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History 7 for NSW

The Ancient World

Samantha Frappell – Joanna Clyne – Richard Ford –
Diana Millar – Nick Cummins – Luke Cashman

STAGE 4

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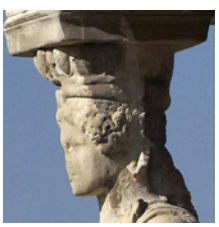
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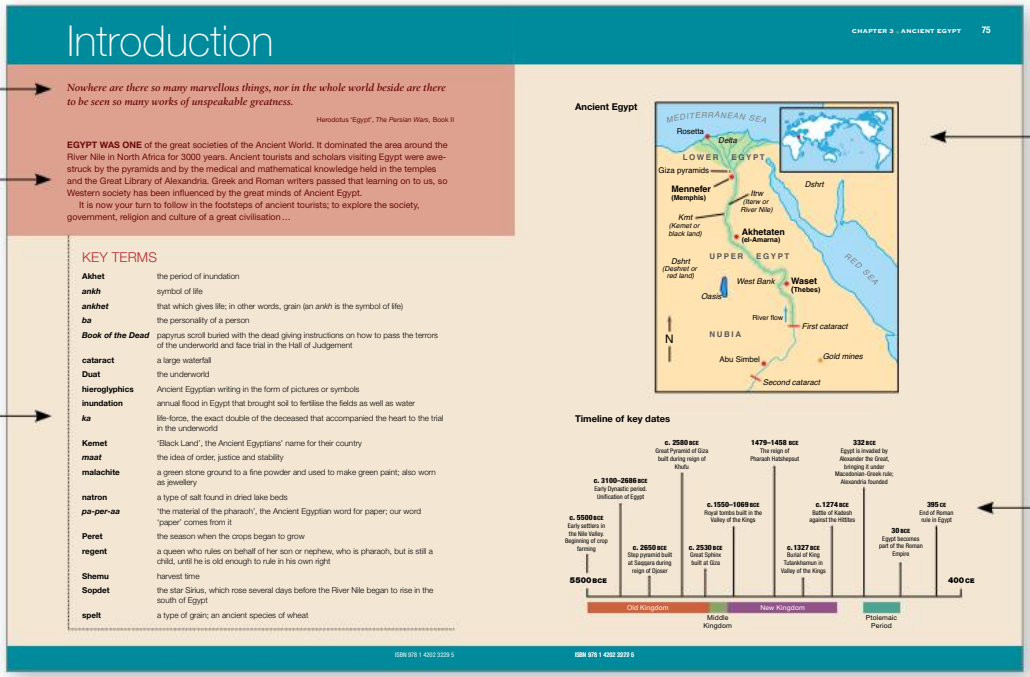
How to use this book

The following pages show key features of Macmillan *History 7 for NSW: The Ancient World*.

Quote designed as a lesson starter

Short introduction to put the chapter into context

Key terms used throughout the chapter



Introduction

CHAPTER 3 | ANCIENT EGYPT 75

Nowhere are there so many marvellous things, nor in the whole world beside are there to be seen so many works of unspeakable greatness.

Herodotus 'Egypt', *The Persian Wars*, Book II

EGYPT WAS ONE of the great societies of the Ancient World. It dominated the area around the River Nile in North Africa for 3000 years. Ancient tourists and scholars visiting Egypt were awe-struck by the pyramids and by the medical and mathematical knowledge held in the temples and the Great Library of Alexandria. Greek and Roman writers passed that learning on to us, so Western society has been influenced by the great minds of Ancient Egypt.

It is now your turn to follow in the footsteps of ancient tourists; to explore the society, government, religion and culture of a great civilisation…

KEY TERMS

Akhet	the period of inundation
ankh	symbol of life
ankhet	that which gives life; in other words, grain (an *ankh* is the symbol of life)
ba	the personality of a person
Book of the Dead	papyrus scroll buried with the dead giving instructions on how to pass the terrors of the underworld and face trial in the Hall of Judgement
cataract	a large waterfall
Duat	the underworld
hieroglyphics	Ancient Egyptian writing in the form of pictures or symbols
inundation	annual flood in Egypt that brought soil to fertilise the fields as well as water
ka	life-force, the exact double of the deceased that accompanied the heart to the trial in the underworld
Kemet	'Black Land', the Ancient Egyptians' name for their country
maat	the idea of order, justice and stability
malachite	a green stone ground to a fine powder and used to make green paint; also worn as jewellery
natron	a type of salt found in dried lake beds
pa-per-aa	'the material of the pharaoh', the Ancient Egyptian word for paper; our word 'paper' comes from it
Peret	the season when the crops began to grow
regent	a queen who rules on behalf of her son or nephew, who is pharaoh, but is still a child, until he is old enough to rule in his own right
Shemu	harvest time
Sopdet	the star Sirius, which rose several days before the River Nile began to rise in the south of Egypt
spelt	a type of grain; an ancient species of wheat

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Ancient Egypt

MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Rosetta
Delta
LOWER EGYPT
Giza pyramids
Mennefer (Memphis)
Itrw (Itaru or River Nile)
Dshrt
Kmt (Kemet or black land)
Akhetaten (el-Amarna)
UPPER EGYPT
Dshrt (Deshret or red land)
West Bank
Waset (Thebes)
Oasis
RED SEA
River flow
First cataract
NUBIA
N
Abu Simbel
Gold mines
Second cataract

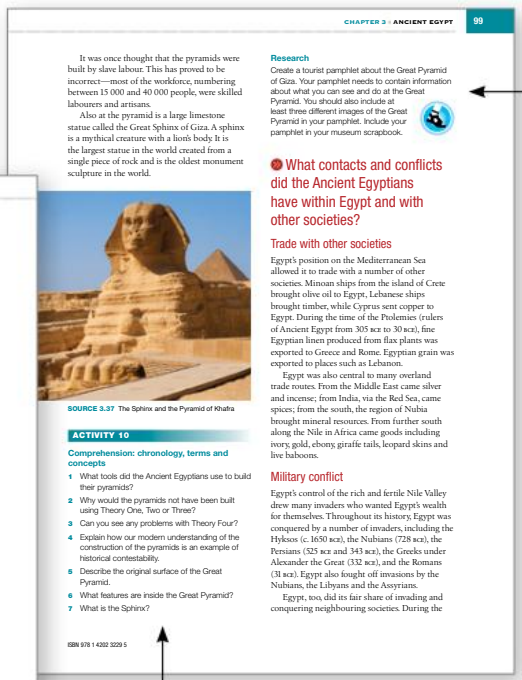
Map showing key geographic areas and themes discussed in the chapter

Timeline of key dates

c. 5500 BCE — Early settlers in the Nile Valley. Beginning of crop farming
c. 3100–2686 BCE — Early Dynastic period. Unification of Egypt
c. 2650 BCE — Step pyramid built at Saqqara during reign of Djoser
c. 2580 BCE — Great Pyramid of Giza built during reign of Khufu
c. 2530 BCE — Great Sphinx built at Giza
c. 1550–1069 BCE — Royal tombs built in the Valley of the Kings
1479–1458 BCE — The reign of Pharaoh Hatshepsut
c. 1327 BCE — Burial of King Tutankhamun in Valley of the Kings
c. 1274 BCE — Battle of Kadesh against the Hittites
332 BCE — Egypt is invaded by Alexander the Great, bringing it under Macedonian-Greek rule; Alexandria founded
30 BCE — Egypt becomes part of the Roman Empire
395 CE — End of Roman rule in Egypt
5500 BCE — 400 CE
Old Kingdom — Middle Kingdom — New Kingdom — Ptolemaic Period

Timeline showing key events, periods and dates

Activities structured under key headings



CHAPTER 3 | ANCIENT EGYPT 99

It was once thought that the pyramids were built by slave labour. This has proved to be incorrect—most of the workforce, numbering between 15 000 and 40 000 people, were skilled labourers and artisans.

Also at the pyramid is a large limestone statue called the Great Sphinx of Giza. A sphinx is a mythical creature with a lion's body. It is the largest statue in the world created from a single piece of rock and is the oldest monument sculpture in the world.

SOURCE 3.37 The Sphinx and the Pyramid of Khafra

Research

Create a tourist pamphlet about the Great Pyramid of Giza. Your pamphlet needs to contain information about what you can see and do at the Great Pyramid. You should also include at least three different images of the Great Pyramid in your pamphlet. Include your pamphlet in your museum scrapbook.

What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Egyptians have within Egypt and with other societies?

Trade with other societies

Egypt's position on the Mediterranean Sea allowed it to trade with a number of other societies. Minoan ships from the island of Crete brought olive oil to Egypt, Lebanese ships brought timber, while Cyprus sent copper to Egypt. During the time of the Ptolemies (rulers of Ancient Egypt from 305 BCE to 30 BCE), fine Egyptian linen produced from flax plants was exported to Greece and Rome. Egyptian grain was exported to places such as Lebanon.

Egypt was also central to many overland trade routes. From the Middle East came silver and incense; from India, via the Red Sea, came spices; from the south, the region of Nubia brought mineral resources. From further south along the Nile in Africa came goods including ivory, gold, ebony, giraffe tails, leopard skins and live baboons.

Military conflict

Egypt's control of the rich and fertile Nile Valley drew many invaders who wanted Egypt's wealth for themselves. Throughout its history, Egypt was conquered by a number of invaders, including the Hyksos (c. 1650 BCE), the Nubians (728 BCE), the Persians (525 BCE and 343 BCE), the Greeks under Alexander the Great (332 BCE), and the Romans (31 BCE). Egypt also fought off invasions by the Nubians, the Libyans and the Assyrians.

Egypt, too, did its fair share of invading and conquering neighbouring societies. During the

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

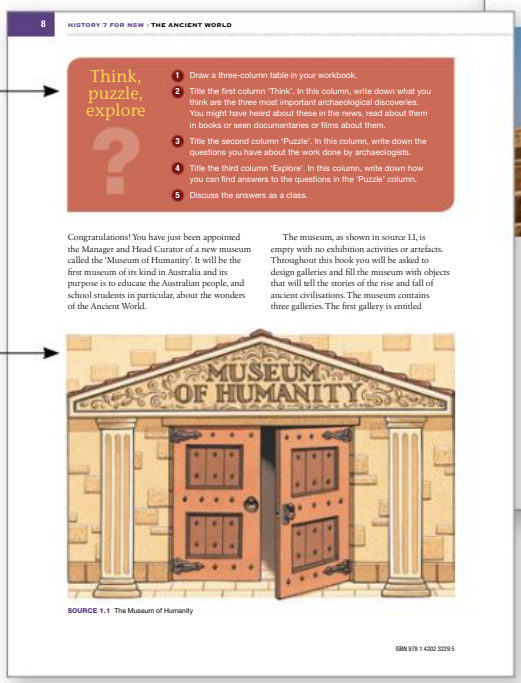
1 What tools did the Ancient Egyptians use to build their pyramids?
2 Why would the pyramids not have been built using Theory One, Two or Three?
3 Can you see any problems with Theory Four?
4 Explain how our modern understanding of the construction of the pyramids is an example of historical contestability.
5 Describe the original surface of the Great Pyramid.
6 What features are inside the Great Pyramid?
7 What is the Sphinx?

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'Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts' activities assist students to learn key concepts and test basic comprehension of information

'Think, puzzle, explore' activities start each chapter to help students explore pre-existing understandings and gaps in their knowledge for a specific topic

Students create their own virtual museum



8 HISTORY 7 FOR NSW | THE ANCIENT WORLD

Think, puzzle, explore

1 Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2 Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down what you think are the three most important archaeological discoveries. You might have heard about these in the news, read about them in books or seen documentaries or films about them.
3 Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down the questions you have about the work done by archaeologists.
4 Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column.
5 Discuss the answers as a class.

Congratulations! You have just been appointed the Manager and Head Curator of a new museum called the 'Museum of Humanity'. It will be the first museum of its kind in Australia and its purpose is to educate the Australian people, and school students in particular, about the wonders of the Ancient World.

The museum, as shown in source 1.1, is empty with no exhibition activities or artefacts. Throughout this book you will be asked to design galleries and fill the museum with objects that will tell the stories of the rise and fall of ancient civilisations. The museum contains three galleries. The first gallery is entitled

SOURCE 1.1 The Museum of Humanity

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Introduction

History 7 for NSW: The Ancient World specifically covers the NSW History Syllabus and the agreed Australian Curriculum content. The focus is on the Ancient World from the time of the earliest human communities to the end of the ancient period, approximately 60 000 BCE to c. 650 CE. The content provides opportunities for students to familiarise themselves with the process of archaeology, critically examine ancient civilisations and discover the legacies that the Ancient World has left to modern society.

About The Museum of Humanity

Throughout this resource, students are required to record answers to specific activities in their own personal scrapbook for a project called the 'Museum of Humanity'. The scrapbook is located at OneStopDigital and is provided free to students and teachers who purchase this textbook. Each relevant activity for the scrapbook uses the following symbol:



When students begin to use the book, they initially encounter the Museum of Humanity in the first chapter. The student is the Director for the Museum. The Museum of Humanity begins as a new and empty museum, full of possibilities and waiting to be curated by the student. As they create the museum in their scrapbook, students tell the story of humanity in the Ancient World through objects, fieldwork, multimedia, ICT and educational programs. They have complete freedom to design and create an institution that their classmates would want to visit. By doing so, they learn about History, develop critical thinking skills, enhance teamwork skills and understand how they are thinking about historical content.

The Museum of Humanity also allows students to apply the knowledge and skills they have acquired through each depth study to demonstrate their understanding of the Ancient World. Their scrapbook covers the multiple intelligences because students are required to write, research, design, build, create, perform and engage with ICT. At the conclusion of each depth study, students will have completed an independent learning project and added a new exhibition to the museum. Consequently, every task in this book is meaningful and designed to help students acquire the skills and knowledge they will need to develop their museum.

How is the Overview content from the syllabus dealt with?

The overview is a device which allows students to see the 'bigger picture' of the region and time period they are studying. *History 7 for NSW: The Ancient World* breaks the overview up into smaller sections through a detailed handling in each individual chapter which is again refreshed in section openers. Chapter 2 is also dedicated to the overview content.

Has the content been peer reviewed? Will the activities work in the classroom?

Yes. The content has been subjected to a national blind-blind peer review process that has ensured that the content is written for the right year level, the activities are engaging, exciting and diverse, that the content covers the requirements of the Australian Curriculum and that the sources are strong and complex. The books are full-colour with activities that encourage students to explore historical concepts and connect with past cultures and societies. The activities will work for students and teachers alike.

OneStopDigital

OneStopDigital is the website via which you will find all the digital support material for *History 7 for NSW: The Ancient World*. Every digital object has specifically been chosen to engage students and make teaching History easy. OneStopDigital is easily accessible and includes resources that assist students to use an inquiry approach to exploring historical concepts. OneStopDigital includes multiple-choice questions, weblinks, podcasts, 3D animations and additional activities.

Every link to OneStopDigital is denoted by the following symbol:



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Section 1

Investigating the ancient past



An archaeologist unwraps the mummy of a sacrificed Incan child

KEY TERMS

archaeologist	a person who studies the material remains of the past (such as artefacts, monuments and human remains)
archive	a place where original records are kept, usually in the order in which they were made
artefact	a material object made by humans in the past that can be used by historians and archaeologists as a source
cause and effect	how events or decisions in the past produce a range of actions and consequences later on
continuity and change	the way in which some aspects of a society, such as religion, government or military technology, stay the same over a period of time (continuity), while other aspects change
empathetic understanding	understanding another person's actions, attitudes and reasonings
historian	a person who studies the past by examining written and non-written evidence
historical contestability	when historians disagree over the interpretation of an event or issue of the past
King Tutankhamun	the boy pharaoh who ruled Egypt from c. 1332–23 BCE
perspective	point of view, or a particular way of thinking about an issue
significance	the importance of an event or person
sources	written and non-written items that provide information about the past

Studying the Ancient World

Be an amateur historian

At a family gathering you listen to your parents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, older siblings and cousins talk about events that occurred when you were only a baby. They even talk about things that happened before you were born! This excites your curiosity and several questions pop into your head all at once. What are they talking about? Why are these events so important? How can I learn more?

The problems of the past

Believe it or not, asking questions is not very different from the way professional **historians** and **archaeologists** work—except they want to know about the people who lived hundreds, sometimes thousands, of years ago. Historians and archaeologists ask questions about the past: What was life like? How did people organise their societies? How did they build their magnificent monuments? Can we ever approach an **empathetic understanding** of people in the past? They also ask bigger questions, such as those to do with **cause and effect**: What is the cause of events in the past? What effects to these events have on the future? Why are certain events and people considered **significant**? In order to answer these questions, we need to locate historical sources and evidence.

Finding and protecting sources and evidence

Historical **sources** and evidence come in many different forms and they can be located in a huge variety of places. Sometimes the evidence is written. This might include newspapers, diary entries, letters or government documents. Non-written forms of evidence are called **artefacts**. These can range from everyday objects such as clothing and eating utensils, weapons including swords and spears, to examples of architecture such as houses and temples. All these different types of evidence can be found in libraries, **archives**, on-site and in museums. Increasingly,

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historians can find the evidence they need on the internet. This is a great way of sharing resources, ideas and discoveries with people all over the world.

Archaeologists need to be very careful when they search for artefacts. They need to dig deep into the earth to find what they are looking for. In this process they can damage the artefacts. Sometimes, simply exposing artefacts can damage or destroy them completely. Archaeologists have therefore developed a wide variety of specialised techniques designed to protect the evidence they unearth. But the threats don't come only from archaeologists. Government neglect or lack of interest can mean that the money needed to adequately preserve important archaeological sites is not available. Incredibly, some people or groups actively seek to destroy the traces of the past. Educating people about the importance of history is one way that we can protect our shared heritage.

Dating and analysing the traces of the past

It is very important for historians and archaeologists to date written sources and artefacts as accurately as possible. There are many different ways of doing this. Discovering the age of an artefact can help us understand how people living in different eras went about their daily lives. It also helps us understand the very important historical concept of **continuity and change** over time.

Not all of our questions can be answered with the evidence at hand. Sometimes, if historians and archaeologists are lucky enough, they will find new pieces of evidence that help fill in the gaps in our knowledge. Alternatively, someone might look at an existing source with a different **perspective**. This can help us arrive at a completely new understanding of the past.

Some questions will never be answered with a high degree of certainty. The lack of evidence, damaged or incomplete sources or disagreements over the analysis of evidence sometimes lead to disagreements between historians and archaeologists. Such controversies can last decades. This is known as **historical contestability**. Ever since the tomb of **King Tutankhamun** was discovered by Howard Carter



SOURCE S1.1 Scientists examining the remains of Tutankhamun. The boy-king, as he is often called, lived over three thousand years ago!

in 1922, people have wondered how the 19-year-old pharaoh died. Many suspected foul play. Others have pointed to an infection caused by a broken leg. More recently, scientists have discovered evidence that the boy-king suffered from malaria. Whatever the answer is, 'history mysteries' such as the death of Tutankhamun show us that people are fascinated by the past and are motivated by an intense curiosity to *know*.

Writing historical dates

It is common for historians to use BCE (Before Common Era) and CE (Common Era) to represent dates in history. This dating system originated from the earlier system developed in Western Europe that dated events in terms of whether they happened before or after the birth of Jesus Christ—that is, BC (Before Christ) and AD (*Anno Domini*—the year of Our Lord). When we are looking at history that includes many different religions and cultures, it is more helpful to use a dating system that is common to all. As it is, 'BCE' corresponds exactly with 'BC', while 'CE' corresponds exactly with 'AD'.

Another important convention that historians sometimes use when writing dates is the word *circa* (abbreviated to 'c.'). *Circa* is a Latin word which means 'around'. It is used by historians when they are not sure of the exact year that an event took place or a source was made, but think it was probably 'around' a certain date.

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The Ancient World

Many of the problems that historians and archaeologists encounter are magnified when they study the Ancient World. This incredible period of human history began with the migration of anatomically modern humans from Africa in c. 60 000 BCE and ends with the fall of the Western Roman Empire and the death of the prophet Mohammed around 1500 years ago. This is such a long period of time that historians and archaeologists tend to specialise in one particular area.

Whatever they decide to focus on, historians and archaeologists face the problem of a lack of sources. Most of the remains of the ancient past have been destroyed or lost. Others are badly damaged. Writing did not appear until c. 3500 BCE so for most of the Ancient World there are no written records. Some sources are very puzzling and generate more questions than answers. This does not deter people from devoting their lives to the study of the Ancient World, and nor should it! There are still many amazing things that we can learn about our ancient ancestors by analysing the things they left behind.



SOURCE S1.2 Adherents of the Jewish faith pray at the remains of an ancient wall, known as the 'Wailing Wall' in Jerusalem. The Wailing Wall is believed to have been constructed in 19 BCE by Herod the Great, as part of the Jewish Temple on the Mount complex. It is all that remains of the Jewish Temple, destroyed by the Romans in 70 CE. Since then, the Wailing Wall has been a sacred site for Jews. It is an example of how the Ancient World continues to have a profound impact on contemporary life.

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How do historians and archaeologists find out about the past?
2. What are some examples of written evidence?
3. What can threaten archaeological sites?
4. Why do historians sometimes disagree about the past?
5. Write the following dates using the BCE/CE system: 1987 AD, 20 000 BC, 2000 AD, 5 BC.
6. What does *circa* mean?
7. What is difficult about studying the Ancient World?

Perspective and interpretations

Open your pencil case and get out one of your pencils. Describe the pencil from the perspective of:

1. a school student like yourself
2. the owner of a newsagency, who sells pencils
3. a person who has never seen a pencil before in their life and does not know what it is used for.

What do you notice?

Research

1. In pairs, discuss how you could find out about significant family events that occurred when you were very young or before you were born. Come up with at least five different possible sources of information.
2. Ask your older relatives about a family event that happened when you were very young or before you were born. What other sources could you use to find out about the event? If you have your family's permission, tell the rest of the class about the event and how you conducted your investigation.

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Chapter 1

Investigating the ancient past



An archaeologist applies fluid to the skull of a woman in an ancient tomb in Egypt

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter you will:

- outline the main features of history and archaeology
- outline the role of historians and archaeologists
- define the terms and concepts relating to historical time, including BC/AD, BCE/CE
- describe and explain the different approaches to historical investigation taken by archaeologists and historians
- list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations
- use the process of historical investigation to examine the Ötzi (Ice Man) Mystery
- locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past
- identify ancient sites that have disappeared, or are threatened or have been protected and preserved
- identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains
- describe Lake Mungo, an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal peoples
- using a range of sources, including digital sources, e.g. UNESCO World Heritage criteria for ancient sites, examine the Temples of Abu Simbel and explain why it is important for it to be preserved and conserved.

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Inquiry questions

1. How do historians and archaeologists investigate the past?
2. What sources can be used in a historical investigation?
3. What methods can be used in a historical investigation?
4. What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past?
5. Why is it important to conserve remains from the past?

Introduction

To be ignorant of what occurred before you were born is to remain always a child.

Marcus Tullius Cicero (106–43 BCE), Roman statesman

INVESTIGATING HISTORY is what historians and archaeologists do. It is both a fun and fascinating task. Without the discoveries made when we investigate history, we would have little idea as to why our world is the way it is and how we can best contribute to shaping the future.

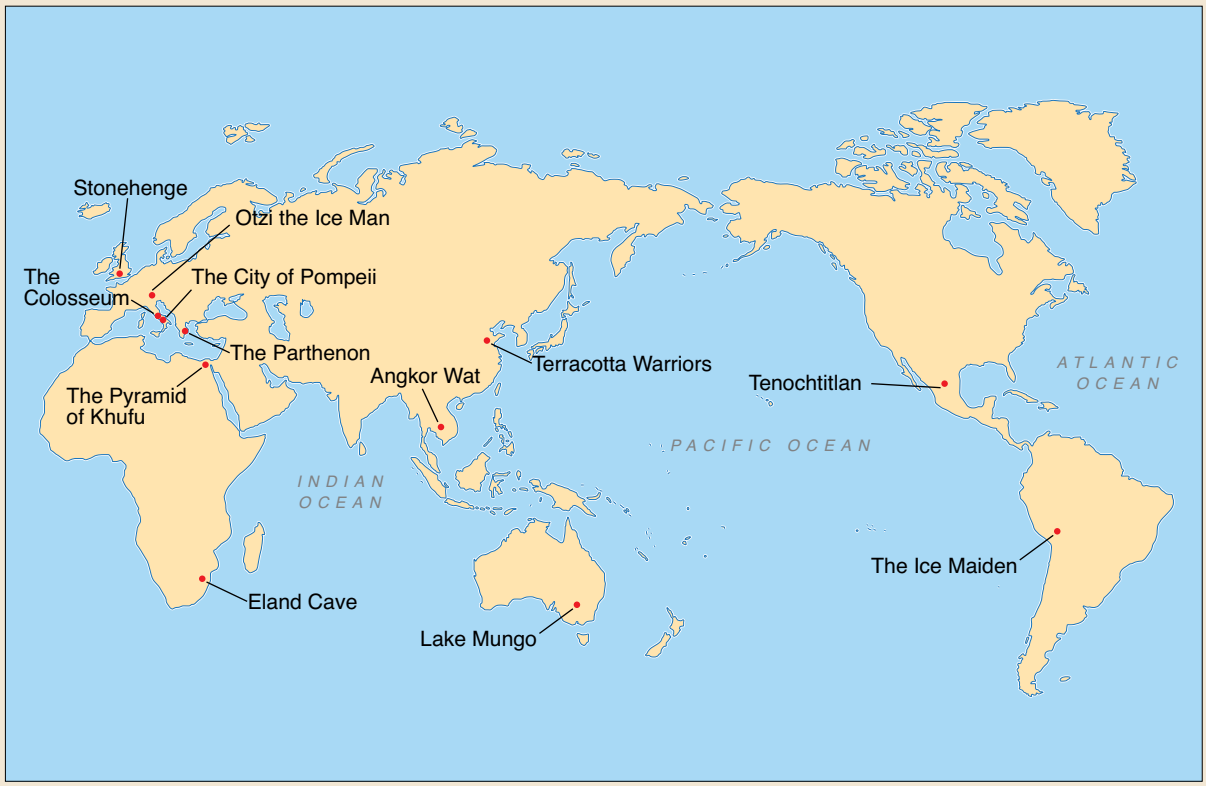
Investigating the mysteries of the past requires a good amount of detective work. Historians have been investigating the past for more than a thousand years and archaeologists have been digging up objects from previous civilisations for about the last 200 years. Despite the vast amount of work done by generations of historians and archaeologists, there is still a great deal that we do not know about the past, and many civilisations are yet to be discovered. New discoveries will come as new generations of historians and archaeologists continue to ask questions about the past.

KEY TERMS

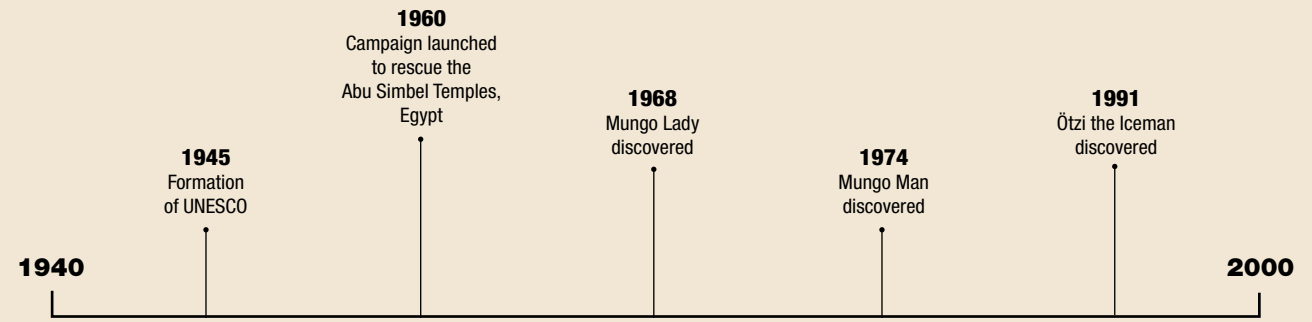
absolute dating	a general term used to describe a variety of techniques used to determine an approximate date of an artefact or site by comparing the properties of an artefact with material of a known age
Bronze Age	a period of history between the Stone Age and the Iron Age (roughly 3750–600 BCE), characterised by the use of copper and bronze. Bronze is an alloy of copper and tin.
conservation	the process of preserving something in its existing state, restoring it to its original state, or adapting it to a new use to ensure that future generations benefit from its ongoing existence
dendrochronology	tree-ring dating, a method of telling the age of wood
Dorian peplos	a loose robe worn by women in ancient Greece
evidence	information found within a source that proves or disproves something
excavate	to dig a hole in the ground to remove physical remains from an archaeological site
heritage	all things that we have inherited from previous generations that we value from the past, including events, traditions, influences, places and experiences
Ionian chiton	a straight, long tunic
oral tradition	poems, hymns, sayings and stories that are handed down from one generation to the next by word of mouth because most people in the society don't read or write
primary sources	sources, such as diaries, letters, photographs or music, created during the time period being studied
radiocarbon dating	a method of estimating the age of an object by measuring the amount of carbon-14, a chemical left in remains such as wood, bone, charcoal or fossils
relative dating	a general term used to describe a variety of techniques, such as location and type, to determine the relative order of past events
secondary sources	sources such as encyclopedia entries, textbooks or television documentaries that were produced after the time period that is being studied
strata	layers found beneath the surface of the ground in rock or earth

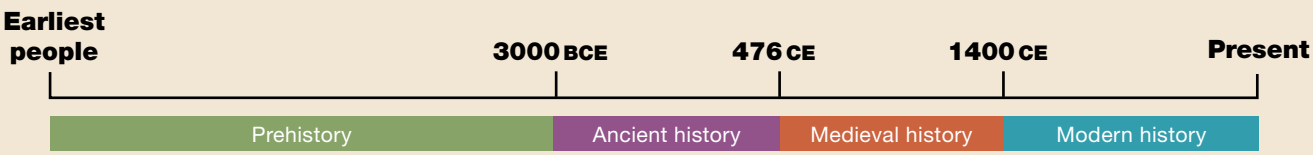
ISBN 978 1 4202 3229 5

Some significant archaeological discoveries from the last 50 years and other significant archaeological sites referred to in this chapter



Timeline of key dates





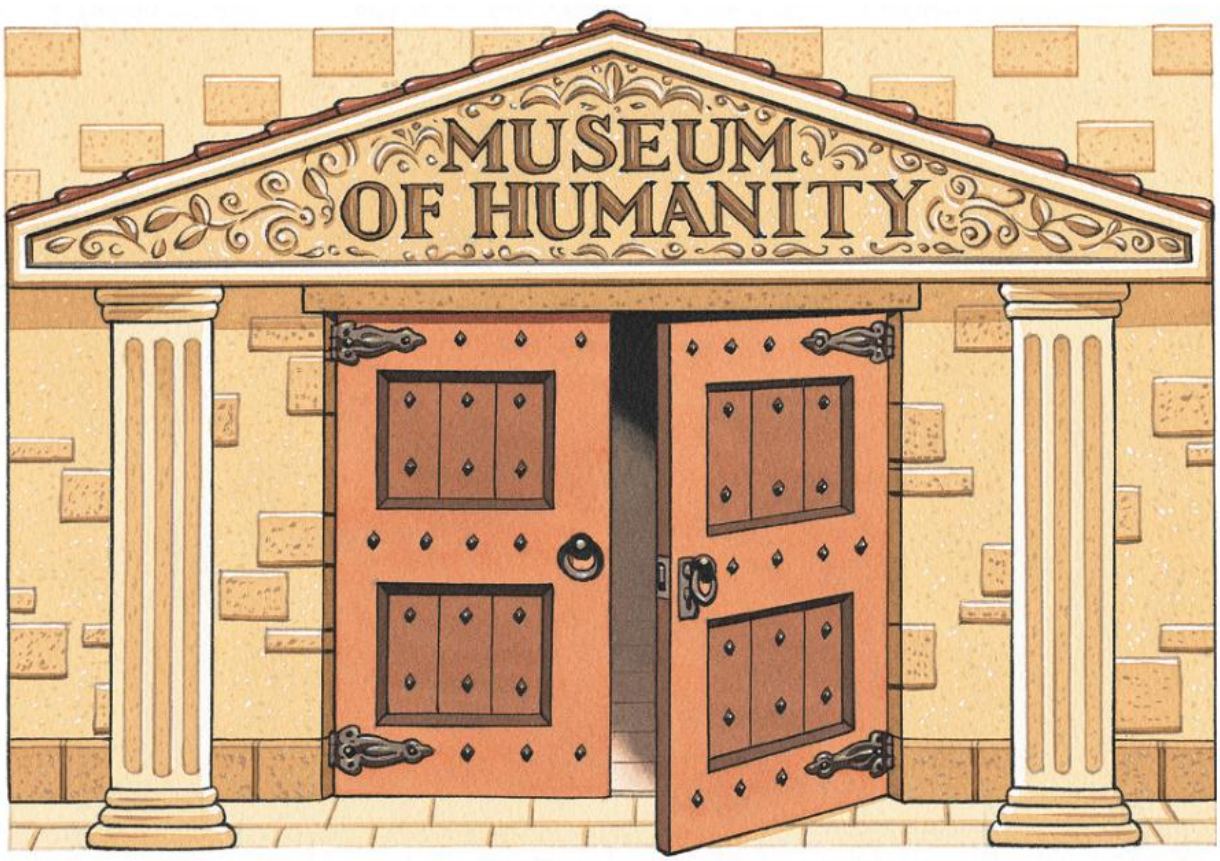
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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down what you think are the three most important archaeological discoveries. You might have heard about these in the news, read about them in books or seen documentaries or films about them.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down the questions you have about the work done by archaeologists.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column.
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

Congratulations! You have just been appointed the Manager and Head Curator of a new museum called the 'Museum of Humanity'. It will be the first museum of its kind in Australia and its purpose is to educate the Australian people, and school students in particular, about the wonders of the Ancient World.

The museum, as shown in source 1.1, is empty with no exhibition activities or artefacts. Throughout this book you will be asked to design galleries and fill the museum with objects that will tell the stories of the rise and fall of ancient civilisations. The museum contains three galleries. The first gallery is entitled



SOURCE 1.1 The Museum of Humanity

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'Investigating the Ancient Past', and explains how archaeology has helped us learn about ancient societies. The second gallery is called 'The Mediterranean World' and will be filled with objects relating to either Egypt, Greece or Rome. The third gallery is called 'The Asian World' and you will be helping visitors discover the secrets of either Ancient China or India. These galleries reflect the three sections in this book.

Think about the museums you have visited in the past. What was interesting? What helped you remember information? What kinds of methods do museum staff use to make the past come alive?

While you are doing the research for your galleries and designing your exhibits, you can record your ideas and findings in your 'Museum Scrapbook'. A template can be found at your digital resource, which includes all of the digital material for *History 7: The Ancient World*. Questions throughout the text will help you develop your scrapbook to share with your friends. The questions for your scrapbook are flagged using this symbol:



As you make your way through each chapter, consider how you will translate your learning into a museum exhibit. As the Museum of Humanity has no current artefacts in its store room, you will also need to decide which objects can best tell the story of the civilisation you are studying and whether you will be able to arrange a loan from other museums.

The new knowledge you discover while learning about the Ancient World will also need to be communicated to visitors from a range of ethnicities, language backgrounds and ages. How will you create exhibits for people who have disabilities that prevent them from fully seeing, hearing or understanding?

ACTIVITY 1

Explanation and communication

1 Write down some of your memories of visiting a museum and share them with the class. What did you enjoy? What did you find boring? How can you incorporate your experiences into the design of your museum?

2 Develop a mission statement for the Museum of Humanity and add it to your scrapbook. A mission statement is a declaration of the purpose and ideals of an organisation or institution. It should be no more than 100 words and include the following information.



- The purpose of your museum
- The kinds of exhibits that will be displayed
- The style of design
- Whether it will be an interactive or multimedia museum
- What you want people to think, feel and know after their trip to the Museum of Humanity.

3 Another important aspect of a modern museum is its logo. This will appear throughout the museum, on publications and in all forms of communication with the public. The Museum of Humanity logo is shown in source 1.2.

a What can you tell about the mission of the Museum of Humanity from its logo?

b If you were asked to suggest an alternative logo, what would it look like? Draw it or find an example on the internet and include it in your museum scrapbook.





SOURCE 1.2 The logo for the Museum of Humanity

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4 A great way of attracting attention to your museum would be to announce its development in a newspaper advertisement. Using a word-processing or publishing program, design an advertisement for the Museum of Humanity. Look up some of the advertisements for museums in your local area. How do they attract people? Try to make your advertisement as engaging as possible so that you have lots of visitors when the museum opens. Pictures, slogans, an exciting layout and bright colours are a good way of doing this. Your advertisement should also include a slogan and your logo. Save your advertisement into your museum scrapbook.

5 Now that you have thought about the purpose and philosophy of your museum you can start focussing on the exhibition design and which artefacts you will include. Source 1.3 shows the Solomon R Guggenheim Museum in New York. Research the interior of at least two other museums. Discuss what the interior of the Museum of Humanity will look like.



SOURCE 1.3 The Solomon R Guggenheim Museum in New York is just as famous for its layout and design as it is for the artworks it contains

The work of historians

The word 'history' comes from the Greek word *historia*, which means 'knowledge acquired by investigation'. Historians conduct their investigation by asking questions, researching, analysing sources, interpreting **evidence**, making judgments and communicating their conclusions. Sources are written and non-written items that provide information about the past. In many ways, their work is very much like detective work.

ACTIVITY 2

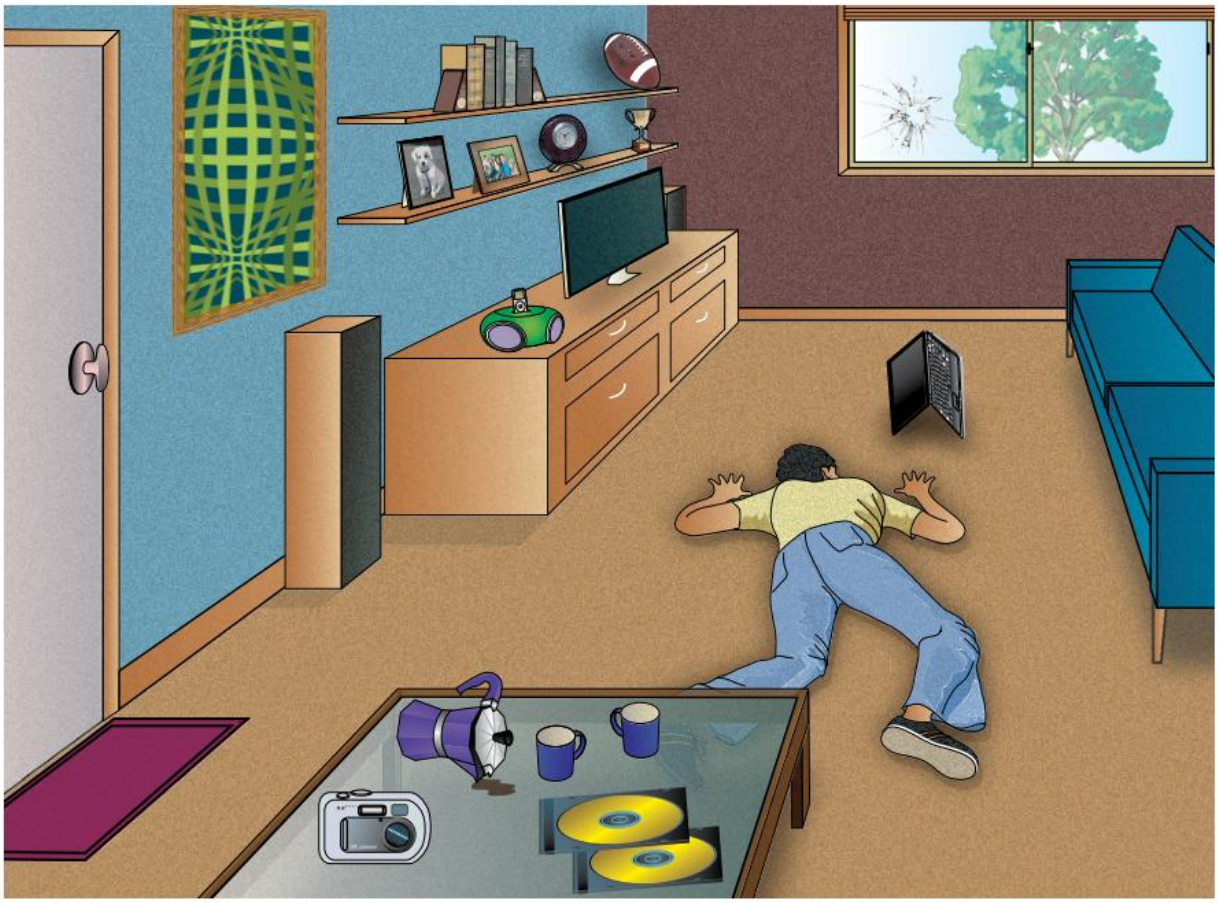
Analysis and use of sources

Examine source 1.4 (the murder scene). Copy the table below and use what you can see to fill it in. You need to choose the five most important clues, rate their importance (with the most important clue as 1 and the least important clue as 5) and explain why you have chosen these clues. As a detective, what other sources would it be good to have access to for this crime investigation?

Evidence/item in room	Importance of item (rate 1–5)	Why?
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		

Sometimes historians do have actual historical crime mysteries to solve. For the most part, however, they want to discover what life was like for people in the past. They investigate what people ate, their beliefs, the jobs they did, the leisure activities they enjoyed and even what they wore.

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SOURCE 1.4 A crime scene. What happened here?

The work of archaeologists

Hiding below the surface of the earth are the remains of past human societies that have vanished. Archaeologists are historians who take a systematic and scientific approach to recovering and analysing these physical remains or artefacts. Using the artefacts, archaeologists attempt to build up an understanding of the past.

Early archaeologists were lone treasure-hunters. The sensational adventures of these archaeologists have been portrayed in films such as the *Indiana Jones* series. Today, archaeologists work in teams and often have areas in which they specialise. They also work closely with historians and scientists, making use of their knowledge of ancient writings and new technologies.

Archaeologists help in some ways to save the past by discovering, preserving and piecing together artefacts that could otherwise remain forgotten and unknown. But this very process, even when done carefully, also results in the past being destroyed. As we dig up sites and examine, date and display artefacts, irreversible damage takes place.



SOURCE 1.5 Archaeologists removing Minoan pottery from an excavation site, Thera Island, Greece

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Sources and evidence

Historians and archaeologists rely on finding and analysing sources that will help them with their investigation of the past. A source is anything that has survived from the past. They are likely to examine hundreds of sources during an investigation. The sources they find that are relevant to the question they are investigating are then used as historical evidence. Historical evidence is an object or information used to reach a conclusion. Until the source is used to reach a conclusion, it should only be referred to as a source and not as evidence.

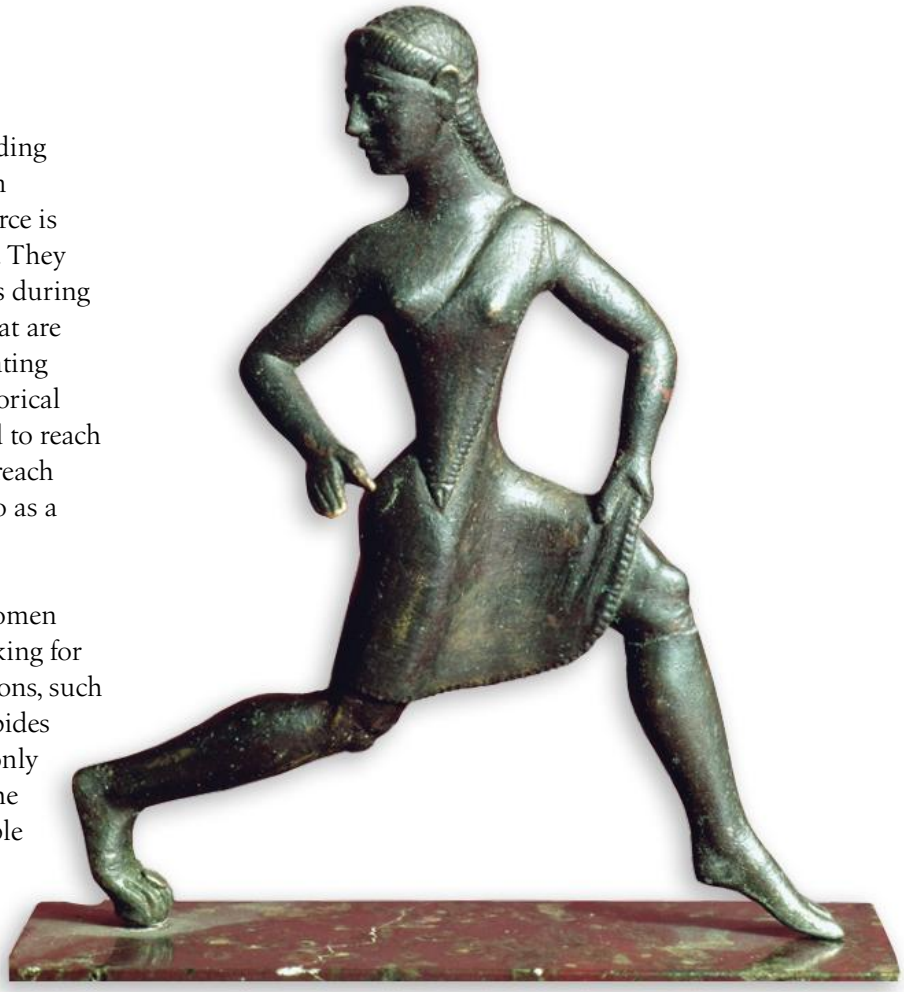
For example, a historian interested in investigating what clothes the Spartan women of Ancient Greece wore may start by looking for written sources. There are some descriptions, such as that by the Ancient Greek writer Euripides (source 1.6), but these descriptions have only a small amount of useful information. The historian could then examine any available archaeological sources, such as the lead figurines of Spartan women found at the sanctuary of Artemis Orthia (see source 1.8). Finally, the historian would also read what other historians and archaeologists have written about women in Sparta (see source 1.7). All these sources, when used to support the historian's conclusions, will then be referred to as evidence.

No Spartan girl
Could grow up modest, even if she wanted to.
You never find them staying at home; no, they go out
With bare thighs and loose clothes, to wrestle and run races
Along with the young men.

SOURCE 1.6 Extract from *Andromache* (c. 428 BCE), a play by Euripides, an Ancient Greek playwright.

Spartan women wore the Dorian peplos, with slit skirts, permitting freedom of movement, while Athenian women wore the confining, long Ionian chiton ...

SOURCE 1.7 Excerpt from *The Concept of Work: Ancient, Medieval and Modern* (1992) by historian Herbert A Applebaum



SOURCE 1.8 Bronze figurine of a girl, thought to be Spartan, running, (c. 520–500 BCE)

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What does the word 'history' come from?
2. How is a historian similar to a detective?
3. What does an archaeologist do?
4. How has the role of archaeologists changed?
5. Why is the past 'destroyed' by archaeological work?
6. What is a source?
7. What is historical evidence?
8. What steps would a historian take to find out about clothes that Spartan women wore?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 1.6. What sort of garment does Euripides describe?
2. Look at source 1.8. Describe the garment worn by the statue.

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3 Read source 1.7. What sort of garment does Applebaum describe?

4 What can you conclude about Spartan women's clothing from sources 1.6, 1.7 and 1.8?

Explanation and communication

View at least two of the video weblinks provided on your digital support. You will hear archaeologists speaking about what they do and what they like most about their work.

1 What do you think you would enjoy most about being an archaeologist?

2 What do you think you would find most difficult about being an archaeologist?

3 How has the work of an archaeologist changed over time?

4 As the curator of the Museum of Humanity it is your job to oversee the design of the museum space. What are three ways in which the museum space can be constructed so that visitors can experience first-hand the work of an archaeologist? Add your ideas to your museum scrapbook.

Analysing artefacts

Objects or artefacts are the physical remains of past cultures. They can be as large as a city like Pompeii that stretches for kilometres or as small as a coin. Either way, they can provide us with valuable information about the past—as long as you know what questions to ask about the artefacts.

When examining an artefact, there is a series of questions that will help you make important observations and allow you to classify the artefact and arrive at an interpretation of the artefact. These questions are known as the 5Ws—who, what, when, where and why. To answer all of these questions, a great deal of work is usually done by a team of people. Together they aim to answer as many of the questions as possible. Archaeologists share their answers to these questions with other archaeologists from around the world. It is common for archaeologists to have different answers to questions about the same artefact. This disagreement and debate helps archaeologists to think through their answers more and, ultimately, to improve their ideas.

When archaeologists have answered all these questions, they are then in a good position to work out how an artefact could be used as evidence in their investigation into the past.



SOURCE 1.9 A life-sized marble statue of Eumachia (c. 10 CE), found in Pompeii, Italy. Eumachia was an important citizen of Pompeii. She was a priestess of Venus and a patron (financial supporter) of the cloth makers of Pompeii. We don't know who made the statue, but it is likely he was from Pompeii.

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SOURCE 1.10 A plaster cast of a dog (c. 1870 CE). When the volcano, Mount Vesuvius, erupted at Pompeii in 79 CE, it buried people and animals in hot ash. The ash hardened around the bodies before they decayed, making a mould. When the bodies finally decayed, an empty cavity (space) was left where their bodies had been. In 1870 CE, Italian archaeologist Giuseppe Fiorelli invented the technique of filling the cavities with plaster to make a cast of the victims' bodies.

Analysing artefacts: The 5Ws (artefact)

When analysing an artefact, we need to answer the following questions, known as the 5Ws:

Who is the creator?—When it comes to the Ancient World, we usually know very little about the person who made an artefact (known as an artisan), but we generally know their culture of origin.

What is the artefact?—Describe the artefact, noting size, colour, materials used.

When was the artefact made?

Where was the artefact found?

Why was the artefact made?—What was it used for? Is it a tool, a utensil or a decorative item? Or is it a sporting arena, a shop or a house?

Activity

Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 1.9.



SOURCE 1.11 The Thermopolium, Pompeii (c. 1st century CE).

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ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What is an artefact?
2 What questions are helpful to ask when analysing an artefact?
3 How do archaeologists find answers to these questions?

Analysis and use of source

1 When was source 1.10 made?
2 When did the dog in source 1.10 die?
3 What does source 1.10 tell us about what happened in Pompeii in 79 CE?
4 Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 1.10.

Research

As the curator of the Museum of Humanity you have decided to include source 1.11 as an image in your museum. Go to your digital support to find out more about source 1.11. Write a brief label (no more than 50 words) that informs visitors about what you consider to be the most important historical information.

Analysing written sources

Historians have relied on written sources to investigate the past for a lot longer than archaeological sources. Written sources are *any* materials or objects that have been written on and this includes far more than just books. An epitaph (the message written on a tombstone) and an inscription on a statue are just two examples.

Most ancient written sources were produced for wealthy men, the elite of society. Very few people learned how to read or write, and only those who could afford to have an educated servant or employee with these skills could have their experiences recorded. As a result, many of the ancient written sources focus on what was important to these men in their public lives. They had official documents written for them, such as contracts and accounts of wars, but very little written about their everyday lives.

Ancient written sources can be found on a number of different materials. These include papyrus, clay tablets, parchment (skins of cattle, sheep or goats), wooden tablets, stone and walls. The material used often depended on the length and purpose of the text.

Written sources are often divided into three groups:

- literary sources—histories, biographies, poems, oratory (speeches), plays, letters, lists of business deals, decrees, records, laws
- epigraphic sources (inscribed on clay, metal, stone or papyrus)—civic charters, official regulations, epitaphs, dedications, election slogans, even graffiti
- numismatic sources (coins)—key people, religious symbols, legends, special events, sometimes dates.

Just as with an artefact, finding answers to the 5Ws is a useful method of analysing a written source.



SOURCE 1.12 The obverse of a coin released in Rome in 71 CE to celebrate the Ancient Roman victory over Judea (now southern Israel). It shows an image of the Emperor Vespasian (69–79 CE) and reads '*Imp. Caesar Vespasianus Aug*', which means 'Imperial Caesar Vespasian, Augustus (Majestic)'. The name of the person who designed the coin is unknown.

> After becoming Emperor he would rise early, before daylight even, to deal with his private correspondence and official reports. Next, he would admit his friends and receive their greetings while he put on his shoes and dressed himself. Having attended to any business that had come up he would first take a drive and then return to bed for a nap ... Finally, he took a bath and went to dinner ...

SOURCE 1.13 Excerpt from 'Vespasian' in *The Twelve Caesars* (119 CE) by Suetonius, a Roman historian. Seutonius wrote his book to record the lives of twelve important Roman emperors.

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SOURCE 1.14 One of a series of bronze tablets containing the *Laws of the Emperor Vespasian* (c. 70 CE). The text at the beginning of this tablet reads, '… it shall be lawful for him to make a treaty with whom he wishes', and continues with all the other privileges that Vespasian is permitted as Emperor. The word 'SANCTIO' at the bottom means 'sanctioned' or 'approved' by the Roman Senate.

Analysing sources: The 5Ws (text)

When analysing text, we need to answer the following questions, known as the 5Ws:

Who is the author?—What is their name and their occupation, if known?

