilisation
infantry foot soldiers
Inundation the seasonal flooding of the Nile
Iron Age period in which people learned to use iron to make tools and weapons
Latin the language of ancient Rome and its empire
legacy something handed down from the past
loot goods or property taken from a defeated enemy after a battle
lore the customs and stories that came from the Dreaming and continue to govern all aspects of traditional life
Macedonian native of Macedon, an ancient kingdom north of Greece
magistrates men elected by the citizens to run Rome for a year
mallee a low growing bushy Australian eucalypt plant
mammoth a large extinct mammal like a modern elephant but with larger tusks and woolly fur to keep it warm
mandate of heaven Chinese expression meaning that a ruler had been chosen by the gods
mangrove area in a tropical or subtropical climate where vegetation grows in salty or brackish water
marshland low-lying land that is usually boggy and often flooded
mausoleum large tomb structure
medallion a coin-shaped, usually metal, decorative disk
medieval of the Middle Ages
meditation exercising the mind through contemplation
Melanesian belonging to the island groups of the South Pacific, north-east of Australia
mercenaries people who fight for a foreign country for money or other rewards
metic free man living in Athens but not born there; could not vote or own property but served in the army and paid taxes
microliths small stone artefacts
Middle Ages between ancient and modern historical periods (generally between the fifth and fifteenth centuries)
monsoon rainy season accompanied by south-westerly summer winds in the Indian subcontinent and South-East Asia
mummy body that has been embalmed
mythology a body of myths
natron a mineral salt used to dry out dead bodies

Neolithic Revolution the beginning of the New Stone Age
nomadic moving about from place to place
nomads tribal groups who wander from place to place, generally in search of food or pasture
ochre a natural pigment found in soil ranging in colour from pale yellow to orange and red
oligarchy governing council of rich aristocrats
Olympiad a staging of the Olympic Games
omen sign that predicts good or evil
ostracism the punishment of being banished from Athens
pagan name used to refer to people who believed in non-Christian gods
palaeontologist a scientist who studies fossils
Paleolithic of the Old Stone Age
pan-Hellenic for all the Greeks
papyrus paper made from crushing reeds
Parthenon Athenian temple dedicated to the goddess Athena
patricians members of the aristocratic families that founded the Roman Republic
patronage supporting and encouraging authors and artists
Peloponnese peninsula the southern part of mainland Greece, joined to the north by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth
perioeci peoples of Laconian towns around Sparta who could be required to fight for Sparta but were not citizens
perspective point of view or attitude
philosopher one who studies the fundamental principles and causes of things
philosophy study of the causes and meanings of things
plateau a high, flat topped landform
plebeians all non-patrician citizens of Rome
Pleistocene Epoch the glacial period before the Holocene Epoch
polis (plural **poleis**) ancient Greek city-state
portico a roof supported by columns, usually attached as a porch to a building
power vacuum a situation in which there is a lack of political leadership
prehistory the period before writing was invented
primary sources objects and documents that were created or written in the period of time that the historian is investigating
prophet a revealer or interpreter of God's will
public bath public building complexes containing baths of varying temperatures, and sports and beauty facilities; a popular meeting place for Roman citizens
pumice lava ejected from a volcano that solidifies into a light, porous rock
quarry an excavation or pit from which stone or building material is cut
radiocarbon dating a way of dating objects of plant or animal origin according to the amount of carbon left within them
reincarnation the process of being reborn over and over again in another human or animal body
relative dating techniques methods used to assess whether something is older than something else (e.g. stratigraphy, fluorine dating)
republic system of government in which the head of state is not a monarch
rhetoric the art of public speaking
rite of passage a ceremony or event marking an important stage in someone's life
sago a starch food obtained from palm used to produce a flour
Samnites a mountain tribe of central Italy
Sanskrit ancient Indian language used in classical Hindu literature
sarcophagus stone or wooden coffin (often inscribed or decorated) in Egypt
scribe citizen who could read and write and was trained to keep records

seagrass a grass-like plant living in or close to the sea
secondary sources reconstructions of the past written or created by people living at a time after the period that the historian is studying
sediment the material that settles at the bottom of a liquid
Senate governing body in ancient Rome, (in theory) an advisory body of ex-magistrates
shadoof irrigation device used to lift water from the river
shell midden a mound of shells and other waste material marking the site of an ancient community
significance the importance assigned to particular aspects of the past; for example, events, developments, movements and historical sites.
silt fine sand or earth particles carried and deposited by running water
slashing and burning a method of clearing land for farming where the vegetation is cut down and burned off before new seeds are sown
species a group or classification of living things
stadia the plural form of stadium, which is a measure of about 200 metres
stalemate a situation in a contest or conflict in which neither side can defeat the other
strata (singular: stratum) distinct layers of material beneath the ground, built up over time, that provide information for archaeologists and geologists
subcontinent large section of a continent (e.g. the Indian subcontinent)
taboo something strictly forbidden
taro a plant with broad edible leaves and root vegetable, grown in the tropical regions, especially the Pacific Islands
tenant farmers poor farmers who rented small plots of land
the Dreaming in Aboriginal spirituality, the time when the Earth took on its present form and cycles of life and nature began; also known as the Dreamtime. It explains creation and the nature of the world, the place that every person has in that world and the importance of ritual and tradition. Dreaming Stories pass on important knowledge, laws and beliefs.
Thracian a native of the Roman province of Thracia
timeline a diagrammatic tool representing a period of time, on which events are placed in chronological order
tribute riches given by a state to acknowledge submission to another state or ruler
utopia a perfect social and political system
Valley of the Kings gorge on the Nile in Upper Egypt that contains many royal tombs
vassal state a state whose ruler recognises another, more powerful ruler as his overlord
villein a poor farmer who worked the land of a big landowner and had fewer rights
virtue moral standard or value
warlords generals from powerful landowning families
Xiongnu the ancient Chinese name for the nomadic Turkic tribes of Central Asia

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