What is the text?—Is it a report, a diary, a letter, a chronicle, a textbook? What is it called?

When was it written?

Where was it written (if known)?

Why was the text written?—To record events for: public record (e.g. a chronicle, autobiography or history); someone important (e.g. the military or a religious institution); the persuasion of others (e.g. a speech); or private record (e.g. a personal diary)?

Activity

Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 1.12.

Empathetic understanding

In history, empathy means understanding events of the past from the perspective of those who lived in the past. People of the Ancient World had a different perspective on life compared with us today. They thought:

- slavery was acceptable
- women were inferior to men
- violence was acceptable
- that their own culture and religion were superior to any other
- that the gods had ordained some people to be more powerful and wealthy than others (that all people were not created equal).

They had more limited scientific, technical and medical knowledge than we do today.

We should not feel superior to the people of the Ancient World—these people were not stupid or ignorant. Their lives just had more constraints than ours do today. Their actions, values and attitudes were generally governed by these constraints.

Activity

Your museum is to include an animatronic Emperor Vespasian. Using the empathetic understanding skills and sources 1.12–1.14, write a speech for your animatronic Vespasian that tells museum visitors what he thinks about the following aspects of Roman society: war and violence, culture, religion, slavery and the role of women; and finally, why he thinks he deserves to be Emperor.

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Whose lives are mainly recorded by written sources of the Ancient World?
2. What sort of people are less likely to have had their everyday lives recorded in written sources of the Ancient World?
3. What are the three main types of written sources? Provide examples for each.
4. What kind of ancient written sources are likely to have been carved into stone? Why?

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Analysis and use of sources

Vespasian was a Roman Emperor who ruled the Roman Empire 69–79 CE. Refer to sources 1.12, 1.13 and 1.14 to answer the following questions.

1. What information did you learn about Vespasian from each source?
2. Identify whether sources 1.12, 1.13 and 1.14 are literary, epigraphic or numismatic sources.
3. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 1.13.
4. Which of sources 1.12, 1.13 and 1.14 are also artefacts? Explain why or why not.
5. What does each source (as an artefact) tell us about Roman society? Think about what the sources are made from and why the sources exist.

Research: How to take point-form notes

Taking notes in point-form is very important. It means that you have to think as you read the text and write down your understanding in your own words rather than copying out what the author says. You should cut out every unnecessary word and write down the important words as numbered dot-points. You can have your own special abbreviations: for example use > for links between points.

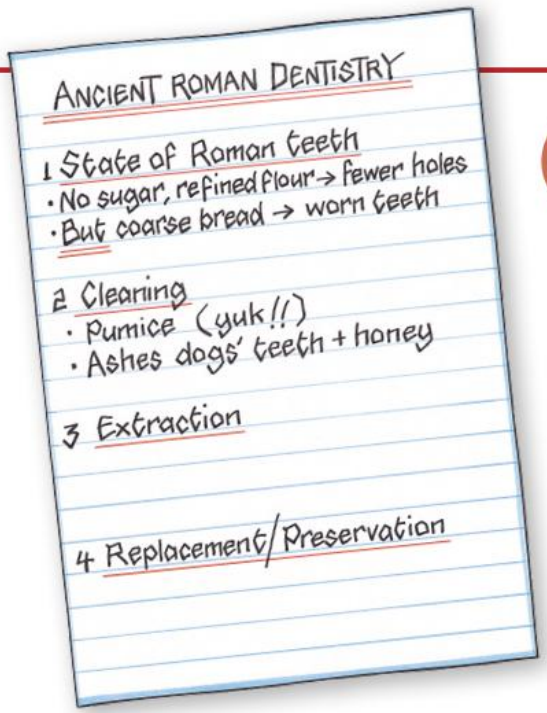
e.g. 'Roman teeth fewer holes > no sugar'.

Be careful to leave in all important words. For 'During and after meals the Greeks wiped their fingers on bread, which they then threw to their dogs', one student wrote 'wipe bread, throw dogs'. What words should the student have left in?

Activity

Read the paragraphs below and copy the notes shown in source 1.15 under 'state of Roman teeth' and 'cleaning', then write your own point-form notes for headings 3 and 4.

Make sure that you make note of the *strongest* or *sharpest* points. Note that each heading in source 1.15 relates to a particular theme. You can also add diagrams or other visual tools where appropriate.



SOURCE 1.15 Point-form notes

Would you like to have gone to an Ancient Roman dentist?

The Ancient Romans had teeth that were a lot better than ours, with fewer holes. There was no sugar or refined flour in their diet. But, because of the coarseness of the bread and stones in it, teeth were often very worn down in older people.

To clean their teeth, some Ancient Romans used pumice (which would have scratched off the surface enamel) or the ashes of dogs' teeth mixed with honey. Toothpicks are frequently mentioned.

If a tooth started to rot, it was left in as long as the person could bear the pain, and then it was yanked out by the local barber. He stopped the bleeding with vinegar and spiders' webs. One hundred rotten teeth have been excavated from the site of an Ancient Roman barber's shop.

If a tooth became loose, it was attached by gold wire to the firm teeth nearby. Skeletons have been found with gold-capped teeth. In 1998, an Ancient Roman skull was found with the remains of a wrought-iron implant of a right second-upper molar. The 'tooth' would have been banged into the socket with a hammer, without any anaesthetic.

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Primary and secondary sources

Written sources are divided into **primary sources** and **secondary sources**. Primary sources were created during the time that is being investigated. For example, the *Laws of the Emperor Vespasian* in source 1.14 is a primary source because it was written during the period in which Vespasian lived.

Secondary sources are produced after the time period that is being investigated. For example, source 1.7 was written about Spartan women's clothing in 1992. Secondary sources use and analyse primary sources in order to draw conclusions about a particular period of history.

Remember, to work out whether something is a primary or secondary source requires you to know both (i) when the source was produced and (ii) the time period you are investigating.

Sometimes it is tempting to think that one type of source, primary or secondary, is better than the other. After all, a primary source was written at the time the event occurred. But does this always mean the writer is telling the 'truth'? Are they exaggerating to impress someone, or not mentioning any embarrassing details to make themselves appear better than they actually are? On the other hand, a secondary source has been written after a historian has had the chance to examine a large number of primary sources before making a conclusion. But what if they didn't interpret something properly? What if they are only making use of some sources, but ignoring other sources that tell a different story? It is important to recognise that one type of source is not better than the other. All sources, whether primary or secondary, are useful and need to be carefully and critically analysed.



SOURCE 1.16 An archive is a library that contains original primary source documents. This Spanish archive holds more than 30 million documents dating from the 12th to the 19th centuries.



SOURCE 1.17 A researcher examines entries in Aboriginal Sorry Day books at the National Archives of Australia in Canberra

Primary sources			Secondary sources
• diaries • letters • memoirs • interviews • speeches • official records • newspaper articles (written soon after the event)	• music • art • poetry • cartoons • photographs • audio or video recordings	• pottery • clothing • buildings • furniture • blogs • tweets	• articles written by academics and other experts • encyclopedias • histories • internet sites, especially those for museums, universities, galleries and libraries • television documentaries • textbooks

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Research: Finding primary sources

The two most important questions to ask when looking for primary sources on the Ancient World are:

Is the source reliable? Ensure that you collect your primary source from a reliable textbook, archive, history magazine or website. Reliable websites include those administered by a university, museum, library, art gallery or government organisation.

Is the source relevant? Once you have found your source, check that it is relevant to your needs. You can do this by seeing that there is identifying information available on the source, such as the author/creator, the date it was created and the event/person/group it depicts.

Activity

1. Find a primary source (text or artefact) for the Ancient World. You can find one from Ancient Egypt, Greece, Rome, China or India, or else choose another ancient society. Check that you obtain your source from a reliable book or site and that your source is relevant.
2. Complete the 5Ws for your source.
3. Include your source in your museum scrapbook, with a short 50-word description.

Research: Finding secondary sources

When looking for secondary sources, try to find sources that contain up-to-date information. Ideally, look for secondary sources created in the last 10 years. History is not fixed—new documents, artefacts and images are being unearthed every day and some of these change our understandings about the past. Sometimes you may have to settle for older secondary sources, as these may be the only ones available. The better secondary sources will have a bibliography, so that you can see where the author obtained their information.

Activity

Find a secondary source for the Ancient World. Write the name of the author of your source, the title of your source and the date it was published.

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How do you decide whether a source is a primary or a secondary source?
2. Make a list of primary sources you have in your home.
3. Explain why a television documentary is usually a secondary source.
4. There are advantages and disadvantages with all types of sources. Copy the table below and list two advantages and two disadvantages for both primary and secondary sources.

	Primary	Secondary
Advantages		
Disadvantages		

Searching for archaeological sites

Archaeological sites, which are simply places where artefacts are found, are discovered in a wide range of ways that can include human activity, chance or just being revealed over time by the action of wind or rain or other natural processes. More often than not, a great deal of expertise, time and effort goes into the discovery of a site.

There are some archaeological sites that needed little effort to discover because they never fully disappeared, such as Stonehenge in England, Angkor Wat in Cambodia, the Pyramid of Khufu in Egypt or the Colosseum in Rome. Other archaeological finds have been by chance. Natural forces such as wind and rain have also helped to uncover many sites. At Lake Mungo in New South Wales, hundreds of human footprints from about 18 000 BCE were exposed by wind erosion.

Human activity can also lead to sites being discovered. In 2006 CE, work on a gas pipeline in Wales had to be stopped when a 3400-year-old canoe was discovered. In 1599 CE, Pompeii was unearthed for the first time since Mount Vesuvius erupted when workers were building an underground drain across the site.

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SOURCE 1.18 Stonehenge, (built c. 2400 BCE) in Salisbury, England



SOURCE 1.19 Ruins of the Roman theatre built at the Ancient Greek city of Troy (known as Ilium to the Romans), (c. 20 CE)



SOURCE 1.20 Excavations at the ancient city of Pompeii, Italy in 1895

Digging foundations, roads and dams, ploughing and even fishing are other human activities that have led to sites being discovered, where a new city has been built on the remains of an older city.

Archaeologists have also used ancient writings to help them locate archaeological sites. Heinrich Schliemann, who discovered Troy, did just this. Schliemann read Homer's epic poem *The Iliad* and decided he would find Troy using Homer's descriptions of the area, even though many at the time believed Troy to be only a mythical city. For three years Schliemann's team dug until eventually he was able to prove that he had found Troy. Archaeologists have also used the Bible to locate ancient towns and cities.

Archaeologists began to use aerial photography to help them to locate sites just under 100 years ago, after World War I. Aerial photographs reveal differences in the height of the land, vegetation or crop marks, building foundations and ancient roads.

Spotlight

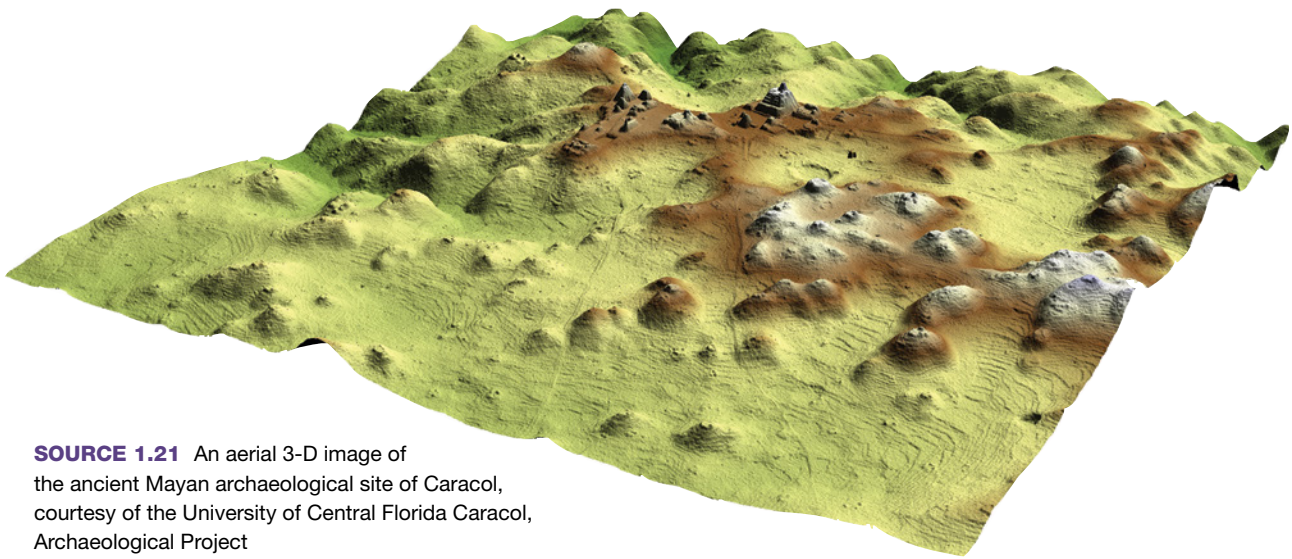
A crop circle is a circle made by the flattening of a crop such as wheat or barley. Some people have assumed that crop circles are the work of aliens. In 2009, a routine aerial survey by English Heritage, the UK government's historic-preservation agency, revealed formations that look like crop circles in southern England. This led to the discovery of a large prehistoric ceremonial complex buried beneath the soil.

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Satellite imagery and archaeology

Recently, satellites have been used for topographical radar mapping. The satellites capture sand-penetrating radar images that reveal the location of ancient settlements. In the Amazon Basin, more than 200 geometric earthworks stretching across a distance of 255 kilometres have been identified by satellite since 1999. In 2009, a fly-over (using laser technology) of the Mayan city of Caracol revealed that Ancient Mayan culture had extended much further than historians had previously been aware. The lasers were able to pass through the thick rainforest to reveal the remains of buildings and roads.

Advances in technology have made it increasingly possible to explore beneath the surface of the ground without digging. In the Valley of the Kings in Egypt, tombs have been found using ground-penetrating radar (GPR). Machines called magnetometers detect the magnetic properties of materials below the ground, while resistivity meters are used to identify structures such as walls or pits below the ground.



SOURCE 1.21 An aerial 3-D image of the ancient Mayan archaeological site of Caracol, courtesy of the University of Central Florida Caracol, Archaeological Project

Perspective and interpretation

People have different perspectives (points of view) of an event depending on how that event affects them personally. When considering perspective, ask:

1. Who is the person or the group? For individuals, what is their gender, culture and social status? For groups of people, what is their culture?
2. How does the event or situation affect them? For example, what do they gain or lose?

When considering the perspective contained in a source, think about:

1. Who is the creator of the source?
2. How does the creator of the source feel about the situation they have described or depicted in the source?

Activity

Archaeological work can affect many people in different ways, especially when sites are discovered in towns and cities. Imagine a new archaeological site of colonial-era Australia has just been discovered under the new teachers' car park at your school. The new teachers' car park will have to be dug up and closed off for almost a year. Consider the perspectives of the following people about the event:

a an archaeologist who is interested in colonial Australia;

b a history teacher at your school;

c a Personal Development/Health/Physical Education (PD/H/PE) teacher at your school; and

d yourself.

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Spotlight

An Australian archaeologist working from his armchair in Perth has unearthed almost 2000 potential archaeological sites in Saudi Arabia.

Far from Indiana Jones-style archaeology, high-resolution photography is allowing researchers to unearth world-changing discoveries using little more than Google Maps.

Professor David Kennedy from the University of Western Australia has never visited Saudi Arabia, but he has scanned 1240 square kilometres of the country using Google Earth and found 1977 potential archaeological sites. This included 1082 ancient tombs shaped like tear drops.

Kennedy was able to confirm the legitimacy of two of the finds by asking a friend in Saudi Arabia to drive out to the sites and photograph them. He believes they may be up to 9000 years old.

Asher Moses, 'Aussie Desktop Archaeologist's Major Saudi Sighting', *Sydney Morning Herald*, 7 February 2011

ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 List four ways that archaeological sites are located.
2 How does satellite mapping help archaeologists and historians?
3 How does ground-penetrating radar (GPR) work?
4 Why do you think a new city is sometimes built on the remains of an old city?

Research

1 Select one of the sites listed below. Investigate whether luck or a clue led to the discovery.
- Pompeii
- Tollund Man
- the entombed warriors of Xi'an
- the Palace of Knossos
- the Rosetta Stone
- Tutankhamun's tomb

2 Select three archaeological sites from the list below. 'Visit' the sites using Google Earth. What can you learn about these sites by viewing them in this way? What do you think would be the benefit of visiting these sites in person?
- Pompeii
- Giza Pyramids
- Stonehenge
- Acropolis of Athens

Print a screen image of one of these sites and include it in your museum scrapbook.

Excavating a site

Once archaeologists have found where a site is located, they need to **excavate** or dig it up. Ideally, archaeologists carry out an excavation thoroughly and without needing to rush, but often there is great pressure on them to quickly remove artefacts from a site so that development can proceed. This was the case in 2004 when Athens was hosting the Olympic Games. Teams of archaeologists worked around the clock to ensure that sites were excavated before construction on new sports venues or highways went ahead.



SOURCE 1.22 An archaeologist shows off colonial Australian artefacts found at the Rocks, Sydney, where a new youth hostel was about to be built

The team

Archaeological digs are a team effort. The person in charge of the dig is usually an academic or someone employed by the government. They have to coordinate all the other members of the team, who can include people responsible for organising funding and getting hold of all the right equipment (which might include large earth-moving machinery and dump trucks) as well as photographers, illustrators, surveyors, cartographers (or map-makers), IT staff, laboratory specialists—and, of course, people to do the actual digging, as well as to measure and record the artefacts. Often, the digging is done by students or members of the public who have volunteered to work on the site. If no volunteers are available, then labourers are hired.

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SOURCE 1.23 A team of archaeologists from the US and Italy, as well as local assistants, excavate a site at Ona Nagast, near Aksum in Ethiopia, in June 1998

Excavation techniques

How a site is excavated depends on the type of site and what archaeologists hope to learn from the site. To reach any artefacts, archaeologists usually have to dig through several layers of dirt that have built up over time. Archaeologists call these layers **strata**. Each layer can contain cultural remains (for example, coins and broken pottery) and natural remains (from plants and animals). The strata closest to the surface are thought to be from a later period than the layers further below. Based on this logic, archaeologists are able to establish a relative chronology, or timeline, for a site.

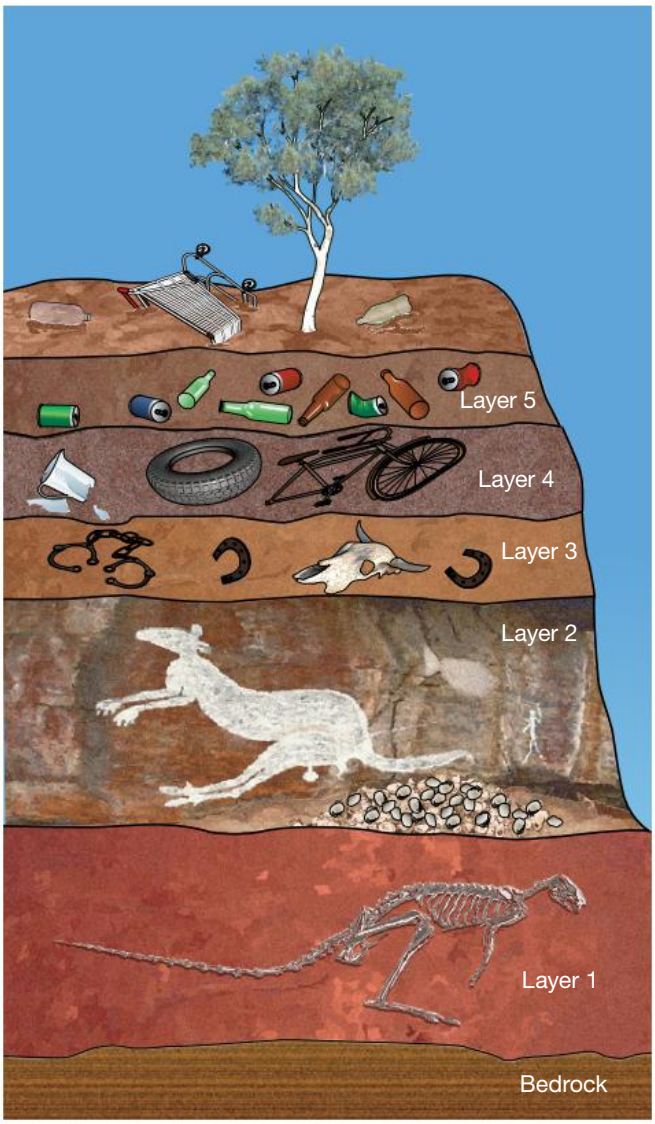
Excavation can either focus on a number of strata—a cross-section of the site over a long time—or on just one layer of the site. If archaeologists are interested in a cross-section, they use a method known as the 'box grid system' or 'keyhole excavation'.

The box grid system was developed by Mortimer Wheeler in the early 20th century. It is usually used on sites when it is known that a number of people have occupied the site throughout a number of different time periods. On the surface, the site is divided into a grid of 'boxes', which are then dug out. The boxes



SOURCE 1.24 Open area excavation on the Greek island of Santorini; to protect the remains of the ancient city the archaeologists are uncovering, a huge roof has been built over the entire site

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SOURCE 1.25 Cross-section of an archaeological site

are separated by 'walls' of earth that are left as a record of the strata that have been dug through. Each of the boxes is dug out one layer at a time. Each layer is carefully examined in case it contains significant artefacts.

Keyhole excavation usually involves digging trenches at specific points on a site. It gives archaeologists a general idea of what artefacts they might find if they were to excavate the entire site. While this technique does not let archaeologists examine a site totally, it is less costly and less destructive than digging up the whole area. Furthermore, as some countries do not have the money to keep and preserve artefacts, it is better for these artefacts to remain in the ground.

A third method of excavation is 'open area excavation'. This involves digging up a large horizontal area one layer at a time. (Very deep sites or those that are waterlogged need careful excavation to prevent cave-ins or flooding.) Open area excavation gives archaeologists a good understanding of the entire site and is best used on sites where there has been only one occupant.

An archaeologist's toolkit

The tools archaeologists use vary depending on the nature of the ground in which they are excavating. This can range from soft and sandy to hard and rocky. They often start off by using large earth-moving equipment to remove grass, foliage and topsoil. When it is no longer safe to use earth-moving equipment, the diggers come in with picks to break up the soil and spades to shovel earth into wheelbarrows and buckets. As the archaeologists are keen to ensure they do not damage any of the artefacts as they dig, they use increasingly small tools such as trowels and sometimes dental picks and tooth brushes to remove earth. Before soil is disposed of, it is often sieved to ensure that no artefacts such as jewellery or even human teeth have been overlooked.

Archaeologists will make use of the latest technology available to them to record and measure the artefacts they find. When an artefact is removed, it is photographed and carefully packed, while as much detail as possible about it is recorded. These days, while archaeologists may still handwrite records on the spot, they will also enter them into a computer at the end of each day. The removal of an artefact may also be filmed as well as photographed. The records that are made are highly important as the process of excavation results in the destruction of the site.

Of course, if an underwater archaeological site is being excavated, then not only does this pose new challenges, it also requires a different set of tools!

ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why do archaeologists sometimes need to work very quickly at a site?

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SOURCE 1.26 An archaeological dig

2 What is a strata?
3 What are the three methods of excavation?
4 What tools does an archaeological dig require?
5 What happens to an artefact when it is removed?
6 For what type of artefacts would the following specialists be employed?
   a ceramicist
   b anatomist
   c architect
   d papyrologist
   e botanist
   f zoologist
   g volcanologist

Analysis and use of sources

1 Using source 1.25, answer the following questions:
   a How many layers are there in the diagram?
   b Which layer is the oldest?
   c Which layer is the most recent?
   d Choose two layers. What can you conclude from each of these layers?
2 Match the activities (a–h) with their correct numbers from source 1.26.
   a Photographing the site
   b Surveying the site and establishing new trenches
   c Sifting dirt through a sieve to locate small objects
   d Washing artefacts found on the dig
   e Drawing artefacts to scale
   f Removing soil from objects that are being dug up
   g Digging up artefacts
   h Photographing artefacts.

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Research

Go to your digital support to access weblinks on archaeology tool shops. List the tools used by the team of archaeologists.

Explanation and communication

1. Prepare for a debate on the topic 'Archaeology does more harm than good'.
2. Using source 1.25 as a guide, create an archaeological strata in a fish tank that you can excavate. Bury small objects against the glass to show different layers of history. Take a photo and include it in your museum scrapbook.

How old is it?

One question that archaeologists always ask about artefacts they find is: how old is it? Until they know the age of an artefact, its usefulness as a source is reduced. In some cases, knowing the age of the source is important in determining whether an artefact is a fake. Two methods are used for scientifically dating archaeological finds: **relative dating** and **absolute dating**. It is best to use both methods to get the most accurate information.

> Scientific dating is not just a boring necessity that tidies things up by providing numbers; it is vital for valid interpretation.

SOURCE 1.27 M Aitken, *Science-based Dating in Archaeology* (1990)

Relative dating

Relative dating establishes whether an artefact is older or younger than other artefacts that have been found. One way this is done is by looking at the strata in which different objects have been found and assuming that the deeper an object is, the older it is. This approach can be unreliable, as the movement of earth over time can mean that objects move to layers in which they were not originally located. Another form of relative dating relies on the principles of typology, where artefacts are put into chronological order based on distinct features such as decoration, construction material or shape (see source 1.28). In the same way you would be able to put a collection of cars or clothes made over the last century into order, archaeologists are able to date pottery or weapons.

Absolute dating

Absolute dating can be done quite easily if the date is marked on the artefact. This is often the case with coins and inscriptions but obtaining an exact date often involves analysing the atoms of an artefact. **Radiocarbon dating** measures how much carbon-14 (a radioactive form of carbon) is left in plant or animal artefacts and uses that information to determine the age of the artefact.

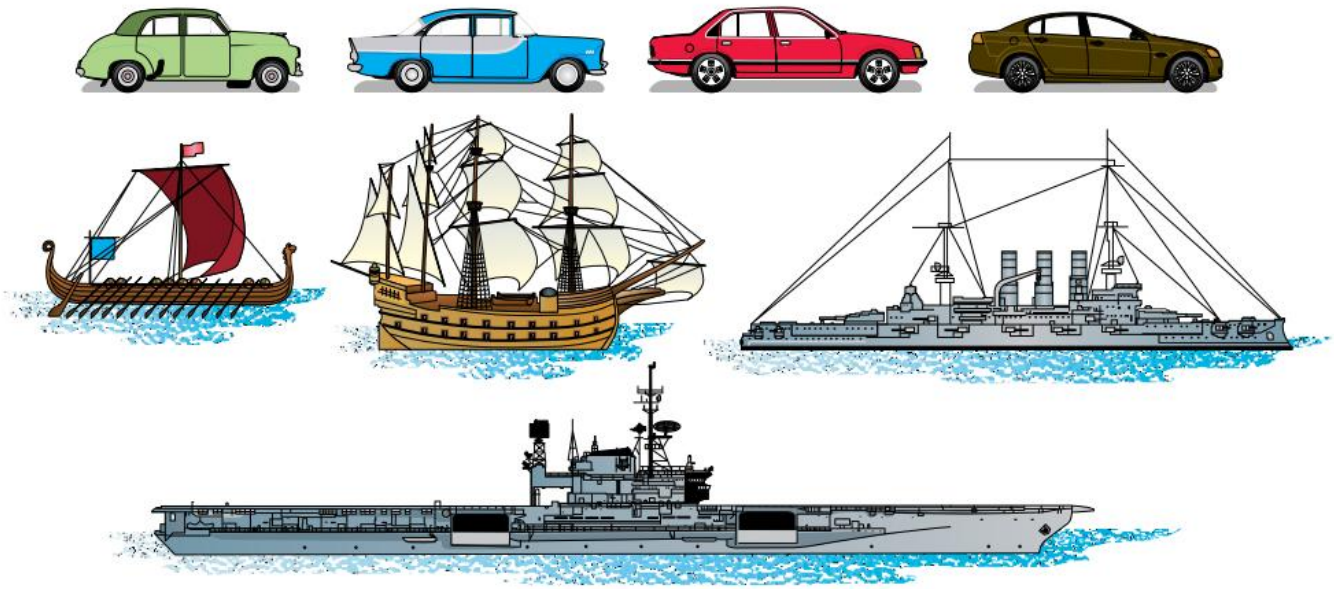
Radiocarbon dating is used for dating organic (once living) objects between 70 000 and 400 years old. From the moment of death, the amount of carbon-14 that is in the body starts to decrease at a constant rate. This means that the amount of carbon left in the artefact provides the archaeologist with an accurate date for the bone, hair, paper, shell or whatever organic matter is being dated.

Uranium-series dating works in a similar way to radiocarbon dating, except that it measures uranium instead of carbon. It is used to date rocks containing limestone, which is often found in caves. This method is able to date artefacts between 500 000 and 50 000 years old and has been used to date rock art and fossilised bones and teeth.

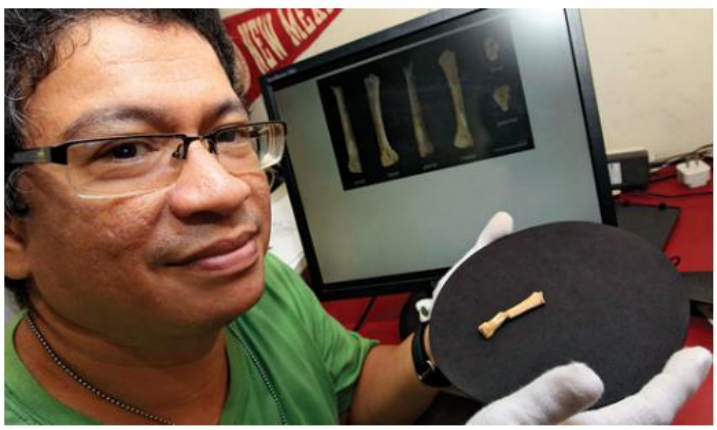
Potassium-argon dating is similar again and it measures the decay of a form of potassium. Amazingly, it can date rocks that are millions of years old. It has been used by archaeologists to date volcanic rock in places such as the Olduvai Gorge in eastern Africa.

Another form of dating objects is thermoluminescence dating. It measures the energy remaining in rock, soil or clay artefacts since they were last exposed to the sun or heat. It is used for inorganic materials (substances that have never been alive), such as pottery. While it is less accurate than radiocarbon dating, it is able to date materials between 200 000 and 40 000 years old.

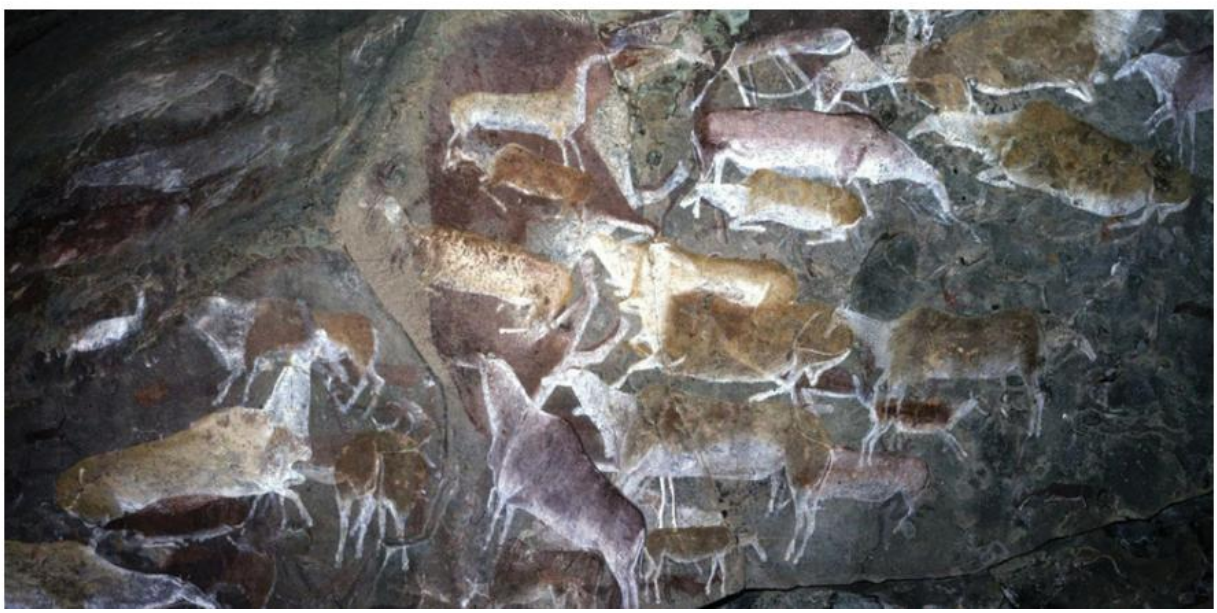
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SOURCE 1.28 Typology—cars and boats

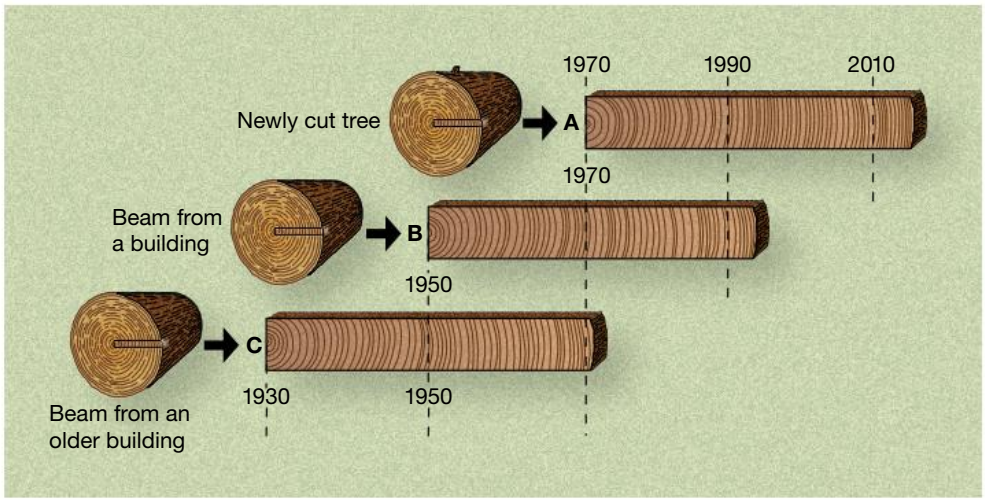


SOURCE 1.29 A 67 000-year-old fossil of a human foot bone discovered in a cave in the northern Philippines near Penablanca in 2007, dated using uranium-series dating



SOURCE 1.30 Rock paintings in the Eland Cave at uKahlamba-Drakensberg in South Africa have been dated using radiocarbon dating and are estimated to have been created up to 4000 years ago

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SOURCE 1.31 Dendrochronology or tree-ring dating

Dendrochronology is used to date wood by examining the rings in the wood. Each year, trees grow a new outer layer of bark and add a 'ring' to the trunk. The thickness of the ring varies depending on how good the climate is in any given year. Archaeologists have developed 'master' sequences of rings that go back thousands of years for different geographic regions, with which samples from wooden artefacts can be compared. Archaeologists compare the rings in wooden artefacts with the master sequence until they find rings that match in thickness, and they can therefore determine the age of the wood.

This technique was developed in the 1920s and is still used today. It can be particularly good for checking the results of radiocarbon dating.

Each of these techniques has its limitations, so it is best to take multiple samples, test all of them in as many different ways as possible and, based on this information, estimate the actual date.

Spotlight

In 2000, one of Japan's top archaeologists was caught burying 'artefacts' at excavation sites so he could then dig them up. A newspaper secretly filmed his reverse archaeology and unmasked the fraudster. Shinichi Fujimura had been nicknamed 'God's hands' because of his ability to find artefacts. From one site alone he admitted to having faked 27 of the 31 pieces unearthed.

ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What are the two main methods used to date an archaeological find?

2 Why can dating by looking at the strata in which the object was found be unreliable?

3 What is typology?

4 List four methods of absolute dating.

5 Look up and write down a definition of 'thermoluminescence'.

6 What is going to be difficult about obtaining samples for thermoluminescence dating?

7 When museums buy items for their collections, they will often pay large sums of money for artefacts. In this context, scientific dating techniques reassure the museum that they are not spending their money on a modern fake. Match the item below with the dating method you would use.

Artefact	Dating method
A ceramic sculpture from Africa	Dendrochronology
An Egyptian mummy	Thermoluminescence
Wooden door panels from Rome	Radiocarbon dating

8 Cut open a Mars bar and look at the layers inside. If each layer equals one year, how old would your Mars bar be if it was a tree?

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Explanation and communication

As the curator of the Museum of Humanity you want visitors to be able to experience the work that archaeologists do in dating artefacts. What are two dating methods that visitors could easily experience? Write in your museum scrapbook how this will work at your museum.

An archaeological mystery: the Iceman

On Thursday 19 September 1991, Erika and Helmut Simon were walking in the Ötztal Alps between Austria and Italy when they decided to take a shortcut. They went off the track and discovered the remains of what has become known as the 'Iceman' in a rocky gully. All that was visible were his head, shoulders and part of his back. The remainder of his body was hidden below the melted water and in the ice. After photographing the corpse, they left to notify the police, assuming that the body was no more than a few years old.

Poor weather delayed the removal of the corpse from the ice until the following Monday. A team led by Rainer Henn of Innsbruck University Institute of Forensic Medicine extracted the corpse from the ice and filmed the process. The film is particularly important as no archaeologist was present. The body, along with numerous items, was taken to the Institute of Forensic Medicine in Innsbruck. The body, which was in remarkably good condition, must have been covered by snow and, subsequently, ice not long after death.

That year and the next, archaeologists excavated the site where the corpse had been found. Excavation at 3210 metres above sea level proved to be challenging. Even when the weather was good, hot-air blowers had to be used to melt the snow so that the gully could be fully examined. Archaeologists established a detailed plan of the site and found items that included leather and hide remnants from the Iceman's kit, his bearskin cap, a section of a longbow, string, pieces of skin, muscle fibres, hair, a fingernail and grasses.



SOURCE 1.32 The Iceman shortly after being excavated in the Ötztal Alps in September 1991

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The first archaeologist to examine the Iceman was Professor Konrad Spindler from the Institute for Ancient and Early History at Innsbruck University. Based on the body and the items that were with it, Spindler estimated that the body was at least 4000 years old. The design of the axe, the blade of which looked like it was from the early Bronze Age, informed his estimate.

Carbon-14 dating was used to analyse the bone and tissue samples to more accurately date the Iceman. Results from four different scientific institutions concluded that the Iceman lived between 3350 and 3100 BCE. Chemical analysis of the blade on the Iceman's axe revealed that it was made of copper between about 4000 and 2200 BCE. Professor Spindler's estimate had been right, with the more scientific dating methods giving greater accuracy.

Clothing

The discovery of the Iceman has provided archaeologists with an understanding of life in the Alps 5000 years ago that they never had before. While only fragments of clothing remain, a lot has been learned from these items.

- **Leggings:** The leggings, made of goat hide, covered the calf and thigh. At the top, two laces joined each leg to the belt, while—near the feet—laces attached to the Iceman's shoes to stop them riding up.
- **Loincloth:** The loincloth was made of thin strips of leather and worn over the belt and leggings. Measuring more than a metre in length and approximately 30 centimetres wide, it was held together with animal sinew (sinew is the tough tissue that connects muscles to bones).
- **Fur cap:** The Iceman's cap resembled a baseball cap without the eye-shade. It was made of strips of fur stitched together. Two leather straps that went under the chin kept the cap in place.
- **Coat:** Only one-third of the coat made of goat hide and stitched together with animal sinews survived. It appears to have been well worn and tears in it have been repaired using grass fibres. The coat, which has an open front and is striped, could have had sleeves but nothing remains of them.
- **Cloak:** Three sections of matting made of plaited grass were found. It has been thought that these could have been remnants of a cloak that had slits for the arms. Because such a garment would not be very useful, some archaeologists have theorised that these pieces were worn over the head as protection from the rain or were part of the Iceman's backpack.
- **Shoes:** The Iceman's shoes have soles made of bearskin and outers made of deerskin, with the fur on the outside. Inside the shoes, grass netting held hay (which served as insulation) in position.
- **Belt and pouch:** The belt, made of calf hide, was long enough to go around the Iceman's waist twice. Attached to the belt was a pouch that contained flint, bone tools and tinder fungus. Tinder fungus is a type of mushroom that catches fire very quickly and is good for starting fires.



SOURCE 1.33 The cap or hood found with the Iceman

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Equipment

The Iceman had many pieces of equipment with him.

- **Axe:** With a yew-wood handle and copper blade, the axe, measuring approximately 60 centimetres long, was bound together with skin.
- **Dagge:** Kept in a scabbard or sheath made of leather and grass cord, the 13-centimetre-long dagger had two cutting edges on its flint blade, which was attached to a handle made from ash wood.
- **Retoucher:** Used for sharpening flint tools, the Iceman's pencil-shaped, 12-centimetre-long retoucher was made from one piece of stag antler driven into a piece of lime branch.
- **Bow:** Made of yew wood and 182 centimetres long, the Iceman's bow, which was broken as archaeologists removed it, appears to not have been fully constructed as there is no sign of a bow string. On the other hand, evidence has been found that he shot arrows, so he must have had a working bow of some kind.
- **Quiver and contents:** The quiver—which was made of hide stitched together and supported by hazelwood rods—contained two completed arrows, 12 partly completed arrow shafts, four tips of stag antlers, two animal sinews and string.
- **Backpack:** Four pieces of hazelwood that joined together into a U-shaped rod were found along with two short boards. Grass string held together these pieces and what was most likely a fur sack.
- **Net:** Fragments of the grass net remain. It would have been suitable for catching birds or fish.
- **Containers:** The Iceman had two cylindrical, pot-shaped containers made of birch bark. One contained maple leaves, plant remains and charcoal, while the other was empty.
- **First-aid kit:** Birch fungus, used for treating minor wounds and stomach ache, was threaded onto two fur strips. The fur strips may have been attached to his wrists or clothing for safekeeping.



SOURCE 1.34 The dagger and scabbard found with the Iceman, now on display at the South Tyrol Museum of Archaeology, Bolzano, Italy

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Source usefulness analysis

All sources are useful—they tell us something about a period of history. To decide how useful a source is, we need to ask: what information can we learn from the source? Think about what the source can tell us about social customs, skills possessed by the society, resources that were available, events that were occurring and different perspectives on those events.

Activity

How are sources 1.33 and 1.34 useful to a historian studying everyday life in the Bronze Age? Complete a source usefulness analysis for sources 1.33 and 1.34.

Explanation and communication: paragraph writing

Writing a paragraph is an important skill. There are four steps to writing a good paragraph.

1. Write a topic sentence to introduce the paragraph. A topic sentence tells the reader what the paragraph is about.
2. Write a sentence or two to explain the point you want to make.
3. Provide your evidence for the point you want to make. Evidence is examples of sources or facts that support your point.
4. Write a sentence to conclude your paragraph.

Activity

Using the text on page 31 and source 1.34, write a paragraph to explain how the Iceman would have hunted for his food.

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How was the Iceman discovered?
2. How did the belief that the body was recently dead affect the recovery?
3. Why did Konrad Spindler conclude that the body was 4000 years old?
4. How were Konrad Spindler's conclusions confirmed?
5. What materials was the Iceman's clothing made from?
6. What materials was the Iceman's equipment made from?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 1.32. What might concern an archaeologist about the way the Iceman's body was recovered?
2. Look at source 1.33. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 1.33.

Research

Go to your digital support weblinks to find out how the Iceman and his relics were restored.

Who was the Iceman?

In 1994, Spindler decided that the Iceman had most likely been a shepherd in the Val Venosta region of northern Italy. This conclusion was based on the Iceman's age, health, clothing, equipment and place of death. He was old enough to be a shepherd and, apart from some recent injuries, appeared to be healthy. His clothing would have kept him warm even when it was cold, and his equipment would have allowed him to survive for a considerable period of time without returning to his village. Val Venosta is only 20 kilometres from where he was found, and the area in which he was found was commonly used for grazing animals.

When the Iceman was first found, some archaeologists suggested that he could have been a metal prospector. Although he carried an axe, his equipment did not seem to be suitable for prospecting. Some people thought he could have been a hunter but this theory does not take into consideration the incomplete and damaged state of some of his equipment.

Why did the Iceman die?

Spindler initially thought that the Iceman had been caught in a storm and that this is what had led to his death. After X-rays and CT scans appeared to reveal that several of his ribs were broken, Spindler developed his theory to explain how this had happened. Spindler concluded

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SOURCE 1.35
A statue representing the Iceman displayed at the Museum of Archaeology, Bolzano in February 2011, created by Dutch experts and based on 3-D images of the mummy's skeleton as well as the latest forensic technology

that, on returning to his village with his flock, the Iceman had come under attack. Whether the attack was from people within the village or an external enemy was unclear. The Iceman was able to escape from his attackers and flee to the mountains. Exhausted and injured, he stopped to rest in the gully but the cold conditions led to him developing hypothermia, from which he died.

Updated evidence

1998

Peter Vanezis, a forensic pathologist, examined the contents of the Iceman's intestines and found hop hornbean pollen. The pollen was very well preserved. Vanezis concluded that this indicated the pollen had been eaten just before the Iceman died. As the hop hornbean only flowers between March and June, the Iceman must therefore have died in the Northern Hemisphere spring.

June 2001

An X-ray revealed a shadow in the shape of an arrow near the left shoulder. This turned out to be a flint arrowhead. A small skin wound on the left side of the Iceman's back was found and confirmed that he had been shot in the back with an arrow which he had then pulled out. While the arrow did not puncture his lungs, it would have severed a major blood vessel and resulted in heavy bleeding. It appeared that he had the strength to reach the top of the mountain before the loss of blood killed him.

August 2003

Dr Tom Loy, with his team from the University of Queensland's Institute of Molecular Bioscience, discovered new evidence that suggested the Iceman had been in a fight with a number of people before he died. Loy took blood samples from the Iceman, his knife, coat and axe and ran them through a DNA sequencer. The DNA analysis revealed five different DNA sequences—one belonging to the Iceman's blood, a different sequence on the knife blade, two different sequences on one arrow and a fifth sequence on his coat. Loy has suggested that the Iceman shot two of his attackers, possibly killing them, and retrieved his arrow on both occasions. In addition to this, Loy and his team revealed that the Iceman had significant gashes on his right hand, wrists and rib cage that appear to be defensive wounds (defensive wounds are made when someone tries to protect themself against an attack).

June 2007

Researchers from the University of Zurich used a CT scanner to get a clear image of the wound the Iceman had received to his left shoulder. The scan revealed the exact path of the arrow and the damage that was done. The arrow tore a hole in an artery below his left collarbone that caused him to lose a lot of blood, particularly in his chest cavity. This caused him to go into shock and suffer a heart attack.

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January 2009

Researchers from Ludwig Maximilian University in Munich published their findings that concluded the Iceman was attacked at least twice during his final days of life. They had worked out that the wounds on his hand were older. A few days later, he sustained new wounds on his back. One of these wounds came from the arrow that pierced the back of his left shoulder and the other was bruising from a blunt object.

> Although the ice mummy has already been studied at great length, there are still new results to be gleaned. The crime surrounding Ötzi [the Iceman] is as thrilling as ever!

SOURCE 1.36 *Intensive Care Medicine*, vol. 35 (2009)

Comprehension: creating a timeline



It is very important that as students of history we understand the chronology or the timeline of events of the period we are studying. Developing a sequence of events can help us to make connections between the details that lead up to a particular point in history. This can be applied to a large event such as a war, or chart something such as the changing design of the motor car.

Timelines are visual tools that help us to see these connections. They can be as detailed or as brief as required by the user.

Activity

Draw a timeline of archaeological discovery and new evidence about the Iceman, from 1991 to 2009 CE.

ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What conclusions could you make about the Iceman's lifestyle based on the clothing and equipment that was found with him?
2. What did Spindler believe had been the cause of the Iceman's death?
3. What scientific equipment was used by researchers to help them make new discoveries about the Iceman?
4. How did the conclusions reached by researchers at Ludwig Maximilian University differ from Konrad Spindler's conclusions?

Research



Research into the Iceman is still continuing. Go to your digital support for weblinks to recent discoveries about the iceman.

Explanation and communication



Write a news article for the museum newsletter informing the public about one of the updates to the evidence that has occurred. Your article should not only inform the reader about the new discovery, but also explain how the discovery has added to what was previously known about the Iceman.

The nature of the sources for Ancient Australia

> If the time scale of human occupation of Australia were represented by one hour on a clock, Aboriginal society should occupy over fifty-nine and a half minutes, European society less than half a minute.

SOURCE 1.37 Josephine Flood, *Archaeology of the Dreamtime: The Story of Prehistoric Australia and Its People* (1983)

There are three main sources of knowledge about Ancient Australia: archaeological evidence, stories that have been passed down from generation to generation and rock art. Aboriginal culture in Australia began more than 40 000 years ago in the Ice Age of the Pleistocene era. This period stretches from two million years ago to 10 000 years ago. There are thousands of known Aboriginal sites in Australia that provide archaeologists with information about Ancient Australia.

Occupation sites

These are sites where Aboriginal people lived, such as camp sites, caves and rock shelters. Camp sites, which range enormously in size, can usually be dated using the charcoal found in hearths or fireplaces. Archaeologists study the artefacts

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that are found at these sites, such as stone tools and food remains, to determine how the site was used. Caves and rock shelters were often used for camping and these sites are particularly well preserved as they have been somewhat sheltered from the natural elements. Middens, often found at occupation sites, are similar to rubbish dumps and usually contain primarily shells. Located along the coast and next to inland lakes and rivers, they provide archaeologists with information about what Aboriginal people ate. While the majority of what is deposited in middens is shellfish, they also contain bone, stone and charcoal.



SOURCE 1.38 An ancient Aboriginal shell midden on a coastal sand dune in South Australia

Burial sites

Burial sites are important for archaeologists. Large burial sites allow archaeologists to find out information about the gender, age, diet and health of the people in the community, as well as about their social customs. Aboriginal people buried their dead in a variety of ways. Most often they were buried in the ground but sometimes they were placed in caves or a rock crevice.

Most people today are horrified by the idea of collecting other people's bones. This has not always been the case. Previously, the skeletons of thousands of Aboriginal people were taken by European collectors, who were interested in studying the bones of people from different cultures, especially those of Aboriginal peoples whom they believed to be 'primitive humans'. Many Aboriginal skeletons were put into museums and private collections both in Australia and overseas. Over the last 25 years, many of these collections have been returned to the Aboriginal community, who for many years had been campaigning for their return. Aboriginal people were justifiably outraged that their ancestors' remains had been stolen from them and 'put on display'.

Oral traditions

Much of the history of Ancient Australia has been preserved in **oral tradition**. This is often the case with societies where most people do not read or write. Poems, hymns, sayings and stories are handed down from one generation to the next by word-of-mouth. In the case of Ancient Australia, archaeology has confirmed much of what is contained in stories of the Dreaming.

Rock art

Aboriginal rock art, which includes both drawings, paintings and rock engraving, is among the oldest rock art in the world. Drawings were chalked onto the rock using dry pigments, while paintings were made with wet pigments, applied to the rock with fingers, stencilling or a brush that was no more than a chewed stick. Engravings, which are less common, were created by etching into the rock by scraping or hammering. This process in itself provides insight into the tools that Aboriginal people had available to them.

Rock art provides information about how Aboriginal people understood both their natural and spiritual world. Most rock art, like the wall of about 1500 paintings in north-west Arnhem Land, tells a story, such as the story of Aboriginal contact with outsiders. Rock art also provides interesting clues to past animal and plant species. A depiction of eight roosting flying foxes on a thin branch at Anbangbang Rock Shelter provides us with a glimpse of a species that is likely to have existed in Australia more than 17 500 years ago. There are no flying foxes in modern Australia that resemble these images.

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SOURCE 1.39 Namondjok, a Creation Ancestor (centre) with Namarrgon, the Lightning Man (right) and Barrginj, Namondjok's wife (lower left), at Anbangbang gallery at Nourlangie, Kakadu National Park. There are many different versions of Namondjok's story. While this painting is extremely old (18 000–4000 BCE), it has been repeatedly repainted over the centuries (most recently in 1964) and is clearly visible today.

Analysing images: The 5Ws (image)

When analysing images, we need to answer the following questions known as the 5Ws:

Who is the artist?—When it comes to the Ancient World, we usually know very little about individual artists, but we generally know their culture of origin.

What is the source?—Is it a drawing, a painting, a mosaic, a bas-relief or a tapestry? How was it made?

When was the source created?

Where was the source created?

Why was the source created?—To record an event? For religious reasons? To honour an important person?

Activity

Look at source 1.39. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 1.39.

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What are the three main sources of knowledge we have about Ancient Australia?
2. What is an occupation site?
3. What artefacts can be found at occupation sites?
4. What do these artefacts tell us about Aboriginal life in Ancient Australia?
5. What do ancient burial sites tell archaeologists about Aboriginal life?
6. How was rock art made?
7. What important information can be learned from Aboriginal rock art?

Perspectives

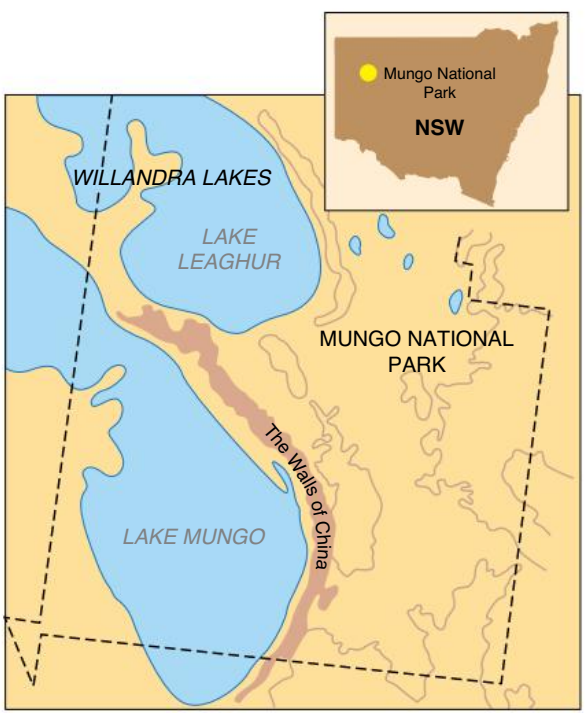
1. Why did European collectors put the bones of Aboriginal people in museums?
2. Why did Aboriginal peoples want the remains returned?

Research

Using the internet or a newspaper archive, find out what Aboriginal remains are still held by museums around the world.

An Ancient Australian Site: Lake Mungo

Lake Mungo is part of the Willandra Lakes region in the far west of southern New South Wales. It is here that some of the earliest evidence of Aboriginal people in Australia has been discovered. While this region has been dry for the last 20 000 years, for 30 000 years before this, it



SOURCE 1.40 Map showing Lake Mungo National Park in western NSW

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SOURCE 1.41 Sand dunes at present-day Lake Mungo

contained 1000 square kilometres of fresh water. Lake Mungo, which was 20 kilometres long, 10 kilometres wide and 15 metres deep, is where most archaeological research has taken place.

In 1968, geologist Jim Bowler from the Australian National University found a small midden at Lake Mungo containing mussel shells and stone artefacts. Using radiocarbon dating, the shells were dated as being between 34 000 and 31 500 years old. Bowler noticed some bones sticking out from a dune but decided to leave them for a future archaeological dig. The next year a team from the Australian National University returned to the site and discovered human bones, 200 stone tools, and 15 patches of black deposit, which were thought to be the remains of camp-site fireplaces.

The bones, which were encrusted in a concrete-like hard substance, were broken into fragments. When the team examined them, they found that the bones had belonged to a young adult woman, now known as Mungo Lady or Mungo I, who was cremated beside the lake before her burnt skeleton was smashed into small pieces. Optically-Stimulated-Thermoluminescence dating (a new dating process which measures crystals in minerals, such as calcium in bone) was performed in 2003 on Mungo Lady. This revealed that Mungo Lady had died approximately 40 000–42 000 years ago. This means that it is the oldest evidence of cremation in the world.

In 1974, Jim Bowler discovered the bones of another Aboriginal person, only this time it was a whole skeleton. The bones were those of a tall man who has become known as Mungo Man or Mungo II. Pink stains on the bones and surrounding sands indicated that ochre powder had been scattered over the body during burial. Ochre does not occur naturally in the area, so it is thought to have been brought there by trade. The burial of Mungo Man has been estimated to have taken place around 40 000–42 000 BCE which makes his the oldest skeleton found in Australia.

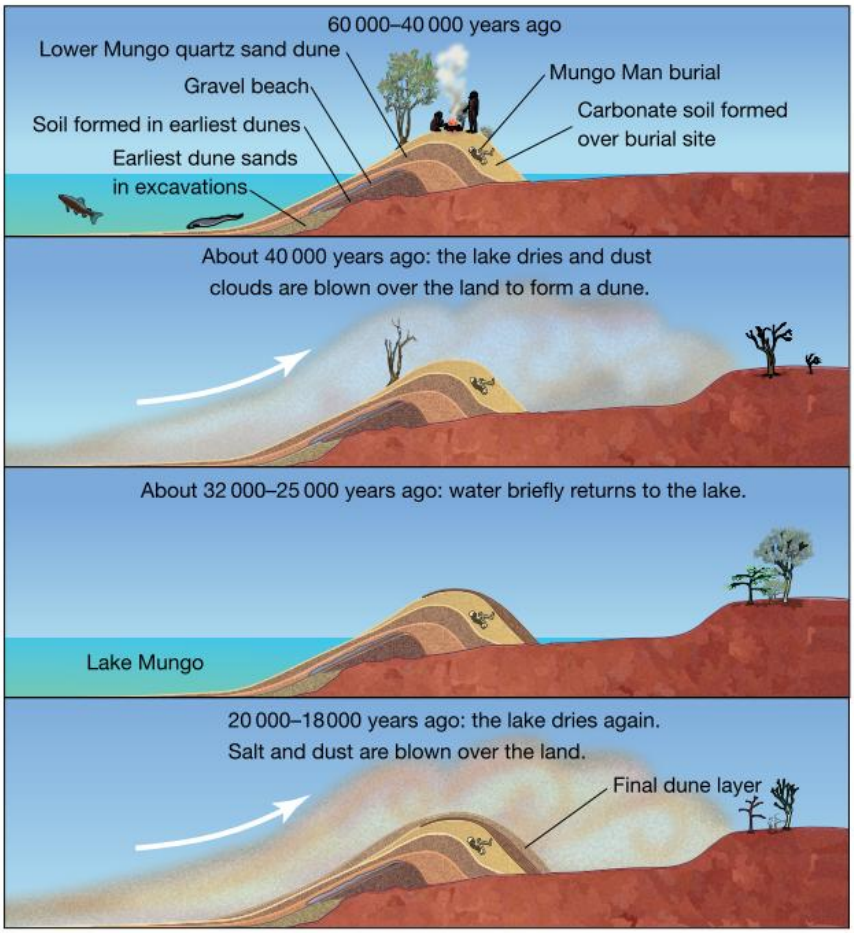
At present, archaeologists believe that there were humans living at the site at least 50 000 years ago, thanks to the discovery of stone tools, estimated to be 50 000 years old. In 2003 CE, the ancient footprints of 25 individuals, including a child, were found in the Willandra Lakes area. The footprints have been dated to 18 000 BCE. They are the largest collection of Pleistocene-era footprints in the world.

Aside from its obvious value to the study of ancient human societies, the site is of enormous significance to the Barkindji, Nyiampaa and Mutthi Mutthi peoples of the region. Representatives of these peoples are now partners with the state government of New South Wales and take part in the further investigation of the site and management of the Mungo National Park.



SOURCE 1.42 Stone and bone tools found at Lake Mungo

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SOURCE 1.43
Diagram showing how the land has changed at Lake Mungo since the Pleistocene era



SOURCE 1.44 Archaeologists cleaning the ancient footprints at Lake Willandra, 2003

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What was significant about Mungo Lady?
2. What was significant about Mungo Man?
3. What do the stone tools suggest about Aboriginal occupation in Australia?
4. What else was found at Lake Mungo in 2003? Why was this find significant?
5. For which groups of people were the discoveries at Lake Mungo significant?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 1.42. How is it useful to a historian studying human society in the Pleistocene era? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 1.42.

Explanation and communication

Write a proposal for a combined science and history excursion to Lake Mungo. What could students see, learn about and experience? You may like to conduct some extra research into the Lake Mungo National Park. Go to your digital support for some suggested websites.

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Conserving the past

To ensure that both present and future generations are able to learn from the remains of the past, artefacts need to be conserved. **Conservation** protects the remains of the past by working out from what the artefact is made, what is causing it to deteriorate and what can be done to slow the deterioration down.

The things that have been passed down to us are often said to be our **heritage**. Our heritage helps us to understand our place in a larger story, whether it be the story of our family, community, nation or world. For many people, this contributes to their understanding of who they are. Stories, special possessions, photos, traditions and sayings are what often make up a family's heritage. By making places of exceptional natural or cultural value into National Heritage sites or World Heritage sites, we try to make sure that they will be protected for future generations.

Threats to ancient sites and artefacts

Ancient sites around the world are being destroyed daily by pollution and tourism. The carvings on the Parthenon in Athens and the face of the Sphinx in Egypt are disappearing as chemicals from the polluted air eat away at these buildings and monuments. In Egypt, the rising sewage is also causing damage as it soaks up into monuments. This is combined with the damage from the trampling feet of tourists and the moisture from their breath that fills the tombs through which they walk.

Natural disasters, theft and conflict have also led to the destruction of many sites. In 1980, a major earthquake in Italy caused severe damage to Pompeii. In 2001, two large statues of Buddha, carved into the cliffs at Bamiyan in Afghanistan in the 3rd and 4th centuries CE, were destroyed with anti-aircraft guns. This was part of an attempt by the Taliban to erase any evidence of other religions from Afghanistan. In 2003, looters ransacked Iraq's National Museum in Baghdad and stole 15 000 artefacts.



SOURCE 1.45 The Parthenon, a temple in the Athenian Acropolis, is a World Heritage site



SOURCE 1.46 A damaged fresco in the House of the Ancient Hunt at Pompeii, a World Heritage site in Italy

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SOURCE 1.47 Iraqi National Museum Deputy Director Mushin Hasan holds his head in his hands as he sits with destroyed artefacts in Baghdad, Iraq, 13 April 2003



SOURCE 1.48 One of the two enormous statues of the Buddha carved into sandstone cliffs at Bamiyan that were destroyed in March 2001 by the Taliban



SOURCE 1.49 Afghan Taliban militia officials stand in front of what had been the taller Buddha statue—it took 20 days to destroy it using dynamite, rockets and tank shells

Conserving ancient sites and artefacts

Safeguarding ancient sites and artefacts is a shared responsibility that belongs to archaeologists, local authorities, museums and the international community. Archaeologists have a responsibility to think ahead and to ensure that what they dig up will be able to be kept safe.

One of the main places where artefacts are usually conserved is in museums. The British Museum is one museum that is famous for the ancient artefacts it houses. Included in its collection are the Elgin Marbles. The Elgin Marbles are a collection of some of the marble sculptures from the Parthenon in Athens. They were taken by Lord Elgin, a Scottish diplomat,

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SOURCE 1.50 The Elgin Marbles Hall at the British Museum



SOURCE 1.51 The temples of Abu Simbel in Egypt as they begin the move to a new site on 1 January 1963

with the permission of the Ottoman Empire which was ruling Greece at the time. The sculptures taken by Elgin are without doubt in better condition than the sculptures that remain in Greece. Despite this, there is much debate over whether the British Museum should return these and other artefacts to the countries from which they were taken. Greece now has a special Acropolis Museum to house the Elgin Marbles in a suitable manner if they are ever returned.

As decisions are made about the conservation of ancient sites and artefacts, a number of difficult problems are often faced. There is often very real tension as to whether or not to pursue conservation or preservation. Preservation goes one step further than conservation by aiming to totally protect a site or artefact from harm. This could involve simply putting up a plastic barrier or going so far as shutting off an entire section of a site. While shutting off a section of a site might help to slow down deterioration, it also means that people are no longer able to enjoy the site.

Restoration is another process that creates problems. Restoring an artefact so that it more closely resembles its original state can improve its visual attractiveness, but the restoration process often requires some amount of guesswork as to what the original looked like. Restorers also need to be very careful with their choice of materials to restore an artefact. In some cases, attempted restoration has resulted in severe damage to the artefact, because the restoration process has unintentionally caused further deterioration.

Virtual museums

Since the early 1990s, virtual museums have become increasingly common. Most virtual museums give visitors the opportunity to view online artefacts that are also housed in a physical museum. There are also some virtual museums, such as the International Museum of Women, that only exist online.

The quality of virtual museums ranges tremendously. The most sophisticated allow the user to travel as an avatar through a virtual museum space that replicates the physical museum. Artefacts are presented in three dimensions, allow viewers to zoom in on them and are easily searchable. More people visit high-quality virtual museums than visit physical museums, and some people think visiting virtual museums is better than visiting physical museums.

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Spotlight

Some examples of virtual museum exhibitions include the following. Links for each museum are found on your digital support.

- At the Roman Open-Air Museum Hechingen-Stein, you can explore an Ancient Roman villa, dating from between the 1st and 3rd centuries CE.
- The Global Egyptian Museum houses over 1300 artefacts from 16 museums throughout the world.
- Melbourne Museum's A Day in Pompeii allows virtual visitors to view and learn about some of the key artefacts from a physical exhibition that took place in 2009.
- Google Art Project brings together hundreds of artworks from 17 art museums, including the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City, the Tate Museum in London, the Palace of Versailles, near Paris, and the State Hermitage Museum in St Petersburg in Russia.
- The Museum of Iraq has recovered some artefacts, though many are still missing. The museum has been rebuilt and the virtual museum allows many more people to visit its collection.

Saving the Temples of Abu Simbel

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (Unesco) was formed in 1945 at the end of World War II. Unesco's aim is to improve education standards in the world, promote scientific cooperation and help preserve world culture. One of Unesco's early activities in preserving world culture was the campaign to rescue the Abu Simbel temples in Egypt, launched in 1960. The temples, located on the bank of Lake Nasser, were constructed more than 3000 years ago by Pharaoh Ramesses II. The temples were under threat as construction began on the High Dam at Aswan. If nothing was done to protect them, then the temples would have been submerged under water. An international team of experts came together under the banner of Unesco and worked together to save the temples. This was done by cutting the temples into blocks and transporting them to a new location where they were put back together again. The relocation took from 1963 to 1968 to complete.

In 1972, an international treaty called the Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage was adopted by Unesco. This has led to 705 sites being listed as World Heritage Sites because they have outstanding universal cultural value. The temples at Abu Simbel were included on the list in 1979.

Research: asking questions to inform a historical inquiry

When you have a topic you need to research, it can be helpful to think about what questions you should ask.

1. Ask 5Ws-style questions that start with 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where' and 'why'.
2. 'How' is another useful way to start a question.
3. Then continue with 'Socratic questions'—for every answer you find, ask 'why'.

Activity

Write a list of six questions you could ask to find out more about the preservation and conservation of the temples at Abu Simbel.

ACTIVITY 15

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Why is it important to conserve the past?
2. List five factors that threaten ancient sites.
3. What are the Elgin Marbles?
4. Why does restoration sometimes create problems?
5. What are the advantages of virtual museums?
6. What is UNESCO?
7. Why were the Abu Simbel temples under threat?
8. How did UNESCO save the Abu Simbel Temples?

Perspective

1. Why does the British Museum want to keep the Elgin Marbles?
2. Why does the Greek government want them returned?

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Research

1 Go to your digital support weblinks to read the original document about the decision to include the temples of Abu Simbel on the World Heritage List in 1979. Using this document, source 1.51, the text and any additional research, find the answers to your questions.

2 Write two or three paragraphs to describe the preservation and conservation of the temples at Abu Simbel.

Explanation and communication: how to create a bibliography

A bibliography—a list of all the sources you have consulted—is a very important tool and something that is good to include anytime we produce a piece of research. Creating a bibliography is helpful for us to keep track of sources we have used when we research a particular topic. It lets others know where we have found our information should they want further information about what we have written. Bibliographies are also important as they recognise the people who have created the information in the first place.

Depending on what type of source we are using, there are different ways to acknowledge a source in a bibliography.

- Books: Author's last name, Author's first name, *Book Title (in italics)*, Publishing company, City of publication, year of publication, page numbers (using the abbreviations 'p.' for one page or 'pp.' for more than one page).

  Ehrenberg, Victor, *From Solon to Socrates*, Methuen & Co Ltd, London, 1968.

- Articles from magazines and newspapers: Author's last name, Author's first name (if there is an author). 'Article Title (in quotation marks)'. *Magazine or Newspaper Title (in italics)*, day (for newspapers), Month and year of publication, the page or pages that the article was on (using the abbreviations 'p.' for one page or 'pp.' for more than one page).

  Moses, Asher. 'Aussie Desktop Archaeologist's Major Saudi Sighting'. *Sydney Morning Herald*, 7 February 2011, p. 8.

- Websites: Author's last name, Author's first name (if there is an author). 'Title of the page (in quotation marks)' (if the website is divided into multiple pages). The overall title of the website (usually the name of an organisation). The word 'Viewed' with the day, Month and year you looked at the site, <the full URL in angle brackets (if the URL contains 'www', it is acceptable to leave out the 'http://' and just start at 'www')>.

  'Clothing in Ancient Greece'. Wikipedia. Viewed 30 November 2011, <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clothing_in_ancient_Greece>.

  'The Colosseum: Building the Arena of Death'. BBC: History. Viewed 30 November 2011, <www.bbc.co.uk/history/ancient/romans/launch_ani_colosseum.shtml>.

Once you have all your information for your bibliography, arrange in alphabetical order, using the first word in each entry, which will usually be either the author's surname or the title of a website page.

Activity

1 Choose one book, one newspaper or magazine article and one website, and format them just like the examples above.

2 Complete the bibliography by arranging the sources in alphabetical order.

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History challenges

Archaeological discovery: TV news report

Select an archaeological find that you have read about in this chapter that particularly interests you. Using filmmaking software or an online tool, create a TV news report about the discovery as a multimedia exhibition to be played in the Museum of Humanity. The news story should answer these questions:

- What has been found?
- When was it found?
- Where was it found?
- How was it found?
- Who made the find?
- Why is the find significant?

Exhibition design

1. Use a sketching program or draw by hand the layout or floor plan of your 'Investigating the Ancient Past' gallery. Add to your museum scrapbook.
2. For your gallery, create a school-holiday program activity that teaches students aged seven to 10 about a topic covered in this chapter. Add to your museum scrapbook.
3. Create five exhibits for the 'Investigating the Ancient Past' gallery on the following themes and add to your museum scrapbook:
   - **a** an archaeological mystery
   - **b** an archaeological hoax
   - **c** methods of dating objects
   - **d** primary sources
   - **e** conserving the ancient past.

Digging up rubbish

Wearing a pair of gloves, carefully remove the contents of a classroom or corridor bin. Keep an accurate record of the order in which items are removed from the bin. Consider the following questions and then, based on your answers to the questions, prepare a written report about your discoveries.

- What item has been in the bin the longest time?
- What item has been in the bin the shortest time?
- What can we learn about the students (for example, year level, gender, diet) who have been around the bin based on the rubbish in the bin?

The challenge of marine archaeology

Archaeologists work not only on land but also under water. Research how marine archaeologists work and draw up a table comparing the similarities and differences between land-based archaeology and underwater archaeology.

Debate

You have decided to hold a debate at the opening of the Museum of Humanity. The topic is: '"Finders, keepers" is fair in the world of archaeology'.

Create point-form notes in your museum scrapbook to support this topic. Create another set of point-form notes that do not support the topic. Discuss with your class.

Is this archaeology?

In a search engine, search for '1985 Pepsi Commercial—Archaeology'. View the commercial. Discuss what is accurate or inaccurate about the character of the archaeologist portrayed in this TV advertisement.

Time detective: Teamchester fields

Search for 'Teamchester fields' to find an interactive online game. You have just three days to unearth the lost story of Teamchester before the developers move in.

Hunt the ancestor

Play this interactive game to rescue a prehistoric burial from destruction. Experience the realities of being an archaeologist by playing the interactive game (weblink available through your digital support).

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Chapter 2

An overview of the Ancient World



A sculpture of Medusa's head at the Roman city of Leptis Magna, Libya (c. 200 CE)

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter you will gain an overview of:

- the theory that people moved out of Africa around 60 000 years ago and migrated to other parts of the world
- the evidence for the emergence and establishment of ancient societies, including art, iconography, writing, tools and pottery
- key features of ancient societies (farming, trade, social classes, religion, rule of law).

NSW History K–10 Syllabus © Board of Studies NSW for and on behalf of the Crown in right of the State of New South Wales, 2012

Inquiry questions

1. How can we trace the migration of humans across the world?
2. How did our ancient ancestors express themselves artistically?
3. What can historical evidence tell us about the development of human societies from small tribes to mighty empires?
4. Where and when did the first societies emerge, and what evidence do we have of their interaction?
5. What were the similarities and differences between the religions and philosophies that emerged in the Ancient World?

Introduction

The ABC of our profession is to avoid these large abstract terms in order to try to discover behind them the only concrete realities, which are human beings.

Marc Bloch, French historian

THE ANCIENT WORLD covers an enormous period of human history. It begins with the emergence of anatomically modern humans in Africa almost 150 000 years ago. These people eventually moved to other parts of the world and colonised Australia around 50 000–60 000 BCE. Thirty thousand years later, almost every landmass on the planet was home to small groups of hunter-gatherers. These groups hunted wild animals and gathered fruit, seeds, nuts and other types of food to eat.

Eventually hunter-gatherers learned how to grow crops and raise animals. They were the world's first farmers. Settlements started to grow and societies became more complex. The first societies emerged along rivers that provided water for drinking and irrigating crops. These societies had many things in common: rich and powerful rulers, technology such as metal tools, monumental architecture and sophisticated belief systems.

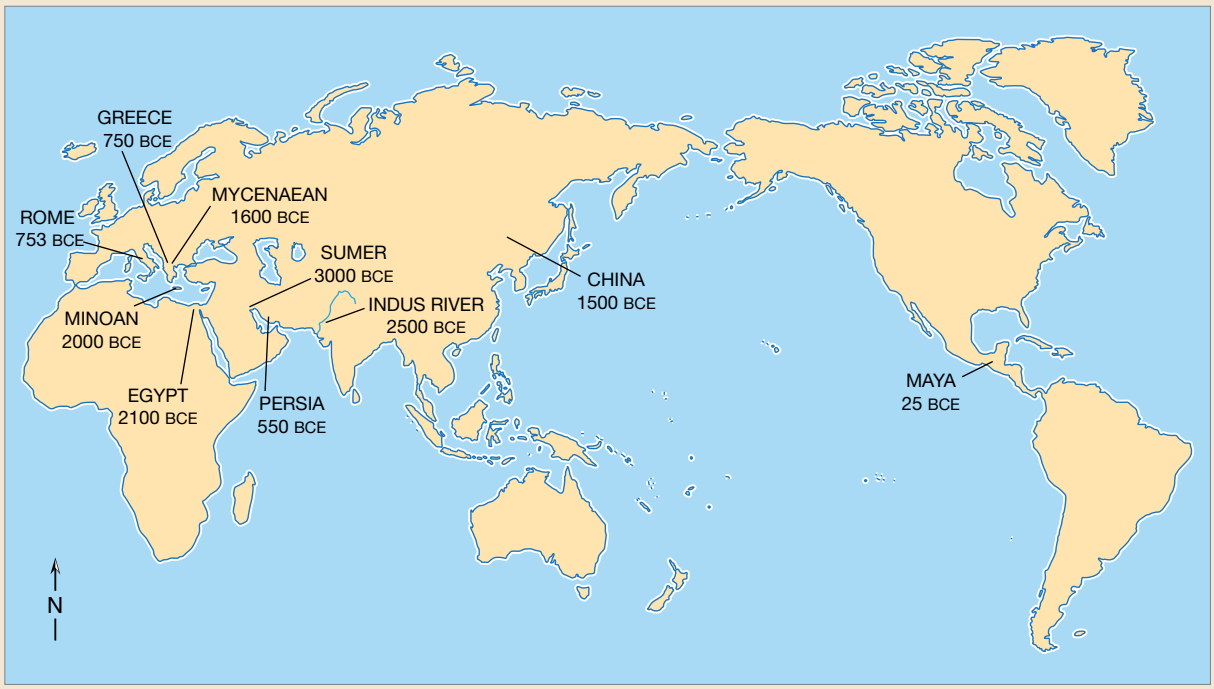
While these societies have long since disappeared, they left behind evidence of their greatness. These artefacts teach us about how societies develop and what it was like to live in the Ancient World. They also remind us that the Modern World can trace its roots back to people who lived thousands of years ago.

KEY TERMS

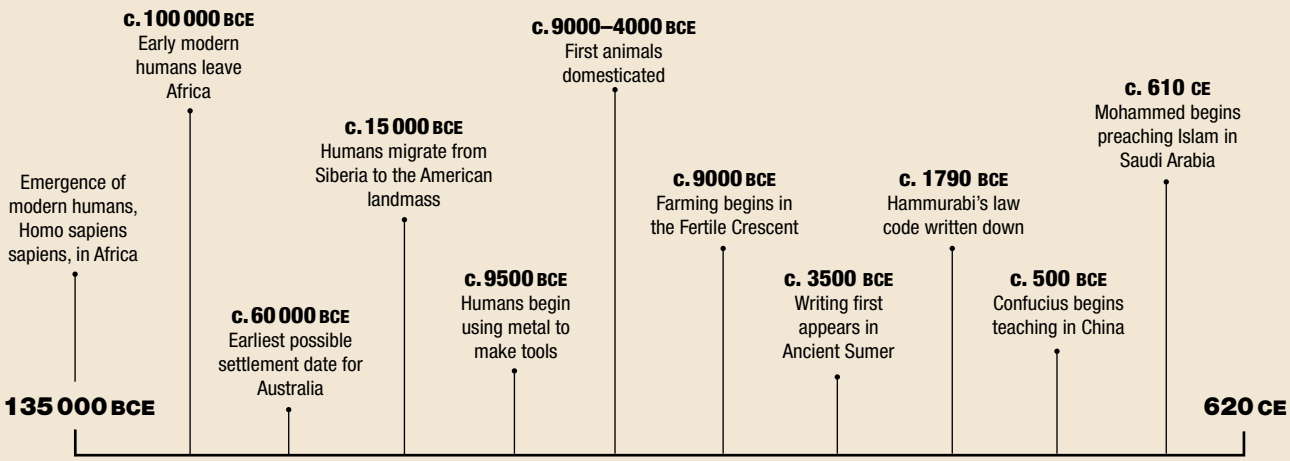
agriculture	growing crops and raising domesticated animals
Assyria	a Mesopotamian kingdom that flourished c. 2400–605 BCE
Buddhism	the religion/philosophy started by Siddhartha Gautama in India about 2500 years ago
domestication	taming a wild plant or animal so that it is useful to humans
Homo sapiens sapiens	the species of human beings that evolved in Africa c. 135 000 years ago; we belong to this species
hunter-gatherers	people who find food by hunting for animals and gathering fruit, berries, seeds and other edible parts of plants
Judaism	the religion of the Jewish people that emerged in modern-day Israel more than 3000 years ago
Mesopotamia	an ancient region of south-western Asia (in present-day Iraq)
metallurgy	using metal to make tools and other objects
Paleolithic	a period when modern humans and human ancestors used stone tools, from 2.6 million to 10 000 BCE.
prehistory	the period of human history before the invention of writing in c. 3500 BCE
primates	the order of animals that includes lemurs, monkeys, gorillas, chimpanzees, orangutans and human beings
selective breeding	allowing only certain animals with desirable characteristics to breed
Sumer	a Mesopotamian kingdom that flourished in c. 4000–2270 BCE and 2100–2000 BCE

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Where and when ancient societies emerged



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about the Ancient World.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down the questions you have about the Ancient World.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

How and when did humans populate the Earth?

Human beings now occupy every continent on the planet. From the deserts of northern Africa to the jungles of South America, people have adapted to varied and often dangerous environments. Humans did not just survive; we thrived. We have even established permanent bases in the freezing temperatures of Antarctica.

You might think that populating the planet happened fairly recently, perhaps even in the last few centuries. Actually, except for Antarctica, Madagascar, New Zealand and some tiny islands in the Pacific, people had settled most of the Earth's land surface by c. 10 000 BCE.

The story of humanity begins in Africa. Our earliest ancestors, *Australopithecus* (southern ape), evolved here from **primates** around 3.5 million years ago. Our ancestors continued to evolve until modern humans emerged in central Africa around 150 000 years ago. Anthropologists have labelled this species **Homo sapiens sapiens**, which means 'very wise man'. This is the species to which we belong. Human history, as we understand it, began with the emergence of Homo sapiens sapiens. The study of human activity before the invention of writing (c. 3500 BCE) is called **prehistory**.

Spotlight

One of the oldest skeletons ever found belonged to a female *Australopithecus*. It was discovered in Hadar, Ethiopia in 1974 and she was just 91 centimetres tall. She was nicknamed 'Lucy' after a song by the Beatles that was playing in the anthropologists' camp when she was unearthed. Lucy probably lived about 3.2 million years ago.

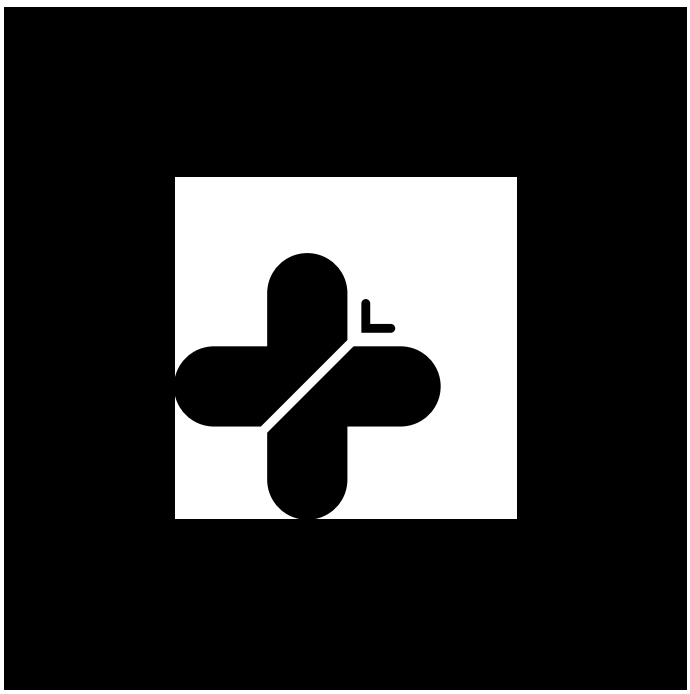


SOURCE 2.1 Lucy's incomplete skeleton at the Museum of Ethiopia

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Bring Lucy to life in your own classroom or home!

1 Connect and turn on your webcam.
2 Place this page of the book on a flat surface or hold it flat, with the square marker in view of your webcam.
3 Go to your digital support and watch Lucy come alive.



Out of Africa

Homo sapiens sapiens migrated from Africa around 100 000 BCE. By 90 000 BCE, their descendants were living in caves in **Mesopotamia**. Thirty thousand years later, Homo sapiens sapiens had moved across the Middle East into India and settled in South-East Asia. The people who settled here soon made seaworthy boats. No evidence of these vessels remain, but they were probably hollowed-out logs or rafts. With these boats the people of South-East Asia sailed south and settled the islands of Indonesia. Eventually, some time between 60 000 and 40 000 BCE, they discovered and colonised Papua New Guinea and Australia.

Another great migratory journey was made several thousand years later. Small bands of people migrated from Siberia to Alaska in about 15 000 BCE. They moved relatively quickly through the Americas so that, by 11 000 BCE, people had colonised the very southern tip of South America.



SOURCE 2.2 Migration routes of ancient humans

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During the age of human migration, the Earth was experiencing an ice age. Temperatures were much colder than they are today. Some geologists think that the average global temperature during the last ice age was only 5° Celsius. Enormous glaciers stretched out from the North Pole to cover much of Europe, Asia and North America. Because so much water was frozen in these glaciers, the sea level was more than 100 metres lower than it is today. A great deal of land that currently lies deep underwater was exposed. Our ancestors were simply able to walk from Siberia to Alaska, or from Victoria to Tasmania, without even getting their feet wet!

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What were the only parts of the world not inhabited by humans by 10 000 BCE?
2 When did our earliest ancestors evolve from primates?
3 When did modern humans first appear in Africa?
4 What is prehistory?
5 When were Papua New Guinea, Australia and the Americas settled?
6 How were our ancestors able to migrate to the Americas?
7 Go to your digital support to find a link to an online timeline construction tool like Dipity to create a timeline that shows key events in the global migration of prehistoric people. Copy or paste this into your museum scrapbook.




Explanation and communication

1 Many ancient bones, like those of Lucy's skeleton (source 2.1), are extremely fragile. As head curator, you need to consider this factor when choosing which exhibits to take on tour. In your museum scrapbook, write down three positive points about taking such rare items all over the world. Then write down three negative points.



2 You have decided that you would like to borrow Lucy for a temporary exhibition at the Museum of Humanity. Write an email to the Museum of Ethiopia requesting a loan. You should include:
- a justification as to why she should be exhibited at the Museum of Humanity
- a sketch of the exhibit in which she will be placed (complete with labels and interactive features).



Evidence for the establishment of ancient societies

How do we know that Homo sapiens sapiens eventually populated most of the planet? How can we trace their movements? Luckily for us, Homo sapiens sapiens left behind clues as they moved from place to place. These clues come in a number of different forms. Archaeologists try to piece together these clues in order to gain a picture of what life was like for our ancient ancestors. This evidence can also be used to find out when our ancestors colonised a particular area. For example, no traces of human activity exist in the Americas before about 15 000 BCE. This tells archaeologists that people only migrated to this landmass some time after that date.

Skeletons

The physical remains of Homo sapiens sapiens can give us lots of useful information. By carbon dating the bones, we can tell roughly what era the skeleton comes from. Archaeologists can also determine the gender of the skeleton. They can also figure out roughly how old the person was when they died by examining the teeth. Some skeletons show evidence of arthritis, a condition that causes swollen, painful joints. This suggests that life for our ancestors was hard. Occasionally we can tell how someone died. Some skeletons have been found with an arrowhead lodged in their rib cage or vertebrae, the small bones of the spine. Others have severe fractures in their skulls. Not all of our ancient ancestors, it seems, got along with each other.

Tools and jewellery

Homo sapiens sapiens were creative and inventive. For example, Homo sapiens sapiens were skilled tool-makers. They left behind many examples of their talent for making arrowheads,

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SOURCE 2.3 A prehistoric human skeleton surrounded by decorative beads

axes, spear points, needles and spear-throwers. Our earliest human ancestors also made tools, but these were crudely made and only from stone. Homo sapiens sapiens, on the other hand, used wood and bone in addition to stone. Ivory was used to make needles so that animal hides could be sewn together for clothing. Homo sapiens sapiens also crafted beautiful jewellery to adorn their bodies. The materials used included stone, bone and obsidian (a type of dark glass-like volcanic rock).

An extraordinary advance occurred around 9500 BCE with the discovery of copper. Copper can be found in naturally occurring lumps and seams. Prehistoric people in south-eastern Europe and western Asia learnt how to beat this metal into jewellery, tools and weapons. By about 6000 BCE they learnt to extract pure copper from ores by applying high temperatures. With even more intense heat, copper could be melted and poured into stone or clay moulds to make knives and axes. This practice is called **metallurgy**. Eventually, metal smiths worked out how to combine copper with tin to make bronze, a stronger substance than pure copper. Later, people learnt how to extract iron from its ore and turn it into very strong tools, weapons and armour.



SOURCE 2.4 A variety of stone tools used by early modern humans

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Artwork

Some of the most remarkable achievements of prehistoric people were artistic. Like tools and jewellery, artwork came in a wide variety of types and was created with many different materials.

Cave art

The earliest examples of cave art are over 30 000 years old. They are mostly simple sketches of animals and human forms. Paints were made from natural materials such as charcoal and red ochre. These were mixed with water and blown onto a cave wall by mouth or applied with sticks or fingers.

One of the most famous examples of cave art can be found in the Lascaux Caves in France (see source 2.5). The paintings are more than 17 000 years old, completed during the **Paleolithic** period. There are nearly 2000 individual objects depicted at Lascaux, including more than 900 animals. Some of the images are very small, while others are larger than life. A bull in one section is more than 5 metres long. Other animals depicted include stags, cats, birds, bears and an early ancestor of the horse known as an 'equine'.

Spotlight

The Lascaux Caves were discovered in 1940. Four boys were playing soccer in a field when their ball fell into a cave. When the boys went in to retrieve it, they discovered artwork that had not been seen by humans for thousands of years!

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How do archaeologists know that the Americas were populated after c. 15 000 BCE?
2. What can skeletons tell us about the lives of our ancestors?
3. What evidence do archaeologists have of fighting between our early ancestors?
4. What were some of the materials used by our ancestors to make tools and jewellery?
5. How old are the earliest examples of prehistoric cave art?
6. How did prehistoric artists make and apply the paint that they used?



SOURCE 2.5 Painting of an equine from the Lascaux Caves, France (c. 15 500 BCE), made with charcoal and ochre pigments

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Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at the range of tools in source 2.4. How do you think these tools were made?
2 What were these tools used for?
3 Look at source 2.5. How is it useful to a historian of the Paleolithic era? Complete a source usefulness analysis for source 2.5.

Explanation and communication

1 Search the internet for two or three images that show people today wearing modern jewellery.

Create a mind map that outlines why people wear different kinds of jewellery. Copy this into your museum scrapbook.

2 Why would metal tools be superior to ones made of stone or bone? Write up your response in a paragraph. Use a clear topic sentence and copy this to your museum scrapbook.

3 Go to your digital support to take a virtual journey through the Lascaux Caves. In your museum scrapbook, make a list of the different types of animals depicted on the walls and the colours used to paint them.

Statues and carvings

Small statues and elaborate carvings are other common forms of prehistoric artwork. Some statues made by prehistoric humans are more than 35 000 years old. Human figures are common and almost all of them are female. The shape of the bodies—many look like heavily pregnant women—suggest that the statues are probably linked to a fertility cult. By making these statues or using them in religious ceremonies, people may have believed that they would have many healthy children. They used to be called 'Venus figures', after the Roman goddess of love and beauty. Most of the statues are made of stone, baked clay or ivory.

Along with statues, prehistoric artists also carved shapes and images into bone and ivory tools. The artists who produced these carvings possessed considerable skill. These objects, such as knives, axes, spears and spear-throwers, are too ornate to have been used for hunting.



SOURCE 2.6 The Woman of Willendorf (formerly known as the Venus of Willendorf) was carved from limestone about 22 000–24 000 BCE. The statuette stands about 11cm high and was found in Willendorf, Austria in 1908.



SOURCE 2.7 Bison carved from ivory (c. 12 000 BCE)

They may have been used for display, trade or as gifts to improve relationships with other tribes. Horses and fish are popular images on artefacts that have been found in Europe.

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Writing

Some societies developed writing because they needed a way of recording agricultural produce and trade activity. Archaeologists believe that writing first appeared in Mesopotamia in 3600 BCE. By 3000 BCE, the people of **Sumer** were using a triangular-shaped writing tool to press symbols into soft clay in order to record numbers. Before long, pictographs (picture symbols for words) were drawn beside the numbers to show what was being counted. Around three centuries later, symbols that represented language sounds and syllables had emerged. These were now written with a sharpened writing stick called a 'stylus'. This writing is known as 'cuneiform'.

Other societies also began developing writing shortly after the Mesopotamians. In the Indus Valley (Pakistan and north India), Harappa script appeared in 3500 BCE; hieroglyphics appeared in Egypt in 3200 BCE; and the Canaanites (who inhabited a region encompassing modern-day Israel, the Palestinian territories, Lebanon and western parts of Jordan and Syria) developed their script in 1900 BCE. Other examples of early writing development include China in 1200 BCE and Central America in 1000 BCE.

The Canaanite script was adapted by the Phoenecians in 1700 BCE, and in turn was adapted by the Ancient Greeks in 800 BCE. Greek script influenced the development of Etruscan writing, which emerged in 750 BCE. The Etruscans ruled what is now central Italy between 768 and 264 BCE. They were succeeded by the Ancient Romans, who around 700 BCE combined elements of the Greek and Etruscan scripts to form the Latin script that we use in Australia today.



SOURCE 2.8 A cuneiform clay tablet from Tello (southern Mesopotamia) that shows a tally of sheep and goats (c. 2000 BCE)

Settlement sites

Another form of evidence that gives us some information about our ancient ancestors comes from settlement sites. Homo sapiens sapiens probably travelled in small groups or bands of about 25 to 30 closely related individuals. As **hunter-gatherers**, these bands travelled widely in search of food. They would have had no permanent 'home', but our ancestors did set up temporary camps. Caves were used when available because they offered protection from the cold and ferocious animals. The types of evidence that suggest humans once lived in a particular cave include skeletons, tools, artwork and ash from fires.

With the end of the last ice age in c. 10 000 BCE, the average temperature of the Earth rose. There were also more plants and animals. Rather than constantly moving in search of food, people could remain in one place. The first semi-permanent settlements emerged. In Europe, family-sized huts were built on a frame of wood or on the large bones and tusks of woolly mammoths. Animal hides covered the frame to keep out the cold. Piles of bones from the now-extinct woolly mammoth give us clues about the size of prehistoric huts and the materials they were made from. Stones and clumps of earth were also used to build stronger structures and protect the inhabitants from the weather.

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SOURCE 2.9
Modern reconstruction of a prehistoric hut in the Ukraine made from mammoth bones

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why were the 'Venus figures' shaped like heavily pregnant women?
2 What materials were used to make prehistoric statues and carvings?
3 Create a timeline of writing to show how Canaanite script eventually developed into Latin script.
4 What clues about the life of early humans can be found at settlement sites?
5 What materials did early humans use for shelters at semi-permanent settlements?

Source analysis

1 How is source 2.7 useful to a historian studying the Paleolithic era? Complete a source usefulness analysis for source 2.7.
2 Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 2.8.

Research

An exciting development in studies of the ancient world is 'experimental archaeology'. This is where archaeologists live, work and play like our ancient ancestors to find out what life was like thousands of years ago. To make your museum as interactive as possible, include a space where students can make replicas of prehistoric statues out of clay. Of course, you will need to provide an example. Find two images of prehistoric statues on the internet.

Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for each source and then write a brief description of each artefact and add the images and descriptions to your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

1 As a head curator, you want your museum to include a large-scale diorama (a model with an illustrated backdrop) of a prehistoric camp site. The construction team has asked you for a diagram of what you would like. Using the information in this chapter, draw a sketch of a Homo sapiens sapiens settlement site.

   Label the key features of your sketch and write a brief description for each one. Add the picture to your museum scrapbook. If you have the time and materials, make a small model of the camp site. You could take photos of key stages in the construction process and write captions for them. Include these in your museum scrapbook, too.

2 Draw the following table. Fill in both columns with the advantages and disadvantages for early modern humans in staying put or moving about to hunt and gather food. Come up with three points for each.

	Staying put	Moving about
Advantages		
Disadvantages		

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Key features of ancient societies

The domestication of plants

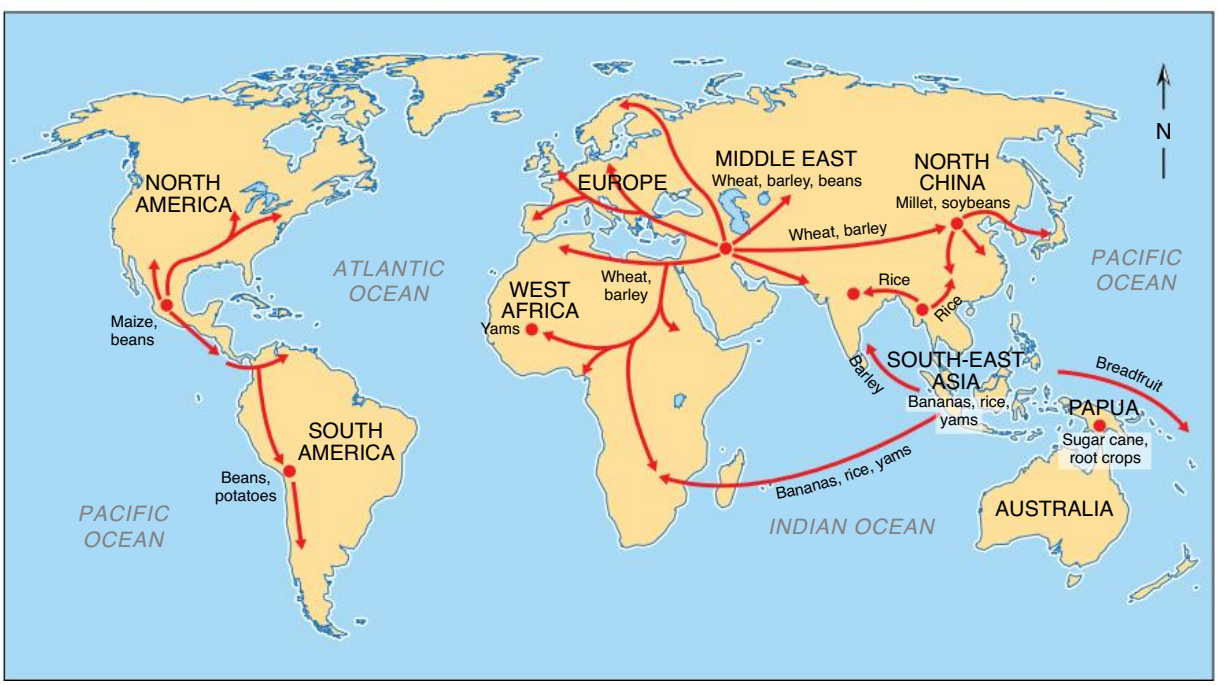
The key breakthrough in the development of human societies from small settlements into large towns was **agriculture**. One of the foods collected by hunter-gatherer bands was plant seed. When the seeds were carried back to the camp, some of them would spill on the ground. If the soil was fertile, the seeds would sprout and grow into crops. It would not have taken much thought to realise that if you planted some of the seeds, you would have a supply of food closer to your settlement. In Mesopotamia, grains such as wild rye, wheat and barley were some of the first crops ever grown deliberately.

The seeds from these grain plants were gathered off the stalk. Then they were threshed with a stick to remove the outer casing of the seed. The seeds and casings were then thrown into the air so the lighter casing, or chaff, would blow away. This is called winnowing. The remaining seed could then be ground down with rocks and cooked into a rough, grainy sort of bread.

The **domestication** of plants occurred independently in several places around the world, including India (9000 BCE), China (8000 BCE), South America (3000 BCE) and Mesopotamia (c. 9000 BCE). Farming spread quickly throughout Mesopotamia because of the fertile soil. The Tigris and Euphrates rivers supplied plenty of water. For this reason historians have called this part of the world the 'Fertile Crescent'. The crescent shape of this region comes from the broad curve of the base of the Zagros Mountains, which stretch from modern-day Iran to Israel.



SOURCE 2.10 Map of the Fertile Crescent in Mesopotamia, where farming flourished



SOURCE 2.11 Map showing the development and spread of agriculture, 9000–1000 BCE

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The domestication of animals

The first domesticated animal was the dog. Wild wolves that scavenged food at camp sites became used to people and eventually would have been tamed. They were useful during hunting expeditions and for standing guard at night. The domestication of the dog probably occurred about 15 000 years ago, although it may have happened even earlier than this.

At about the same time that farming developed, people started to domesticate other animals. Sheep were first domesticated in northern Iraq around 9000 BCE. They provided wool, hide and milk. Goats, domesticated 2000 years later in the same part of the world, also gave milk. This could be churned into yoghurt or cheese. There is evidence to suggest that pigs were raised for their flesh in eastern Turkey from c. 7000 BCE. Wild cattle called aurochs were tamed in Turkey and Greece in c. 6500 BCE. These could be harnessed to pull ploughs. This helped farmers plant seeds deeper in fertile soil so that the seeds would be protected. Horses were domesticated by humans in c. 4000 BCE. They were used for riding, as well as for pulling ploughs and carts. In warfare, horses were used to pull chariots and, later, for cavalry. Early farmers would have engaged in **selective breeding** to ensure that the animals were docile and to encourage other useful characteristics. Sheep, for example, could be bred to produce denser wool.

Spotlight

It used to be believed that all Aboriginal peoples were hunter-gatherers. There is some evidence, however, that Aboriginal communities in the central west and central east of Australia were practising early forms of agriculture and had done so since c. 3000 BCE. The Nhanda and Amangu peoples of the central west farmed yams, while the peoples of the central east farmed bush onions and native millet.



SOURCE 2.12 An Ancient Egyptian carving of an auroch, an ancestor of domestic cattle. Aurochs are now extinct.

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ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What was the key breakthrough that allowed humans to develop large, permanent settlements?
2 How did early farmers separate the inedible husks from seeds?
3 Why was the area known as the Fertile Crescent suitable for farming?
4 Make a list of the first plants and animals to be domesticated by humans.
5 What products did humans obtain from domesticated animals?
6 Why were animals bred selectively by early farmers?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 2.11. Complete the table below, listing the main regions of agricultural development and the domesticated crops of that region.

Region	Domesticated crops

Research



As head curator in your museum, you have decided to hire tour guides to escort groups of visitors around the exhibits and to answer any questions they might ask. Concerned that the visitors will ask questions that they cannot answer, one of the tour guides has requested extra information on the domestication of animals. Research one animal that has been domesticated by humans and write a brief note card for your tour guides. Include information on where and when the animal was first domesticated and why this species was chosen for domestication; in other words, how has the animal helped humans?

The first villages and towns

The domestication of plants and animals was a key event in the development of human society. For the first time in history, people had access to a source of food that was nearby, easy to collect and plentiful. Since it was no longer necessary to keep moving to find food, small groups of semi-permanent huts grew into permanent villages. The increased supply of food meant that the human population, and therefore the settlements they lived in, started to grow. It wasn't long before villages became small towns.

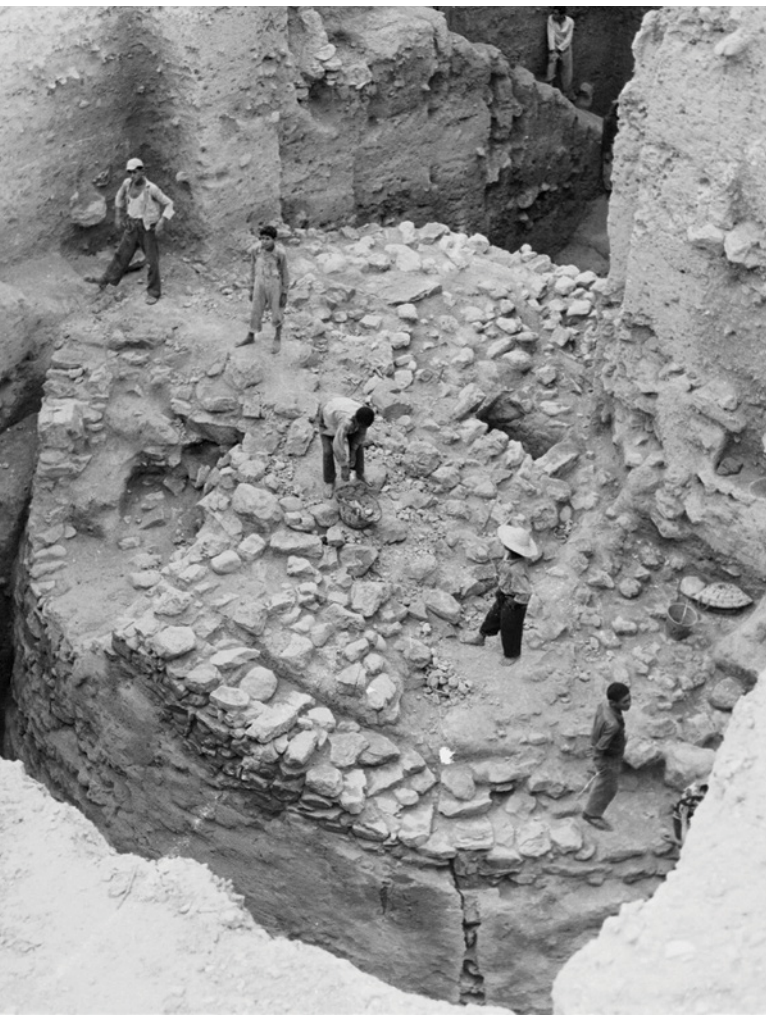
Jericho

One of the first towns in history was Jericho, with archaeological evidence conducted by Kathleen Kenyon in 1952–58 CE showing that its settlement dated back to 9000 BCE. Today its ruins lie near the Jordan River in the west bank of the Palestinian territories. Jericho started as a small farming village of hunter-gatherers, but by c. 8000 BCE it had a population of around 2000 people. The site was well chosen because Jericho sat over a well that produced 4500 litres of fresh water every day. This would have been more than enough for the people of the town to drink and to irrigate their crops. The extra grain they grew could be traded for items that the people of Jericho did not make themselves. But this wealth would have also encouraged nearby villages and bands of hunter-gatherers to attack the town. In order to defend themselves, the inhabitants of Jericho built a defensive wall out of stone. There was a tower 7 metres high at one end so that guards could see their attackers coming from a great distance.



SOURCE 2.13 The Middle East, showing the location of Jericho

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SOURCE 2.14 Archaeologists discover the Tower of Jericho (c. 7000 BCE), as part of Kathleen Kenyon's expedition (1958)

The Battle of Jericho?

Kathleen Kenyon's excavations also indicated that Jericho had been destroyed sometime between 1617 and 1530 BCE and that the city was subsequently abandoned. This finding caused much speculation at the time, because it conflicted with understandings of the biblical account of the Battle of Jericho.

The Book of Joshua in the Bible tells the story of Joshua, the leader of the Israelites. The Israelites were the ancestors of the Jewish people. Joshua had led the Israelites into Canaan, located in modern-day Israel and the Palestinian territories. According to the Bible, Joshua and the Israelites were able to bring down the walls of Jericho and destroy the city.

> The Lord said to Joshua, 'Jericho and its king and all its mighty warriors are already defeated, for I have given them to you! Your entire army is to walk around the city once a day for six days, followed by seven priests ... each carrying a trumpet made from a ram's horn. On the seventh day you are to walk around the city seven times, with the priests blowing their trumpets. Then, when they give one long, loud blast, all the people are to give a mighty shout and the walls of the city will fall down; then move in upon the city from every direction.' ... So when the people heard the trumpet blast, they shouted as loud as they could. And suddenly the walls of Jericho crumbled and fell before them, and the people of Israel poured into the city from every side and captured it! They destroyed everything in it—men and women, young and old; oxen; sheep; donkeys; everything ...

SOURCE 2.15 Extract from the Book of Joshua (c. 640–530 BCE), describing the destruction of Jericho

Archeaeologists had long wondered if there was any truth to the Biblical account. We do not know whether this destruction was actually caused by Joshua's forces, or indeed if Joshua ever existed. As we read earlier, archaeologists had discovered that the city of Jericho was destroyed sometime between 1617 and 1530 BCE, results that were confirmed by radiocarbon dating in 1995 CE. While the Biblical account of the Battle of Jericho may not have actually happened in history, the Bible nevertheless records that the town had been destroyed in ancient times.

> The settlement is quite clearly on the scale, not of a village, but of a town. Its claim to a true [town] status is established by the discovery ... that it possessed a massive defensive wall ... It was built of large, undressed stones, and survived to a height of 2.50 metres ... We cannot say yet whether it enclosed the whole settlement ... [but] it is clear evidence of community organisation. No one small group or family could have carried out an undertaking of this sort, and someone or some corporate body must have provided the organisation to bring the great boulders from the stream beds at the foot of the mountains, half a mile or so away ... and someone [must] have supervised its construction.

SOURCE 2.16 Extract from *Digging Up Jericho: The Results of the Jericho Excavations* (1957) by Kathleen Kenyon, a British archaeologist

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SOURCE 2.17 Ruins of the walls of Jericho

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What developments enabled hunter-gatherer bands to settle into permanent towns?
2 Why was the site of Jericho well chosen?
3 Why did the people of Jericho build a wall around their town?
4 What did the archaeological work of Kathleen Kenyon discover about the destruction of Jericho?
5 Why do archaeologists believe that Joshua and the Israelites were not responsible for the destruction of Jericho?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 2.15. How does it explain the destruction of the walls of Jericho?
2 Read source 2.16. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 2.16.
3 Is source 2.16 a primary or a secondary source?
4 Why does source 2.16 argue that ancient Jericho was a town, rather than a village?

Explanation and communication

Using the text and source 2.16, write a paragraph to explain the significance of Kenyon's work on the ancient town of Jericho.

Trade

Trade has been part of human interactions for at least 100 000 years. There is much evidence of trade in flint and obsidian across the Middle East. As we have seen, archaeological investigations of Mungo Man in western New South Wales indicates that ochre was traded in Australia in c. 40 000 BCE. Major ancient trade routes were established by 10 000 BCE within Mesopotamia. By 8000 BCE there were long-distance trade routes throughout Asia, Africa, Europe and the Americas, including the Oxen Road in northern Europe (c. 4000 BCE) and the 'King's Highway' from Egypt to the Euphrates (c. 1300 BCE). Waterways, such as the River Nile in Egypt, the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Mesopotamia and the Huang He (Yellow River) in China, also enabled much of the early long-distance trade between ancient societies from c. 3000 BCE.

With the domestication of camels in c. 1000 BCE, more long-distance overland trade could be conducted between India and the Mediterranean. Trade along the Silk Road, a trade network from China to the Mediterranean, became extensive after 100 BCE.

The most prized articles traded were precious stones, copper bowls, papyrus, spices, jewellery, decorative objects made of ivory and silk cloth. These goods were seen as 'luxuries' in the places they were sold. Purchasing these goods enabled the wealthy to appear powerful and prestigious in their own societies.

Other goods such as grains, wine and beer were also traded, helping to spread new foods and winemaking and brewing techniques across wide regions of the world.

Social classes

Agriculture and trade made many societies wealthier, but the wealth was not distributed equally. Some people were able to amass more wealth than others, by exploiting their trade opportunities or enjoying agricultural success in

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SOURCE 2.18 Jewellery, dating from c. 2600 BCE, found at a burial site in the Sumerian city of Ur

their region, thanks to good rains and soils. These people were able to become more powerful and were able to purchase more goods and pay people to work for them, or else force others to work for them as slaves. Social classes began to emerge, with a small number of people controlling most of the wealth (nobles) and a larger number of people with less wealth (labourers). In some societies, such as Sumer and Egypt, over time one noble family gathered enough wealth, power and prestige to call itself, and be considered, royal. This means that, as king or queen, the head of that family had considerable power in their society and passed on their power to their eldest son or daughter.

There were also significant numbers of people in ancient societies who were slaves. Mesopotamia, Ancient China, Ancient India, Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome all practised slavery, as did many other societies of the Ancient World. Some people were enslaved as a punishment for committing a crime or because they were unable to pay their debts. Others became slaves after they were captured as prisoners-of-war. There were also people who had been sold into slavery as children.



SOURCE 2.19 Slaves under guard working at a stone quarry in Nineveh, Assyria (c 700 BCE).

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While agriculture and trade were less prominent in hunter-gatherer societies, social hierarchies were still evident. Elders or chiefs generally had power over other members of their society, and could dictate marriage rights, laws and religious practices. They could also reserve special privileges for themselves, such as particular hunting grounds or a larger number of wives. However, the gap between their wealth and the wealth of the rest of their society was nowhere near as large as it was in societies based strongly on agriculture and trade. Slavery, too, seems to have been non-existent in most hunter-gatherer societies.

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How did ancient peoples conduct trade over long distances?
2 List five precious items traded in ancient times.
3 How did trade affect the Ancient World?
4 What was the effect on social classes of increasing wealth?
5 How did people become slaves in the Ancient World?
6 What were the main differences in social organisation between agricultural societies and hunter-gatherer societies?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 2.18. What kind of person would the jewellery in source 2.18 have belonged to?
2 Look at source 2.19. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 2.19.
3 How is source 2.19 useful to a historian of ancient Assyria? Complete a source usefulness analysis for source 2.19.

Explanation and communication

1 In some ways, we are very similar to people who lived in the Ancient World. To communicate this idea effectively, you have decided to include a display in your museum that shows five examples of how people of the Ancient World and people of today display their wealth and social status. In your museum scrapbook, write down five relevant items for each. Accompany these with images from the internet.



2 One way to help visitors to your museum to understand the past is to compare it with the present. Find three examples of representations of ancient monarchs and three examples of representations of modern monarchs. (Examples could include statues, wall engravings and coins.) Write a caption for each image, explaining who the monarch is or was, what country they rule or ruled, and the date of their reign. In dot-point form, write down three similarities (continuity) and three differences (change) between the ancient and modern representations of monarchs and add to your museum scrapbook.



Spotlight

The pyramids in Egypt are evidence of the social stratification of ancient agricultural-based societies. They were built for the king (called pharaoh) to preserve his body and help him reach heaven. The artisans who decorated the pyramids had small underground tombs, while the labourers who built the pyramids were buried in simple plots.

Beliefs and religions

Polytheism

Polytheism is the worship of many gods. The word 'polytheism' comes from the Greek words *polys* (many) and *theos* (god). The religious practices of early agricultural societies were typically polytheistic.

There is evidence that polytheistic religion in Mesopotamia had been established by 4000 BCE, with over two thousand different gods worshipped by the people. Some of these gods were associated with domesticated animals, such as the bull or the sheep; others were representatives of natural world—the rain, the sun and the earth. Fertility goddesses were also important, as we have seen. In time, new 'urban' gods were added as cities and towns began to emerge. While the religions of Mesopotamia died out around 400 CE, they have influenced **Judaism**, Christianity and Islam. The 'Garden of Eden', 'the Great Flood' and the 'Tower of Babel'

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SOURCE 2.20 Abu, the Sumerian god of plants

were all Mesopotamian religious stories dating from 2000–1200 BCE.

Hinduism emerged as a polytheistic religion in c. 1500 BCE. It developed from earlier polytheistic religions in India. Hinduism contains millions of gods, who are seen as being responsible for all the different aspects of human life. As people in India began living in larger towns and villages, new forms of Hinduism started to appear that emphasised the importance of the cycle of life and death. These ideas would influence the development of Jainism and **Buddhism**.

Monotheism

Monotheism, from the Greek *mon* (one) and *theos* (god), began to appear in the last three thousand years. In Egypt, Pharaoh Akenaton (1353–1336 BCE) decided that he would worship only one god—the Sun god, Aken. In 1000 BCE, a Persian philosopher called Zoroasta claimed that there was only one true god, Ahura Mazda (Wisdom), who had created all the world. Judaism also began to proclaim the belief in one god, Yahweh, from about 1000 BCE.

As offshoots of Judaism, Christianity (0 CE) and Islam (610 CE) inherited the belief in one Creator god.

Buddhism and Confucianism

Buddhism (c. 500 BCE) does not contain the idea of a Creator God, like Christianity or Islam. Instead, Buddhism is 'a way of life', as exemplified by the Buddha, a spiritual leader born in India. As Buddhism developed, it began to include a number of lesser gods worshipped by believers.

Confucianism is also a way of life, rather than a religious system focussed on the worship of a god or gods. It is based on the teachings of Confucius, who lived in China from 551–479 BCE.

The Rule of Law

All human societies have legal codes that govern the way humans live together. In addition to laws for everyday life, such as marriage and trade, human societies also developed laws against crimes such as theft and murder. For every crime, there was a specific punishment. Most legal codes of this period were formed as part of a religious tradition.

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SOURCE 2.21 The law code of Hammurabi, chiselled directly into stone. The top portion shows Hammurabi (sitting on the throne), being given his power and authority by the Sun god Shamash.

With the development of writing, some societies began writing down their laws. One of the first written law codes was the Code of Ur-Nammu (2100–2050 BCE). Another was that devised by King Hammurabi of Babylon (c. 1790 BCE). Only one nearly complete version of King Hammurabi's law code survives. The law code contained 282 separate laws and punishments, including 'an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth'. King Hammurabi had his laws inscribed onto a 2.25-metre stele, or tall stone. The steles were placed around his kingdom, so that everyone could see his laws (though it was unlikely that many could actually read them!).

[Now], the great gods a deluge decided to bring ...
'O you mortal, you of Shurippak, you son of Ubara-Tutu ... Pull down your house and make a boat; abandon possessions.
Seek all living things, disregard your wealth and save life,
Make every creature to embark in the boat ...
Six days, and seven nights the hurricane, deluge and tempest continued
Sweeping the land: when the seventh day came ...
calmed was the sea, all spent was the gale, calmed was the deluge.
[So] did I look on the day; sound was [all] stilled ...
[Then] I opened a hatchway, and down on my cheek streamed the sunlight. Bowing myself, I sat weeping, my tears over my cheeks overflowing. Into the distance I gazed, to the furthest bounds of the Ocean ... and the Ark on the Mountain of Nisir [was] grounded; the Mountain of Nisir held [the boat] fast ...
[Then], when the seventh day dawned, I brought forth a dove, and released [her],
To and fro went the dove, and returned [for she could not find] a resting-place ...
[Then] I a swallow put forth and released; to and fro went the swallow,
She [too] returned, [for she could not find] a resting-place ...
I put forth a raven, her, [too,] releasing; the raven went, too.
And the ebbing of waters saw;
And she ate as she waded [and] splashed ... not returning.
Unto the four winds [of heaven] I freed [all the beasts], and an offering sacrificed

SOURCE 2.22 Excerpt from the *The Epic of Gilgamesh* (c. 2000 BCE), a Sumerian poem. In this part of the story, a man named Utanapishtu is telling Gilgamesh about the Great Flood.

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If ... a slave crossed beyond the territory of the city, and (another) man brought her/him back, the owner of the slave shall pay to the one who brought him back two shekels of silver ...

If a [man ...] cut off the foot of [another man], he shall pay ten shekels of silver ...

If a man, in the course of a scuffle, smashed the limb of another man with a club, he shall pay one mina of silver ...

If someone severed the nose of another man with a copper knife, he must pay two-thirds of a mina of silver ...

If a slave-woman, comparing herself to her mistress, speaks insolently to her, her mouth shall be scoured with one quart of salt.

SOURCE 2.23 Excerpt from *The Code of Ur-Nammu* (c. 2100–2050 BCE), a Sumerian law code. A shekel is equivalent to 11 grams of silver, while a mina is equivalent to 660 grams of silver.

Indus Valley laws

Recently, historians have speculated whether the laws of Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome were originally conceived in the ancient cultures of the Indus Valley (c. 2800–1300 BCE), given similarity of many ancient laws in the Indian and Mediterranean regions.



SOURCE 2.24 A soapstone figure, found in 1927 at Mohendjo-daro, the largest ancient city in the Indus Valley. Archaeologists call this figure the 'Priest-King'. Although the figure's headband suggests he was a person of authority, there is no evidence that Mohendjo-daro was ruled by priests or kings.

The Vedic culture (c. 2000–500 BCE), which eventually succeeded the Indus Valley societies, governed itself by the law code known as the Laws of Manu. Originally, the Laws of Manu were an oral tradition, memorised and passed down through the generations by the priestly class (Brahmans), who advised the ruling class on religious matters and the laws of the society. They were written down sometime between 200 BCE and 200 CE.

ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What is polytheism?
2. How have the religions of Mesopotamia influenced Judaism, Christianity and Islam?
3. Explain the main features of polytheistic religions.
4. Create a timeline for the development of monotheism.
5. Why aren't Buddhism and Confucianism defined as polytheistic or monotheistic religions?
6. How were laws publicised in Ancient Babylon?
7. Why do historians believe that Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome may have inherited some of their laws from the Indus Valley societies?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 2.21. What evidence is there in source 2.21 that the laws and the king's authority were believed to have come from the gods?
2. Read source 2.22. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 2.22.
3. If you know the story of Noah's Ark from the Talmud, the Bible or the Koran, compare its story about the Great Flood with that in the Gilgamesh epic (source 2.22).
4. Read source 2.23. How is source 2.23 useful to a historian of Ancient Sumer? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 2.23.

Empathetic understanding

Using source 2.23 and your knowledge, imagine you meet a Sumerian slave-woman who has been caught committing a crime in 2000 BCE. What does she tell you? Write a short speech for her.

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History challenges

Classroom debate

The study of history raises many issues that people hold very strong opinions on. One of the best ways to understand these issues, and why people become so passionate about them, is to engage in a debate. Form a group of six and choose one of the topics from the list below. From the six, form two teams of three. One team will agree with the topic (the affirmative side) and the other team will disagree with the topic (the negative side). Research your topic and have each team member write a two- or three-minute speech putting forward arguments for their case. Deliver your speeches in front of the class in the standard debate format.

1. The domestication of plants and animals was not only bad for humans, but also bad for the planet.
2. In an ancient battle, it would be better to fight on foot than in a chariot.
3. Our justice system should be based on the idea of 'an eye for an eye'.
4. Historical artefacts belong where we find them, not in a museum.
5. Experimental archaeology can tell us very little about what life was actually like in the Ancient World.
6. The Lascaux Caves should be reopened to the public.

Using historical terms and concepts



Part of your job as the head curator of your museum is to travel the world looking for artefacts to put on display. In your museum scrapbook, write five to 10 journal entries describing your incredible adventures as you travel around the world looking for priceless ancient artefacts. Remember to include the names of the places you visit and a description of the artefacts you discover. Use as many relevant key terms from this chapter as possible.

Sequencing historical events and periods within history

Create three exhibits for the foyer of the Museum of Humanity with the following themes:

1. the Ancient World
2. the migration of humans
3. the domestication of animals.

Remember that there are many ways to present information, including posters, cartoons, wall panels, diorama, touch trolleys, storyboarding, interactive displays and multimedia. Add to your museum scrapbook.



Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.



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Section 2

The Mediterranean World



The columns of the Parthenon at the Acropolis in Athens, Greece. It was completed in c. 438 BCE as a temple to the goddess Athena.

KEY TERMS

colonisation the process whereby a society establishes a new settlement in an area away from their homeland; sometimes this new area is vacant, other times it is already inhabited by others

The Mediterranean World

Geography

The Mediterranean is a unique geographic area in the world. The Mediterranean Sea is almost enclosed by land—North Africa, and the coastal regions of the Middle East, and Central and Western Europe. The climate of the region is temperate (meaning the weather is not too hot or too cold) and the lands are blessed with an abundance of fresh water and fertile soil, with the Fertile Crescent of Mesopotamia located on its eastern shore. At the eastern end of the Mediterranean, the Bosphorus Strait links it to the Black Sea and the lands of Eastern Europe. At its western end, it is protected by the Straits of Gibraltar, which keep the Mediterranean safe from the storms of the Atlantic Ocean. While sailing in the Mediterranean is not without its dangers—as evidenced by the many ancient shipwrecks in the Mediterranean—freedom from typhoons and violent storms enabled the early societies on its shores to learn about and experiment with sea travel in relative safety.

The relatively easy sea travel encouraged vigorous trade networks to emerge within the region, and new ideas, technologies and cultural practices spread between the different societies settled on the Mediterranean shores. The sea also allowed vast armies to invade other societies in the region, for war and **colonisation**.



SOURCE S2.1 The Mediterranean Sea, showing the central locations of the main ancient societies

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Spotlight

The name 'Mediterranean' is Latin for 'in the middle of the earth'. This is a good name for this sea. If you look at the map in source S2.1, you will see that it is almost entirely surrounded by Europe, North Africa and the Middle East.

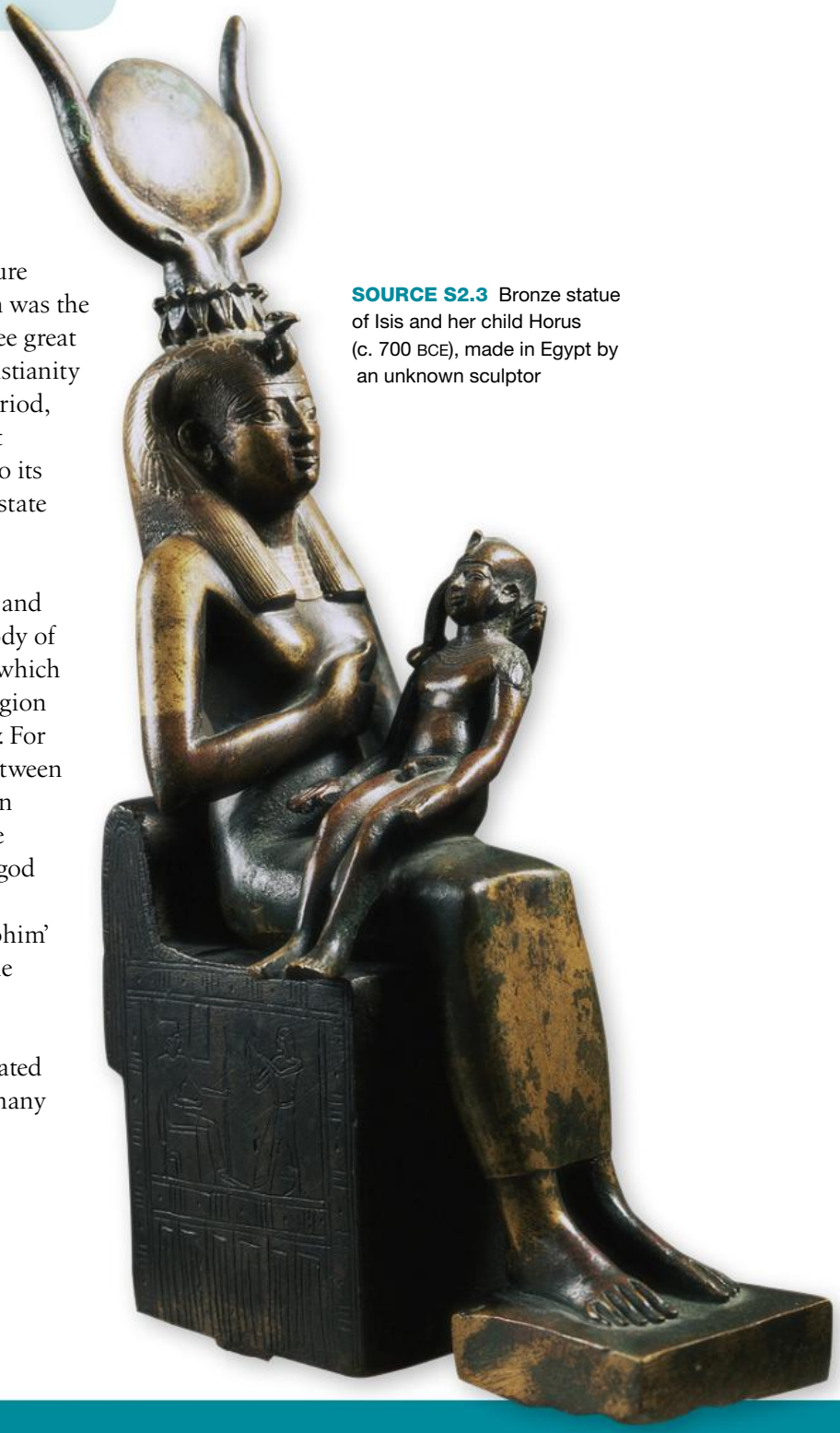
Be ever present, Goddess! In distress, float ships along with prosperous success: your followers through the stormy sea defend, and safe conduct them to their destined end.

SOURCE S2.2 Extract from *Hymn to Leukothea* (c. 250 BCE to 100 CE). Leukothea was a Greek goddess of the sea who came to the aid of sailors in distress.

Beliefs and practices: religion

Most of the societies around the Mediterranean held polytheistic beliefs. Their gods and goddesses were responsible for different aspects of nature and human society. The Mediterranean was the site of the emergence of the world's three great monotheistic religions—Judaism, Christianity and Islam. By the end of the ancient period, Christianity had become the dominant religion of the Mediterranean, thanks to its adoption by the Roman Empire as the state religion in 380 CE.

The polytheistic religions of the Phoenicians, the Egyptians, the Greeks and the Romans have left behind a large body of stories, beliefs and traditions, many of which have been hugely influential on the religion and culture of the Western world today. For example, there are many similarities between the Egyptian goddess Isis and the Virgin Mary of Christianity, including the title 'Star of the Sea'. The name of the chief god of the Phoenicians, 'El' (also known as Baal), lived on in the Hebrew word 'Elohim' which also means 'God' in Judaism. The feast day of the Roman god Mithras, 25 December, was later assigned as the birth date of Jesus Christ, today celebrated as Christmas Day by Christians (and many non-Christians) all over the world.



SOURCE S2.3 Bronze statue of Isis and her child Horus (c. 700 BCE), made in Egypt by an unknown sculptor

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ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What protects the Mediterranean Sea from really bad storms?

2 How did the Mediterranean encourage the development of ship-building and sea travel?

3 What were the advantages of living on the coast of the Mediterranean?

4 What were the disadvantages of living on the coast of the Mediterranean?

5 How did the religions of the Phoenicians, the Egyptians, the Greeks and the Romans influence the later monotheistic religions?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source S2.1. Create a timeline of the main empires of the Mediterranean World.

2 Read source S2.2. What do you conclude about sailing in the Mediterranean in ancient times?

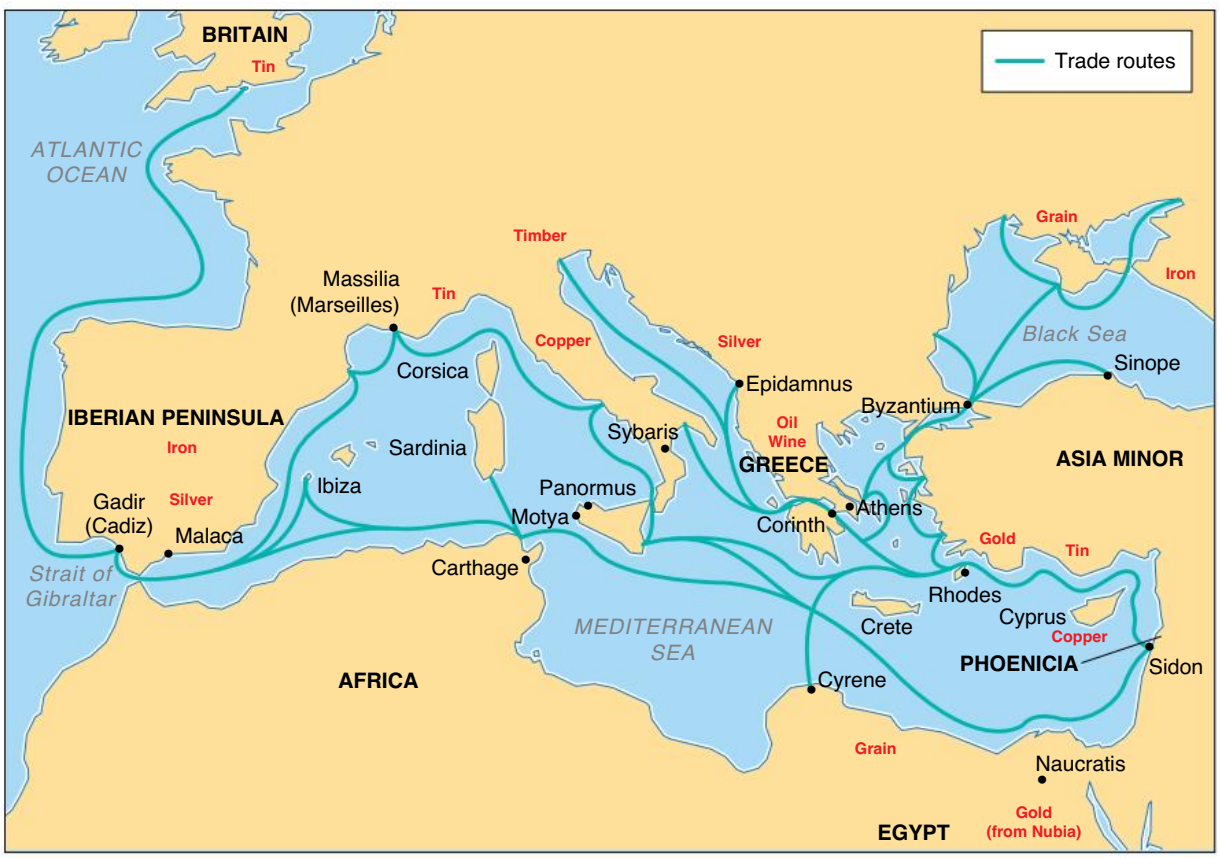
3 Look at source S2.3 Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source S2.3.

Empathetic understanding

Imagine you are about to embark on a trip across the Mediterranean in ancient times. How might you be feeling? What does the weather look like? Will you offer a prayer to your god for safety? Write a diary entry for the night before your ship sails.

Trade in the Mediterranean

The Egyptians were conducting trade in the Mediterranean with the Minoans from 2000 BCE, and later with the Phoenicians. It was the Phoenicians who really opened up sea trade in the region, establishing trading ports and merchant colonies all over the Mediterranean. Major trading towns founded by the Phoenicians include Carthage (now part of the city of Tunis, Tunisia), Genoa, Italy and Oea (now Tripoli, Libya). The main products traded by the Phoenicians included Tyrian purple dye (made from the shells of Murex sea snails), glass, textiles, wine and pottery. In return, they bought gold, silver and tin.



SOURCE S2.4 Greek and Phoenician colonies and trade, c. 700–300 BCE

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The Phoenicians also revolutionised ship-building in the Mediterranean, making significant improvements to the style of ships developed by the Egyptians. Phoenician 'round' ships, built from cedar, had large spaces for cargo and were dependant on sails, rather than oars, for movement.

The Ancient Greeks would adopt the Phoenician model of trading ports for themselves, and before long, had established rival trading ports and colonies throughout the Mediterranean. Their trading cities included Massalia (now Marseilles, France), Syracuse (Sicily) and Byzantion (now Istanbul, Turkey).

With the establishment of the Roman Empire in 27 BCE, a single empire controlled all the lands of the whole of the Mediterranean, creating a unified economic zone. The Mediterranean was known as *Mare Nostrum* (Our Sea) to the Romans.

Spotlight

The Phoenicians got their name from the Ancient Greeks who bought Tyrian purple dye from them. The Greek word for the purple dye is *phoenos*. Purple dye was highly prized by the nobles of Ancient Greeks and by their successors, the Byzantines (285–1453 CE). A child born to a reigning Byzantine emperor was said to be 'born in the purple'.



SOURCE S2.5 Murex sea snail and shell. The shell was crushed to obtain the purple dye.



SOURCE S2.6 A Phoenician cargo ship

The Seven Wonders of the Ancient World

The Seven Wonders of the Ancient World were seven ancient monuments erected by different societies around the Mediterranean. They were called the 'Seven Wonders' in Ancient Greek tourist guides written after c. 150 BCE.

The Seven Wonders were:

- the Great Pyramid of Giza
- the Hanging Gardens of Babylon
- the Temple of Artemis
- the Statue of the Greek god Zeus
- the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus
- the Colossus of Rhodes
- the Lighthouse of Alexandria.

Only one, the Great Pyramid of Giza, remains standing today.

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SOURCE S2.7 Location of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. List four cities that were founded by traders of the Ancient Mediterranean World.
2. What products were traded by the Phoenicians?
3. Why did the Ancient Romans call the Mediterranean 'Mare Nostrum'?
4. How did seven ancient monuments become known as the 'Seven Wonders'?

Research

Choose one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. Devise six questions you would like to find answers to for your chosen Wonder. Conduct your research and find a suitable image. Present your research as a travel brochure for an ancient tourist.

Explanation and communication

Using sources S2.4 to S2.6 and the text, write a paragraph to describe the contribution to the development of trade in the Ancient Mediterranean by the Phoenicians.

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Chapter 3

Ancient Egypt »



Hunting in the marshes, a famous wall painting from the Tomb of Nebamun (c. 1350 BCE). Nebamun was a wealthy Egyptian official.

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter your investigation will require you to:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of Ancient Egypt
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of Ancient Egypt
- outline how Ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of appropriate key groups in Ancient Egypt
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Ancient Egypt
- explain how the beliefs and values of Ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the Ancient World
- describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts with other societies
- explain the legacy of Ancient Egypt
- using a range of sources, including digital sources, investigate the role of Hatshepsut
- assess the role and significance of Hatshepsut.

SITE STUDY

- a virtual historical site: the Great Pyramid of Giza.

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Inquiry questions

1. What were the physical features of Ancient Egypt?
2. What were the key social groups and what was their daily life like in Ancient Egypt?
3. What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Egyptians?
4. What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Egyptians have within Egypt and with other societies?
5. Who were the key figures in Ancient Egypt?
6. What legacy did Ancient Egypt leave to modern life?

Introduction

Nowhere are there so many marvellous things, nor in the whole world beside are there to be seen so many works of unspeakable greatness.

Herodotus 'Egypt', *The Persian Wars*, Book II

EGYPT WAS ONE of the great societies of the Ancient World. It dominated the area around the River Nile in North Africa for 3000 years. Ancient tourists and scholars visiting Egypt were awe-struck by the pyramids and by the medical and mathematical knowledge held in the temples and the Great Library of Alexandria. Greek and Roman writers passed that learning on to us, so Western society has been influenced by the great minds of Ancient Egypt.

It is now your turn to follow in the footsteps of ancient tourists; to explore the society, government, religion and culture of a great civilisation…

KEY TERMS

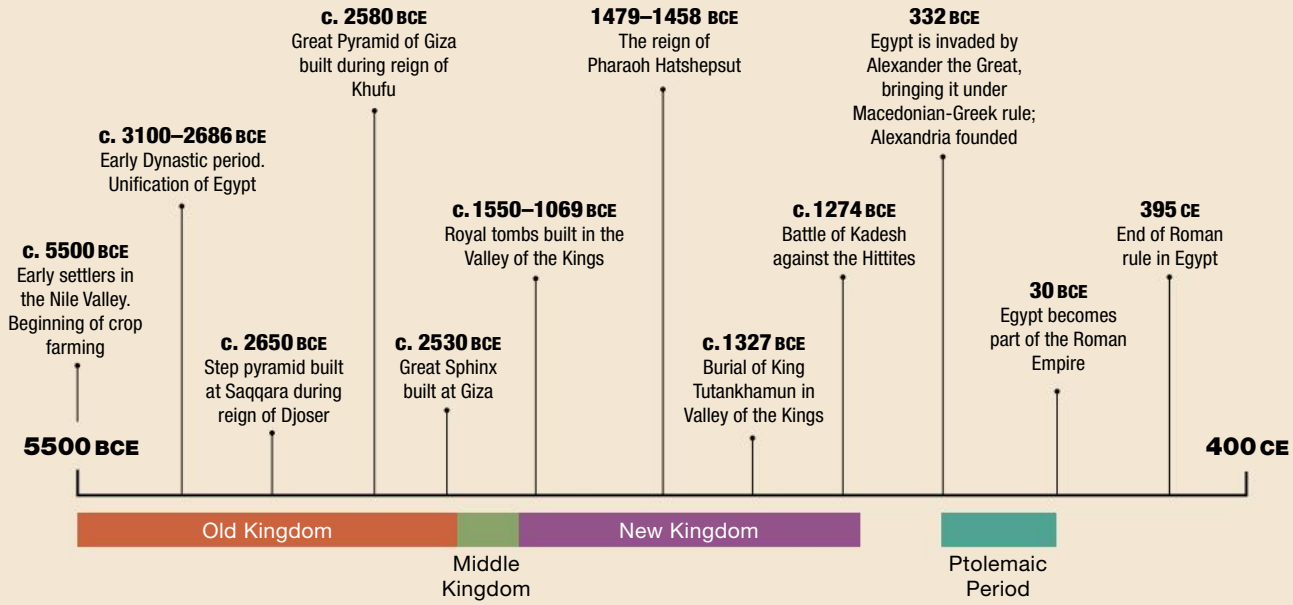
Akhet	the period of inundation
ankh	symbol of life
ankhet	that which gives life; in other words, grain (an *ankh* is the symbol of life)
ba	the personality of a person
Book of the Dead	papyrus scroll buried with the dead giving instructions on how to pass the terrors of the underworld and face trial in the Hall of Judgement
cataract	a large waterfall
Duat	the underworld
hieroglyphics	Ancient Egyptian writing in the form of pictures or symbols
inundation	annual flood in Egypt that brought soil to fertilise the fields as well as water
ka	life-force, the exact double of the deceased that accompanied the heart to the trial in the underworld
Kemet	'Black Land', the Ancient Egyptians' name for their country
maat	the idea of order, justice and stability
malachite	a green stone ground to a fine powder and used to make green paint; also worn as jewellery
natron	a type of salt found in dried lake beds
pa-per-aa	'the material of the pharaoh', the Ancient Egyptian word for paper; our word 'paper' comes from it
Peret	the season when the crops began to grow
regent	a queen who rules on behalf of her son or nephew, who is pharaoh, but is still a child, until he is old enough to rule in his own right
Shemu	harvest time
Sopdet	the star Sirius, which rose several days before the River Nile began to rise in the south of Egypt
spelt	a type of grain; an ancient species of wheat

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Ancient Egypt



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about Ancient Egypt.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down any questions you have about Ancient Egypt.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

What were the physical features of Ancient Egypt?

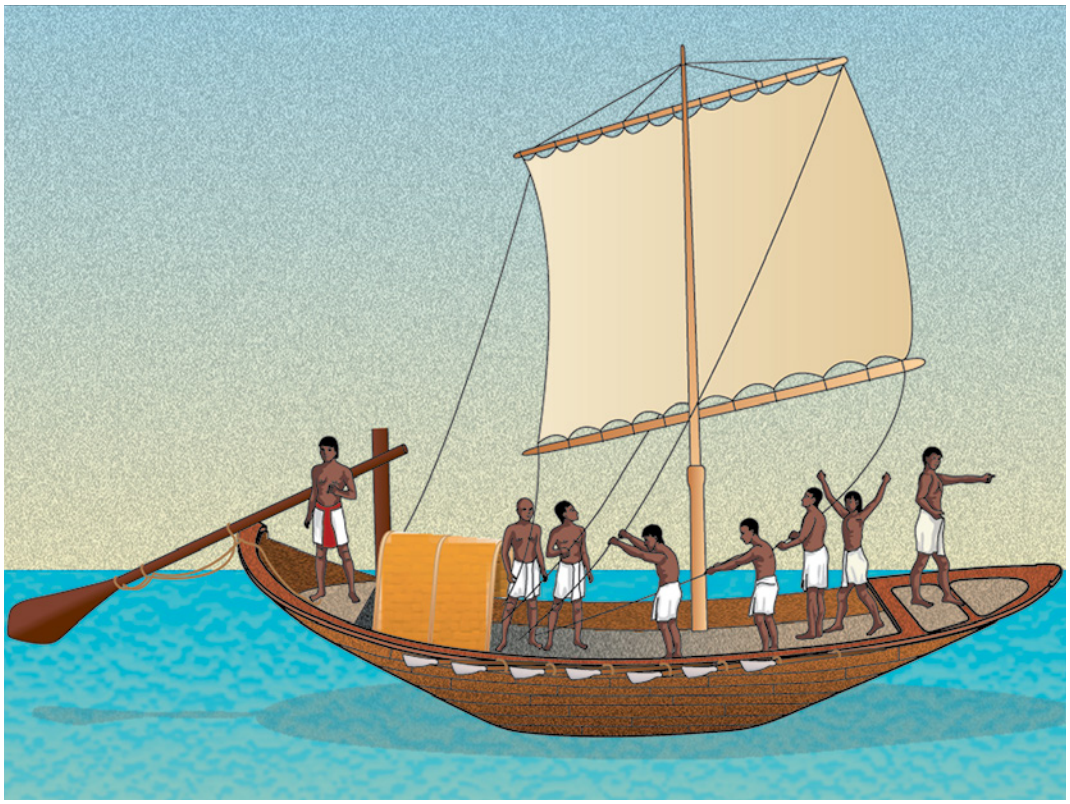
Egypt is made up of scattered oases in the desert, a long thin strip of cultivable land on either side of the River Nile and a wide fertile area at the mouth of the river (known as the delta) where the Nile empties through marshes into the Mediterranean Sea. Egypt is in North Africa, bounded to the east by the Red Sea and to the west by Libya. The desert on either side of the river forms a protective wall around Egypt. The River Nile and the desert are the two major physical features of Egypt.

The River Nile is the heart and life-blood of Egypt. As you go through this chapter, you will find that the Nile influenced all aspects of Egyptian life, from farming to religious beliefs to clothing and health. To the Ancient Egyptians the Nile was simply *itrw* or 'the river', as there was no other river. The river provided the only means of transport around the country except for a few local roads. Nature made it easy. Boats could sail south with their sails filled with the prevailing north wind. If they wanted to sail north, the river flow and currents helped rowers float downstream towards the delta in the north.



SOURCE 3.1 River Nile showing culturable land, desert and mud-brick houses

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SOURCE 3.2 The sail is raised in this boat, which means it is travelling south

Up and down the river sailed boats of all descriptions: great wooden boats with canopies for kings and nobles, barges laden with stones for the kings' temples and pyramids, boats carrying goods for trade along the Nile, and small craft made of papyrus reeds bound together for fishing and hunting wild fowl.

Egypt receives little or no rain, so in ancient times the Nile was the main source of water for drinking, cooking, washing and irrigating the fields. Every year the Nile would flood. This was called **inundation**. The whole of Egypt depended on the annual inundation for food and the flood had to be exactly right. If the river rose more than usual, it would crumble their mud-brick houses; when it failed to rise and dump its load of silt on the fields, it brought famine. The inundation was so important that Egyptians called their whole country **Kemet** after the black silt that was washed down the river every year.

It is a wonder that Egypt could ever have been a culturally and politically united region. The Nile physically broke Egypt into two long narrow strips, the East Bank and the West Bank. Without the Nile the whole land would be desert, with its terrible sandstorms swirling grit into people's lungs. The West Bank where the sun sets was the place of the dead. The kings' pyramids and the rock tombs of pharaohs, nobles and tomb builders were in the western desert and the poor were buried there in graves. But even the desert provided Egypt with minerals for trade: copper, semiprecious stones and, above all, gold. **Natron** and other salts were used for preserving fish, fowl and human bodies. From the desert came green **malachite** and a black mineral, known as kohl, which was used by men and women for eye make-up.

There were no bridges across the river between East and West banks in ancient times. Egypt was also split horizontally into two political halves by the river. Lower Egypt was centred on the delta; Upper Egypt extended from Mennefer (Memphis) upriver to the first **cataract**. At various times in Egyptian history these two halves of Egypt, river valley and delta, became two separate kingdoms. Even when Egypt was united, the king or pharaoh was always known as the King of the Two Lands, or the King of Upper and Lower Egypt.

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Spotlight

'Happy are the Nile travellers who start thus with a fair breeze on a brilliant afternoon.' Thus wrote the intrepid explorer Amelia Edwards in the late 19th century as she sailed up the River Nile with the north wind filling the sails of her boat, heading for the ancient city of Waset (Thebes), the Valley of the Kings, Abu Simbel and the second cataract in the deep south of Egypt.

In 1877, her book about her travels in Egypt, called *A Thousand Miles Up the Nile*, became a bestseller. Concerned about the way objects were being dug up and taken out of Egypt, she used the money from her book to found the Egypt Exploration Society, which sends archaeologists even today to work on sites in Egypt. When she died, she left hundreds of Egyptian artefacts to the Petrie Museum in University College, London. Amelia Edwards would be delighted to know that her artefacts are still being used by students from all over the world.



SOURCE 3.3 Amelia Edwards

> At this juncture, seeing that the men's time hung heavy on their hands, [we] conceived the idea of setting them to clean the face of the northernmost Colossus, still disfigured by the plaster left on it when the great cast was taken by Mr. Hay more than half a century before. This happy thought was promptly carried into effect. A scaffolding of spars and oars was at once improvised, and the men, delighted as children at play, were soon swarming all over the huge head ... All they had to do was to remove any small lumps that might yet adhere to the surface, and then tint the white patches with coffee. This they did with bits of sponge tied to the ends of sticks ...

SOURCE 3.4 Excerpt from *A Thousand Miles Up the Nile* (1877), a travel guide by Amelia Edwards, an English traveller. In this excerpt, she describes how their tour guides were set to 'cleaning' the statue of Ramesses II at the temples at Abu Simbel. The statue still had bits of plaster left on it after a cast of it was taken by Egyptologist Robert Hay in c. 1824 CE.

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Where is the fertile land located in Egypt?
2. What are the two main physical features of Egypt?
3. Why was the River Nile significant in the establishment of Ancient Egyptian society?
4. How did Egyptians sail north and south down with River Nile?
5. What was the West Bank of the Nile reserved for?
6. What were Egypt's main trade goods?
7. What was the difference between Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt?
8. Why might Egypt want to control the area between the first and second cataracts? For one reason, look at the bottom right of the map on page 75.

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 3.4. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 3.4.
2. How is source 3.4 useful to a historian studying the care of monuments in Ancient Egypt during the 19th century? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 3.4.

Explanation and communication

1. Create an audio tour/podcast of Amelia Edwards telling visitors to your museum about places in Egypt such as the Great Pyramids.
2. Cleaning monuments with coffee would never be done today(!)—but what did this episode reveal about Amelia Edwards? Use source 3.4 and the Spotlight text to help you answer this question.

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A farmer's diary

Because the River Nile rose in flood at the same time every year, the Egyptians based their calendar on the inundation. The star **Sopdet** (Sirius) rose several days before the Egyptian inundation began, so that day was seen as the first day of a new year (19 July in our calendar).

Egyptians divided the year into three seasons of four months each: **Akhet**, the period of inundation; **Peret**, when the crops began to grow; and **Shemu**, or harvest. The 365-day year consisted of 12 months of 30 days. There were three 10-day weeks in each month and 24 hours in each day. The extra five days at the end of the year were devoted to the worship of the gods.



SOURCE 3.5 Ploughing the fields in Ancient Egypt (c. 1200 BCE), painted on the tomb wall of Sennedjem. Sennedjem was an Egyptian artist for the pharaohs. This painting was most likely done by Sennedjem himself, before his death.

Akhet

During the time of floods, the farmers could not use their fields so the Egyptian government sent them to build pyramids, tombs and temples. In return for their work, the government gave them food and clothing to help them survive the inundation. So the great buildings of Egyptian civilisation, like the pyramids, were in part created due to the River Nile floods.

Peret

These were the months when the farmer ploughed his fields and sowed his grain seeds in the still-moist soil. Grain was so important it was called ***ankhet***, meaning 'that which gives life'. There was no coinage so Egyptians used the grain like money. Egyptian workers were paid in grain. They used the grain to barter for whatever they wanted; for buying other food or pottery or for education for their sons.

If the farmer was lucky enough to live in the delta, bees might provide him with honey from the flowering meadows and his cow could graze the sweet new grass.

Shemu

This was the busiest time of the year. When the farmer's grain crop had reached a certain height, the Pharaoh's scribes would assess how much tax he would have to pay once the grain was harvested. The farmer, his wife and children had to cut the grain by hand, thresh it, winnow it and



SOURCE 3.6 Threshing and winnowing grain (c. 1400 BCE), from the Tomb of Menna. Menna was an Egyptian scribe.

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SOURCE 3.7 Officials beating a farmer who hasn't paid his tax (c. 1400 BCE), from the Tomb of Menna.

store it. If mice ate the grain or there were great dust storms that ruined the harvest, he still had to pay the original tax. If he did not pay the full amount, he would be beaten.

Diseases and dangers

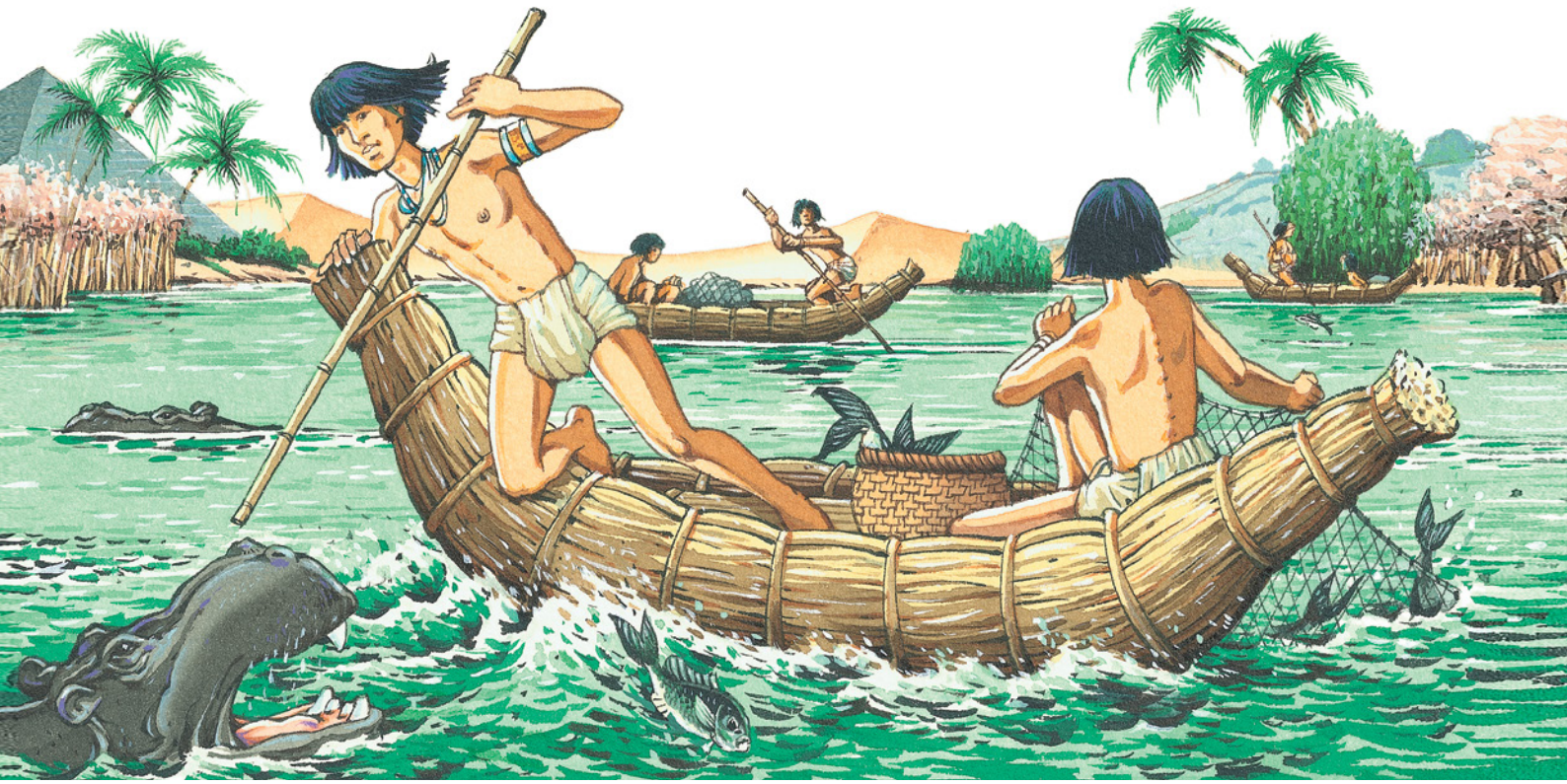
The River Nile mud might have brought life, but it also brought disease. There were parasites living in the mud that entered the body through bare feet, invading the bloodstream and destroying internal organs. The stagnant pools left by the river after the inundation were a breeding ground for mosquitoes, causing frequent outbreaks of malaria.

Crocodiles and hippopotamuses added to the dangers of fishing, washing clothes and swimming in the Nile. Cobras and other snakes lurked in the papyrus reeds and flax plants on the river banks.

Nile gods: Hapi and Khnum

The Ancient Egyptians thought that the god of inundation, Hapi, lived in a cave on an island in the middle of the first cataract on the Nile. Another river god, Khnum, lived on the island as well. He woke up Hapi when it was time for him to flood the land.

In source 3.10, Hapi holds a papyrus plant in his left hand, the sign of Lower Egypt. A waterlily flower, the sign for Upper Egypt, lies across the pile of food. He has two ***ankhs*** (a symbol used in Ancient Egypt for 'life') suspended from his arm to show that he gave life to the Egyptians, as the inundation meant they could harvest grain and other food. The Egyptians wrote a hymn to Hapi, praising him for everything he gave Egypt including the flax for their clothes.



SOURCE 3.8 Fishing in the Nile also had its problems

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Hail to you, Hapi ...
Who floods the fields that Ra has made ...
Lord of the fishes,
He makes fowl [water birds] stream south ...
He fills the stores,
Makes bulge the barns [with grain] ...
Fattener of herds ...
People are clothed with the flax of his fields ...
Oh joy when you come, O Hapi,
Oh joy when you come!

SOURCE 3.9 *The Hymn to Hapi* (c. 2025–1700 BCE)



SOURCE 3.10 Wall-painting of Hapi (c. 1304–1237 BCE), found in the Temple of Ramesses II

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What did farmers do in the time of Akhet?
2 What did farmers do in the time of Peret?
3 What did farmers do in the time of Shemu?
4 What did people use grain for?
5 Draw up a table of two columns using the following table as a guide. Point-form notes on the advantages and disadvantages of the River Nile have already been set out for you. Copy these, then take point-form notes on the advantages and disadvantages of the desert in the row headed 'Desert'. Include the table in your museum scrapbook.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Nile	
Water for drinking, cooking, washing, irrigation Defence through delta, cataracts Inundation Black fertile silt for grain Flax plant for clothing Boats to transport people and goods Papyrus reed for paper Building of pyramids, etc. because of flood Calendar (the seasons of Akhet, Peret and Shemu) Gods (Hapi, Khnum)	Parasites destroyed internal organs Malaria Crocodiles and cobras
Desert	

Analysis and use of sources

1 What did Hapi give Egypt, according to the hymn in source 3.9?
2 What did Ancient Egyptians make their clothes from, according to source 3.9?
3 Look at source 3.10. What did Hapi give Egypt, according to the painting? Why is he holding two *ankhs*?

Explanation and communication

1 Write a diary as if you are a farmer or a farmer's wife in Ancient Egypt OR create a calendar of your year. Go to your digital support for a weblink to find some images for your calendar.
2 Write a paragraph using *one* of the following topic sentences.

'Egypt was the gift of the Nile.' (Hint: prove that the river was more important than the desert.)

or

'Egypt was in part the gift of the Nile but there were other geographical features that were almost as important.' (Hint: write a couple of sentences on the river then discuss the desert.)

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What were the key social groups in Ancient Egypt?

At first, Egypt was divided into small states, each with its own chieftain. By 3100 BCE, there were two separate kingdoms: Upper Egypt and Lower Egypt. The need to have tight control over the long, narrow valley of the Nile, its resources, its transport and its irrigation systems created the Egyptian political system: the rule of one man, the king (also called the pharaoh). Egypt therefore became one country, the first nation-state.

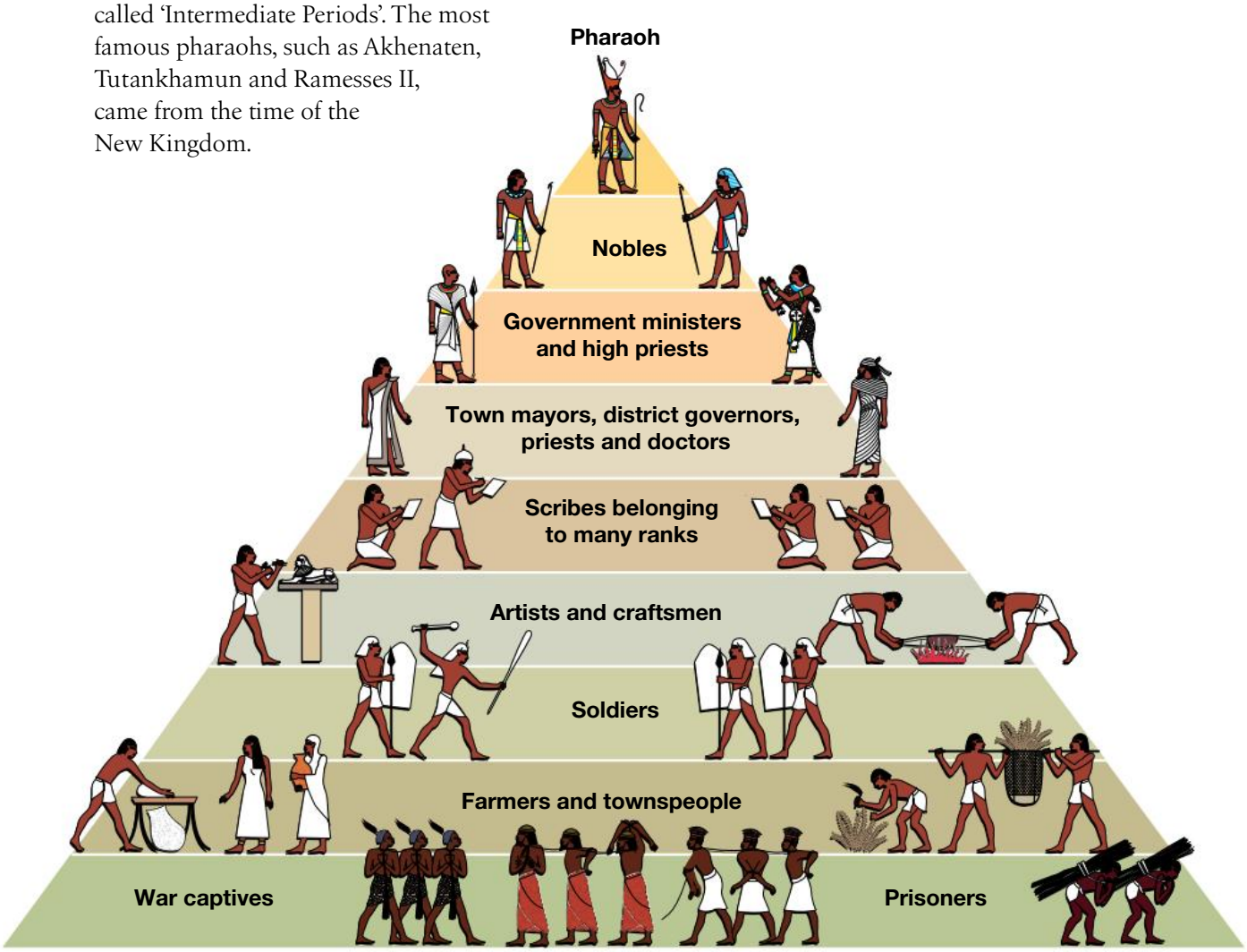
Today, historians break Ancient Egyptian history into three different blocks of time: Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom and New Kingdom. Each of these kingdoms is further subdivided into dynasties. There are gaps before, between and after the kingdoms. The gaps between are called 'Intermediate Periods'. The most famous pharaohs, such as Akhenaten, Tutankhamun and Ramesses II, came from the time of the New Kingdom.

The pharaoh

The role of the king or pharaoh was to head Egyptian society, to be in charge of the army, to run the economy, to be the chief priest and to act as the government of the country.

Nobles

There were two ranks of nobles: the *repa*, who were born to already powerful local families, and the *hatya* or officials appointed to some position by the pharaoh due to their ability. These men formed the bureaucracy that governed the country for the king. The bureaucracy organised the collection of taxes, supervised building and irrigation activities, welcomed foreign ambassadors and appointed various officials.



SOURCE 3.11 Pyramid of social classes

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Spotlight

The word 'pharaoh' that modern historians use for Ancient Egyptian monarchs is Greek and based on the Egyptian word *per-aa*, meaning 'great house' or palace. Pharaoh was not used as a term for the monarch until 1500 years after the first king!

Priests

The priests spent all day on religious rituals within the temple: washing, feeding, and dressing and undressing the statue of the gods. They did not conduct prayers for the people or visit them. Their role was to look after the gods so that they, in turn, would protect the pharaoh and Egypt.

Scribes

Only a small percentage of Ancient Egyptians could write, so the government, economy and religious system depended on this group of educated men. Their most important role was collecting and recording taxes.

People who could read and write were highly respected in Ancient Egypt. If anyone needed a letter or a legal document written or read out to them, they had to go to the nearest scribe.

Artists

Artists were important figures in Ancient Egyptian society. They were often given gifts of land, servants and cattle. Artists played an essential role as they painted the scenes that allowed a noble or king to live forever in the afterlife.

Professional soldiers

The soldier's role was to defend Egypt under his commander-in-chief, the pharaoh. If he fought well, the pharaoh would give him some of the enemy's goods and cattle. A career in the army was the only way an uneducated man could improve his family's place in society. When a soldier retired, he was granted land and livestock.



SOURCE 3.12 Ancient Egyptian craftsmen at work

Farmers and workers

Most people in Egypt were farmers. As grain was used instead of money, farmers played a very important role in society.

Other workers contributed to the way of life. There are wall paintings in tombs depicting builders making the mud-bricks that were used in almost every building. Statues show cooks fanning fires, women kneading bread, and water carriers who brought water for washing and drinking. Written sources mention washermen, cobblers, potters, carpenters, brewers and boat crews.

War captives and criminals

There was no slave class in Egypt until the time of the Greek rulers (after 332 BCE), but some war captives might have been assigned to soldiers who had become farmers. War captives could also be sent to the gold and copper mines far south in Nubia. There they joined Egyptians who had committed crimes. The miners played an essential role in the economy as they dug up the minerals for export.

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ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why did Egypt need to be governed by a single ruler?
2 Create a timeline to show how historians have divided Ancient Egyptian history.
3 What was the role of the pharaoh?
4 What was the role of the nobles?
5 What duties did the priests perform?
6 Why were scribes important in Ancient Egypt?
7 Why were artists important in Ancient Egypt?
8 What opportunity did the army offer uneducated men?

Analysis and use of sources

Look back at sources 3.5 and 3.6 on page 79. What do these sources indicate about the importance of scribes and artists in Ancient Egyptian society?

Research

In source 3.12, craftsmen are making a beautiful necklace that would be worn by nobles. Research Ancient Egyptian jewellery on the internet. Find three pieces you want to include in your museum. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for each of your pieces and add them to your museum scrapbook with a picture of the item.



SOURCE 3.13 Painting of the god Horus (1306–1292 BCE), found on the wall of the Tomb of Pharaoh Horemheb



SOURCE 3.14 Painting of the goddess Maat, goddess of order, justice and stability (1370–c. 1330 BCE), found on the wall of the Tomb of Queen Nefertiti

Governing Ancient Egypt

The influence of religion

The pharaoh of Ancient Egypt was believed to be a descendant of the first king of Egypt, the god called Horus. Horus was the god of the Sun, war and protection. He was also considered the patron-god of the land of Egypt. Horus was often pictured wearing a *pschent* (crown), the symbol of kingship over all Egypt. As such, the pharaoh was the representative of Horus in Egypt.

The pharaoh was also Egypt's chief priest, the person through whom the gods spoke. He protected his people by making sure that Egypt was ruled in the way the gods approved—with order, justice and stability (called maat).

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The influence of law

The pharaoh made the laws of the land and, as supreme judge, decided death sentences. There were two kinds of crimes in Ancient Egypt: criminal offences and civil offences.

Criminal offences (such as murder) were tried by a judge and the worst cases were sent to the head of the bureaucracy called the *tjaty*. The punishments in criminal cases were severe. They might involve impalement on a stake, being burnt alive or being thrown into the Nile to be eaten by crocodiles.

Civil offences consisted of such crimes as stealing donkeys, stealing grain and tools, and failing to repay loans. Civil cases were sometimes decided by an oracle. An oracle was a statue of a god, carried by a priest on a small platform in procession. The Egyptian equivalent of *guilty* or *not guilty* would be scratched onto bits of pottery and placed on either side of the street. When the statue of the god was paraded up the street, carried by the priests, the statue was supposed to bend its head towards the right decision.

Punishment varied according to the severity of the crime. The worst thieves were flogged with 100 lashes of the cane on the soles of their feet and branded for life with a red-hot piece of metal.

(i) O Amon-Re, king of gods, my good lord; it is said that there are no matters which should be investigated in the case of Thutmose ...

and

(ii) O Amon-Re, king of gods, my good lord; it is said that there are matters which should be investigated in the case of Thutmose ...

SOURCE 3.15 Excerpt from *The Trial of Thutmose* (c. 990 BCE), from an inscription on one of the southern pylons at Karnak, Egypt. An official called Thutmose had been accused of failing to hand over tax money to the authorities and keeping it for himself. Two tablets (containing texts (i) and (ii) above) were presented to a statue of the god Amon-Re. The god 'leaned' towards the first tablet (text (i)) and Thutmose was found innocent.

ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What god did the pharaoh represent?
2. What was the religious role of the king?
3. What is *maat*?
4. What was the pharaoh's legal role?
5. How were civil cases decided by a god?
6. What were the punishments for criminal offences?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 3.15. What sort of case is source 3.15? Give reasons for your answer.
2. How is source 3.15 useful to a historian of Ancient Egypt? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 3.15.

Empathetic understanding

You decide to place an animatronic display of one of the pharaohs in your museum. Write a speech in the first person for your animatronic pharaoh. It should tell visitors to the museum about the roles and responsibilities of pharaohs, from a pharaoh's point of view.



What was everyday life like in Ancient Egypt?

The role of men

Although men held most of the administrative and priestly roles in society, only a minority of men were in these positions. Most men were farmers, labourers, artisans and warriors, responsible for food production, crafts and the defence of Egypt. Men were also responsible for teaching their sons their own trade.

The role of women

Unlike most women in the Ancient World, women in Ancient Egypt enjoyed a number of rights, including the right to own property and the right to have their cases heard in a court of law. There were female doctors, female temple musicians and female overseers of other women, and some women even became priestesses and

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SOURCE 3.16 Temple musicians and dancers (c. 1300 BCE), a painting on the wall of the Tomb of Nakht. Nakht was an Egyptian astronomer.

pharaohs. But while Egyptian women may have had more rights than women of many other ancient societies, it does not mean that they were considered equal to men in Egyptian society.

Women were married at age 12 or 13 (the average age of marriage for men was between 15 and 20). After marriage, the wife became 'the mistress of the house' or *nebet per* and her main task was to bear children. As so many children died, she had to have as many children as possible. Each time she had a child, she was regarded as unclean and had to live on the flat roof of her house under a palm leaf shelter for 14 days. The *nebet per* was also responsible for all household tasks: she had to grind flour, bake bread, cook, spin flax and weave clothes for the household. If she was the wife of a farmer, she had to help with sowing crops and bringing in the harvest.

Unlike in many other ancient civilisations, women could also work outside the home. If she was a nobleman's wife, a woman might have a position in a temple as a priestess or a musician. If she was poor, she might work in a wealthy person's house as a servant, hairdresser or beautician. Women also sold goods in the local marketplace.

Children

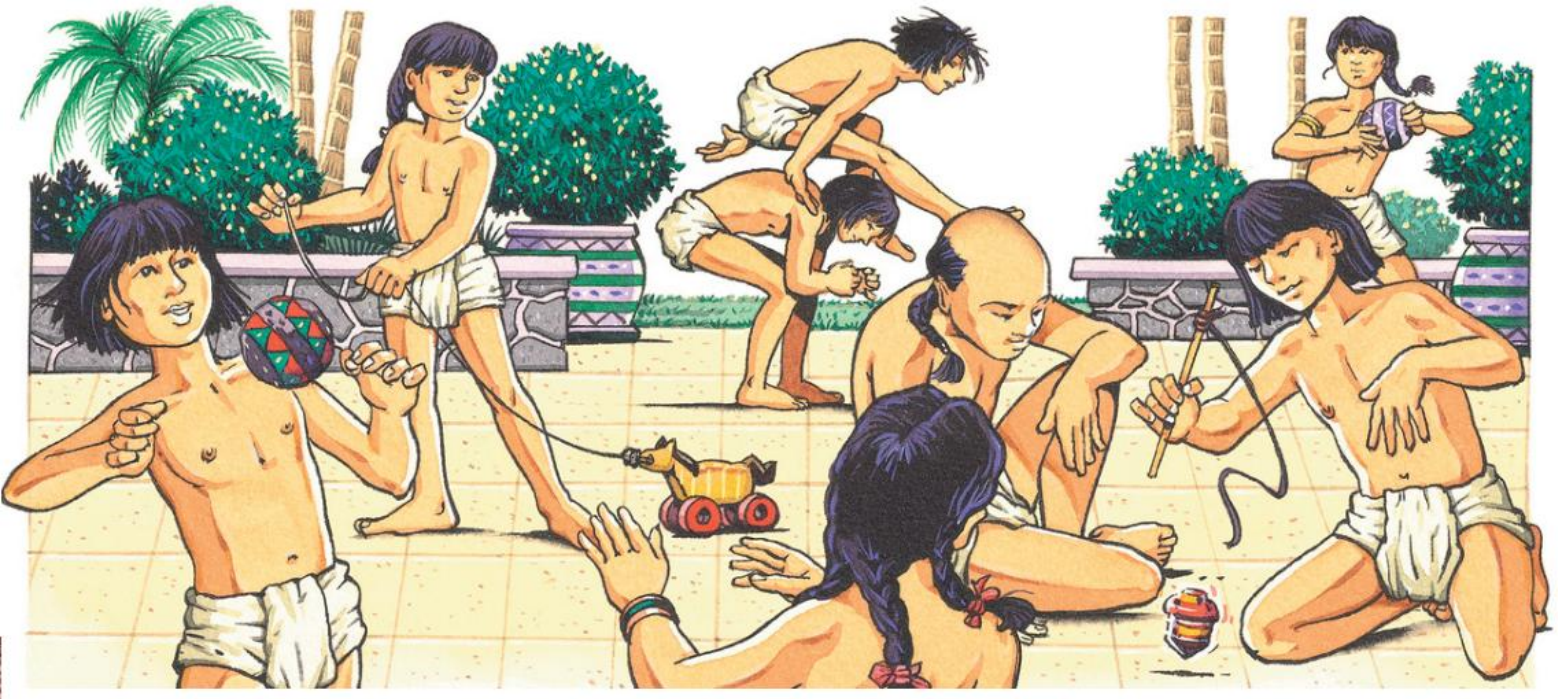
The children's world was not separate from that of their parents. Babies were carried in a sling in front of their mothers as they worked. Until children were five, they were allowed to play freely.

From the age of five, the children of poor families began to help their parents with their work, such as scattering seed or harvesting grain. The sons of craftsmen or scribes became apprentices to their father or were sent to school in a nearby temple.



SOURCE 3.17 Harvesting scene (c. 1200 BCE), a painting on the wall of the Tomb of Sennedjem. Sennedjem was an Egyptian artist for the pharaohs. The tomb painting was probably done by Sennedjem himself.

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SOURCE 3.18 Fun and games in Ancient Egypt

Education

School was only for wealthy boys from ages four to 16. They spent their days learning texts off by heart. They wrote hieratic, a simple form of hieroglyphics and learned to read by chanting together in class.

Students were expected to stand up when an older person entered the room. They were not allowed to ask questions but had to accept what they were told. Their lessons started early in the morning but finished at noon, when their mothers brought them food. If they did not learn quickly enough they would be thrashed. Another form of punishment was lines: 'I must rise earlier for lessons' or 'I must not daydream', written out many times. The lessons, as one boy wrote, 'endured forever, like the mountains'.

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What roles did most men perform in Ancient Egypt?
2 What rights did Ancient Egyptian women enjoy?
3 What roles did noble women perform in Ancient Egypt?
4 What was the role of the *nebet per*?
5 What work did women perform outside the home?
6 What work did children do?
7 Compare school for Ancient Egyptian children with school today. What has continued? What has changed?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 3.16. How is it useful to a historian studying the roles of women in Ancient Egypt? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 3.16.
2 Look at source 3.17. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 3.17.
3 What does source 3.17 indicate about the roles of men and women on the land?

Explanation and communication

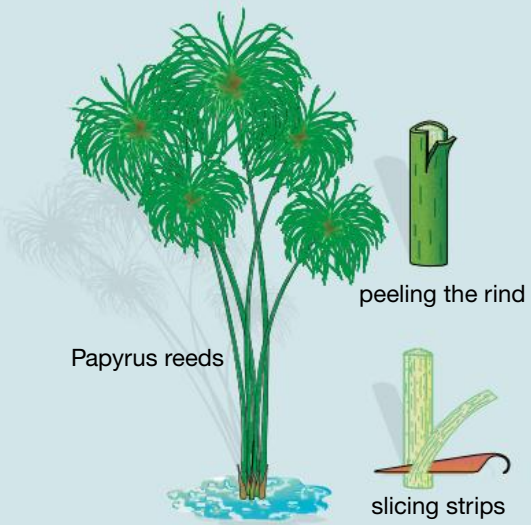
Write a paragraph to compare and contrast your life with that of an Ancient Egyptian boy or girl. Think particularly about the differences in work, education and family life. Make use of source 3.18 and the text in your answer.

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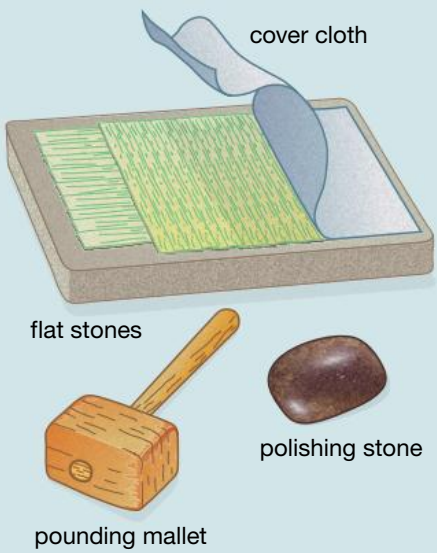
Spotlight

Papyrus

The delta was the main source of the papyrus reed, which was used as paper in Ancient Egypt. The reed, which grew by the side of the River Nile, was prepared in workshops attached to temples. Lengths of the white inner pith of papyrus were placed crossways over each other and beaten to release the juices and bind the strips together. Our word 'paper' comes from the Egyptian word *pa-per-aa*, meaning 'the material of the Pharaoh'. Egyptian scribes wrote on the papyrus with a reed from the River Nile, which they chewed between their teeth to form a brush. They dipped the brush into black or red ink ground from charcoal or ochre.



SOURCE 3.19 Papyrus cut, outer rind taken off and inner pith cut into strips



SOURCE 3.20 Tools used to prepare the papyrus

Food

People grew food for themselves in vegetable gardens. They also caught fish by driving them into nets in the shallow waters near the banks of the river where they scooped them out by hand or speared them. The fish were then slit down the backbone, flattened and dried in the hot Egyptian sun.

On the eastern and western borders of the delta, herds of goats, sheep and cattle grazed on flowery meadows. Large vineyards grew grapes for the pharaoh's wine. We know about what the Ancient Egyptians ate from lots of different sources.

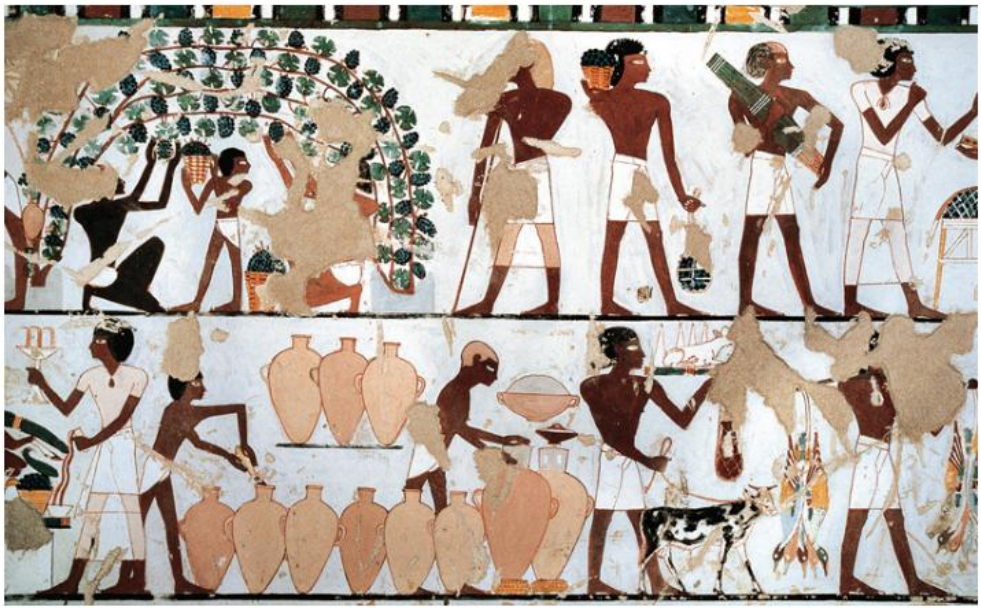
Food	Evidence from primary sources
Garlic, cucumbers	Clay or wooden models found in tombs; a real bunch of garlic with the stems still tied together was found in one tomb
Lettuce	Wall paintings in tombs; written medical advice
Radishes, melons, dates	Seeds and date stones found on many sites
Leeks	The Bible (Numbers 11:5)
Lentils	Found in stomachs of excavated bodies
Beans	Stores found in step pyramid
Figs	Dishes shaped like fig leaves found in graves; wall-paintings in tombs showing men and monkeys competing to pick figs
Grapes	Found in a basket in Tutankhamun's tomb
Mandrake fruit	Jewellery shaped like the fruit found in tombs
Almonds	Jars of almonds found in Tutankhamun's tomb; also found in a workers' village at Amarna
Pork, fish	Large quantities of pig bones found at a workers' village at Amarna; fish bones at various sites

SOURCE 3.21 Ancient Egyptian food

> They are eaters of bread in the form of **spelt** loaves ... They make use of wine brewed from barley; for their soil produces none from the grape. They live on fish, raw, but sun-dried, or steeped in [salt] brine; they eat also raw quails and ducks and smaller birds, salted beforehand and all the rest boiled or roasted ...

SOURCE 3.22 Extract from *The Histories* (450–420 BCE) by Herodotus, a Greek historian. Herodotus visited Egypt for several months during c. 450 BCE. He collected his information about Egypt by talking to people, but he only spoke Greek.

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SOURCE 3.23
Painting of grape harvesting and wine production (c. 1230 BCE), found on the wall of the Tomb of Khaemwaset. Khaemwaset was the fourth son of Pharaoh Ramesses II.

Clothing

Everyone wore clothes made of linen from the flax plant, grown in the Nile Valley. Men and women from the wealthy classes liked to wear long, pleated robes. Farmers, craftsmen and labourers wore loincloths; women in the lower classes wore a plain long dress with straps on the shoulders.

The wealthy, both men and women, wore eye make-up around their eyes to protect them from the sun and eye disease. They shaved off surplus hair with bronze razors or rubbed on a mixture made of the boiled and crushed bones of a bird mixed with fly dung, oil, sycamore juice, gum and cucumber to get rid of hairs—often they wore wigs. Most people went barefoot, although sandals, made of papyrus, were sometimes worn by nobles.

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Where did most foods eaten by Ancient Egyptians come from?
2. What was Ancient Egyptian clothing made from?
3. Why did men and women wear eye make-up?
4. How did the Ancient Egyptians get rid of surplus hair?
5. What footwear was worn by nobles?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 3.21. List the sources in the second column of source 3.21 that depict food.
2. List the sources in the second column of source 3.21 that write about food.
3. Imagine you are an archaeologist. Which primary source would you prefer to find? Why?
4. Which primary source would you prefer not to find? Why?
5. Look at source 3.23 and read source 3.22. Sometimes historians hold different opinions about the past, based on conflicting historical evidence. This is known as 'historical contestability'. On what point do these two sources disagree?
6. Which of sources 3.22 and 3.23 do you think is more likely to be true? Give a reason for your answer.
7. How could you confirm your belief in the greater accuracy of the source you chose?

Egyptian houses

All Egyptian houses were made out of the rich mud brought down by the Nile floods. The mud was mixed with straw for bricks, which were then dried in the sun. Roofs were thatched with papyrus reed.

Houses of the workers and farmers

An ancient workers' village was discovered at Deir el-Medina, on the west bank of the Nile. Deir el-Medina was originally known as 'Set Maat' and was home to the workers and artisans who

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built and decorated the tombs in the Valley of the Kings between 1550 BCE and 1080 BCE. It was first excavated between 1905 and 1909.

Deir el-Medina gives us some idea of the size of ordinary people's houses. At its peak, the village contained just over 60 houses, crowded around one main street. The street and the floors of the houses were covered with the well-trodden droppings of goats, sheep and pigs.

The houses were small, with a front room for visitors and a shrine to Bes, an Egyptian god worshipped as the protector of households, mothers and children. There was a second room with sleeping platforms, a third room for storage and a small courtyard where the cooking was done. There were no separate quarters for the women and children.

Narrow staircases went up to the roof at the back of houses; in the heat of summer, people slept on their roofs, where it was cooler. The toilet was generally a wooden stool with a cup half-filled with sand underneath. Otherwise, there was no furniture in the house—everyone sat on the sleeping platforms or on the floor.

Houses of the nobles

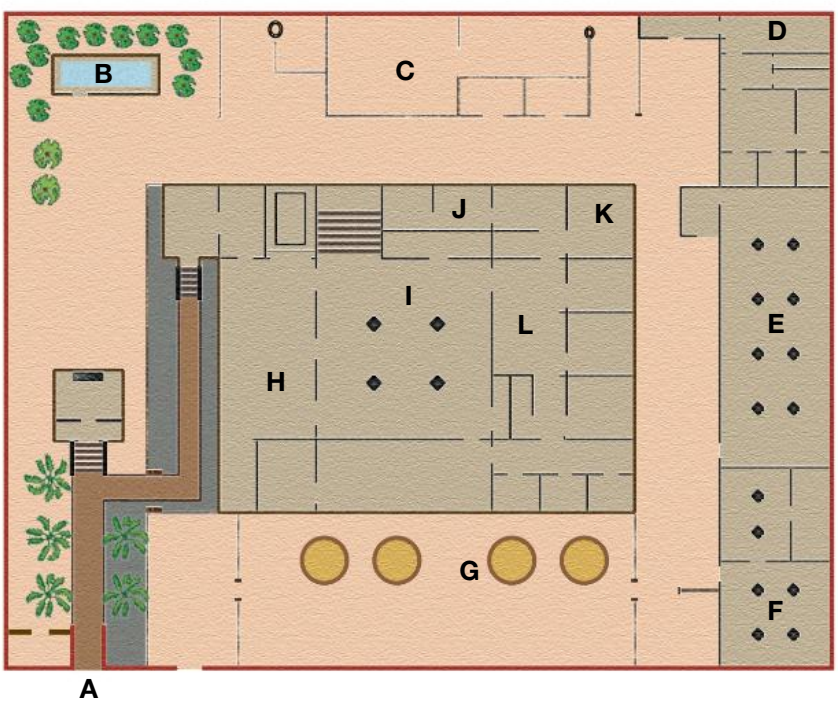
Nobles' houses were surrounded by great walls. Behind these walls there was a large garden full of palm trees and flowering plants. Scattered around the edge of the garden were kitchens, storehouses and workshops where craftsmen produced goods for the house.

The bathrooms had walls made of stone tiles. The floor consisted of a stone slab sloping down to a large jar that collected waste water. The water for washing themselves, as for everything else, must have been carried up by servants from the Nile, or from one of the few wells. No water was used in the toilets. As with the poor people, a bucket of sand was used, although the wealthy might have had stone seats to sit on. A servant would have emptied the bucket outside in the street.

ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What building materials were used in all houses in Ancient Egypt?
2. Who lived at Deir el-Medina?
3. Who was Bes?
4. Why did the people of Deir el-Medina sometimes sleep on the roof?
5. What were the main differences between the houses of nobles and those of the workers?
6. How did all levels of society deal with toilet waste?



A Entrance
B Pool
C Cow pens
D Kitchen
E Servants' quarters
F Stables
G Grain silos
H Entrance hall
I Main hall
J Lavatory
K Main bedroom
L Women's quarters

SOURCE 3.24 The floor plan of a typical noble's house

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Empathetic understanding

Would it have been better to have been the wife of a worker in Deir el-Medina or a servant in a noble's house? Give reasons for your response.

Explanation and communication

Using the text. draw a floor plan of a worker's house, labelling all the rooms. Add your floor plan to your museum scrapbook.



What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Egyptians?

Religious beliefs

The religion of Ancient Egypt was polytheistic, with many gods and goddesses.

The main gods of Egypt

Many Ancient Egyptian gods originally took the shape of the animals that lived in the Nile valley or in the desert. Gradually, the gods became human in form but some retained their animal heads.

The six main gods of Ancient Egypt were:

- **Osiris:** king of the underworld
- **Horus:** god of the sun and war and protector of the pharaoh
- **Anubis:** in charge of the burial of the dead and guide to the underworld
- **Isis:** protector of women, especially wives
- **Maat:** goddess of justice
- **Thoth:** god of writing and knowledge.

The god Ra, god of the sun, was also important and came to be seen as the 'supreme' god after about 2400 BCE. He was also known as Amun-Ra and Re-Horakhty.

The creation myth

According to most Ancient Egyptians, everything was water in the beginning. This was the world of Nun, the world of nothingness. One day, the sun god Ra called himself into being, rising from beneath the stagnant water onto a hill of mud. Ra brought life into the world; around the base of the hill in the water sprouted new plants, blue waterlilies and papyrus reeds. Ra sneezed and from the sneeze came the god of air and the goddess of moisture. They in turn produced Geb (Earth) and Nut (Sky).

Geb and Nut had four children: Osiris, Isis, Seth and Nephthys. The god Osiris became the first king of Egypt. Seth was jealous. He enticed Osiris into a coffin, shut the lid and hurled him into the Nile. Isis found the coffin after many adventures. As Osiris had died, Isis mummified him and then restored him to life as the king of the underworld. Osiris and Isis had a son Horus, who became king of Kemet, and Seth was sent to rule Deshret.

Religious practices and the pharaoh

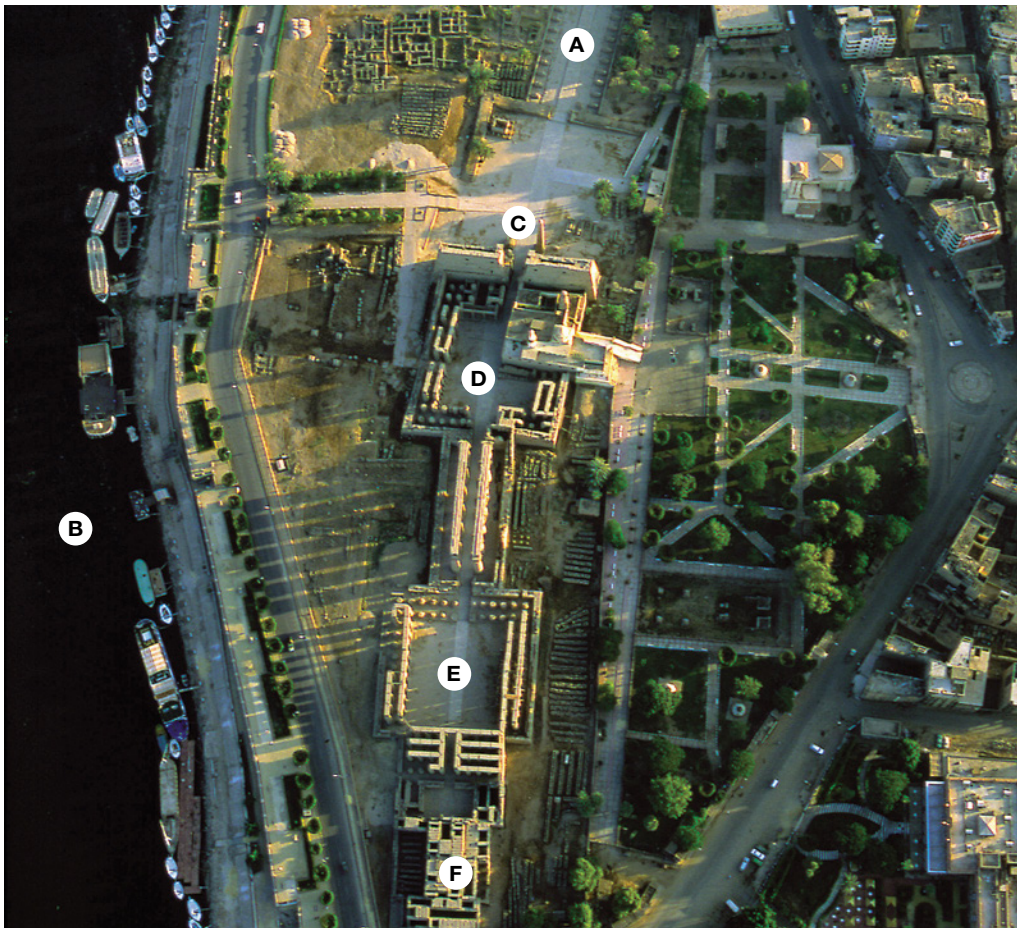
Temples were at the centre of Ancient Egyptian culture. No-one except the pharaoh and the priests could enter a temple as it was thought of as the god's house. In the temple, the pharaoh entered a series of rooms that became smaller and darker as he walked through them. The floor gradually rose under him as if he were walking up the hill of creation. Only the chief priest and the pharaoh could go into the last room, which housed the statue of the god, the inner sanctuary. The pharaoh offered the god incense and food before asking him or her for a good inundation and blessings for the land of Kemet. An aerial view of the ruins of the Luxor Temple in modern times in source 3.25 shows the series of rooms walked by the pharaoh.

Religious practices for most Egyptians

Ordinary Ancient Egyptians could worship the temple god when the statue emerged from the sanctuary at festivals. The statue of the god was placed in a small portable shrine, shaped like a boat. People then asked questions as the shrine passed by. The questions had to be framed to receive a 'yes' or 'no' answer. The god answered through the priests bearing the shrine. If the priests moved forward rapidly, the answer was 'yes'; if they moved back a couple of steps, it was 'no'.

Ancient Egyptians could seek help from the god at other times. On the wall at the back of some temples, directly behind the inner sanctuary, were sculpted or painted ears. The petitioner would kneel and pray and the god in the inner sanctuary would hear their prayers through the ears.

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A Sphinxes lining the path

B River Nile

C Two pylons form the entrance

D Great courtyard

E Inner courtyard

F Inner sanctuary

SOURCE 3.25 Luxor Temple



SOURCE 3.26 Painting of Sennedjem and his wife, praying to the gods (c. 1200 BCE) found on the wall of the Tomb of Sennedjem.

Magic

Magic, or *heka*, was central to everyday existence. Magic amulets were placed around the necks and wrists of newly born children to protect them from harm; magic bricks were placed on the four sides of tombs to protect the dead. Magic might involve using special gestures, such as pointing an index finger and thumb at points of the body, to get rid of the demon that was making the person ill.

Each day was seen as either lucky or unlucky. There were calendars that set out such days so people would know if, for instance, it was a good day for a magician to cast a spell on someone. The five days at the end of the year were called the 'days of the demons' as they were the days on which the five great gods (Osiris, Horus, Seth, Isis and Nephthys) had been born. The day of Seth was particularly dangerous.

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ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why were the Ancient Egyptian gods depicted with animal heads?
2 How did the Ancient Egyptians explain air and moisture?
3 Why did Seth put Osiris into a coffin?
4 Who was allowed into the temples?
5 How did the pharaoh worship the gods?
6 How did ordinary Egyptians worship the gods?
7 How did Ancient Egyptians obtain magical protection?

Research

Find an image of three of the six main gods. Make sure you source your images from reliable websites or texts. Complete the 5Ws (image) for each image. Label the pictures and save them in your museum scrapbook, as they are essential for you later (in your work as an art detective and for your museum display).

Explanation and communication

Using Comic Life or toondoo or else drawing by hand, create a comic strip to show the story of Geb and Nut's four children, as outlined in the text. Add your comic strip to your museum scrapbook.

Death in Ancient Egypt

What did Ancient Egyptians believe happened to them after death?

Ancient Egyptians thought that each person's soul was made up of five parts: the *ren* (their name); the ***ka*** (life-force); the ***ba*** (personality); the *sheut* (shadow) and the *ib* (heart). The body could not journey to the underworld so the *ka* took its place. But the *ba* would die if the body did not survive, so the body had to be mummified. Some body organs were placed in the tomb with the mummy in canopic jars. Statues and wall paintings of the deceased were placed in the tomb as extra security and to enable the *ba* to visit.

Mummification

After a person died, relatives took the body to a special purification place on the west bank of the River Nile. There it was washed in a mixture of water and a salt mineral called natron. It was then taken to the embalmers.

The embalmers' first step in mummifying a body was to remove the internal organs, starting with the brain. A long hook was inserted up through the nose. The brain was shredded and the remains washed out with palm wine. The Egyptians thought the heart was the centre of life, so it was left in the body to speak for the dead person at their Trial in the Afterlife. The rest of the organs were removed through a cavity cut in the left flank. The liver, the lungs, the stomach and the intestines were preserved in natron and placed in four canopic jars. These four containers each had a different top in the shape of a god's head and held a different body part: Imsety (human) held the liver; Hapi (baboon), the lungs; Duamutef (jackal), the stomach; and Qebehsenuef (falcon), the intestines. Palm wine was poured in to dissolve the rest of the organs.



SOURCE 3.27 Four canopic jars, decorated with the heads of Horus' sons

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After 40 days, the body was black, its arms and legs like matchsticks, with flabby skin and a bloated abdomen. The embalmer had to make it look human again—this was the sign of his skill. New linen stuffing, heavily resinated, was pushed into the body to restore its shape. The body was wrapped in linen bandages, which took 15 days, due to the care with which each part of the body was wrapped.

Spotlight

The Australian Institute of Archaeology owns the head of a mummy of an Egyptian child. The Institute asked some dentists to examine the very dead patient. The dentists found, after looking at the developmental stage of the teeth, that the child was about eight at the time of death. The child had lots of holes and a number of teeth missing. Some might have disappeared in the mummification process, but not all the missing teeth could be explained that way. The dentists concluded that some teeth had been deliberately removed because they were very overcrowded. Teeth extraction would have been very messy and dangerous, with no anaesthetics or antibiotics available. Complications could cause death—and indeed that could be precisely what happened to the child.

The Afterlife

Seventy days after death, the body was reborn in the Opening of the Mouth ceremony conducted outside the tomb. This 'opened' the five senses so the body could see, hear and eat in the afterlife.

The Ancient Egyptians believed that eternal life was exactly like life in this world. Paintings in the tombs show the dead owners reaping grain or hunting in the marshes in the afterlife. Little figures called *shabti* were placed in the tomb to help the dead with their tasks in the Field of Reeds (Heaven).

The most important item of all, the ***Book of the Dead***,was placed in the coffin. There were many different versions of the *Book of the Dead*. The *Book of the Dead* was a papyrus scroll that contained spells and advice to help the dead person survive the monsters of **Duat** and also to pass their trial in front of the gods in the Hall of Judgment. At their trial, the dead person's heart would be weighed by Anubis. If they were found to have lived a moral life, the *ba* joined the *ka* to become an *akh* or eternal blessed spirit. If the person had lived an immoral life, the heart was eaten by the Devourer (also known as Ammit), who was part lion, part hippopotamus and part crocodile.



SOURCE 3.28 The jackal-headed god Anubis weighs the heart of Ani (second from the left) against a feather of Maat. If the heart is lighter than the feather, Ani will be deemed to have lived a moral life. Ammit crouches on the right, ready to eat the heart should Ani be proved to have lived an immoral life. The god of truth, Thoth (with ibis head), stands next to Ammit. From the *Book of the Dead of Ani* (c. 1275 BCE).

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SOURCE 3.29 This source shows a scene from the Tutankhamun Exhibition in Dorset, England in 2012. It is a recreation of Tutankhamun's tomb antechamber, as seen by its discoverer, Howard Carter, in 1922. The museum has made replicas of the exhibits as the originals have not been allowed to leave Egypt since the 1970s.

Hail great god [Osiris], lord of the place of the
Two Goddesses of What is Right.
I have come before you so that you may bring me to see your perfection.
I know you, I know your name ...
I have not done any evil ...
I have not orphaned the orphan of his goods;
I have not done the abomination of the gods;
I have not slighted a servant to his master;
I have not caused affliction; I have not caused hunger;
I have not caused grief; I have not killed ...

SOURCE 3.30 Extract from the *Book of the Dead of Nu* (c. 1550–1292 BCE). Nu was supposed to recite this part of the book when he met Osiris, before his heart was weighed by Anubis.

ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Draw a flow chart to show the steps to mummify a body.
2 Why was the Opening of the Mouth ceremony held?
3 What was a *shabti*?
4 What was the *Book of the Dead*?
5 What happened at the Hall of Judgment?
6 What was the Devourer?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 3.30. How would this text have helped Nu on his journey to the afterlife?
2 How is source 3.30 useful to a historian studying Ancient Egyptian beliefs? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 3.30.

Perspective and interpretation

1 Look at source 3.29. Why has the Dorset museum used replicas, rather than original items, in its exhibition of Tutankhamun's tomb?
2 Discuss as a class or in small groups why you think Egypt will not allow the real items from King Tutankhamun's tomb to be taken out of Egypt?
3 Many museums around the world have Egyptian mummies on display. Write a paragraph to discuss whether you think this is appropriate or not.

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SOURCE 3.31 The step pyramid

Pyramids

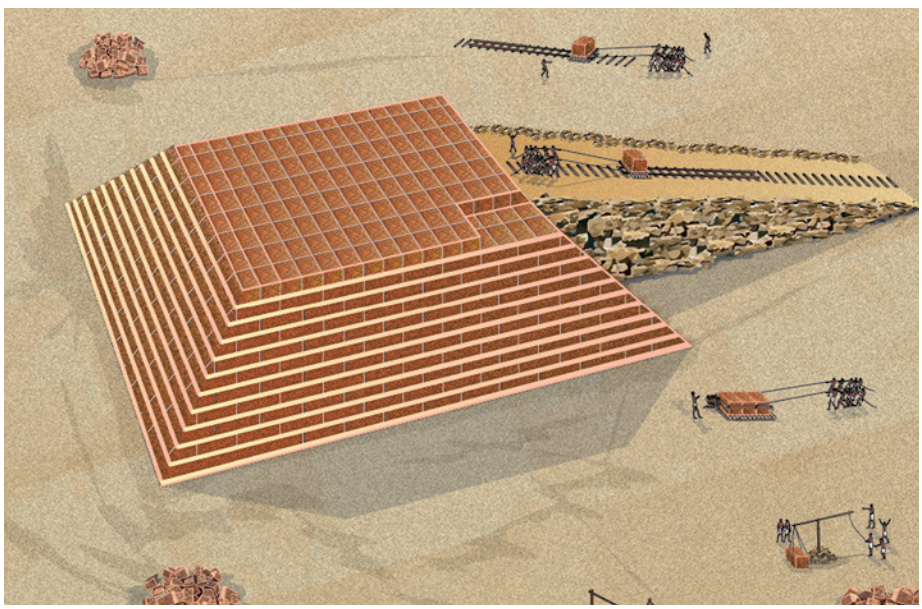
The most famous buildings in Egypt are the pyramids, which were built in the time of the Old and Middle Kingdoms. The pyramids were built as elaborate tombs for the pharaohs. More than 87 pyramids still exist today, and more are still being found.

How were the pyramids built?

The Ancient Egyptians were able to build enormous pyramids, such as the ones at Giza, without any mechanical devices such as pulleys and levers. They used wooden set squares to measure levels and corners. The pyramid floors were levelled using these set squares. To quarry the stones for the pyramids, workers would cut holes in the rock with copper chisels. They used stone hammers to drive wooden stakes into the holes. The stakes were soaked with water. The rapid changes of temperature in Egypt from freezing desert nights to hot days caused the wet wood to expand and split the stone into blocks.

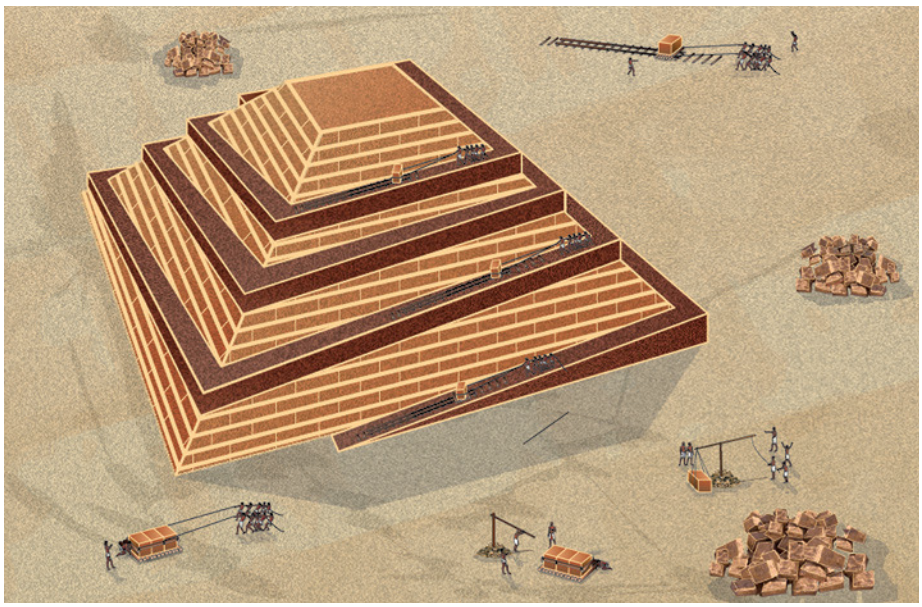
As well as building the pyramids, workers had to build a mortuary temple in front of each pyramid for priests to hold services to honour the dead king and smaller pyramids for the queens.

There have been many views about the way the pyramids were built.

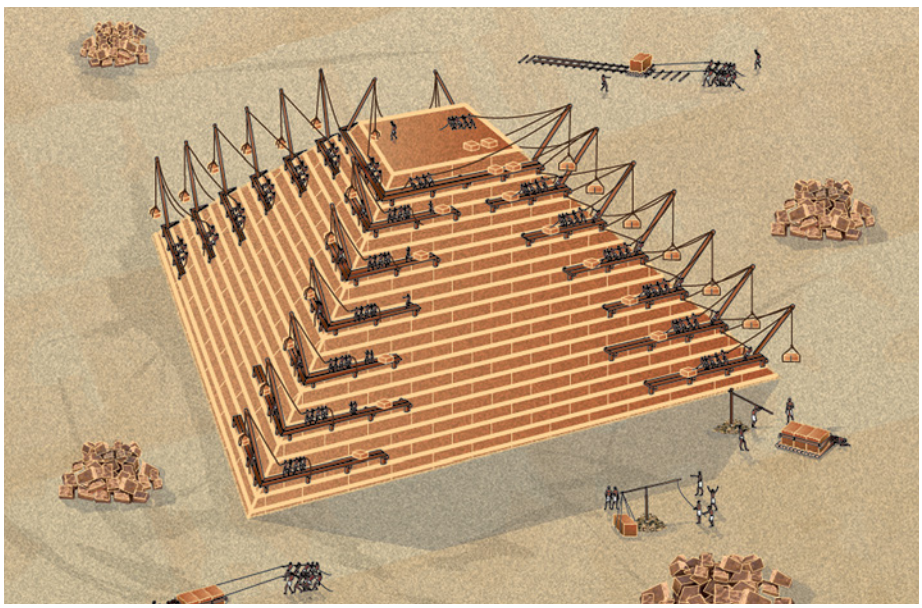


SOURCE 3.32
One large ramp

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SOURCE 3.33
A ramp that winds around the pyramids



SOURCE 3.34 A series of cranes swinging the stones up

Theory One: one large ramp. We now know that this theory is impossible, due to the height of the pyramids. The ramp for the last section would have been too steep.

Theory Two: a ramp that winds around the pyramids. This is quite a good idea as it solves the problem of the steep sides, but the ramp would have blocked any view of the corners, making the pyramid difficult to build.

Theory Three: a series of cranes from the bottom swinging the stones up. Today this method is considered too slow and dangerous. The Ancient Greek writer Herodotus suggested that this was how the pyramids were built. The problem is that this type of crane (a *shaduf*) was not created until the New Kingdom, and the pyramids were built during the Old Kingdom.

Theory Four: combination theory. The latest theory combines a number of methods. A straight ramp was used to build the lowest section and then a ramp around the pyramid enabled workers to build the highest levels. Finally, a series of levers were used to lift the stones to the top. The facing of white limestone was put on from the top downwards, with the ramps gradually being demolished as the workers went down.

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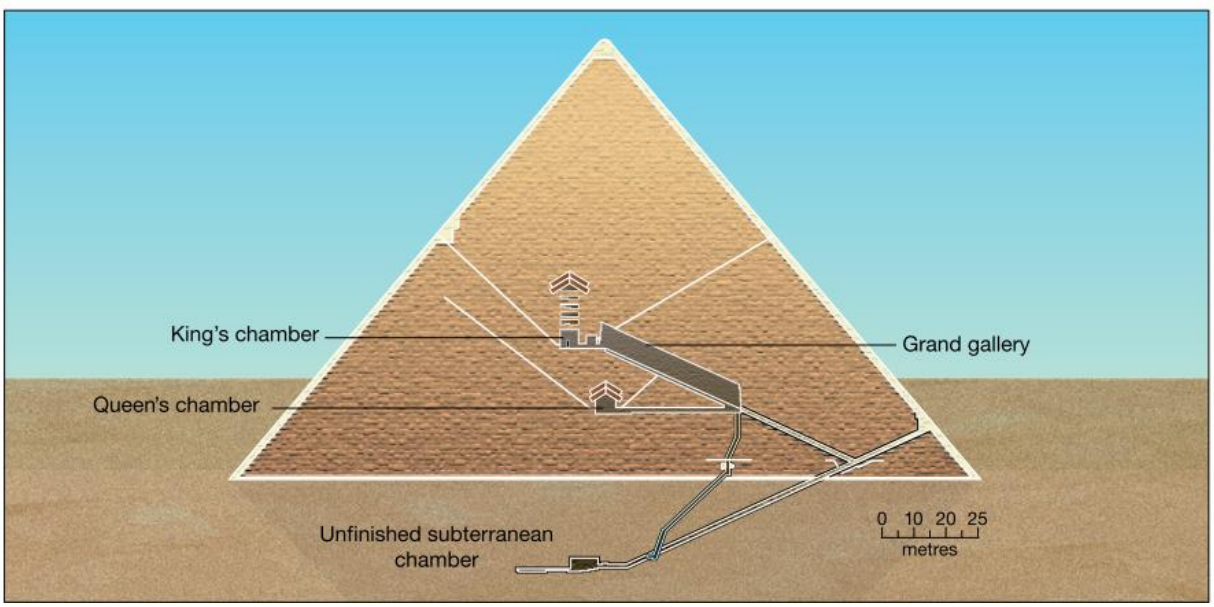


SOURCE 3.35 The Pyramids of Giza

Site Study: The Great Pyramid of Giza

During the time of the fourth dynasty (c. 2600–2500 BCE), three large pyramids were built on the stony plateau of Giza. The largest pyramid, called the Great Pyramid, built as a tomb for Pharaoh Khufu, is as tall as a 30-storey building. The king's *ba* was supposed to float out to the stars through two shafts built over his burial chamber. The other two pyramids were built by his successors Khafra and Menkaure.

Historians believe that the Great Pyramid was built sometime between 2580 and 2560 BCE. Originally, the pyramid had a smooth surface—what we see today is the underlying structure. Inside the pyramid there are ascending and descending passages. The descending passage goes to a lower chamber that was never finished. The ascending passages go to the 'Queen's Chamber' and the 'King's Chamber'.



SOURCE 3.36 Cross-section of the Great Pyramid

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It was once thought that the pyramids were built by slave labour. This has proved to be incorrect—most of the workforce, numbering between 15 000 and 40 000 people, were skilled labourers and artisans.

Also at the pyramid is a large limestone statue called the Great Sphinx of Giza. A sphinx is a mythical creature with a lion's body. It is the largest statue in the world created from a single piece of rock and is the oldest monument sculpture in the world.



SOURCE 3.37 The Sphinx and the Pyramid of Khafra

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What tools did the Ancient Egyptians use to build their pyramids?
2. Why would the pyramids not have been built using Theory One, Two or Three?
3. Can you see any problems with Theory Four?
4. Explain how our modern understanding of the construction of the pyramids is an example of historical contestability.
5. Describe the original surface of the Great Pyramid.
6. What features are inside the Great Pyramid?
7. What is the Sphinx?

Research

Create a tourist pamphlet about the Great Pyramid of Giza. Your pamphlet needs to contain information about what you can see and do at the Great Pyramid. You should also include at least three different images of the Great Pyramid in your pamphlet. Include your pamphlet in your museum scrapbook.

What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Egyptians have within Egypt and with other societies?

Trade with other societies

Egypt's position on the Mediterranean Sea allowed it to trade with a number of other societies. Minoan ships from the island of Crete brought olive oil to Egypt, Lebanese ships brought timber, while Cyprus sent copper to Egypt. During the time of the Ptolemies (rulers of Ancient Egypt from 305 BCE to 30 BCE), fine Egyptian linen produced from flax plants was exported to Greece and Rome. Egyptian grain was exported to places such as Lebanon.

Egypt was also central to many overland trade routes. From the Middle East came silver and incense; from India, via the Red Sea, came spices; from the south, the region of Nubia brought mineral resources. From further south along the Nile in Africa came goods including ivory, gold, ebony, giraffe tails, leopard skins and live baboons.

Military conflict

Egypt's control of the rich and fertile Nile Valley drew many invaders who wanted Egypt's wealth for themselves. Throughout its history, Egypt was conquered by a number of invaders, including the Hyksos (c. 1650 BCE), the Nubians (728 BCE), the Persians (525 BCE and 343 BCE), the Greeks under Alexander the Great (332 BCE), and the Romans (31 BCE). Egypt also fought off invasions by the Nubians, the Libyans and the Assyrians.

Egypt, too, did its fair share of invading and conquering neighbouring societies. During the

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SOURCE 3.38 Ancient Egyptian resources, contacts and trade routes

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SOURCE 3.39 Map of the Egyptian Empire

reign of Thutmose I and III, Egyptian control extended as far east as Syria. The Egyptian Empire declined in the mid 1300s BCE, following a series of invasions by the Nubians and the Hittites. It was rebuilt by Ramesses II, though it was never again as large as it had been under Thutmose I.

Consequences of Contact

Cultural exchange

Various aspects of Egyptian culture were embraced by many societies. The Nubians adopted Egyptian clothing, gods, language, burial customs and architectural styles. After their invasion of Egypt, the Ancient Greeks adopted the Egyptian style of statue carving, and many Greek philosophers and scientists went to Egypt to study at the Library of Alexandria.

Egyptian religion spread across the Mediterranean too, particularly the cult of Isis. After Egypt was conquered by Greece and then by Rome, the people of Greece and Rome built temples to worship Isis.

Military improvements

The Egyptian military benefited from contact with other societies allowing Egypt to expand its empire. The army became more professional, with paid foreign soldiers and conscripts rather



SOURCE 3.40 Rameses II charging at the enemy in his chariot at the Battle of Kadesh (c. 1250 BCE), a painting taken from a bas-relief image inside the Abu Simbel temples. The Battle of Kadesh was between the Egyptians and the Hittites (1274 BCE).

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than volunteers making up the ranks. Soldiers were supplied with armour, including shirts with leather strips and bronze and leather helmets, where previously soldiers had not worn any armour. Following the invasion of Egypt by the Hyksos in c. 1650 BCE, the Egyptians adopted Hyksos-style war chariots, which were light and fast.

ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What goods were traded into Egypt?
2. Why did so many other societies invade Egypt?
3. What two groups made up the Ancient Egyptian army?
4. What aspects of Egyptian culture were adopted by Nubia?
5. How did the cult of Isis spread across the Mediterranean?
6. When and why did Egypt start using war chariots?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 3.40. How is source 3.40 useful to a historian studying Egyptian military weapons at the Battle of Kadesh? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 3.40.

Research

Find a primary source and a secondary source on Ancient Egyptian weapons. Complete the 5Ws (artefact or text) for each source.

What was the role of Hatshepsut in Ancient Egypt?

Significant individuals in Ancient Egypt tended to be pharaohs. This is mainly because they liked boasting about their achievements and had them sculpted or painted, whether true or not, over the walls of their temples, obelisks and statues.

One of the most successful of all the pharaohs was Hatshepsut. Hatshepsut was one of Egypt's few women rulers. She ruled from 1479 to 1458 BCE, the longest reign of any Egyptian woman pharaoh. After she died, however, some of her temples, obelisks and statues were defaced and her name was scratched out!

Hatshepsut's reign

Hatshepsut was the main wife of Pharaoh Thutmose II. When he died in 1479 BCE, his son Thutmose III, born to one of his other wives, was next in line. Thutmose III was very young (around the age of two) and, at first, Hatshepsut acted as **regent**. But then, for reasons that are unknown, she proclaimed herself pharaoh, stating that the sun god Amun-Ra had ordained her rule. She even dressed as a king and wore a false beard.

Thutmose III did not get to rule on his own until Hatshepsut died in 1458 BCE (when he was 23).

War

Hatshepsut led several major military campaigns, against Nubia, Syria, Palestine and Gaza to protect her empire. When Thutmose III turned 16, he became the leader of her armies. Aside from these wars, the remainder of Hatshepsut's reign was relatively peaceful.

Trade

Hatshepsut was successful in her efforts to re-establish Egypt's trade networks that had been disrupted by the Hyksos occupation of Egypt (1650–1550 BCE). Most importantly, she made a trade expedition to the land of Punt (c. 1460 BCE). Historians are not exactly sure where the land of Punt was. Some believe it was south-east of Egypt (near present-day Somalia), while others think it was somewhere in the Arabian Peninsula (near present-day Saudi Arabia). The Egyptians began buying gold, resins, timber, ivory and slaves from Punt. They also bought live myrrh trees to transplant in Egypt. This is the world's first recorded attempt to transplant foreign trees.

Building program

Hatshepsut's restoration of trade made Egypt very wealthy. This allowed Hatshepsut to embark on a large monument-building program in Egypt. Her building works included restoration of buildings damaged by the Hyksos, and building the Temple of Karnak, the Temple at Deir el-Bahri and the Fortress of Western Thebes.

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SOURCE 3.41
Relief showing members of Hatshepsut's trading expedition to the 'Land of Punt' (c. 1460 BCE) at the temple at Deir el-Bahri



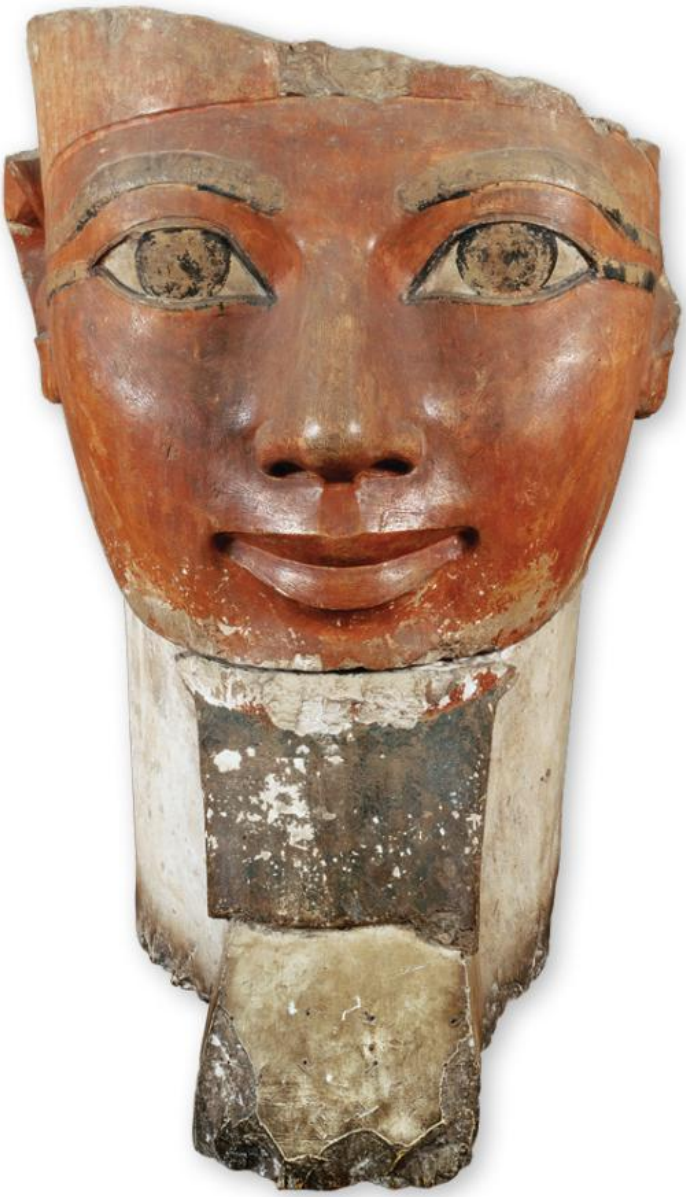
SOURCE 3.42 Newly discovered relief image of Hatshepsut (c. 1460 BCE), found in the Temple of Amun, Karnak. The artist is unknown.

Who defaced Hatshepsut's monuments?

Historians believe that Thutmose III cut out Hatshepsut's name from her monuments and destroyed her statues. The Red Chapel at the Temple of Karnak was pulled down, her statue was pulled down and all references to her as 'king' of Egypt were scratched out at the Temple of Karnak, and her statues were damaged at Deir el-Bahri. Wherever a reference to her as 'king' was scratched out, it was replaced with 'Thutmose III' or sometimes with that of earlier pharaohs, 'Thutmose II' or 'Thutmose I'.

The destruction of a former pharaoh's monuments was not unusual. Hatshepsut herself had altered or destroyed monuments built by previous pharaohs, and Thutmose III destroyed monuments from other pharaohs too, not just those of Hatshepsut. However, few scratched out the name of previous pharaohs, Thutmose III also made offerings to his ancestors in his King's Chambers, but left out Hatshepsut. From all of this, historians conclude that Thutmose III didn't like his stepmother and resented that she had held on to power for so long.

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SOURCE 3.43 A badly damaged limestone statue of Hatshepsut, found at Deir el-Bahri.

> Hatshepsut shall be the name of this my daughter, whom I [Amun-Ra] have placed in thy body ... she shall exercise the excellent kingship in this whole land. My soul is hers, my bounty is hers, my crown is hers, that she may rule the Two Lands.

SOURCE 3.44 Hatshepsut had scenes of her 'divine birth' carved onto a colonnade at the temple at Deir el-Bahri. These images were badly damaged by Thutmose III. One of the images shows the sun god Amun-Ra giving the *ankh* (sign of life) to her mother, Queen Ahmose. This is the inscription alongside the image.

ACTIVITY 12

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Who was Hapshetsut?
2. Why did Hapshetsut go to war?
3. What were the consequences of Hapshetsut's re-establishment of Egypt's trade networks?
4. How did Thutmose III try to erase any record of Hapshetsut's reign?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 3.42. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 3.42.
2. Why has Hatshepsut been portrayed this way in source 3.42?
3. Read source 3.44. Why do you think Hatshepsut had this text carved into the colonnade of her temple at Deir el-Bahri?

Perspective

1. From your knowledge and using sources 3.42 and 3.44, explain Hapshetsut's perspective on her right to rule.
2. From your knowledge, explain Thutmose III's perspective on Hapshetsut's right to rule.

Research

Find and review a secondary source (website or text book) about Hapshetsut. How is the source you have found useful to a historian studying Hapshetsut?

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph explaining why Hatshepsut was a significant individual in Ancient Egypt, making references to the sources, as appropriate.

What legacy did Ancient Egypt leave to modern life?

In the early to mid 19th century, a new craze struck Europe—Egyptomania. The Ancient Greeks and Romans had been fascinated by Egypt, but after the fall of Rome, Europeans gave little thought to Egypt for centuries. In the 16th century, a certain curiosity was stirred due to the latest health fad—powdered mummy. Powdered mummy was believed to cure almost anything,

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SOURCE 3.45
A modern pyramid is the entrance to the Louvre Museum, Paris

and plasters made from mummy powder were often spread over pus-filled tumours.

But it took the invasion of Egypt by the French general Napoleon in 1798 CE, with his army and accompanying French scholars, to awaken real interest. The discovery of the Rosetta Stone in 1799 CE and the bringing back of vast numbers of strange-looking objects to the Louvre Museum in Paris inspired an interest in all things Egyptian.

Today, a pyramid is instantly recognisable around the world as a symbol of Ancient Egypt. The entrance to the Louvre Museum in Paris takes the form of a pyramid (see source 3.45). There is also an inverted pyramid letting light into the ticket hall below. Just how the Egyptians were able to construct these giant monuments without the help of modern technology continues to fascinate historians today.

Ancient Egypt left behind great knowledge about astronomy, mathematics and science. This knowledge was studied by the Greeks in ancient times and built upon by Islamic and Christian scholars during the medieval period. Ancient Egypt's inventions of papyrus, the sundial and the calendar endured for thousands of years. Our calendar is still loosely based on the calendar invented by the Egyptians.

The Ancient Greeks also adopted the Egyptians' use of proportion in sculptures of the human body. This use of proportion would strongly influence the development of Greek sculpture, which in turn would influence the sculpture of the early modern period (1450–1750 CE), and continues to influence sculpture today.

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What was Egyptomania?
2 What did powdered mummy 'cure'?
3 Why was interest in Ancient Egypt revived in the late 18th century?
4 What are the modern equivalents of Ancient Egypt's papyrus, sundial and calendar?
5 How did Ancient Egyptian sculpture influence modern sculpture?

Research

1 Find an image of papyrus or a sundial from Ancient Egypt. Write a brief description for your image, using the 5Ws (artefact) as a guide and add it to your museum.
2 Find out what the Rosetta Stone is. First, devise six questions you would like to find answers to for the Rosetta Stone. Conduct your research and find a suitable image. Add your research and image to your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph to describe continuity and change between Ancient Egypt and modern Australia.

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History challenges

Creating an exhibit

Create five exhibits for the Mediterranean World gallery on the following themes for Ancient Egypt:

1. physical features
2. daily life
3. contact and conflict with other countries
4. a significant individual
5. its legacy in your society.

Computer game

Go to your digital support for weblinks to a list of both ancient games like Senet and a collection of modern games. Working with a partner, choose a computer game.

1. Play the game.
2. Write a review, suggesting ways to improve the game, including correcting its historical facts and adding other historical facts.
3. Hand in your review.

Being an art detective

The Museum of Humanity wants to buy an Egyptian papyrus showing a scene from the *Book of the Dead* supposedly found in a tomb in the Valley of the Kings. It asks Senior Detective Frank Fake, a detective specialising in Ancient Egyptian forgeries, to check the papyrus. The gallery asks the detective: is it Egyptian and is it ancient?

Can you, too, be an art detective? Look carefully at the British Museum papyrus, then the image below of the papyrus offered to the Museum of Humanity and answer the questions.

1. Does the material in source 3.46 look like modern paper or is it papyrus?
2. Does the painting show Ancient Egyptian gods? Which ones? (Name three.)
3. Is the image painted in the Ancient Egyptian style, with people's hands, legs and feet in profile and the eye and upper part of the body straight on?
4. What colour are the *ka*'s clothes? How fine is the material?
5. What colours are used for the hands and feet of Osiris in the painting?
6. Are there any signs of wear and tear on the painting (not the paper) to prove it came from long ago?
7. Give the painting a mark out of six for being genuine (or not).



SOURCE 3.46 A valuable ancient papyrus or a fake?

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Chapter 4

Ancient Greece »



A stamnos vase (used to store liquids) showing the mythical Greek king Odysseus sailing safely past the sirens (c. 480–460 BCE)

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter your investigation will require you to:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of Ancient Greece
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of Ancient Greek society
- outline how Ancient Greece was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of appropriate key groups in Ancient Greek society
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Ancient Greece
- explain how the beliefs and values of Ancient Greece are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the Ancient World
- describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts with other societies
- explain the legacy of Ancient Greece
- using a range of sources, including digital sources, investigate the role of Alexander the Great
- assess the role and significance of Alexander the Great.

SITE STUDY

- a virtual historical site: the Parthenon.

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Inquiry questions

1. What were the physical features of Ancient Greece?
2. What were the key social groups and what was their daily life like in Ancient Greece?
3. What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Greeks?
4. What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Greeks have within Greece and with other societies?
5. What legacy did Ancient Greece leave to modern life?

Introduction

Future ages will wonder at us, as the present age wonders at us now.

Pericles' funeral oration

WESTERN CIVILISATION OWES a great deal to the creative minds of the Ancient Greeks, particularly to the city-state of Athens. Athens was the economic and cultural hub of the Greek world in the 5th century BCE. There were more great playwrights, painters, sculptors, architects, philosophers, astronomers, mathematicians, scientists and historians in Athens than anywhere else in Greece. Ancient Athens was the first democratic state in the world and our words 'democracy' and 'politics' originate from there.

Another Ancient Greek city-state, Sparta, was also significant. Sparta was well known for its focus on military training and athletic excellence, dominating Greece from 650 BCE until the Roman conquest of Greece in 146 BCE. Sparta was also a state where women enjoyed more rights than elsewhere in the Ancient World.

It is now time for you to travel to Ancient Greece to experience this incredible society.

KEY TERMS

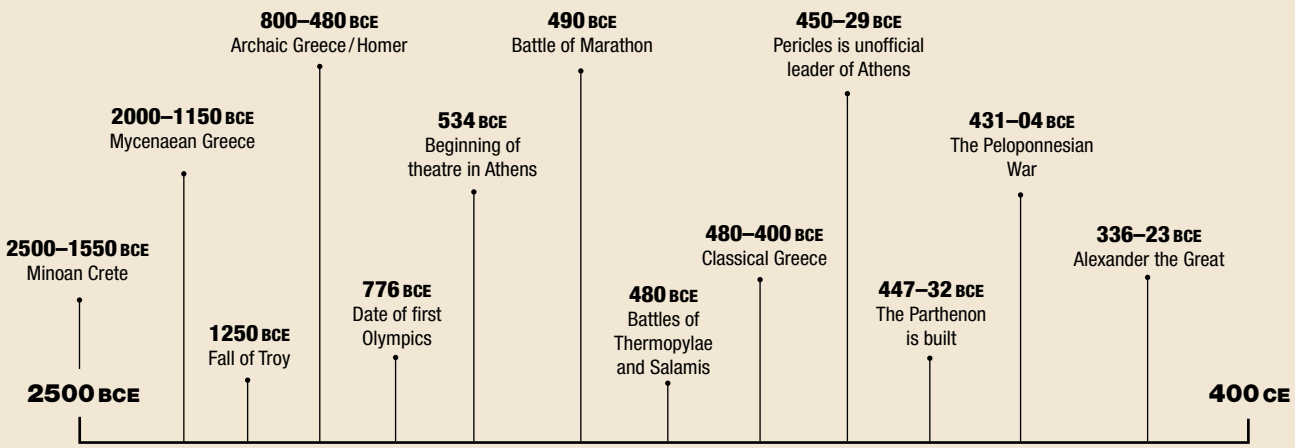
Acropolis	the rock of the city, the high point for the sacred buildings in Athens
agora	marketplace
dowry	property or money brought to a marriage by the bride, paid by her father
Ekklesia	assembly
ephors	the five elected leaders of Sparta
frieze	a band of decoration along a wall
gerousia	an elected group of judges who decided criminals' punishments in Sparta
Hellas	Greece
helots	slaves of Sparta
hubris	excessive pride
krypteia	secret police of Sparta greater
Magna Graecia	greater Greece, the area of southern Italy and Sicily that had been colonised by Greek settlers from the 8th century BCE
metics	freed slaves or non-Athenian citizens living in Athens. Metics were not allowed to participate in the political life of Athens.
nemesis/Nemesis	punishment of those who have offended the gods by doing wrong; also a goddess
oracle	a priest or priestess through whom the gods speak
perioikoi	non-citizens of Sparta, who worked as merchants, farmers and artisans
phalanx	soldiers attacking in a tight formation
polis (poleis)	city-state(s)
Pythia	a woman through whom the gods were supposed to speak
spartiates	the nobles of Sparta
symposium	in Ancient Greece, a banquet (the word now means a meeting to discuss ideas)
Western world	countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States and many in Europe that share a culture based on democracy and Christianity

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Ancient Greece



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about Ancient Greece.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down any questions you have about Ancient Greece.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

What were the physical features of Ancient Greece?

Greece consists of a long mountainous peninsula extending into the Mediterranean Sea, the coastline of Asia Minor and hundreds of islands. But Ancient Greece, unlike today, was not a united nation. The sea and the mountains separated Ancient Greece into hundreds of small communities. These developed into independent city-states, each with its own form of society, economy, political system, culture, currency and armed forces. The two main city-states were Sparta and Athens. The Spartans lived in five unfortified villages scattered across the plain of Laconia in the southern Peloponnese. The Athenians lived in the territory of Attica, with one main city called Athens.

The Ancient Greeks lived off the sea, its products and its trade links. By the mid 5th century BCE, the Athenian port of Piraeus was the greatest trading centre in Greece. Olives



SOURCE 4.1 Laconia



SOURCE 4.2 Attica

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SOURCE 4.3 Map showing Greece and its colonies, 900–600 BCE

could be grown in Attica and the oil was exported to Egypt and southern Italy. Athenian craftsmen took pride in producing beautiful paintings to decorate the outside of the pots containing olive oil to tempt people to buy the oil. Citizens bought pottery workshops and invested in the import/export business. Money for great buildings like the Parthenon and theatre festivals often came from wealth based on sea trade on the Aegean Sea.

Mountains dominate the landscape in Greece. From the mountains near Athens came marble for sculptures and temples, and silver and lead. The silver mines at Laurion were worked by state-owned slaves. The silver was used in Athenian coins to buy goods from all over the Mediterranean.

The Greek communities, confined by sea and mountains, were unable to expand at home, but the sea encouraged them to found new settlements all over the Mediterranean. During 900–600 BCE, the Greeks established colonies from the Black Sea in the east to coastal Spain in the west.

The Greeks called (and still do call) their country **Hellas** and themselves 'Hellenes' after a founding hero Helle. It was the Romans who called the country 'Greece'. Early Roman culture was enriched by contact with the Greek settlements in southern Italy and Sicily, an area they called 'Magna Graecia'.

Climate

The clear light of Greece and the long, hot, dry summers helped to create the vibrant outdoor lifestyle of the Ancient Greeks. Athenians met for political decisions on the hill of the Pnyx. The great religious festivals involving athletics, chariot racing and theatre were all outdoor activities. In the open-air marketplace, the **agora**, Ancient Athenians, with their slaves patiently waiting behind them, argued about the latest political and philosophical ideas.

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Find Sparta and Athens on the map on page 109.
2. How did the sea help the Ancient Athenian economy?
3. Where did the money for Athens' Parthenon and theatre festivals come from?
4. What impact did the dominance of the sea and the mountains have on Ancient Greek history?
5. What was 'Magna Graecia'?
6. How did the climate stimulate Ancient Greek society?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 4.3. Using an atlas or the internet, find the names of the modern nations, parts of which were once Greek colonies.

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Explanation and communication

1 Create an interactive map of Ancient Athens for the entrance to the Mediterranean gallery in the Museum of Humanity. Your map needs to show the locations of the following sites and provide a short sentence describing each site:



   a Piraeus
   b the Parthenon
   c the mines of Laurion
   d the Ancient Agora
   e Pnyx Hill.

2 Write a paragraph to explain why the physical features of Ancient Greece were significant to the development of Ancient Greek society.

What were the key social groups in Ancient Greece?

The word 'politics' comes from ***polis***, the Greek word for city-state. From the diverse collection of little Greek states came some of the political systems in use today; in particular, socialism (Sparta) and democracy (Athens).

Spartan society

Sparta was a combination of a socialist state, a militaristic state and a dual monarchy. In a socialist state, the community as a whole (rather than individuals) owns and controls land, industry and other economic needs. Education, health and welfare systems are run by the state. The socialist ideal is for people to be financially and, therefore, socially equal. Sparta was also a militaristic state, which means that the state was geared for constant warfare. Women were expected to have many children, especially sons, who would grow up to fight for Sparta. Boys were trained from childhood to fight for the state. As a dual-monarchy, Sparta was ruled by two kings.

Kings

There were usually two kings at a time in Sparta. They were believed to be descended from the mythical twins Eurysthenes and Procles, the great-great-great grandsons of the god Heracles. There were strict rules that forbade members of the two royal families from marrying each other. The kings were also the high priests (religious leaders) of Sparta. They were required to make animal sacrifices to Apollo and protect the **oracles**. If disaster struck Sparta, the kings were blamed for displeasing the gods. The kings' roles as the high priests of Sparta served to combine their political power with religious authority and bind the society together.

Ephors

The ephors were the five leaders of Ancient Sparta who shared power with the kings. The ephors were elected to their position every year and governed Sparta while the kings were away at war. A person could only be an ephor once in their lives.

Spartiates

The noble class was called the Spartiates; when historians talk about 'Spartans', these are the people they mean. The Laconian plain around Sparta was divided into state-owned farms. When a Spartan boy was born, he was given a piece of land with a farm and Spartan slaves called 'helots' to be the farm workers. Both land and slaves were returned to the state on the Spartan's death. Spartiates spent their days doing war exercises and eating together in the wooden mess halls. Despite this, Spartiates saw themselves as 'free' as they did not work but spent their days training for war.

Perioikoi

The second class were free non-citizens called the perioikoi. They were merchants, craftsmen and farmers and lived in villages outside the main region of Sparta. They had no say in the government and were regarded as socially inferior.

Helots

The third class were the helots or state-owned slaves and were by far the largest group. They worked the land for the Spartiates and were not allowed to leave that land. In time of war they were forced to go with their master to fight. Some historians have estimated that there were seven helots to each Spartiate.

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SOURCE 4.4 The plain of Laconia today

> No one was permitted to live as he pleased ... They viewed themselves absolutely as part of their country, rather than as individuals ...

SOURCE 4.5 Extract from 'Lycurgus' from *The Parallel Lives* (c.110 CE) by Plutarch, a Greek biographer and Roman citizen. Plutarch wrote this book to compare the good and bad points of famous Greek and Roman rulers. 'Lycurgus' is about the life of a Spartan lawgiver named Lycurgus. It was written in Greece.

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What type of society was Sparta?
2. What were the five main groups in Spartan society?
3. Who formed the citizen class of Sparta? Describe their way of life.
4. Which was the largest group in Sparta? What did they do?
5. What were the responsibilities of the kings of Sparta?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 4.5. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 4.5.
2. How, according to source 4.5, were Spartan lives restricted?

Empathetic understanding

Which would you rather be—a king, a spartiate or a perioikoi? Give reasons for your answer (see page 13 for a guide to empathy questions).

Research

What does the word 'spartan' mean in English? How do you think it got this meaning?

Spartan law and religion

The laws of Spartan were believed to have been created by the ancient law-giver Lycurgus of Sparta. Ancient historians thought Lycurgus was a real person who lived c. 820–730 BCE, but modern historians think he was probably mythical. Lycurgus supposedly received the laws of Sparta from the Oracle of Delphi, a woman who was believed to speak for the god Apollo and had the ability to see into the future. Lycurgus' laws were known as the Great Rhetra. The Great Rhetra aimed to form a society based on social equality and military readiness. Material simplicity (owning only what you really needed) was also important.

The Spartan Assembly

Sparta had its own Assembly, which had the authority to interpret Sparta's laws. A Spartan man was able to vote at the Assembly when he

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was 30 years of age. If the kings, the gerousia (see below) or the ephors disagreed with the Assembly, they could override its decisions. The gerousia and the ephors were elected by the Assembly.

The gerousia

The gerousia was a group of 30 people (including the two kings) who sat in judgement of Spartan criminals. They gave out punishments for crimes, including fines, exiles or death. The gerousia were elected from noble families. They had to be over the age of 60 before they could be elected, but once elected, they held their position on the gerousia until they died.

The krypteia

The krypteia was a group of young Spartiate men who formed the secret police of Sparta. Their main function was to roam the countryside and kill any helots they found. They did this to make sure that the helots lived in fear of them. The krypteia also killed off the strong and healthy helots, so that the helots would be unable to organise a rebellion against the Spartiates.

Spartan religion

There were a number of important religious festivals that celebrated the main concerns of Spartan society—war and fertility. One of the most important was the Gymnopaediae Festival (Festival of the Unnamed Boys), held in the agora (market place). It marked the Battle of Thyrea (c. 550 BCE) and featured violent boxing tournaments between boys and men. It was a type of initiation rite for the boys, marking their growth from youth to manhood and readiness to defend Sparta. Another festival was related to Artemis Orthia, the goddess of fertility. In late spring, a young man went to the temple of Artemis Orthia where they included a ritual beating by older men armed with whips. The blood of the young men would spill onto the altar of the temple, to appease the goddess, who in turn would grant the Spartans fertility. Sometimes this ritual ended in the death of the young men. Those who survived were paraded through the streets wearing fine clothes, performed celebratory dances and watched groups of young girls dancing.

> By them stands the priestess [of the temple], holding the wooden image [of Artemis Orthia]. Now it is small and light, but if ever the scourgers [men with whips] spare the lash because of a lad's beauty or high rank, then at once the priestess finds the image grows so heavy that she can hardly carry it. She lays the blame on the scourgers, and says that it is their fault that she is being weighed down. So the image ... keeps its fondness for human blood.

SOURCE 4.6 Excerpt from *Description of Greece* (c. 150 CE) by Pausanius, an Ancient Greek traveller and geographer

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Who was Lycurgus?
2. How did Lycurgus make the laws of Sparta?
3. What was the gerousia?
4. What was the function of the secret police in Sparta?
5. How did the Festival of the Unnamed Boys promote Sparta's preoccupation with war?
6. How did the Festival of Artemis Orthia promote Sparta's preoccupation with fertility?

Analysis and use of sources

How is source 4.6 useful for a historian studying religion in Sparta? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 4.6.

Research

Find out more about Lycurgus of Sparta. Devise five questions you would like to find answers to and find a suitable image. Present your research as a display for the Museum of Humanity.



Athens

Unlike Sparta, Athens was a type of democracy. The Greek word *demos* means 'the people', thus *democratia* means 'rule by the people'. In Athens, however, not everyone was included in 'the people'. Only men who were citizens of Athens were considered to be members of 'the people', and as such, they were the only ones who were allowed to vote. Athens was a wealthy city-state, but wealth was unevenly distributed, creating wealthy and poor social classes. Nevertheless,

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Athens' vibrant economy and its open society drew people from all around the Mediterranean to live and work there and to take part in cultural activities.

We have an abundance of archaeological, visual and written remains from Athens. Two famous Greek historians, Herodotus and Thucydides, wrote about Athenian history. Vase paintings and Greek dramas also give us a lot of information about the daily lives and attitudes of the Athenians. Athenian society consisted of three main groups: citizens, metics and slaves.

Citizens

To be an Athenian citizen, you had to be male and have a free Athenian father and mother. Athenian citizens could be old land-holding nobility, wealthy shopkeepers, craftsmen or poor workers. They were allowed to own houses and lands, if they could afford to. They were also allowed to vote, once they had completed their military training (undertaken between the ages of 18 and 20). Athenian citizens were politically equal, but not socially or financially equal.

Metics

Metics consisted of two groups in Athenian society: freed slaves and citizens of other Greek states who chose to live in Athens because of its economic, educational and cultural opportunities. They could take part in religious festivals, and serve as hoplites (foot soldiers) in the army and as oarsmen in the navy. The wealthy metic, like the wealthy citizen, was proud to pay for the chorus in the production of a play. They had the same access to courts as citizens and could own factories, merchant ships and slaves. However, they were not allowed to buy houses or land, nor could they take part in the political life of the city or act as jurors in court.

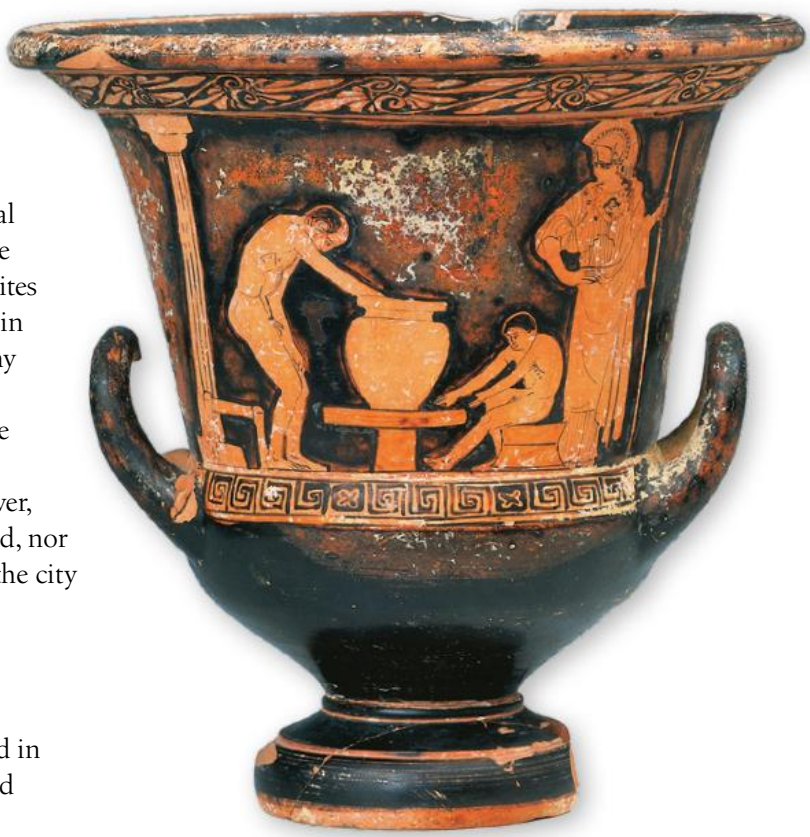
Slaves

The third class were slaves. These were divided into two groups: those who worked in households or shops and those who worked for the state. Some of the household slaves were educated and served as tutors to Athenian children. Other slaves worked in shops for the same wages as free Athenians. They gave half their earnings to their master, but were allowed to keep the other half. They could, therefore, eventually buy their freedom.

Slaves usually wore a tunic made of rough cloth, but sometimes they wore only a loincloth. The state slaves had the worst jobs. They worked long hours underground in almost pitch-darkness, choking on dust in the silver mines way down at Laurion. Many died after a few years.

> Our constitution is called a democracy because power is in the hands not of a minority but of the whole people ... each single one of our citizens, in all the manifold aspects of his life, is able to show himself the rightful lord and owner of his own person ... Make up your own minds that happiness depends on being free; and freedom depends on being courageous.

SOURCE 4.7 Pericles' funeral speech from *The History of the Peloponnesian War* (c. 410 BCE), by Thucydides, an Ancient Greek historian



SOURCE 4.8 Krater (large vase) with a scene of a potter at work, attended by Athena, goddess of wisdom, justice and Athens (c. 500 BCE), made in Sicily, Magna Graecia (Italy).

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ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What evidence do we have about Ancient Athens?

2 What were the three groups in Ancient Athenian society?

3 What work did the third class in Ancient Athenian society do? Were they better or worse off than Spartan helots?

4 Draw up the table in source 4.9 and add point-form notes under Athens 'society' alongside the notes on Sparta set out for you.

	Sparta	Athens
Society	Spartiates: ruling class • all Spartiates socially and financially equal Perioikoi: traders • socially inferior to Spartiates but free Helots: slaves • worked land for Spartiates	

SOURCE 4.9 Society in Sparta and Athens

Analysis and use of sources

Explain why the potter in source 4.8 is more likely to be a slave than a citizen.

Perspectives and interpretations

1 Read source 4.7. Was Thucydides right when he stated that power in Athens was 'in the hands of a whole people'? Give reasons for your answer.

2 Which Athenian social group's perspective does source 4.7 reflect?

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph to explain how a slave could become a metic in Athens.

Athenian law and religion

Athens was a democracy—at least for the citizens of Ancient Athens. While this form of government was different from that of Sparta, religion and law were nonetheless bound together in Athens as they were in Sparta. There were three main government bodies in Athens: the Ekklesia, the Council and the courts.

The Ekklesia

The most important body in the Athenian political system was the Ekklesia (Assembly). Anyone who was a citizen could sit on the Ekklesia. Decisions, such as whether to go to war, were voted on by the very people who had to do the fighting. Heralds gave a staff (a special stick) in turn to anyone who wished to speak from a raised platform at the front of the Ekklesia. To vote at the Ekklesia, Athenians simply raised their hands.

There were about 2000 official Ekklesia positions that Athenian citizens could hold. By the time he was 60, the Athenian citizen had a thorough personal knowledge of how his state worked. A citizen had to be voted by the Ekklesia to obtain a position. A citizen could also be voted out of their position through a method of voting known as 'ostracism'. To ostracise a person, voters at the Ekklesia scratched their name on a piece of pottery. The man who received the most pieces of pottery with his name on it had to retire from his position and was exiled for 10 years.

The Council

The Council had 500 members and was ruled by an epistates (president). Any Athenian citizen, no matter how poor, could be president of the state—but he only held the position for one day! The president performed any official duties, such as welcoming foreign ambassadors. The Council served to carry out the decisions of the Ekklesia.

The courts

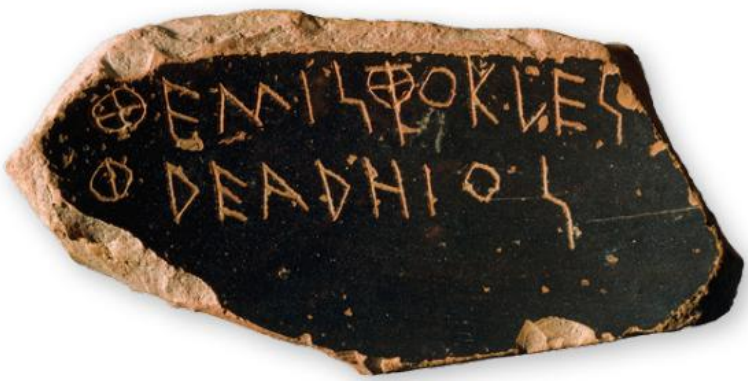
Citizens could serve on the jury of various law courts. There were no lawyers. Usually the accuser spoke first and suggested a penalty such as a heavy fine, exile or death: the accused spoke second and suggested the lightest punishments possible. The speeches were timed by a water clock. Then the jury would vote by secret ballot to decide whether the accused was guilty or innocent.

The Athenians employed Scythian slaves as 'police' as they felt no free Athenian should lay violent hands on another free Athenian. They believed that executing people polluted

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SOURCE 4.10 A water clock (c. 400 BCE), containing about 6.4 litres of water and allowing for six minutes of speech



SOURCE 4.11 Ostrakon (shard of pottery) of Thermistocles. Thermistocles (524–459 BCE) was an Athenian politician. He was famous for his use of ostracism, but in c. 471 BCE, it was used against him.

and hardened the soul of the executioner, so the accused had to put himself to death. A Scythian slave handed a bowl of poison to the condemned man who was supposed to commit suicide by drinking the poison.

Influence of religion

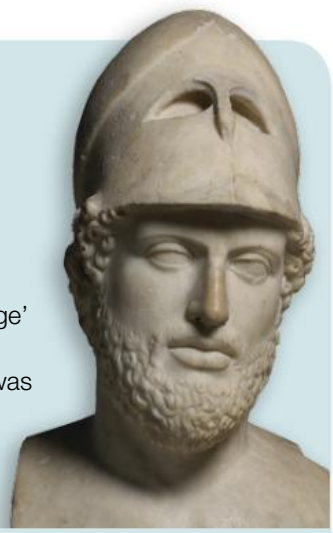
Religion and law were closely related in Athens. Altars and shrines to the gods were set up within public buildings and in public areas. A single magistrate, known as the Archon Basileus, was responsible for both religious matters and the laws. The Archon Basileus was elected and held the position for a year.

The Archon Basileus lived in a building called the Royal Stoa. In front of the Royal Stoa was a series of stones upon which the laws of Athens had been carved. Anyone could come and see the laws for themselves at any time.

> He moans like anything if he can't get a front seat at every trial ... He's so used to clutching his voting pebble that he wakes up with his thumb and two fingers glued together ... And mean! He's so mean that he scratches the long line on his tablet every time they get a conviction ... he comes home with enough wax under his fingernails to furnish a bee-hive.

SOURCE 4.12 Excerpt from the play *The Wasps* (422 BCE) by Arisophanes, an Ancient Greek playwright. *The Wasps* was a comedy that criticised the Greek law courts. This excerpt is about an old man who was addicted to serving on juries.

Spotlight



SOURCE 4.13 Pericles wearing his general's helmet

Ancient Athens was at the height of its glory and achievements during the 50 years from 480 to 430 BCE. These years are often called the 'Golden Age' or the 'Age of Pericles'.

Pericles (495–29 BCE) was of noble birth. Both his parents' families had played significant roles in Athenian history. Pericles was a general continuously from 443 BCE to 429 BCE. He had one vote, the same as everyone else, and as a general he had to carry out the policies laid down by the Assembly, even if he did not agree with them.

It was his superb speech-making, his genuine love of Athens, his integrity, his intelligence and his foresight that persuaded the Athenians to do what he saw was necessary for their city. In 431 BCE, Pericles could see that war with Sparta was inevitable, so he led the Athenians into war.

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ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What were the three main government bodies in Athens?
2 How did citizens speak and vote at the Ekklesia?
3 What was 'ostracism'?
4 What was the role of Council?
5 How were crimes judged in Ancient Greece?
6 Why were Scythians employed as police?
7 What was the role of the Archon Basileus?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 4.10. How is source 4.10 useful to a historian of Ancient Greek law courts? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 4.10.
2 Read source 4.12. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 4.12.
3 How is source 4.12 useful to a historian studying the Greek law courts? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 4.12.

Research

What does the word 'ostracism' mean in English? How is it related to the Ancient Greek practice of ostracism?

Explanation and communication

1 After reading the Spotlight box on page 117, write a paragraph to explain why Pericles was significant in Ancient Greece.
2 Every three to four years, we elect people to act for us in parliament. Write a paragraph to explain why the Ancient Athenians might see that as undemocratic.

What was everyday life like in Ancient Greece?

Spartan men

Spartan men (of the Spartiate class) spent most of their time training for the military. Men also had the job of inspecting newborn baby boys born in the village to determine whether the baby was healthy enough to grow up and become a Spartan warrior. If they thought the boy was unhealthy, they left it on a mountainside to die. Spartan men were not supposed to leave their military training until the age of 30, but many did (in secret), in order to get married. They crept out in the dead of night to visit their wives on distant farms. They would not see their wives in daylight until they were 30!

Athenian men

Athenian men who were citizens held positions of power in the government and could vote or sit on the Ekklesia. They also worked as trade merchants or tended to their fields. Athenian men generally spent much of their time away from home. Even when they were home, if they entertained friends at a **symposium** held in the *andron* (men's room), their wives and daughters were not allowed to attend. Men were also able to take part in outdoor sports, or go to the theatre and the agora (marketplace). Men enjoyed going to the agora and also to barber shops, where they could spend time talking with other men about politics, sport and village gossip.



SOURCE 4.14 Men at a symposium (c. 490–480 BCE), a fresco (wall painting on plaster) from the 'Tomb of the Diver', Paestum, Campania, Magna Graecia (Italy). The artist is unknown. The painting may record a scene from the life of the deceased.

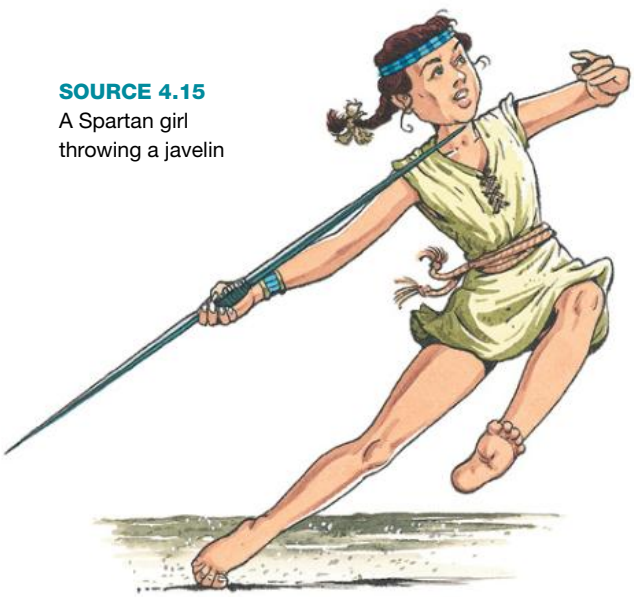
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Most young Athenian men aged between 18 and 20 completed basic military training. Between the ages of 18 and 60, Athenian men could be called up to defend Athens.

As fathers, Athenian men decided whether or not to keep a newborn baby. If they decided not to keep their baby son or daughter, the child was left at the marketplace to be sold as a slave. Athenian fathers also arranged their daughters' marriages and paid **dowries** to their future sons-in-law.

Spartan women

Spartan women (of the Spartiate class) enjoyed many freedoms and rights denied to women of other ancient societies. They were able to inherit land from their fathers, and to keep that land even if they married. They did not have to learn weaving or spinning—this work was done by the helots. Instead, they were encouraged to devote themselves to physical fitness. The aim of Spartan women's physical fitness was to produce healthy Spartan baby boys. Spartan women were also responsible for looking after their sons until the boys turned seven and their daughters until the girls married at around 18.



SOURCE 4.15
A Spartan girl throwing a javelin

Athenian women

Unlike Spartan women, Athenian women lived a far more restricted life. They had no political rights, could not own property, and could not be a citizen—only the son of an Athenian-born



SOURCE 4.16 Wine jug, with an image of an Athenian housewife spinning, using a distaff (with the wool) in her left hand and dangling a spindle from her right (c. 490 BCE)

woman could be a citizen. Her husband or father represented her in court. Provided she was accompanied by a male relative, a wife could leave the house to attend religious festivals or to visit the cemetery.

Even in her own house, the Athenian woman was kept out of sight. When her husband entertained friends in the *andron* at a symposium, she was not allowed to join in. Only when there were no visitors was a wife permitted to bring her chair and footstool into the *andron* to converse with her husband.

Not every woman in Athenian society was kept indoors. Female slaves were allowed out and 'non-respectable' women whose fathers or husbands were not citizens, such as the wives of metics could run market stalls.

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Priestesses

The only option open to an Athenian woman that would ensure her equality with men was to become a priestess. Priestesses were paid for their religious advice, given huge state funerals and considered wise. They were often consulted by men about political matters. A priestess in Ancient Greece did not have to be single—she could be married with children or she could be a widow. Priestesses were frequently mentioned by name in Ancient Greek histories, and depicted on vases and in sculpture.

Surely, of all creatures that have life and will, we women
Are the most wretched. When, for an extravagant sum,
We have bought a husband, we must then accept him ...
Then the great question: will the man
We get be bad or good? ...
If a man grows tired
Of the company at home, he can go out, and find
A cure for tediousness.

SOURCE 4.17 Excerpt from the tragedy play *Medea*, (431 BCE) by Euripides, an ancient Greek playwright. This play tells the story of the mythical heroes Jason and Medea.

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Why were 25-year-old Spartan men unable to see their wives in daylight?
2. Draw a six-frame cartoon to describe the life of an Athenian man in Ancient Greece. You can draw it freehand or else use software such as 'toondo'.
3. What were the responsibilities of Spartan mothers?
4. How did an Athenian woman who was the wife or daughter of a citizen visit the cemetery?
5. Which Athenian women were allowed to visit the market?
6. What privileges were enjoyed by priestesses?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 4.14. What does it tell us about symposiums in Ancient Athens?
2. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 4.14.
3. Read source 4.17. What does the speaker (Medea) mean by the phrase 'We have bought a husband'?
4. Why does the speaker (Medea) think women are 'the most wretched' of creatures?

Empathetic understanding

Write a paragraph for your museum scrapbook on one of the following topics:

'I would rather be a Spartan woman than an Athenian woman.'

'I would rather be an Athenian woman than a Spartan woman.'

Spartan children

Spartan boys were brought up by their mothers until the age of seven, when they were sent to live with 14 other boys in a large wooden hut, a sort of barracks. Boys were taught basic reading and writing skills, but their main education was physical. The aim of the education was to train disciplined soldiers. At the age of 12, the Spartan boys were given only a cloak to wear and no tunic. They had to go barefoot to toughen their feet. They plucked reeds from the Eurotas River with their bare hands to use as bedding. They were given coarse black bread dipped in wine for breakfast. For their main meal, they had soup made out of boiled pigs' blood, a piece of pork boiled in the soup, and bread. The boys had to carry out all the tasks they were required to do or be flogged. At some time during this period they were sent to live for two years on Mount Taygetus. There they had to catch or steal any food they could find.

Like the boys, Spartan girls did physical exercises. They were taught wrestling, running, throwing the discus and javelin. They learnt to ride horses and to drive chariots, even competing in special athletic games.

Spartan girls received an education and could read and write. They also learnt music, dancing, and poetry at community-run schools. Spartan girls lived at home until they were 18 years old, after which time they could marry and start their own families.

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Athenian children

Throughout their education, Athenian boys lived at home. At the age of seven, they went to school where they learnt reading, writing and arithmetic. They learnt the works of Homer off by heart as these poems were seen as teaching boys the moral values they should live by.

When Athenian boys were about 12, they were taught music, which consisted of learning to play the lyre and the flute, and singing. Music was believed to create harmony in a person's life. Boys also had physical training, as the Athenians thought that a good mind needed a good body.

The daughters of Athenian citizens were educated in household tasks by their mothers. Girls helped their mothers make clothes for the entire household. They wove the blankets for the beds, curtains for the doorways and decorations for the walls. Every day, they carried water in great jars, from public fountains to the house. This water was used for all household cleaning and washing.

Athenian girls married at 14 years of age. Their husbands were usually over 30 years old.



SOURCE 4.18 Dish showing a music lesson in Athens; the boy is playing the aulos' or double flute (c. 450 BCE)



SOURCE 4.19 Krater showing school boys, (c. 500 BCE), found at Lucania, Magna Graecia (Italy)



SOURCE 4.20 A child's pull-along buffalo toy (c. 750–500 BCE). Artisan unknown. It is made of terracotta, with traces of red paint, and measures 16.5 cm long. It was found in southern Italy, then part of Magna Graecia. Toys were given to children at festivals, both for play and to ward off evil spirits.

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ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Describe the education received by Spartan boys between the ages of seven and 12.
2 Why did Spartan boys need to endure many physical hardships?
3 What did a Spartan girl learn to do?
4 How are the lives of Ancient Athenian boys similar (continuity) and different (change) to those of modern Australian boys?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 4.20. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 4.20.
2 What useful information does source 4.20 tell a historian of Ancient Greece? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 4.20.

Empathetic understanding

Write a dialogue between two 12-year-old girls, one Spartan and one Athenian, comparing their lives.

What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Greeks?

Religious beliefs

The Ancient Greeks were polytheistic, with many gods and goddesses who were thought to control different aspects of life. Although Greeks across the Mediterranean may have had different political and social ideas, they had common religious beliefs revolving around the 12 gods whom they thought lived on Mount Olympus in northern Greece, and common myths that brought them together in numerous athletic and theatrical festivals. There were hundreds of different Greek gods, but only 12 who resided on Mount Olympus.

The twelve gods on Mount Olympus

- **Zeus:** the chief god and god of thunder
- **Hera:** his wife, in charge of marriage
- **Poseidon:** the god of the sea, earthquakes and horses
- **Hades:** the god of the underworld, in charge of the dead
- **Apollo:** the god of light, creativity, prophecy and healing
- **Aphrodite:** the goddess of love
- **Ares:** the god of war
- **Artemis:** the goddess of the Moon and hunting
- **Athena:** the goddess of wisdom
- **Dionysus:** the god of wine and theatre
- **Hephaistus:** the god of fire and metalworking
- **Hermes:** the god of messages

Everyday religious practices

Most houses had a little statue of Hermes (god of boundaries) outside the door to protect the house against thieves, and an altar in the courtyard on which the householders made offerings to Zeus and Apollo. The main household fire was protected by Hestia, the goddess of the hearth (or fireplace), who also received daily offerings of specially baked cakes. When the men held a symposium, the first of the wine was dedicated to Zeus; the last of the wine was poured on the ground as an offering to Hades.

There was no priest class as such in Ancient Athens. Some individual families could be called upon to provide a priest or priestess for special occasions. While that person was held in high esteem, they normally lived in the community. The most important position, the priestess of Athena, was held for life by a married woman belonging to a particular family.

Oracles

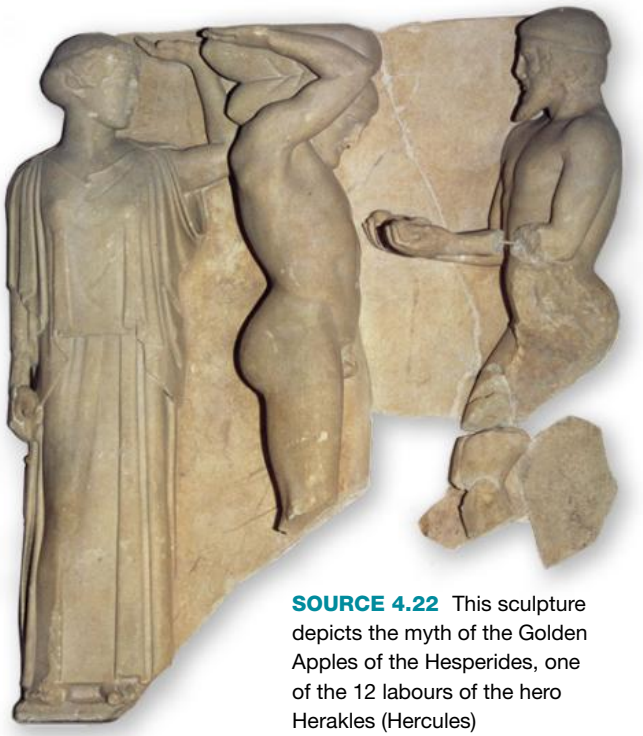
The Ancient Greeks thought oracles were the main way the gods communicated with human beings. The most famous oracle of all was at Delphi, at the temple of Apollo. The oracle (also known as the Pythia) would enter the innermost sanctuary, slipping behind a curtain at the far end. There she would sit on a sacred tripod and chew laurel leaves to inspire her. When the chief priest put a question to the Pythia, Apollo was supposed to answer through her. Usually no-one understood the god's words, so the priest wrote the answer down in verse.

The verse was deliberately vague, so it would always be right. When the Persians were attacking Athens, the Athenians were told by

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SOURCE 4.21 Theatre and temple at Delphi

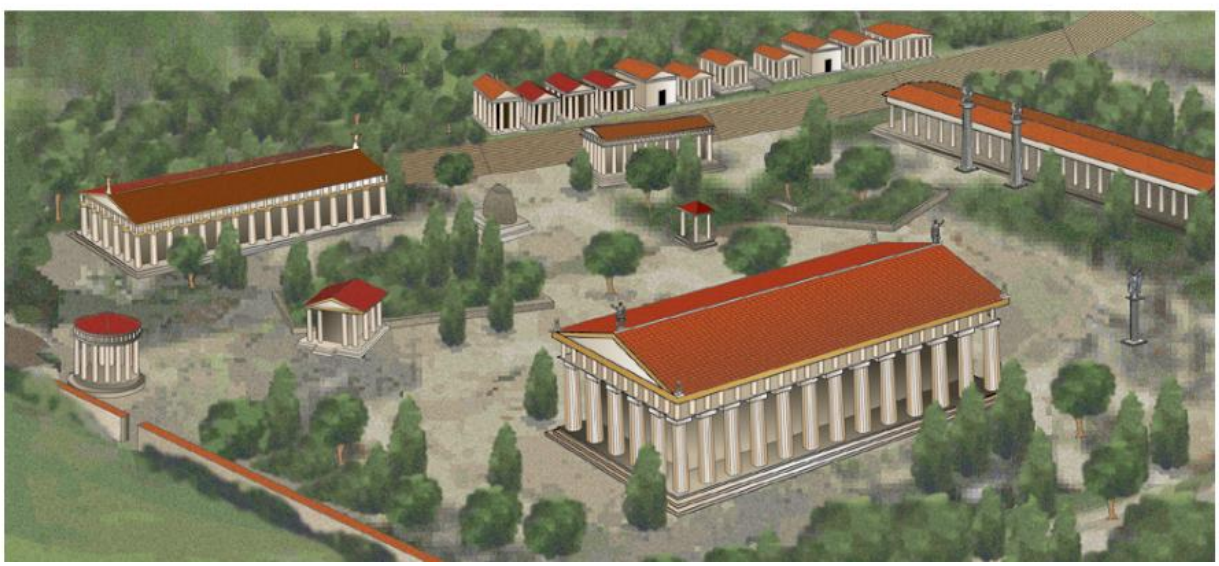


SOURCE 4.22 This sculpture depicts the myth of the Golden Apples of the Hesperides, one of the 12 labours of the hero Herakles (Hercules)

the Delphic oracle to 'seek the protection of their wooden walls'. At that stage there were wooden walls around the **Acropolis**, but one of their leaders said it meant their ships. Their fleet defeated the Persians and thus the oracle was right. (Athenians who sheltered behind the Acropolis walls were killed when the walls were set on fire by the Persians. They had obviously not understood the oracle, the priests at Delphi would say!)

The Olympic Games

The Olympic Games were created to honour the gods, particularly the chief god Zeus. The first day of the festival was devoted to the swearing-in ceremony for competitors and judges before the altar and statue of Zeus of the Oaths. On the morning of the third day, there was a procession and a sacrifice of 100 oxen at the altar of Zeus outside his temple. On the last day, victors went in another procession to the temple of Zeus where they were crowned with wreaths of wild olives.



SOURCE 4.23 Reconstruction of the Altis, or sacred area, with the temples of Zeus and Hera at Olympia

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ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Where and when did an Athenian worship the gods?
2 Who was the Delphic Pythia?
3 How did the Pythia answer questions?
4 How reliable was the Pythia as an oracle of the gods?
5 What was the religious function of the Olympic Games?
6 What religious ceremonies were held at the Olympic Games?

Research

1 Go to your digital support for weblinks to learn about the myths of Ancient Greece. Undertake one of the following activities:
   a In a group of about four, choose a myth and present it to the class. You may present it as a drama, a slideshow presentation or a narrative.
   b Using Comic Life or drawing by hand, create a comic strip of your myth. Add it to your museum scrapbook.
2 Find a primary source artefact that features one of the Ancient Greek gods). Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for your source and add it to your museum, with a brief description.

Site study: The Parthenon

The Parthenon was the temple on the Acropolis dedicated to Athena Parthenos, meaning 'Athena, the maiden goddess of wisdom'. The Parthenon served as her 'house', but it had another purpose. It was intended to show the Ancient Greek world the wealth, power and status of Athens.

Construction of the Parthenon

The Parthenon was built between 447 and 442 BCE by the architect Iktinos and the sculptor Pheidias, who was the general supervisor of the building. The baseline of the building is curved upwards to the centre and all columns curve and incline inwards to create the illusion that what you are actually *seeing* is perfectly straight.

The Parthenon is decorated with sculptural reliefs on the pediment, a decorative band of rectangular-shaped pictures (meotopes) and a frieze. Because the **frieze** is up high on the walls, the sculpture is carved deeper at the top than at the bottom so all parts of the frieze can be seen. The frieze describes the Panathenaic festival, the great festival held every four years in Athena's honour. The frieze is remarkable because it was the first and only one in Ancient Greece to show real human beings in action, not gods. When Athens lost the Peloponnesian War, some Ancient Greeks saw the defeat as an act of **nemesis** for Athens' **hubris** in depicting Athenians, rather than gods, on the frieze.

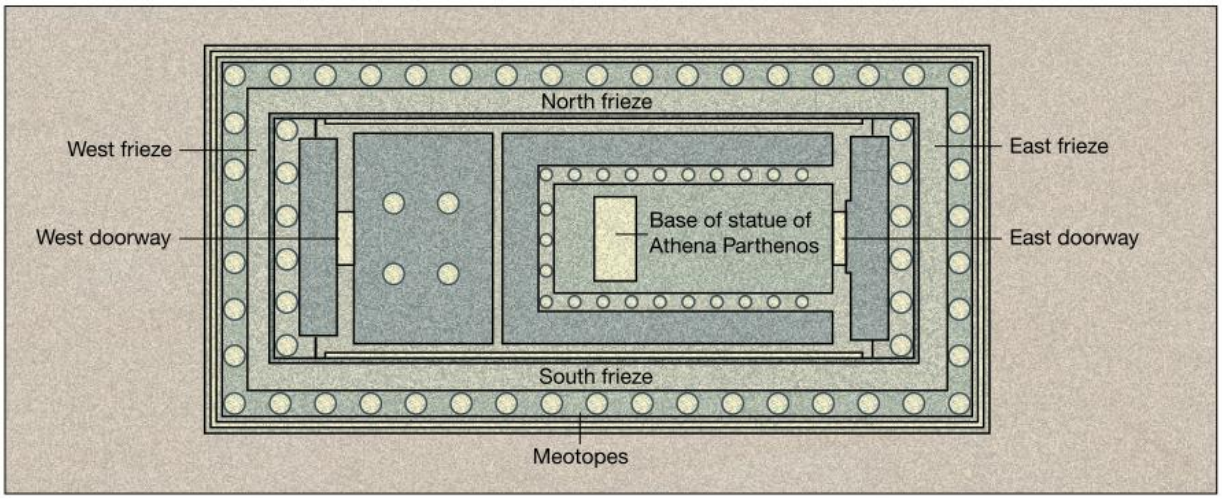


SOURCE 4.24 Front of the Parthenon

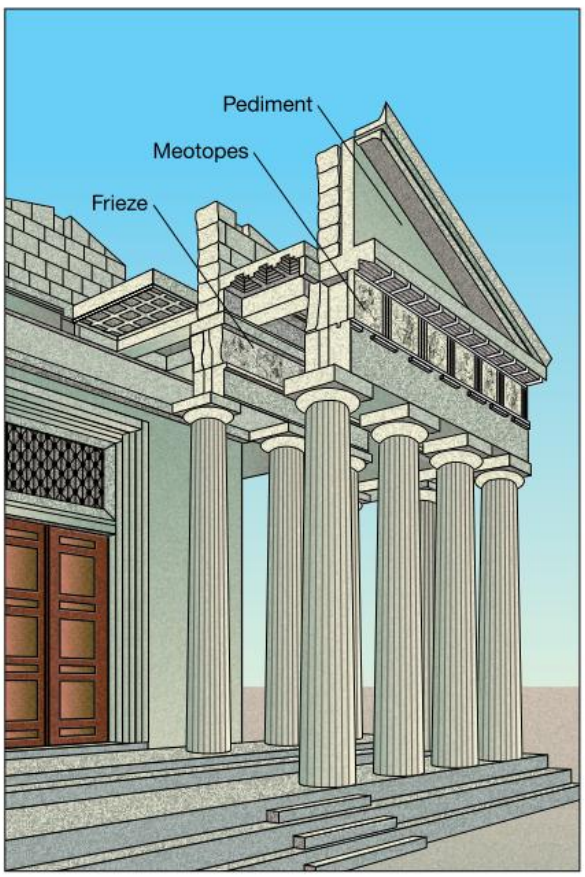
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Outside the Parthenon was an altar to Athena. It was here that Ancient Athenians gathered in crowds on feast days. Sculptural decorations are therefore only on the outside of the temple, except for the great statue of the goddess, which was in the *cella* (inner room) and visited by individuals with private requests.

Originally, the sculptures of the Parthenon and some of its architectural features were painted. Horizontal lines were red and vertical lines were blue. The paint was applied thinly so the marble could still be seen underneath the paint. Today, the building is a goldish-white marble.



SOURCE 4.25 Floorplan of the Parthenon



SOURCE 4.26 Cross-section of the Parthenon



SOURCE 4.27 Water bearers (c. 440 BCE), by Pheidias, an Ancient Greek sculptor, depicted in marble on the north frieze of the Parthenon

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ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What does 'Parthenon' mean?
2 Why was the Parthenon built?
3 Why is most of the sculpture only on the outside of the Parthenon?
4 What was the subject of the frieze?
5 Why is the frieze remarkable?
6 Why did some Athenians come to believe the subject matter of the frieze was the reason behind their loss of the Peloponnesian War?
7 How has the colour of the Parthenon changed since it was first built?

Research

1 Find a primary source image from the Parthenon. Complete the 5Ws (image) for your source and include it in your museum scrapbook.
2 Go to your digital support to access a weblink to a walk-through experience of the Parthenon and a virtual experience of the Parthenon friezes.

Explanation and communication

Using the text, sources 4.24–4.27 and the virtual reality websites, write a paragraph to describe your visit to the Parthenon.

Death in Ancient Greece

Death and the body

The Ancient Greeks believed that when a person died, their spirit (or 'psyche') left their body as a little breath of air. Once this was believed to have happened, women prepared the body for burial. The body was washed and smeared with oil, then dressed in white. A wreath was placed on the deceased's head. From the 4th century BCE, an obol (silver coin) was sometimes placed in the mouth of the deceased in case it was needed in the next life. The body was then placed on a high platform within the deceased's house for a day, during which relatives came to the house to view the body and pay their respects. Female relatives of the deceased chanted dirges (songs of grief), beat their breasts and tore their hair and clothing.

The funeral procession

On the following day, the body was brought to the cemetery in a funeral procession. The funeral procession usually took place just before dawn. A libation (a mixture of milk, honey, wine, water and fruits) was poured over the body of the deceased. Sometimes the body was cremated.

Burial

The body (or ashes of a cremated body) was laid in a grave. Unless the person was very wealthy, there weren't many grave goods. Tombs, steles (tombstones) and statues were often erected to mark the place of burial. Most people were buried in cemeteries within the city. In Athens, the wealthier you were, the more elaborate your funeral and tomb. In Sparta, more elaborate tombs were reserved for those who had died serving the state, such as men who had died in battle, or women who had died in childbirth.

After the burial, there was a mourning period of 11 days. Women washed the house and household objects with sea water and hyssop (a herb) to cleanse them, as death was considered 'unclean'. Then a funeral feast was held, 'hosted' by the deceased, to thank the mourners. Women made regular visits to the grave site with small cakes and libations to remember the deceased.



SOURCE 4.28 Funerary stele of Demokleides, a sailor killed in the naval battle of Corinth in 394 BCE. He is pictured sitting on the stern of a ship, his helmet and shield beside him. Found at Piraeus, Greece.

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SOURCE 4.29 Detail from a vase showing the death of the Greek god Archemoros (c. 330 BCE) by the 'Darius Painter', an anonymous vase painter from Apulia, Magna Graecia (southern Italy)

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What did the Ancient Greeks believe happened at the point of death?
2 How was the body prepared for mourning?
3 How did the Ancient Greeks mourn the dead?
4 What happened after the body was brought to the cemetery?
5 What sort of people might have an elaborate tomb?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 4.29. What aspects of death and burial in Ancient Greece are shown in the image?

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph to explain the role of women in relation to death and burial in Ancient Greece.

Greek learning

The Ancient Greeks were famous for their practice of philosophy. The word 'philosophy' means 'love of wisdom'. The practice of philosophy arose in the early 6th century BCE among people who desired wisdom and learning beyond their traditional knowledge of the world. They wanted to answer questions such as: Why do we have seasons? Why do we die? Is there such a thing as a 'good' life? What is the universe? Although mythology provided some answers to these questions, the philosophers were not satisfied. How did the gods do it?, they wondered. Within a few centuries, the practice of philosophy had spread all over the Greek-speaking Mediterranean. Through their practice of philosophy, the Greeks were able to extend humanity's knowledge of mathematics, science, astronomy, music and ethics.

The Classical School

The period of Ancient Greek philosophy extends over 1000 years, from c. 600 BCE to 600 CE. During this time there were many different philosophical movements, all emphasising different perspectives on knowledge, including the Pythagorean School, the Classical School and the Stoics. The most famous of these is the Classical School, which existed around 450–300 BCE. Socrates and Aristotle were famous philosophers of the Classical School.

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Socrates (c. 470–399 BCE)

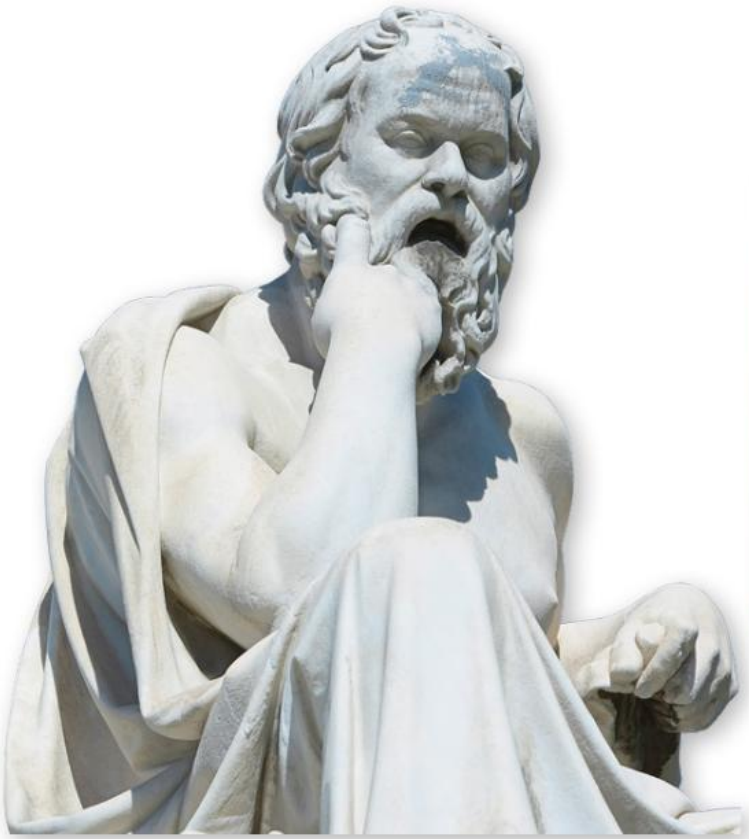
Socrates' most famous contribution to philosophy is known as 'the Socratic method'. To answer a question about ethics (how to behave morally and correctly), the question would be broken down into a series of further questions. This approach to knowledge is used today in modern scientific inquiry.

Socrates was not always popular with the people of Athens. When the oracle at Delphi declared that none was wiser than Socrates, Socrates is said to have argued that the oracle was wrong, because he, Socrates, possessed no wisdom at all. Socrates then stated that none of the other people of Athens who thought themselves wise actually possessed any wisdom either, and that therefore the oracle was correct after all—since he, Socrates, knew that he was not wise, this actually made him the wisest, as he was the only one who was aware of his own ignorance. This angered the people of Athens, who accused him of corrupting the minds of youth and of not believing in the gods. Socrates was sentenced to death by drinking hemlock, a poison.

Aristotle (384–322 BCE)

Aristotle is famous for developing the study of logic, that is, the practice of using reasoning to prove or disprove a point. Aristotle's logical method would be popular in Western Europe until the 19th century. An example of Artistotelian logic is: 'If all people are mortal; and all Greeks are people; then all Greeks are mortal.'

Aristotle also pioneered the science of zoology (study of animals) and the development of scientific method using observation and reason to make conclusions. His approach to scientific study would not be seriously challenged until the 16th and 17th centuries, when scientists would begin to prove and disprove their theories by conducting experiments.



SOURCE 4.30 Modern statue of Socrates outside the Academy of Athens, Greece. The Academy of Athens is Greece's main research institute.



SOURCE 4.31 Tile made in 1437 CE, showing Plato (left) and his student, Aristotle (right) by Luca Della Robbia. Originally this tile was part of the bell tower of the Santa Maria del Fiore Cathedral in Florence, Italy. A cathedral is the main church in a diocese.

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ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why did the Ancient Greeks practise philosophy?
2 What is the time span of Ancient Greek philosophy?
3 What was Socrates famous for?
4 What was Aristotle famous for?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at sources 4.30 and 4.31. What do these sources indicate about people's regard for Socrates and Aristotle at the time the sources were created? Give reasons for your answer for each source.

Research

Choose a famous Greek philosopher (apart from Socrates and Aristotle). Devise six questions you would like to find answers to and find a suitable image. Present your research as a display for the Museum of Humanity.

Explanation and communication

Write a monologue for an animatronic Socrates for the Museum of Humanity, in which he explains why he is the wisest man in Athens.

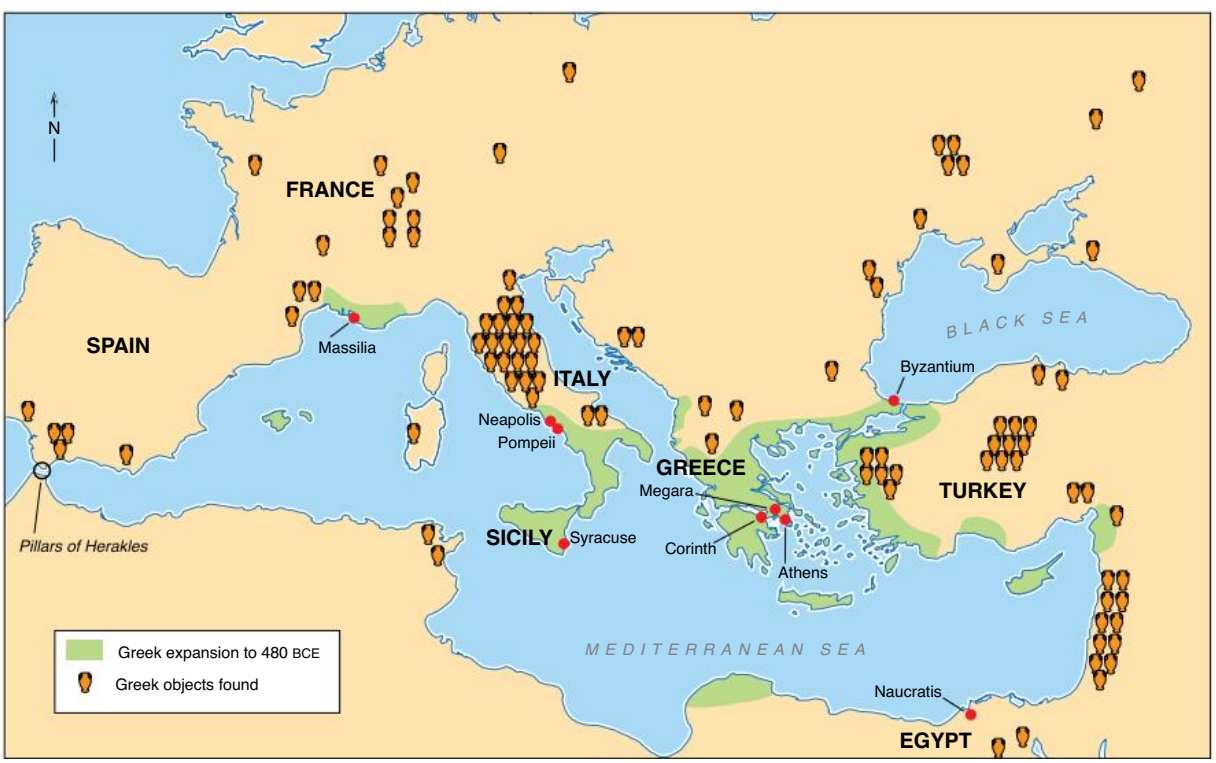
What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Greeks have within Greece and with other societies?

Trade contacts with other societies

Trade with other societies around the Mediterranean was an important aspect of Ancient Greek life. The Greeks traded pottery, bronze, silver, gold, olive oil, wine and textiles. In return, they bought wheat, papyrus, spices, wood and linen. They also imported gems and ivory, which they worked into jewellery and other luxury items. Important trading partners included Egypt, Phoenicia and Lydia (present-day western Turkey). After the Ancient Greek military leader Alexander the Great conquered the Middle East, Ancient Greece's trading links expanded as far as Afghanistan and western India.

Consequences of trade

The Ancient Greek states, hemmed in by mountains and sea and unable to grow enough



SOURCE 4.32 Ancient Greek settlements around the Mediterranean before 480 BCE, and locations where objects made in Ancient Greece have been found

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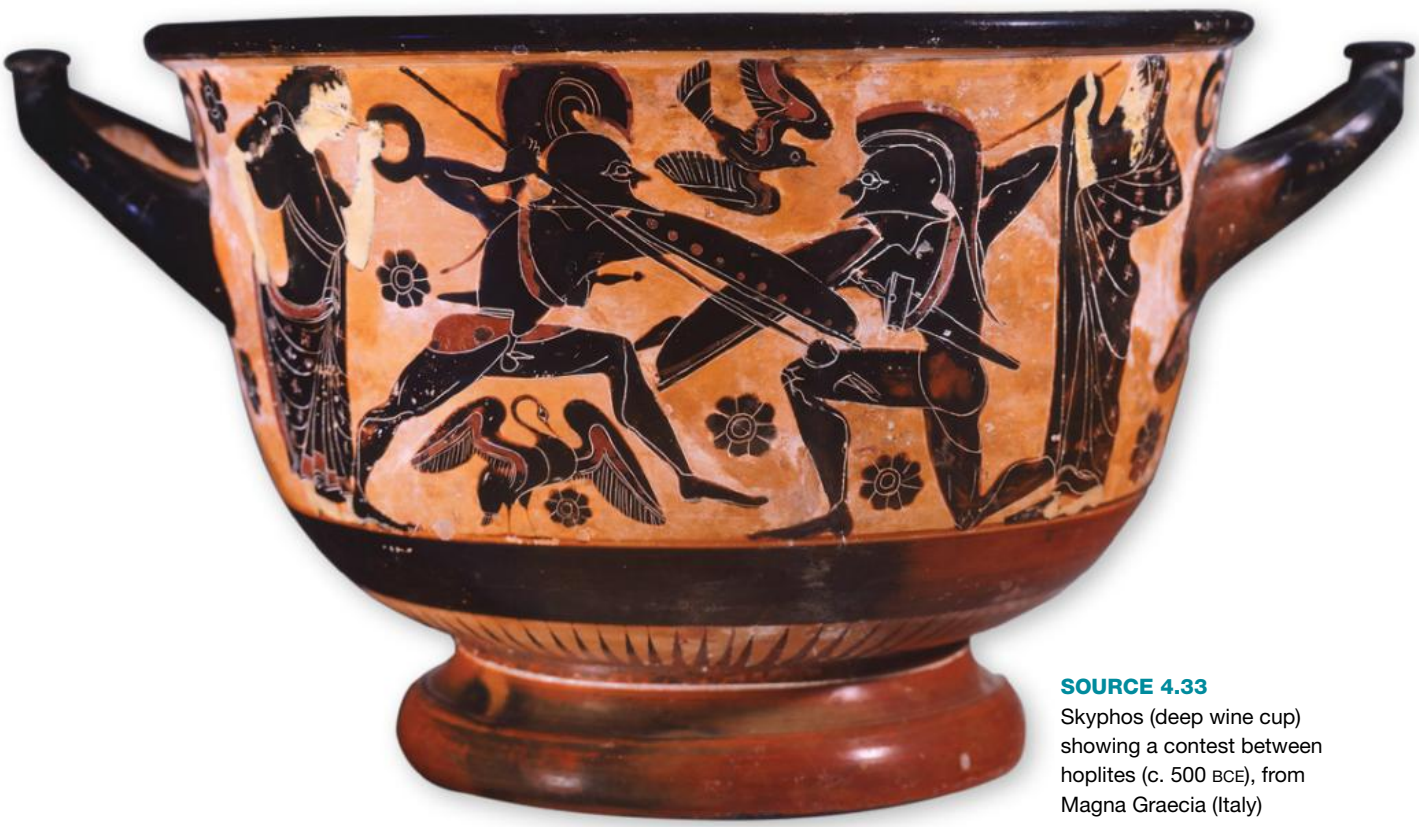
crops to feed their expanding populations, joined in a race to create colonies in the lands of their trading partners all around the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. The city-state of Megara was one of the first, founding the town of Byzantium (now Istanbul) in 657 BCE. Other Greek states sent their people to North Africa, the coastline of Sicily and southern Italy, and even as far as southern France to Massilia (now Marseilles) or to Spain. Pompeii was a Greek colony, as was Naples, originally called Neapolis or 'new city'. The Ancient Athenian philosopher Plato described the gradual Greek settlement of the coastline of the Mediterranean Sea as 'frogs squatting around a pond'. The new settlements were always on the coast, never inland, as if they were still tied with an invisible cord to their mother country. They kept their original culture and their language, and sent competitors to the Olympic Games.

Another important consequence of trade contacts with other societies was the development of the Greek alphabet. The Greek alphabet was an adaptation of the Phoenician alphabet. The Greeks needed to develop a system of writing so that they could keep financial records. A Greek merchant often needed to borrow large sums of money to pay for trade expeditions, and these needed to be carefully recorded so that the person or people lending the money could keep track of how much the merchant had to repay.

War with Persia

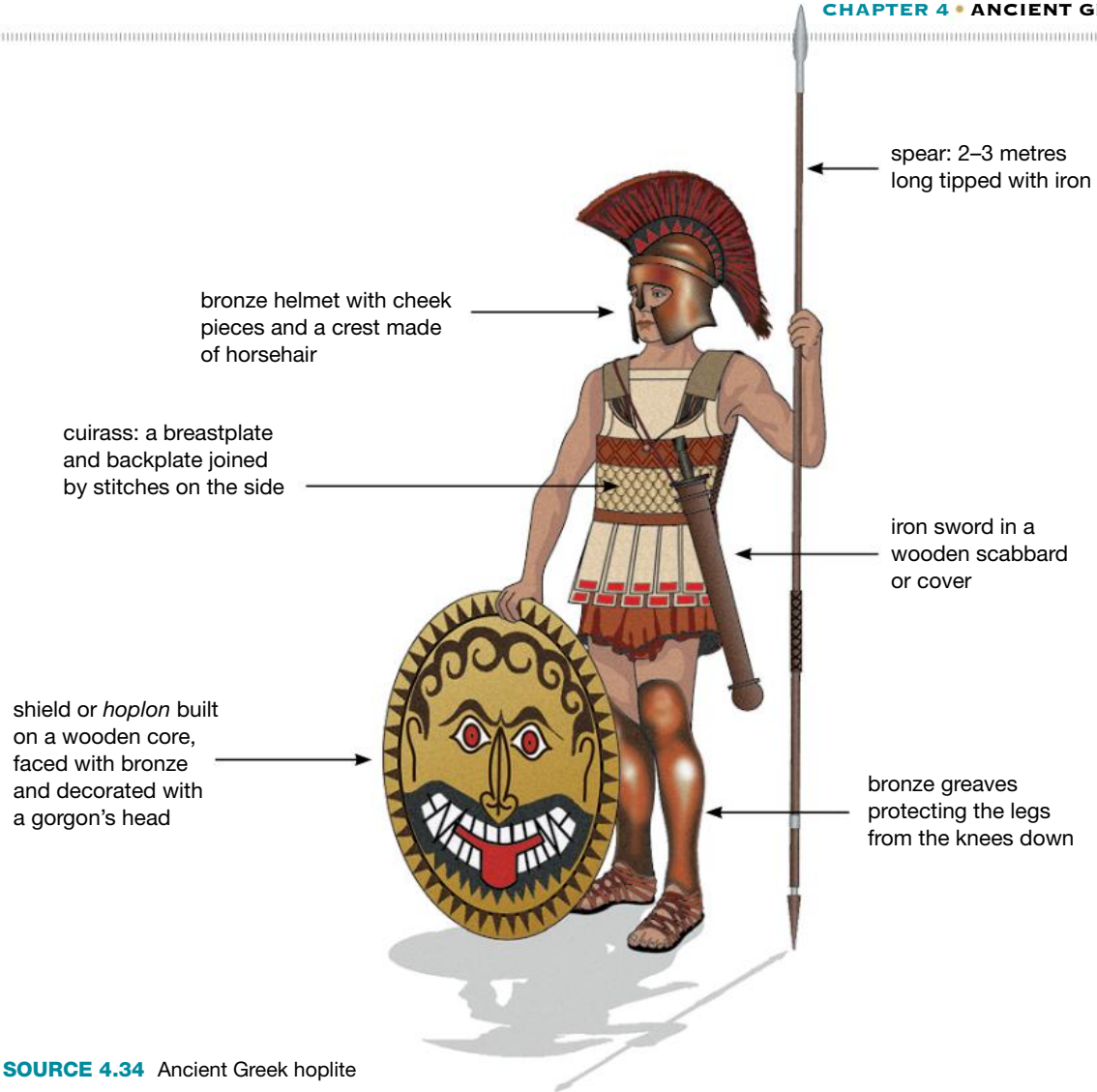
The Ancient Greeks were frequently at war with the Persians. For many years, the Persians had been expanding their empire into the lands around the Mediterranean. By 520 BCE, Persia had defeated all the Greek Ionian cities on the coastline of Asia Minor. In 499 BCE, the cities revolted against Persia and regained their independence.

The Persians invaded Greece itself in 490 BCE. During the Battle of Marathon in 490 BCE, Pheidippides, an Athenian messenger, ran to Sparta to ask for help. Sparta agreed to help, but not until the time of the full moon, due to their religious beliefs. Pheidippides then ran back from Sparta to the battlefield of Marathon, where he fought all day. After all that effort, he ran over the hills to Athens where he dropped dead



SOURCE 4.33
Skyphos (deep wine cup) showing a contest between hoplites (c. 500 BCE), from Magna Graecia (Italy)

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SOURCE 4.34 Ancient Greek hoplite

after announcing that Athens had won. Today, a marathon is a long foot-race, commemorating Pheidippides' run from Marathon to Athens.

The second Persian invasion was in 480 BCE. It was the only time Athens and Sparta fought on the same side. Spartan bravery at Thermopylae and Athenian skills in the sea battle of Salamis led eventually to the Persian defeat in 479 BCE.

Consequences of war with Persia

After the defeat of Persia, Athens built a sea-based empire that dominated the Aegean Sea. Other Greek states such as Corinth and Sparta became jealous of Athens and formed the Peloponnesian League.

The Peloponnesian League fought Athens and its allies from 431 to 404 BCE in the Peloponnesian War. The Spartans won and forced their rule on Athens, though democracy would later be restored in 403 BCE.

> And first, before they left the city, the generals sent off to Sparta a herald, one Pheidippides, who was by birth an Athenian, and by profession and practice a trained runner. This man, according to the account which he gave to the Athenians on his return, when he was near Mount Parthenium ... [came across] the god Pan, who called him by his name, and bade him ask the Athenians 'wherefore they neglected him so entirely, when he was kindly disposed towards them, and had often helped them in times past, and would do so again in time to come?' The Athenians, entirely believing in the truth of this report, as soon as their affairs were once more in good order, set up a temple to Pan under the Acropolis...

SOURCE 4.35 Excerpt from *The Histories* (c. 450–420 BCE) by Herodotus, a Greek historian. Herodotus wrote his book to record the 'great and wondrous deeds' of Greeks and non-Greeks and to show why they fought each other in wars. In this excerpt, written while Herodotus was in the Greek colony of Thurii, Italy, he tells of Pheidippides' run of 450 km from Marathon to Sparta and back again.

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ACTIVITY 12

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What products did the Greeks buy from their trading partners?
2 Why did Plato describe the Greek settlement of the Mediterranean as 'frogs squatting around a pond'?
3 What famous towns were founded by the Greeks?
4 How far east did Greek traders go?
5 Why did the Greek alphabet develop?
6 What were the causes and effects of Greek conflict with the Persians?
7 Create a timeline of the Greco-Persian wars in 520–479 BCE, featuring the following dates: 520 BCE, 499 BCE, 490 BCE, 480 BCE, 479 BCE.

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 4.32. Why do you think Ancient Greek objects have been found in areas that were not Ancient Greek settlements?
2 Look at source 4.33 and source 4.34. Redraw one of the figures in source 4.33 and label the different parts of his armour.
3 Read source 4.35. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 4.35.
4 What does source 4.35 tell us about Athenian beliefs?

Research

In a group of four, select one of the following famous battles to research.

- Battle of Marathon
- Battle of Thermopylae
- Battle of Salamis

Demonstrate to the class why the Persians or Greeks won or lost those battles in a series of diagrams using PowerPoint or an interactive whiteboard. Save a copy of your presentation in your museum scrapbook.

What was the role of Alexander the Great in Ancient Greece?

Alexander the Great was the greatest general of the Ancient World. In 11 years, he conquered the whole of the Middle East, from Egypt to India. He inspired his men with his personal courage, he planned his battles carefully and he moved swiftly and accurately against enemies.

Alexander III was born in 356 BCE. He came from the Greek state of Macedon, an area to the north of the Athenian state. His tutor and mentor during his youth was the Greek philosopher Aristotle. Alexander III's father, Phillip II, was the king of Macedon and leader of the League of Corinth, a federation of Greek



SOURCE 4.36 Mosaic of Alexander the Great (c. 1 CE), from Pompeii, Italy

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states that included Athens. When his father was assassinated in 336 BCE, Alexander inherited the overlordship of Greece and a great army, which he would use to conquer West Asia.

In 334 BCE, Alexander set off for Issus in Anatolia (then part of the Persian Empire) with an army of 40 000 men. At the Battle of Issus, Alexander's superb cavalry leadership and tactics, together with the steadiness of the Macedonian infantry, gave him a resounding victory against the Persians. It marked the beginning of the end of the Persian empire. Alexander then conquered Phoenicia, Palestine and Egypt, before turning east into Persia itself. By 331 BCE, his army occupied the Persian capital Persepolis and Alexander took the title of 'Great King'.

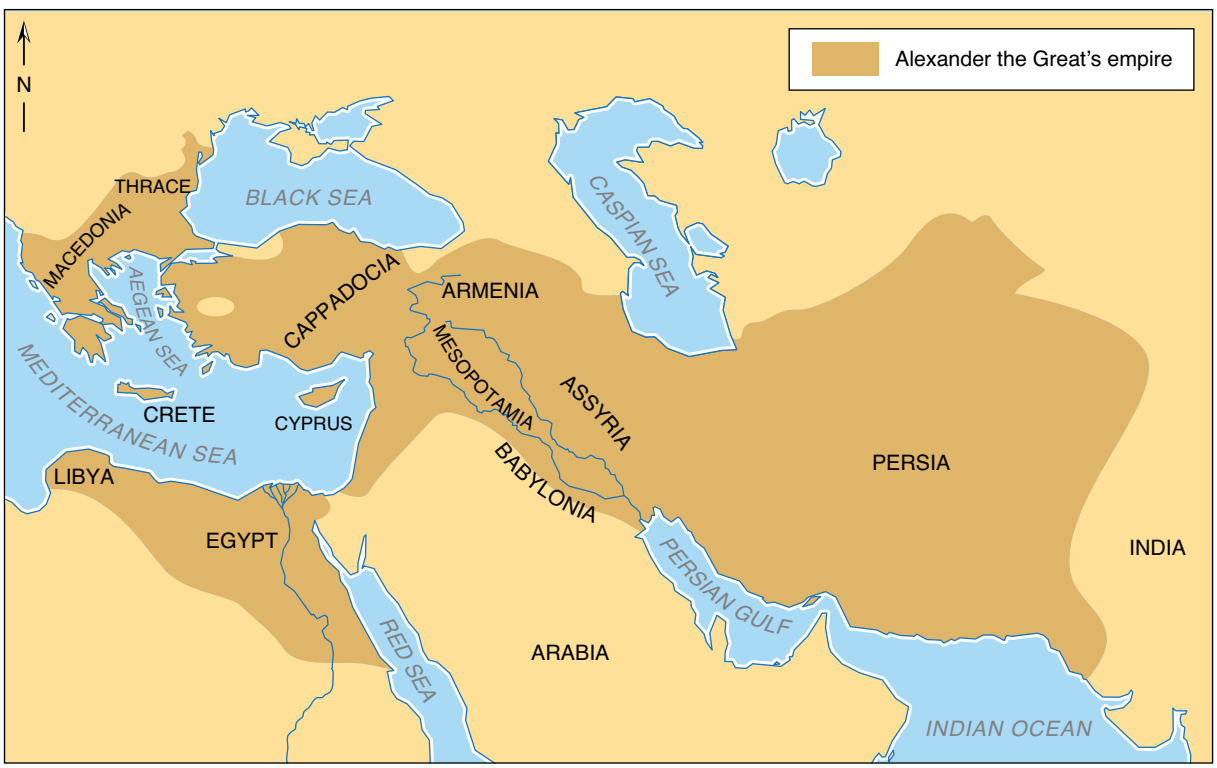
Alexander's expansion to India

Alexander's curiosity and thirst for conquest pushed him on through the Middle East, through Afghanistan and into India. He wanted to reach the end of the world (Asia), but his men refused to go any further and he was forced to retreat. He died in 323 BCE at the age of 32, before he could include the Mediterranean lands of Italy and North Africa in his empire.

The significance of Alexander the Great

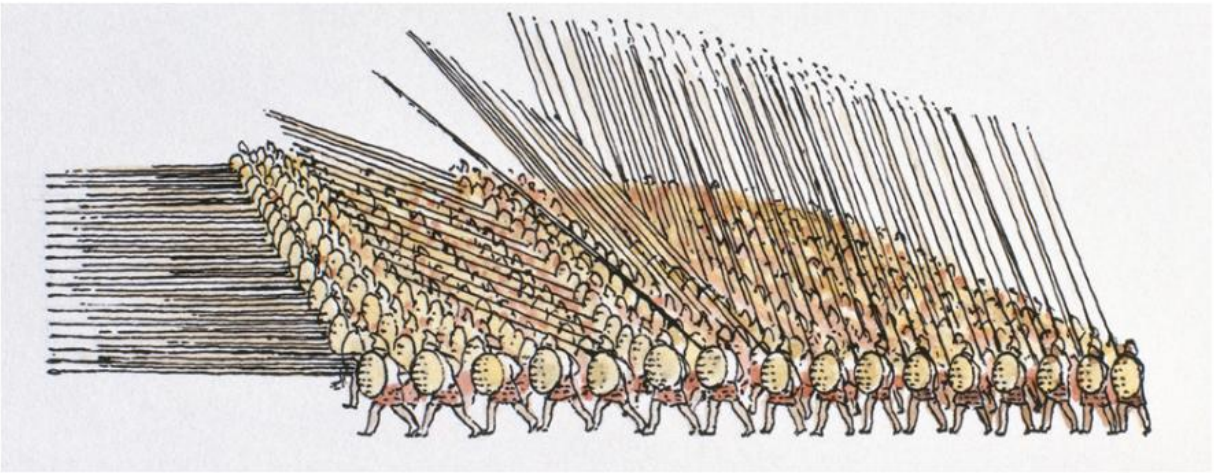
Alexander's conquests would have a lasting cultural impact on the Mediterranean. The period after the death of Alexander is called the 'Hellenistic Period'. Due to Alexander—and his generals who ruled his conquered territories after Alexander's death—Ancient Greek ideas, language and coinage spread throughout the Middle East. This is why the New Testament books of the Bible were written in Greek. Alexander founded about 20 cities around the Mediterranean, naming most of them after himself. The Egyptian city of Alexandria is perhaps the most famous of these. Alexander's conquest of Egypt opened a strong trade and cultural exchange between Greece and Egypt that lasted for 300 years.

Alexander also influenced the way armies fought. Alexander made great use of the **phalanx** military formation. The phalanx had been invented by his father. It was a tight square formation of soldiers carrying shields and spears. The back row held their spears upright to hide the forces behind them, while the front row held their spears out in front, keeping the enemy away with a wall of spikes. On flat ground, the phalanx proved unbeatable.



SOURCE 4.37 Map of Alexander the Great's empire, 334–323 BCE

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SOURCE 4.38 Illustration of Alexander the Great's army marching in phalanx formation

Alexander was also the first known general to encourage his army to integrate with the newly conquered territories by marrying women from those regions. He himself married two Middle Eastern women. This ensured that there was a growing population within his conquered territories that was supportive of his rule.

After the battle at Issus, [Alexander] sent to Damascus and seized the money and baggage of the Persians together with their wives and children. And most of all did the Thessalian horsemen [of Thessaly, Greece] enrich themselves, for they had shown themselves surpassingly brave in the battle, and Alexander sent them on this expedition purposely, wishing to have them enrich themselves. But the rest of the army also was filled with wealth. Then for the first time, the Macedonians got a taste of gold and silver and women and barbaric luxury of life, and now that they had struck the trail, they were like dogs in their eagerness to pursue and track down the wealth of the Persians.

SOURCE 4.39 Extract from 'Alexander' from *The Parallel Lives* (c.110 CE) by Plutarch, a Greek biographer and Roman citizen. Plutarch wrote his book to compare the good and bad points of famous Greek and Roman rulers. It was written in Greece.

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why is Alexander called 'the Great'?
2 Why was the Battle of Issus important for Alexander?
3 How did Alexander become the 'Great King'?
4 How far did he go in his conquests?
5 What was phalanx formation?
6 Why did Alexander encourage his troops to marry foreign women?
7 Draw a mind map to explain why Alexander the Great was a significant figure in history.

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 4.39. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 4.39.
2 Which of Alexander's forces were the most richly rewarded? Why?
3 Why are Alexander's forces willing to continue fighting the Persians, according to source 4.39?

Perspectives and interpretations

Rewrite source 4.39 from the perspective of a Persian child.

Research

Find and review a secondary source (website or text book) about Alexander the Great. How is the source you have found useful to a historian studying Alexander the Great?

What legacy did Ancient Greece leave to modern life?

The Ancient Greeks have made a tremendous contribution to our lives today: from atomic theory to poetry, from medical and scientific experiments to tragedy and comedy, from philosophy to the Olympic Games, from sculpture to history.

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Greek plays such as *Medea* and *Oedipus* are still performed today, as they raise eternal questions: How can human beings know the future? What will happen to us tomorrow? The very word 'theatre' is derived from the Greek *théatron*, meaning 'a place for viewing'.

Modern writers and musicians use the rich Ancient Greek mythological stories for their themes. Stravinsky's *Oedipus Rex* and the Australian author David Malouf's novel *Ransom*, about the meeting between Achilles and Priam during the Trojan War, are two examples.

The **Western world** owes a great debt to Athens for the creation of the concept of democracy and the idea of trial by fellow citizens. Sparta has also influenced Western society, giving inspiration to movements that sought social equality, and also influencing the development of tyrannous regimes such as Nazi Germany and the former Soviet Union.

The Ancient Greek belief in the worth of the individual human being is probably their greatest contribution to our world and is best seen in the Athenian educational system that developed well-rounded individuals interested in music, theatre, literature, politics, and physical skills. In terms of literacy, the Greek alphabet has had a profound influence on the nature of our own Latin alphabet.

Greek architectural ideas continue to inspire us: for example, our National Library in Canberra is based on the design of the Parthenon.

In sport, too, Ancient Greece has left us an enduring legacy—the Olympic Games, which was revived in 1896 as an international tournament.



SOURCE 4.40 The National Library of Australia in Canberra

But surely the most important legacy of the Ancient Greeks is the study of—history! The Greek historian Herodotus is popularly known as the 'father of history', after writing *The Histories*.

ACTIVITY 14

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How do Greek plays continue to influence the modern world?
2. How do Greek myths continue to influence the modern world?
3. How has Greek art influenced the modern world?
4. What is one of the most important legacies of Ancient Greece?

Research

Alexander the Great summons 10 speakers to the Odeum in Athens in 335 BCE. Each speaker has to give a lecture on one key Ancient Greek figure. Each of the 10 people listed below was a leader in their particular field and each is a key figure in Western society. The speaker has to persuade Alexander and the audience that their selected person is the greatest Greek who has ever lived—apart from Alexander, of course.

- Aristophanes (comedy)
- Homer (epic poetry)
- Herodotus (history)
- Sappho (lyric poetry)
- Pythagoras (mathematics)
- Hippocrates (medicine)
- Plato (philosophy)
- Thales (science)
- Pheidias (sculpture)
- Aeschylus (tragedy)

In groups of three, each person using different internet sites, research the life and work of your individual. Report the information you found to your group and prepare the speech together. Remember: the speech is not just about facts, but should also charm Alexander and persuade the audience that your person is the best.

Explanation and communication



Create a slideshow titled 'The Legacy of Ancient Greece' for your museum. Include primary sources (images and artefacts) from Ancient Greece and the modern world to illustrate change and continuity between Ancient Greece and the modern world.

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History challenges

Creating an exhibit

Create five exhibits for the Mediterranean World gallery on the following themes for Ancient Greece:

1. physical features
2. daily life
3. contact and conflict with other countries
4. a significant individual
5. the legacy of its society.

Greek hero game

Working with a partner, look at the Greek hero game for primary-school students supplied as a weblink on your digital support.

1. Play the game.
2. Write down ideas on how to raise the level of the game to high-school standard.
3. Create one example to show how your improvements would work.

Daily life booklet

Create a booklet suitable for a Grade 5 student, to be sold in the museum gift shop about a day in the life of Ancient Athenians.

You will need to include information and pictures about houses, clothing, jewellery and a visit to the theatre. Add it to your museum scrapbook.

Wars

In a group of three, make your own video on the legend of the Trojan War.

Was there really a Trojan War? Find evidence for or against and, on your video, create an interview, with one of you cast as a famous archaeologist.

or

Create a diorama of either the battlefield of Marathon or the battle area of Salamis.

Art detective

The Museum of Humanity wants to buy a Greek vase showing the hero Achilles. It asks Senior Detective Frank Fake, a specialist in Ancient Greek forgeries, to check the vase.

Can you, too, be an art detective?

Go to your digital support to view images of genuine vases from Ancient Greece, then assess the vase in sources 4.41 and 4.42.

1. What material were Ancient Greek vases made from? What material does this vase look like it is made from?
2. Does the painting show Ancient Greek heroes? Which one?
3. Is the painting done in the Ancient Greek style?
4. What colours are used in the five Ancient Greek vases in this chapter? What colours are used on the vase being checked?
5. Are the decorations on the vase Greek in style?
6. Are there any signs of wear and tear in the painting or on the vase to prove it came from long ago?

Give the vase a mark out of six for authenticity. Write a report recommending or not recommending that the Museum of Humanity purchase the vase. Place the report in your museum scrapbook.



SOURCE 4.41
Vase obverse (front)



SOURCE 4.42
Vase reverse (back)

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Chapter 5

Ancient Rome »



Statue of Caesar Augustus as *imperator* or commander-in-chief of the army (20 BCE)

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter your investigation will require you to:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of Ancient Rome
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of Ancient Roman society
- outline how Ancient Roman society was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of appropriate key groups in Ancient Roman society
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in the ancient society
- explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient society are evident in practices related to warfare
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the Ancient World
- describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts with other societies
- explain the legacy of Ancient Rome
- using a range of sources, including digital sources, investigate the role of Julius Caesar
- assess the role and significance of Julius Caesar.

SITE STUDY

- a virtual historical site: the Colosseum.

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Inquiry questions

1. What were the physical features of Ancient Rome and Italy?
2. What were the key social groups and what was their daily life like in Ancient Rome?
3. What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Romans?
4. What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Romans have within Rome and with other societies?
5. Who were the key figures in Ancient Rome?
6. What legacy did Ancient Rome leave to modern life?

Introduction

Veni, vidi, vici (I came, I saw, I conquered).

Julius Caesar, 47 BCE

AT ITS HEIGHT, the Roman Empire stretched across the vast expanse of Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East, from the north of England almost to the Indian Ocean. Within that empire the Romans brought the Pax Romana (Peace of Rome) and all the comforts that ancient society could provide: peace, roads, trading links, aqueducts, sewerage systems, underfloor heating, baths, amphitheatres and theatres. Yet the Pax Romana was not without great cost—paid in the blood and tears of millions of slaves and subject peoples.

We know a lot about the Ancient Roman society due to a huge range of evidence: from imperial decrees to tombstones, inscriptions on bronze or stone, the accounts of Ancient Roman historians, graffiti, coins, wall-paintings, mosaics and archaeological excavations.

It is now time to look at Ancient Rome, at its achievements but also at its darker side…

KEY TERMS

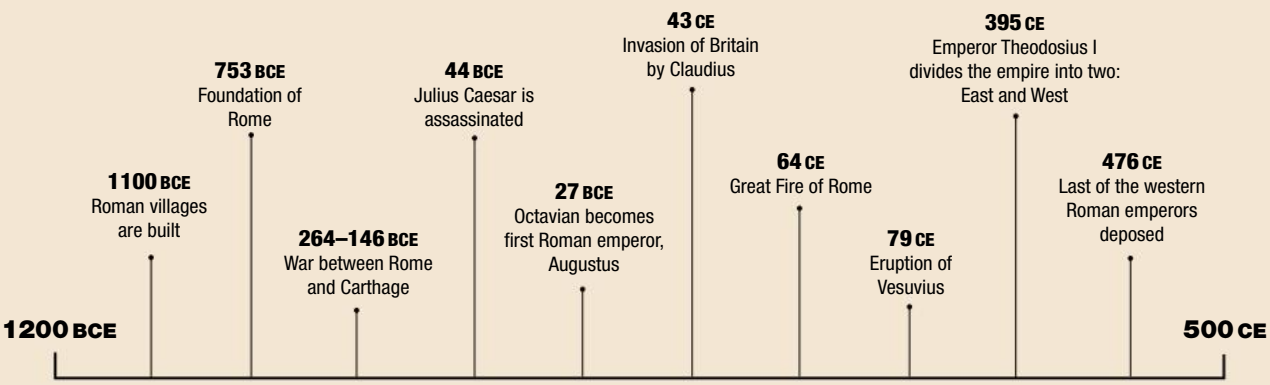
arena	the flat central area in an amphitheatre where the gladiatorial fights took place
atrium	the entrance hall of a wealthy Ancient Roman's house
augurs	religious officials who foretold events by watching for certain signs; for example, the flight of birds
basilica	a law court building
catapulta	a catapult or machine for hurling darts and light spears
cloaca	great drains for stormwater and sewage that ran under Ancient Rome into the Tiber River
cursus honorum	the 'course of honour' or the steps a young man had to take in a political career
Etruria	an area in northern Italy with city-states inhabited by people called Etruscans
equestrian	a person belonging to the Roman 'equites' class (or middle class)
gladiator	a man who fought against other men or animals in Ancient Roman amphitheatres (the name comes from *gladius*, the short sword)
guerrilla	using sabotage and harassment rather than open warfare to fight an enemy
impluvium	a basin for collecting rainwater in the atrium
Magna Graecia	greater Greece, the area of southern Italy and Sicily that had been colonised by Greek settlers from the 8th century BCE onwards
patricians	the old wealthy families of Ancient Rome
plebs	the working class including the poor who were often called *proletarii*
republic	a state in which power is held by the people and their elected representatives
sestertii	small Roman coins, made of silver during the Republican period and of brass during the Imperial period
testudo	a shelter created using a tortoise formation to protect soldiers' heads while attacking
triumph	a military parade through the streets of Ancient Rome for a successful general

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Ancient Italy



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about Ancient Rome.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down any questions you have about Ancient Rome.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

What were the physical features of Ancient Rome?

Unlike other ancient civilisations, 'Rome' was never a country. When historians talk about 'Ancient Rome', they mean both the city of Rome and the huge empire that the city depended on. Italia was (and is) the country of which Rome was (and is) the capital.

From village to empire

At the very beginning of its history in the 11th century BCE, Ancient Rome was a collection of scruffy villages perched on several hills above a marshy plain. Initially the little villages developed in isolation. The Tiber River helped to protect early Rome from the older **Etruria** societies in the north; the Pontine Marshes protected the city from the Ancient Greeks of **Magna Graecia** in



SOURCE 5.1 The spider's web of roads in the Roman Empire, c. 117 CE

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the south. Rome was in one of the best places in Italy: it was near the coast, on good soil for crops, and had seven hills that were easy to fortify and a river with good fishing and boating. The plain of Latium to the south of Rome grew vegetables, wheat, fruit and olives for the growing city.

Why these scruffy villages became a huge empire is due in part to the network of roads and to the fierce fighting ability of Ancient Rome's troops, but also to the city's geography. Rome's central position in Italy and on the Mediterranean meant that once Rome had built an empire, it could dominate trade. One Roman name for the Mediterranean was 'Mare Nostrum' or Our Sea.

The empire contributed to Ancient Rome's outstanding civilisation and wealth. In turn, Rome gave the Mediterranean region the 'Pax Romana', or Roman peace, for more than 200 years. With peace came comforts: safe travel without fear (from Hadrian's Wall via the English Channel to nearly as far as the Indian Ocean), aqueducts, sewerage systems, underfloor heating, baths, amphitheatres and theatres—and good roads.

Roman roads

Rome sat like a huge spider at the centre of a web of roads that connected the city to its empire, stretching from the north of England almost to the Indian Ocean. At any sign of unrest, Roman soldiers would march up the roads at a brisk pace of 24 Roman miles (35.5 kilometres) a day. To prevent ambushes, trees and bushes were cut down on each side of the road and the roads were made as straight as possible. Forts were built along the roads and garrisoned with troops. There were posting houses called *mansiones* stationed at a distance of a day's march. Messengers of the *cursus publicus*, or imperial post, travelled about 50 Roman miles (74 kilometres) a day, changing horses at the *mansiones*. Roman roads are one reason for the growth, extent and strength of the Roman empire.

To make a road, the Ancient Romans dug two ditches, 9 metres apart. Then the foundation of the road, which consisted of closely packed broken stones in layers, was laid. Above that layer was a layer of smaller stones. The top layer of important roads was formed from carefully connected cobblestones, as in source 5.2. The layers formed a hump in the middle of the road called an *agger*, so that rainwater would drain naturally into the ditches.



SOURCE 5.2 A well-made road with a footpath in Pompeii

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How was Ancient Rome able to build an empire?
2. How did Ancient Rome improve the lives of those in its empire?
3. What was good about the situation of the city of Rome?
4. Why did the Romans build their roads as straight as possible?
5. What were *mansiones*?
6. How far did messengers travel per day?

Analysis and use of sources

Use source 5.1 to answer the following questions.

1. Why did the Romans call the Mediterranean 'Our Sea'?
2. Using a modern atlas or world map, identify 10 countries that were once part of the Roman Empire.

Explanation and communication

Draw and label a cross-section diagram of a Roman road.

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What were the key social groups in Ancient Rome?

The rulers of Rome

Ancient Rome had four forms of government during its history: a kingdom, ruled by kings (753–509 BCE); a **republic**, ruled by elected consuls (509–44 BCE); a dictatorship, ruled by a dictator (44–27 BCE); and an empire, ruled by an emperor.

The kings of Rome

Rome was originally founded as a kingdom in 753 BCE. Little is known about the kingdom of Rome. The kingdom ended with the overthrow of the Roman kings and the establishment of the republic in 509 BCE.

The republic: the consuls and the Senate

Instead of a king, the Roman Republic had elected representatives who served on the Senate or on one of the three assemblies: the Assembly of Centuries, the Assembly of Tribes and the Assembly of Plebeians. The leaders of the republic were the consuls, an elected position held by two men for one year.

Dictator

In times of war or crisis, a dictator could be elected for six months to rule the republic. In 48 BCE, the Roman general Julius Caesar was appointed dictator by the Senate to restore order in Rome. Caesar would be appointed dictator for life in 44 BCE, setting in motion a series of events that would result in the end of the Roman Republic and the foundation of the Roman Empire.

The emperor

From 27 BCE, Rome was ruled by an emperor. The emperor's role was as supreme ruler, although he pretended he wasn't supreme by taking the title of *princeps*, which meant 'first citizen'. His main power came through being *imperator* or commander-in-chief of the army and having full control of finances.

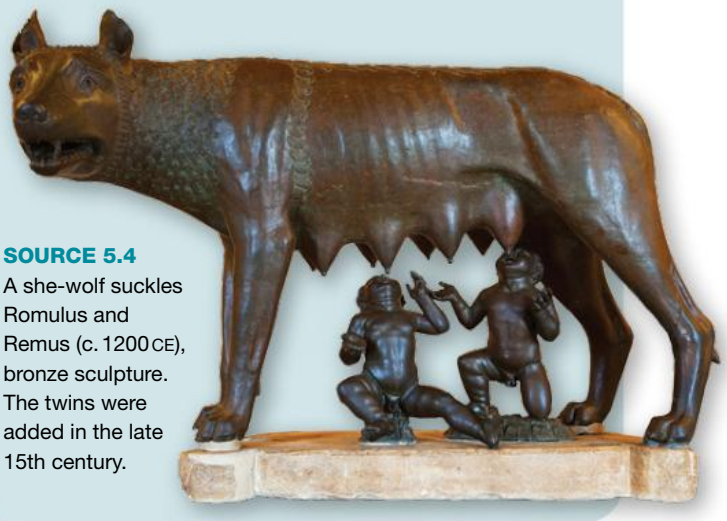
For many of the early emperors, 'Caesar' was a family name. 'Caesar' was not used as a title until the time of Emperor Titus (79–81 CE). Titus was called 'Imperator Caesar' when he became emperor. From then on, the next emperor would use 'Caesar' as a title. The emperor took over all the main offices of the republic.



SOURCE 5.3 Bust of Emperor Nero (37–68 CE)

Spotlight

According to legend, the first king of Rome was Romulus (753–715 BCE), twin brother of Remus. Their mother was Rhea Silvia, a princess, and their father was Mars, the god of war, so the twins were consider half-gods. Romulus and Remus were abandoned at birth and raised by a wolf. When they grew up, Romulus and Remus both wanted to found a new city. Remus wanted to situate the city on the Aventine Hill, but Romulus preferred the Palatine Hill. The two argued and Remus was killed, leaving Romulus the victor. Romulus built Rome on the Palatine Hill.



SOURCE 5.4 A she-wolf suckles Romulus and Remus (c. 1200 CE), bronze sculpture. The twins were added in the late 15th century.

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ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How was Ancient Rome ruled at first?
2 How was the Roman Republic ruled?
3 What was a consul?
4 Why did the Senate make Julius Caesar 'dictator'?
5 What were the responsibilities of the emperor?
6 Complete a timeline of Ancient Roman government, from 753 BCE to 27 BCE.

Analysis and use of sources

Look at source 5.4 and read the accompanying Spotlight. With a partner, identify the main aspects of the legend of Romulus and Remus and decide why they are significant to the history of Rome.

Research

Find out about TWO of the following emperors of the Roman Empire, using secondary sources. Write a brief paragraph about their lives, including the dates of their reign and important achievements.

- Caesar Augustus
- Constantine
- Vespasian
- Marcus Aurelius

Write up your research as an information card. Paste the information card and an appropriate image of your emperors into your museum scrapbook.

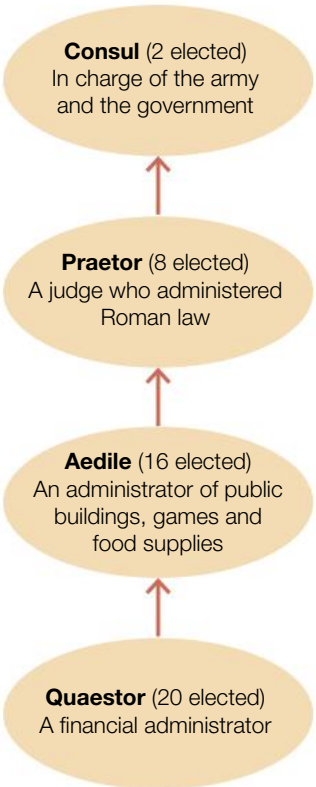


The people of Rome

Patricians

There was an exclusive upper class in Rome called the **patricians**. They were wealthy landowners who inherited their title at birth, so even if they lost their wealth they were still patricians. By the end of the republic, due to the fact that they did not tend to marry members of the other classes, there were only about 50 families that could call themselves patricians.

A patrician did not work at any trade, but might instead work his way up the ***cursus honorum*** (path of offices), beginning as a quaestor with the aim of one day being elected consul, and then perhaps running for the position of *censor* (in charge of taking censuses). Other important positions, such as *pontifex maximus* (chief priest) and *princeps senatus* (leader of the Senate) were usually held by patricians (until the end of the republic, when the emperor took over these roles). Patricians were able to serve on the Senate, and on the Assemblies of Centuries and Tribes.



SOURCE 5.5 The *cursus honorum*

Equites (knights)

The knights formed the Roman middle class. The role of the equites was to work as civil servants, merchants, bankers or tax collectors. Many also worked their way up the *cursus honorum* and served on the assemblies.

Plebeians

The rest of the citizens were called the **plebeians** (or plebs). Their role was to be the small-business owners of Rome. They worked in shops, selling groceries such as wine and olive oil, bread, candles, lamps, clothes, footwear and jewellery. A plebeian could earn the right to be called a knight provided he was of free birth, good character and owned 400 000 ***sestertii*** worth of land. He could also serve on any of the assemblies. The poorest plebs were called the *proletarii*. Roman emperors had to give them 'bread and circuses'—free grain and gladiatorial fights—to stop them from rioting.

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Freedmen

If a master were particularly pleased with a slave, he might free him. Some people freed slaves so they could act as their agents in foreign countries; others so the former slave would vote for him, as male freedmen had voting rights. Freedmen had many different roles in society, but mainly worked for plebs in shops or at the baths. Emperors liked employing clever freedmen as civil servants as they would be totally loyal.

Slaves

Ancient Rome was a slave economy. Rome needed slaves to build the great buildings such as the Pantheon and huge engineering works such as the aqueducts. It needed slaves for the households, to work on farms, to serve in shops and to row the great ships. Household slaves were treated quite well, but many worked in industrial jobs like grinding grain, or in silver mines where they were often beaten, branded or chained. As slaves could eventually earn their freedom, more slaves were constantly needed. People captured by Romans in war generally ended up as slaves. At the beginning of the 2nd century BCE most well-off households had only one slave; by the end of the 1st century CE, even a freedman could own thousands of slaves.



SOURCE 5.6 This slave's name was Junius

> Vedius Pollio, Roman knight and a friend of the divine Augustus, practised his barbarity with the assistance of moray eels, into whose tanks he threw condemned slaves ... with no other creature could he watch a man being torn to pieces utterly and instantaneously.

SOURCE 5.7 Excerpt from *Natural History* (77–79 CE) by Pliny the Elder, a Roman historian and scientist. *Natural History* is the encyclopaedia of the natural world.

> Remember that he whom you call your slave came into life the same route as you, basks in the same sky, and breathes, lives and dies in the same way as you do ... I don't want to get too involved in the broader issues of the treatment of slaves, to whom in general we are extremely arrogant, cruel and abusive. This, however, is the sum of my advice: treat your inferiors as you would want to be treated by your masters.

SOURCE 5.8 Excerpt from *Epistles* (c. 60 CE) by Seneca, a Roman playwright and philosopher

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Who were the patricians?
2. What was the *cursus honorum*?
3. What work did the equites do?
4. How could a plebeian become an equite?
5. How did the emperors stop the *proletarii* from rioting?
6. What was a freedman?
7. Why can Ancient Rome be called a slave economy?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read sources 5.7 and 5.8.
2. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 5.7.
3. What do sources 5.7 and 5.8 reveal about Roman attitudes to slavery?

Explanation and communication

Draw a diagram by hand or use a program or website to depict the hierarchy of the social classes of Ancient Rome. Add your diagram to your museum scrapbook.

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What was the role of Julius Caesar in Ancient Rome?

Julius Caesar was one of the key figures of Ancient Rome. He was instrumental in Rome's shift from a republic to an imperial state. He was enormously successful as a military leader and politician, and admired as such for centuries since. The names of the Russian kings (Tsars) and German kings (Kaisers) are based on 'Caesar'.

The early life of Julius Caesar

Caesar was born into a patrician family on 13 July 100 BCE in Rome. His father died when he was only 16. From 78 BCE, Caesar began to work his way up through the *cursus honorum*. He became a successful lawyer and was elected to the position of *quaestor* in 69 CE. Six years later he ran for the position of *pontifex maximus*. He won the election, thanks in no small part to his willingness to resort to massive bribery of the voters.

Caesar became *praetor* in 62 BCE and the following year he was appointed as governor of Hispania (Roman Spain), where he conquered two tribes. Then, in 60 BCE, he formed an unofficial partnership with two prominent Roman politicians, Crassus and Pompey. This partnership is known to historians as 'the First Triumvirate'. In 59 BCE, with the help of Crassus and Pompey, Caesar was elected to the position of consul.



SOURCE 5.9 Julius Caesar's portrait on the obverse (heads side) of an aureas (gold coin). The inscription reads 'Caesar (Dict)ator (Perp)etua (Pont)iff (Max)imus', which means 'Caesar, dictator for life and chief priest'.



SOURCE 5.10 A denarius (silver coin) with the goddess Venus on the obverse and the god Aeneas carrying Anchises on the reverse. The inscription reads 'Caesar'.

Caesar's rise to power

Following his year as consul, Caesar was granted a five-year appointment as the governor of Cisalpine Gaul, a Roman province in southern France, and soon acquired two other provinces as well. Without consulting the Senate, he raised an army and spent the next few years conquering the rest of Gaul (France). By 53 BCE, this action had lost him the support of Crassus and Pompey. Then Crassus died the same year. Pompey was elected as sole consul in 52 BCE.

In 50 BCE, fearing that Caesar was becoming too powerful, the Senate ordered him to disband his army and return to Rome. Caesar worried that if he disbanded his army, he would be arrested and charged with treason for conquering Gaul without the Senate's permission.

Caesar and his army marched across the Rubicon River into Italy the following year. This was seen as an act of war. Pompey raised an army against Caesar, but Caesar won the battle. Caesar returned to Rome and was made dictator. From this position he was able to ensure that he was re-elected as consul. Caesar then pursued Pompey to Greece and defeated him at the Battle of Pharsalus. Pompey escaped to Egypt, where he was murdered by Pharaoh Ptolemy XIII's men. Caesar chased the remainder of Pompey's supporters to Africa (46 BCE) and Spain (45 BCE), finally overcoming them.

Just after he had completed his African campaign, the Senate made Caesar dictator for 10 years.

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Assassination

In February 44 BCE, the Senate made Caesar dictator for life. He was named *parens patriae* 'father of the country' and coins were minted with his portrait on them—the first time Roman coins had featured a human image (they usually featured gods). It would seem, however, that not all senators were happy with this turn of events and plotted to murder Caesar and restore the republic. On 15 March (a date the Romans called the Ides of March) of 44 BCE, 60 senators, calling themselves 'the Liberators' stabbed Caesar 23 times. His body lay on the floor of the Senate for three hours before someone came to remove it.

Caesar had been very popular with the equites, plebs and freedmen. They became angry when they learnt that Caesar had been murdered by members of the Senate. There was a riot at Caesar's funeral. A series of five civil wars broke out, lasting until 31 BCE, with the victory of Octavian, Caesar's great-nephew. By 27 BCE, Octavian had gained control over the Senate and became the first Roman Emperor, known as Caesar Augustus.

Caesar's significant achievements

Caesar's military conquests greatly expanded the empire. His conquest of Gaul secured Rome's borders against the Germanic tribes of the north.

As dictator, Caesar changed a number of laws, which benefited the general public, such as giving land to soldiers and landless peasants; decreasing taxes; and limiting the number of slaves that the large estates could employ, so that freedmen and poor plebs would have more work opportunities. He appointed new governors of the provinces (lands conquered by Rome) and made sure they did not spend government money on themselves, but used it to improve the roads, aqueducts and facilities of the provinces. He also allowed the conquered peoples of Sicily, Spain and Gaul to become citizens of the empire.

In addition, Caesar reformed the calendar, changing it from a variable calendar of between 355 and 378 days to a standard 365 days. Caesar's calendar, known as the 'Julian calendar', is very similar to the one we use today.

> Yet other deeds and sayings of Caesar may be set to the debit account and justify the conclusion that he deserved assassination. Not only did he accept excessive honours, such as a life-consulship, a life-dictatorship, a perpetual-Censorship, the title 'Imperator' ... the title 'Father of the Country' ... also a statue standing among those of the ancient kings ... but took other honours, which, as a mere mortal, he should certainly have refused.

SOURCE 5.11 Excerpt on Julius Caesar in *The Twelve Caesars* (119 CE) by Suetonius, a Roman historian

> When he came to the river Rubicon, which parts Gaul within the Alps from the rest of Italy, his thoughts began to work, now he was just entering upon the danger, and he wavered much in his mind when he considered the greatness of the enterprise into which he was throwing himself ... At last, in a sort of passion, casting aside calculation, and abandoning himself to what might come, and using the proverb frequently in their mouths who enter upon dangerous and bold attempts, 'The die is cast,' with these words he took the river.

SOURCE 5.12 Excerpt from 'Caesar' in *The Parallel Lives* (c. 110 CE) by Plutarch, a Greek biographer and Roman citizen. Plutarch wrote his book to compare the good and bad points of famous Greek and Roman rulers.

ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How was Caesar able to rise to important positions in Rome?
2. What did Caesar achieve as governor of Hispania?
3. How did Caesar become a consul?
4. How did Caesar lose Crassus' and Pompey's support?
5. Why did Caesar 'cross the Rubicon'?
6. Why was Caesar assassinated?
7. How did the people respond to Caesar's assassination?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at sources 5.9 and 5.10. One of these coins was minted in 47 BCE and the other in 43 BCE. Decide which coin was minted in which year, giving reasons for your choice.

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2 The coin minted in 43 BCE was minted after Caesar's death. What does this indicate about Caesar's popularity?

3 Read source 5.11. What does this source indicate about Caesar?

4 Read source 5.12. What does this source reveal about Caesar as a military leader?

Research

Find and review a secondary source (website or textbook) about Julius Caesar. How is the source you have found useful to a historian studying Julius Caesar?

Explanation and communication

Sometimes historians hold different opinions about the past, based on conflicting historical evidence. This is known as 'historical contestability'. Was Caesar a great military general, a great leader of the people of Rome, or a vain, self-interested politician? Write two or three paragraphs to explain your position, using the text and the sources to support your argument.

Roman government and the law

The Twelve Tables

Roman law developed over a thousand years. The first stage of its development was the Twelve Tables (451 BCE), which laid down a standard law code. The Twelve Tables were engraved in copper and placed on public display. The laws ensured that for any sort of criminal or other illegal activity, there was a clearly defined punishment. There were laws and punishments for everything from murder, theft, debt and slander to poor road maintenance and spell-casting. Perhaps most significant was that under the Twelve Tables, everyone was subject to the same laws.

The law courts

If someone committed a crime or an illegal act, their accuser (plaintiff) took them to court. In the early years of the republic, lawyers did not speak in courts—the plaintiff and the accused had to state their side of the case themselves. Lawyers just gave advice and were not supposed to be paid. Under Emperor Claudius (ruled 41–54 CE), however, the law became a profession and lawyers began to defend and prosecute court cases for their clients.

A judge from the patrician or equite class was chosen from a list by both sides of the case. A jury of 45 men chosen by lot decided whether the person was guilty or innocent. The presiding judge imposed the penalty set by law. This penalty was never jail. Jails were only for people awaiting their trial or the death penalty. The penalties of Ancient Rome were a fine, a flogging, forced labour or death.

Making new laws

Originally, there were 300 members of the Senate and all of its members were patricians; however, from the 4th century BCE, wealthy plebeians were also able to serve on the Senate. The Senate had control over finances, administration of the empire and relations with other societies. The Senate did not pass laws, but gave advice to the assemblies on whether a new law should be passed or not.

Each of the assemblies had special powers. The Assembly of Centuries could declare war and elect the consuls. The Assembly of Tribes could pass or reject laws recommended by the Senate and elect minor magistrates, while the Assembly of Plebeians could elect tribunes (representatives of the plebeians) and pass or reject laws recommended by the Senate. All Roman citizens were able to vote at the assemblies, but in practice, the patricians controlled most of the votes.

Roman government and the role of religion

The divine emperor

From the time of Augustus onwards, the office of the emperor was regarded as divine, and 'good emperors' became gods after their death. As he was dying, Emperor Vespasian (69–79 CE) was said to have exclaimed, 'Dear me! I must be turning into a god'. During the rule of Emperor Diocletian (284–305 CE), Roman coins stopped identifying the emperor as 'Imperator' (commander-in-chief) and began featuring the letters 'D.N.', short for *Dominus Noster* (meaning 'Our Lord').

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The pontifex maximus

The *pontifex maximus* (chief priest) was in charge of all religious matters in Rome. During the time of the Republic, the *pontifex* was elected to his position and got to live in a special house in the middle of the Forum. The *pontifex* was responsible for leading important religious ceremonies and choosing priests and priestesses. From the time of Emperor Augustus, the emperor became the *pontifex maximus*.

Morality and civic duty

Every Ancient Roman citizen had to perform the traditional rites to ensure the gods preserved and blessed the state. Morality was not about ethical behaviour towards others, but meant 'civic duty': even a bad person could please the gods as long as he or she performed the rites.

A Roman temple: the Pantheon

One of the most wonderful buildings in the world is the Pantheon, the Ancient Roman temple to all their gods. It is a huge open space capped by a dome. In the centre of the dome is an open circle, 9 metres wide, through which both the sunlight and rain stream. An Ancient Roman could gaze up at the heavens through the opening. It was a superb way of worshipping the gods.

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were the Twelve Tables?
2. What happened at a Roman law court?
3. How were new laws made in Ancient Rome?
4. What was the *pontifex maximus*?
5. What did ordinary citizens need to do to fulfill their religious duties?
6. What is the Pantheon?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Explain, in your own words, the main ideas of Ancient Roman justice mentioned in source 5.13.

> Justice is the constant and unceasing determination to grant to every man his legal rights. The precepts of the law are these: live honestly, injure no one, grant to each man his rights ... It was ... better for the crime of a guilty man to remain unpunished than for an innocent man to be condemned.

SOURCE 5.13 Extract from *The Digest of Laws*, 527–65 CE by Domitius Ulpianus, a Roman jurist

2. Do you agree that it is better for a guilty person to be left unpunished than for an innocent person to suffer?

Research

Find a diagram of the Pantheon and include it in your museum scrapbook.



SOURCE 5.14
The Pantheon opening, called an oculus; notice the way in which the squares on the ceiling get smaller as they approach the oculus, drawing your eye towards it

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3 Find out more about the Pantheon. Devise five questions to ask. Using the internet or your school library, find secondary sources to help you answer your questions and include them in your museum scrapbook.

What was everyday life like in Ancient Rome?

Men

Roman men were the heads of their families. The oldest man in a family was called the *paterfamilias* (father of the family). He controlled the family's business affairs and property and performed religious rites on the family's behalf. Sons could not own property until the *paterfamilias* died. Until that time, they received an allowance for their own families to live on. The *paterfamilias* could also disown his children, sell his children into slavery and, up until c. 120 CE, could even legally kill them.

During the day, men worked outside the home. Their work depended on their social class, with patricians spending part of their day writing letters, discussing politics or conducting business, while plebs might work at a shop or on a farm.

Women

The daughter of a family, until she was married, was under the guardianship of her father. She was even named after him; if her father's name was Marcus Furius, she was called Furia. If there was more than one girl, the second daughter was called Furia Secunda, and the third, Furia Tertia. Most girls were married at 12—even at seven, according to one tombstone.

Marriage was never for love: the two fathers arranged it for either political or social advantage. The girl passed from the legal guardianship of her father to that of her husband, together with any dowry (property or money given to her husband by her father for her upkeep).

Roman wives were allowed to dine with their husbands when they had guests. Wall paintings show them on the same dining couch sharing the food. Unlike men, however, women were expected to remain in the house, caring for the children and the home. Poorer women spun wool and wove cloth to make clothes, while wealthier women usually had a slave to do this for them. A few women ran businesses or were doctors, but this was rare.



SOURCE 5.15 Magistrate Terentius Neo with his wife (c. 1 CE), Pompeii, Italy. The wife is holding a stylus and wax tablet, evidence that she could write.

The only women who were free to marry for love were the six Vestal Virgins (priestesses) who guarded the sacred fire of Vesta in the Roman Forum. The only women who were free to marry for love were the six Vestal Virgins who guarded the sacred fire of Vesta in the Forum—but only after they had provided thirty years of service as Vestal Virgins. Vestal Virgins were recruited at age 6–10; this meant that they could be forty years old when they finally married (very old for an Ancient Roman!). Wealthy widows also enjoyed freedom and independence.

Women had no political power. They could not vote or run for public office and it was very unusual for women to publicly protest about their lot in life. From 1 CE, however, women were able to own property and run their own business affairs, after they had given birth to three live children.

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> Why should we pay taxes when we have no part in public office or honours or commands or government in general, an evil you have fought over with such disastrous results? Because, you say, this is a time of war? And when have there not been wars? And when have women paid taxes? By nature of their sex women are absolved from paying taxes among all mankind ... we will never pay taxes for civil wars, and we will not cooperate with you against each other.

SOURCE 5.16 Hortensia's speech to the Forum (42 BCE), cited in *Civil Wars* (c. 150 CE) by Appian, a historian and Roman citizen of Greek birth. Hortensia was protesting against the introduction of a tax on women for a civil war. It was extremely rare for women to speak in public; nevertheless, this speech was successful in limiting the tax and was long admired by learned Romans.

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What was the *paterfamilias*?
2. What was the role of the *paterfamilias*?
3. Who controlled an unmarried woman in Ancient Rome?
4. How were marriages organised in Ancient Rome?
5. What work did women do?
6. What were the main differences between marriage for Vestal Virgins and marriage for other women in the upper classes?
7. What political rights did Roman women have?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 5.16. What useful information does it contain for a historian studying women in Ancient Rome? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 5.16.
2. Is source 5.16 a common or unusual source about Roman women? Give reasons for your answer.

Empathetic understanding

Write a speech for an animatronic Roman patrician woman to include in your museum. Find a suitable source (image or artefact) to illustrate your museum display.

Children in Ancient Rome

When a child was born, it was put on the floor by the midwife. If the *paterfamilias* decided to pick up the baby, the baby was allowed to join the family; otherwise, the baby was left outside, where it might die or where a slave master might collect it and rear it as a slave.

Even if a baby was saved from this awful fate, child mortality in Ancient Rome was very high. It has been estimated that 50 per cent of children died before reaching the age of 10; half of these died in their first five years of life.

Babies were swaddled (bound tightly with a strip of cloth) for the first 60 days of their lives. This was thought to help their bodies grow correctly, with straight limbs. Baby boys were given a *bulla* (talisman) to wear to protect them from bad fortune. The children of wealthy



SOURCE 5.17 Sarcophagus of Marcus Cornelius Statius, who died while still a young child (c. 150 CE). Made from marble, the sarcophagus shows scenes from his short life. Found in Ostia, Italy.

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SOURCE 5.18
Girls playing, from a Roman sarcophagus (c. 250 BCE)

Romans were usually cared for by one or more nurses (household servants). Children remained at home under the care of nurses or their mothers until the age of seven. After the age of seven, poor children helped their parents in their work, while the children of wealthy parents began formal education.



SOURCE 5.19 A boy picking fruit, from a large floor mosaic called *The Triumph of Neptune* (c. 315 CE), found in Tunisia

Education

Patrician boys might receive their education from a private tutor, or they might join **equestrian** boys at school. School took place in the street and began at dawn. The pupils sat on benches and wrote on wax tablets that rested on their knees. Their lessons were in both Latin and Greek. The teacher roared at the students and beat them whenever they made mistakes in their reading, writing and arithmetic, so there was a lot of noise. After the age of 11, boys could attend secondary schooling (called a grammar school) where they learnt history, Greek, geography, oratory (public speaking) and mathematics. They also studied the works of the Greek philosophers, such as Plato and Aristotle. Patrician and equestrian girls received their education from private tutors at home, in music, reading and writing.

> Before all things, let the talk of the child's nurses not be ungrammatical ... To their morals, doubtless, attention is first to be paid; but let them also speak with propriety [correctness]. It is they that the child will hear first; it is their words that he will try to form by imitation ... Let the child not be accustomed, therefore, even while he is yet an infant, to phraseology [wording, grammar] which must be unlearned.

SOURCE 5.20 Excerpt from *The Ideal Education* (90 CE) by Quintilian, a teacher of rhetoric (persuasive speech)

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ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How was a child's fate—whether they lived or died—determined at birth?
2 What was child mortality like in Ancient Rome?
3 What was swaddling?
4 What happened to Roman children when they turned seven?
5 What did boys learn at high school?
6 What were girls taught?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 5.17. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 5.17.
2 What scenes are depicted in source 5.17?
3 To which social class is the subject of source 5.17 likely to belong?
4 Read source 5.20. What concerns does source 5.20 raise for parents?

Explanation and communication

1 Using the sources and the text, write a diary entry for a day in the life of a child in Ancient Rome. You can discuss the birth of your new baby sister or brother, your brothers or sisters going to school or aspects of your own life.
2 Write a paragraph or two to compare the life of children in modern Australia with those in Ancient Rome. What has stayed the same (continuity) and what has changed?

A day in Ancient Rome

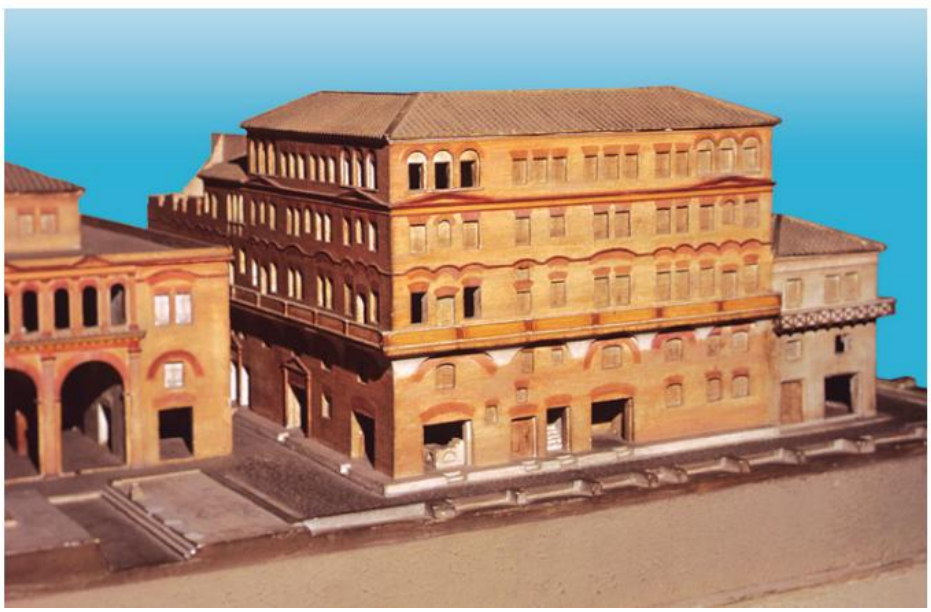
At dawn, an Ancient Roman would be woken by various sounds. It might be the sound of people crashing back their heavy wooden shutters to let light and air into their flat, the hammering of coppersmiths in the shops below, the noise of the schoolmasters shrieking at their students or the cries of beggars.

Clothing

It was a simple matter to get dressed. Both men and women went to bed in their underwear. During the day, men wore a loincloth and a tunic, which went down to their knees in front and was held in by a belt; so to get dressed, all the men had to do was to slip on some sandals.

But if an Ancient Roman citizen had to be formal, he had to spend some time draping a toga around himself. The toga was a woollen cloak. Only Roman citizens were allowed to wear it. It was about 5 metres long and tricky to put on. Wealthy Roman citizens wore it every day, but as it was difficult to work in and it was so heavy, poorer Romans generally didn't wear it. Most people wore togas of bleached white wool. If the citizen was a senator, his toga would have a purple border. The emperor wore a purple toga.

A woman's tunic reached to below her knees and sometimes had sleeves. Over the top she wore a sleeveless dress called a *stola*, dyed in all sorts of brilliant colours and sometimes made



SOURCE 5.21
An *insula* or block of flats in Ancient Rome—the poorest families shared flats at the top of the building, as there were no lifts and it was very hot in mid-summer; the bottom floor was occupied by shops

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of silk from China or cotton from India. When a wealthy woman went out, she threw on a *palla* or cloak.

Walking through the streets

It was still early (*hora prima*) when the Ancient Roman male left the house after a light breakfast of bread and water. Walking to work through Ancient Rome had its hazards. Roman writers complained about being hit by people's elbows and hard poles as they walked through the narrow, twisting lanes. Soldiers trod on other people's lightly clad feet with their nailed boots. Shouting, shoving slaves pushed their way through the crowd, forcing a path for their wealthy owners. Such was the congestion, no wheeled traffic was allowed in central Rome between dawn and dusk. It was a noisy, smelly, dirty city of more than one million inhabitants.



SOURCE 5.22
Emperor Augustus wearing his toga



SOURCE 5.23
A priestess in *stola* and *palla*

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SOURCE 5.24 Public toilets at Ostia, the port of Ancient Rome

Going to the toilet in Ancient Rome

On his way to and from work, the Roman would go to the public toilets. These were placed over the system of subterranean **cloaca** that ran under Rome and emptied into the Tiber River. There was no toilet paper. Ancient Romans cleaned themselves with a sponge on the end of a stick dipped into a small stream running along the floor in front of the seats. The sponge stick was then passed to the next person who required it.

What did Ancient Romans do about going to the toilet at home? A *graffito* in Pompeii tells us: 'Dear host. I'm afraid I've wet the bed. "Why?" you ask. Because there was no chamber-pot in my room.'

Bathing

After he finished work, the Ancient Roman man headed for the great social event of his day, a visit to the public baths. The women had already been—they had their own special time. Originally there were separate baths for women, but when they protested that their baths were not as well equipped as those for the men, they were allowed into the men's baths. At first everyone had to pay to bathe, but the emperors made bathing free so the poor could afford to go each day.

The bath-houses contained several rooms. After doing various exercises in the *palaestra* (exercise room) to work up a sweat, Ancient Romans left their clothing in the *apodyterium*. They might hire slaves to protect their belongings from thieves. They would then go to the *tepidarium* to be rubbed down with oil and then scrape it off with a strigil, a kind of curved scraper. They would go then and have a warm bath before going into the *caldarium* (sauna room) to sweat it all off and wash in the hot baths. Finally they plunged into the invigorating cold bath in the *frigidarium*.

> My dear Lucilius, If you want to study, quiet is not nearly as necessary as you might think. Here I am, surrounded by all kinds of noise (my lodgings overlook a bath-house). Conjure up in your imagination all the sounds that make one hate one's ears. I hear the grunts of musclemen exercising and jerking those heavy weights around ... If there happens to be a lazy fellow content with a simple massage I hear the slap of hand on shoulder ... Add to this the racket of a ... thief caught in the act, and a fellow who likes the sound of his own voice in the bath, plus those who plunge into the pool with a huge splash of water. Besides those who just have loud voices, imagine the skinny armpit-hair plucker whose cries are shrill so as to draw people's attention and never stop except when he's doing his job and making someone else shriek for him.

SOURCE 5.25 Extract from *Epistles* (letters) (c. 62 CE) by Seneca, a Roman politician and philosopher

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ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What sounds would Ancient Romans hear when they woke up?
2 Why was it difficult to get into and wear a toga?
3 What did Roman women wear?
4 What difficulties did the Romans have to navigate when walking through the streets?
5 What did the Ancient Romans use instead of toilet paper?
6 Describe the bathing process for Romans.

Analysis and use of sources

Read source 5.25. What useful information does source 5.25 contain for a historian studying Roman bath-houses? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 5.25.

Research

Find an image of an Ancient Roman bath-house. Include the image in your museum scrapbook, along with a caption detailing where the bath-house is, what parts of the bath-house can be seen in the image and when the bath-house was built.

Explanation and communication

1 Prepare exhibits for a display case in your museum: draw two figurines dressed as male and female. Save the images in your museum scrapbook.
2 Using source 5.25, create a soundscape for a Roman bath-house. Include your soundscape in your museum scrapbook.

The City of Rome

According to legend, the city of Rome was founded in 753 BCE by Romulus. During the time of the Roman Republic, Rome became a spectacular ancient city, splendid with triumphal arches, bath-houses, an imperial palace, markets, aqueducts, temples, entertainment venues and, from the 1st century CE, the colossus (giant statue) of the Emperor Nero.

The Roman Forum

Originally, the central market in Ancient Rome was in the Roman Forum. On one side there were the shops, called the Old Shops, for food and drink; facing them were the New Shops for fruit and meat. In the 4th century BCE, these shops were evicted and their place was taken by bankers, money-changers and silversmiths.



SOURCE 5.26 The Roman Forum today

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Eventually all the shops in the Forum were closed, and the Roman Forum became the religious, political and legal centre of Ancient Rome.

Markets and shops

One of the oldest markets was the cattle market, the Forum Boarium, and there was also a fish market. Bread was handed out monthly to the *proletarii* (the poorest of the plebeian class) at the Portico of Minucius.

Most of the shops were scattered throughout the city, occupying the ground floors of the blocks of flats. Butchers, grocers and greengrocers all sold goods in these little shops and often lived in a couple of rooms behind. The baker ground his flour and baked his bread in his own shop. Clothes, footwear and jewellery were all made in the same shop they were sold in, so an Ancient Roman could order goods specially made to fit him or his wife.

Aqueducts

Being in a hot, dry Mediterranean climate, the Ancient Romans had to look for water from any source; one major source was rainfall. The **atrium** of a wealthy Roman's country house or large townhouse had an opening to the sky so rainwater could fall into the **impluvium** below. The water was then piped to the bathing pool, if they had one, and to the kitchen.



SOURCE 5.27 Where most Ancient Romans ate: standing up for a counter meal at a bar (thermopolium). Hot and cold food and wine were served from large pots in the round holes on the marble counter.



SOURCE 5.28 An atrium with an impluvium

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Water came into Rome through 11 aqueducts from springs in the Alban Hills behind Rome. The water was carried high above the ground in a channel that formed a gradual slope from the hills towards Rome. Arches carried the channel over valleys and through tunnels in the hills.

Once it reached Rome, water was plumbed through pipes into water basins, fountains and public buildings. The water basin was connected to two different aqueducts so that if one ran dry, there would still be water. Seven hundred state slaves cleaned and repaired the aqueducts.

> With such an array of indispensable structures carrying so many waters, compare, if you will, the idle pyramids or the useless, though famous, works of the Greeks!

SOURCE 5.29 Extract from *Aqueducts of Rome* (c. 100 CE) by Sextus Julius Frontinus, water commissioner

ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension, chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were some of the features of the ancient city of Rome?
2. What was the Roman Forum originally used for?
3. What did the Forum become after the 4th century BCE?
4. Where did people buy food in Ancient Rome after the 4th century BCE?
5. What was an impluvium? How did it work?
6. How did the Ancient Romans manage to get enough water for the city of Rome?

Analysis and use of sources

Read source 5.29. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 5.29.

Perspectives and interpretation

1. How does the author of source 5.29 compare the pyramids of Ancient Egypt to aqueducts of Ancient Rome?
2. Why do you think the author of source 5.29 may have had this attitude towards the pyramids?

Research

Find a diagram of an aqueduct and explain how it worked. Add your work to your museum scrapbook.



Site study: The Colosseum

The Colosseum was built in 72–80 CE to host Ancient Rome's gladiatorial games at which armed fighters (known as gladiators) fought animals, criminals or other gladiators to the death, for the amusement of up to 50 000 Roman spectators. The games went on all day and often for 12 to 15 days. The emperor usually came with his family and sat in his special box. Before the fighting began, the gladiators would stand in front of the emperor's box and chant: *'Ave Caesar, morituri te salutant'*. ('Hail Caesar, those who are about to die salute you'.)

If a gladiator had fought well but was about to be killed, the winning gladiator would look towards the emperor before delivering the death blow. If the emperor tucked his thumb into his fist (like sheathing a sword), then the gladiator's life was spared. If the emperor thrust his thumb into the air above his fist (like a sword), then the victorious gladiator gripped his own weapon and cut the loser's throat. Dead bodies were dragged off by slaves. If the gladiators were only slightly wounded, a doctor attended to their injuries; if they were badly wounded, they were hit on the head with a mallet to finish them off.

Humans were not the only ones to suffer. On the opening day of the Colosseum, 5000 animals were slaughtered in various fights. Hunters were sent out all over the empire to collect lions, tigers, panthers, bulls, hippopotamuses, rhinoceros and elephants. Such was the craze for wild beast fights that animals became extinct in certain parts of the empire; hippopotamuses were wiped out in Sudan, lions in Mesopotamia and elephants in North Africa.

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Why was the Colosseum constructed?
2. What happened at the Colosseum?
3. How was a losing gladiator's fate decided?
4. Why did some animals become extinct in the Roman Empire?

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SOURCE 5.30 Inside the Colosseum today, with half of the arena restored

Research

1 Look at the picture of the Colosseum (source 5.30) and the weblink to a model on your digital support. Where did people sit? Where were the animals held before that day's slaughter?

2 Find a diagram of the Colosseum on the internet. Copy or scan it into your museum scrapbook. Label the different parts of the Colosseum for a display in your museum.

Explanation and communication

Design a travel poster to advertise the Colosseum to an ancient tourist. Your poster should include information about what they could expect to see and relevant images.

What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Romans?

Ancient Roman religious beliefs

The Ancient Roman religion was polytheistic, with thousands of spirits as well as gods. For a door, for instance, there were three spirits: the spirit of the door itself (*Forculus*); the spirit of the hinges (*Cardea*); and the spirit of the threshold (*Limentinus*).

As the Ancient Romans came into contact with the Ancient Greeks, Britons, Egyptians and other societies, they adopted many of their gods and 'Romanised' them. Judaism and Christianity also became prominent religions in the Empire.

The Lares and Penates, traditional gods

To many Romans the gods of the home, the Lares and Penates, were the most important gods. The Lares were the spirits of the ancestors, and the Penates symbolised a full pantry. Most Ancient Roman families had a shrine to these gods in their house. The Lares and Penates were so important that when the volcano Vesuvius erupted and the inhabitants of Pompeii tried to flee, they carried the statues of these gods with them. Archaeologists have found the statues in the streets alongside these people's skeletons.

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Roman	Function
Jupiter	Sky god
Juno	Childbirth
Neptune	Freshwater springs
Ceres	Plant growth
Venus	Fertility of gardens
Minerva	Skilled workmanship
Diana	Woodlands
Mars	Protected crops from disease and predators
Mercury	Trade
Bacchus	Wine
Vulcan	Fire
Apollo	Greek god adopted by the Romans

SOURCE 5.31 Ancient Roman gods

Roman religious practices

Augers

In order to find out what the gods wanted, the Romans sometimes consulted **augurs**. Augers interpreted the actions and cries of birds. When the Senate had to make an important decision, it would ask the augurs for assistance. An augur, accompanied by a consul or other official, would go to a special spot on the Capitoline Hill and sit facing south. He would cover his head with a fold of his toga, and with his staff 'mark out' a section of the sky. He would ask the god Jupiter whether the Senate should go ahead with the decision or not. The consul would look at the marked section of the sky and report to the augur what birds he could see and where they were flying. The augur would then tell him the god's decision.

Chickens

The Roman army carted chickens with them everywhere so they could find out if the gods approved of a fight on a particular day. These sacred birds were kept in a cage. On the day of battle, the cage door was opened and soft cake was offered to the chickens. If they ate the cake, the army could fight that day. If the chickens refused to eat or beat their wings as if they wanted to fly away, then the army had to try again the next day. In 249 BCE, the Roman general Publius Claudius Pulcher had his chickens thrown into the sea when they refused to eat the cake before the battle of Drepana, saying, 'If they won't eat, perhaps they will drink'. He lost the battle. When he returned to Rome, he was fined heavily for having thrown the chickens overboard.

Christianity

From its arrival in the early part of the 1st century CE, Christianity was seen by many in authority as a sinister and undignified religion. What disturbed Roman leaders so deeply was the refusal of Christians to worship the emperor. Various emperors actively persecuted Christians, such as Nero in 64 CE, who blamed them for the Great Fire of Rome, and Diocletian, who unleashed a sustained attack on Christians from 303 CE, destroying their churches and killing many followers. Public sympathy began to favour the Christians and oppose the imperial violence. Christianity continued to grow throughout the Roman Empire.

In 312 CE, legend has it that the Emperor Constantine was due to fight a battle against a rival Roman Emperor. The night before, he had a dream that Jesus Christ told him to mark his armies' shields with the Chi Ro, a Greek symbol that represented the name 'Christ'. Constantine did so and won the battle. Afterwards, Constantine was able to reunite the Roman Empire. He declared that Christianity was one of Rome's official religions, passed laws that made it illegal to persecute Christians and built cathedrals all over the empire. Christianity flourished.

> I ask them if they are Christians. If they admit it, I repeat the question a second and third time, threatening them with capital punishment; if they persist I sentence them to death ... All who denied that they were or had been Christians I considered should be freed, because they called upon the gods at my dictation and did reverence with incense and wine to your image [statue] which I had ordered brought forward for this purpose ...

SOURCE 5.32 Excerpt from a *Letter to Emperor Trajan* (112 CE) from Pliny the Younger, a Roman magistrate. In this letter Pliny the Younger describes how he dealt with Christians.

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We sin, then, against the imperial majesty in this ... that we do not perform a mockery by offering a sacrifice for his safety, when we do not suppose that safety to rest in hands soldered with lead [a statue of the emperor made of lead] ... For we call upon God for the safety of the Emperor ...

SOURCE 5.33 Excerpt from *Apologeticus* (197 CE) by Tertullian, a Christian writer from the Roman province of Carthage, North Africa. *Apologeticus* is a defence of Christianity.



SOURCE 5.34 Ruin of the Temple of Antoninus and Faustina in the Roman Forum, later converted to a Christian church

ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How did the Romans add to the number of gods they worshipped?
2. Who were the most important everyday gods and what were their functions?
3. How do we know they were important?
4. What did the augurs do?
5. What were sacred chickens used for?
6. Why were the Romans initially opposed to Christianity?
7. How did the Romans treat Christians during the persecutions?
8. How did Constantine promote Christianity throughout the empire?

Perspectives and interpretations

1. Read sources 5.32. What is the perspective on emperor worship in source 5.32
2. Read source 5.33. What is the perspective on emperor worship in source 5.33?
3. Give reasons for the differences between the two sources.

Research

Find a primary source (artefact or image) for one of the Ancient Roman gods. Complete the 5Ws for your source and include the source and a brief description in your museum.

Ancient Roman values

Brutality and violence ran through Ancient Roman society: slaves were tortured to extract confessions about the deeds of their masters; public crucifixion was normal punishment for non-citizens; and as we have seen, Romans enjoyed watching blood sports in the **arena**.

If a general, who was usually a senator, won an important battle, he was given a **triumph**. All of Rome turned out to applaud the victor. Great stone arches in the Roman Forum and all over the empire promoted the glories of warfare.

Ancient Roman army practices

The Ancient Romans were able to build an empire due to their efficient, highly trained army.

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SOURCE 5.35 Roman triumphal arch

The legionary (soldier) was the feared fighter of the Roman army. Anyone who failed to obey the strict discipline of the camp was beaten to death by his fellow soldiers. The cruelty of the Roman soldier was part of his fighting strength.

When a recruit entered the army aged between 18 and 20, he was immediately made to walk, carrying 40 kilograms, at the military pace of 38 kilometres in five hours. His burden (tied to a pole) consisted of a saw, a shovel, an axe, a basket, a saucepan, two long metal spikes and his bed-roll. And that was before he picked up his two javelins, his shield and his sword. This exercise was designed to strengthen his body and get him used to enduring hardship.

The Roman army moved as one body. This was as a result of intense daily training. If there was no battle for them to fight, the legionaries were kept fit building roads, aqueducts, bridges and walls—as well as practising their fighting skills.

Pitching camp

After the long day's march, a soldier was not able to rest until he had helped to build the camp for the night. This was not a simple matter of just pitching a few tents. His shovel was used to dig a ditch around the camp, and his saw to cut down trees. His two spikes, added to those carried by other soldiers, formed a wall. The next morning he was woken by a trumpet sound. He had to leap out of bed, roll up his straw bed-roll, gulp a glass of water, dismantle the tent and pack it onto the luggage mule before another trumpet signalled departure. Before they set off, a herald asked the soldiers three times if they were ready for war: three times they had to shout, 'We are ready'.

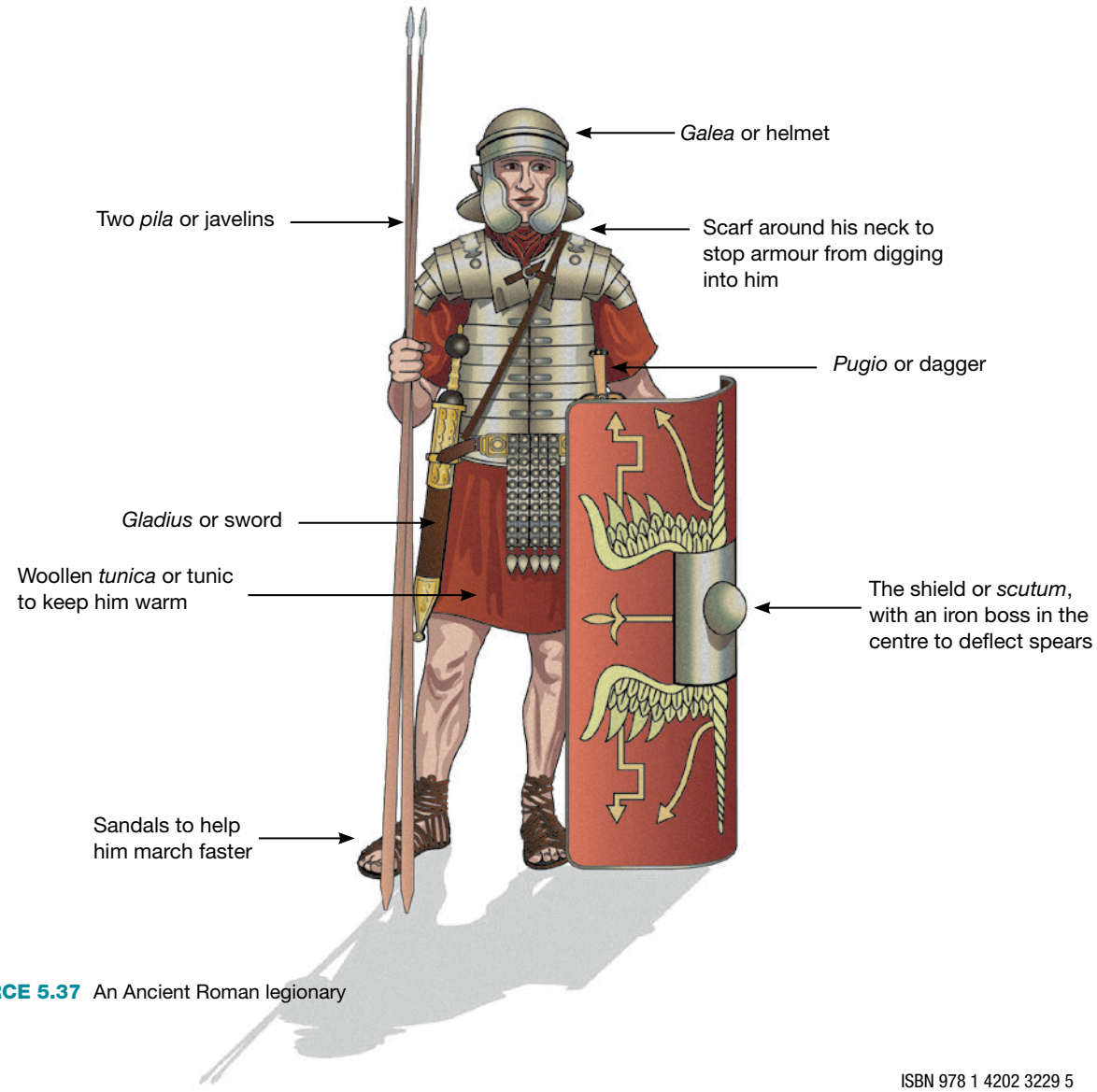
Battle tactics

The legionaries stood shoulder to shoulder. The *pilum* or javelin was thrown at the enemy's shield. The head of the javelin stuck in the shield and the 2-metre shaft bent. It would be difficult for the enemy to continue fighting, as they would trip over the trailing shafts. After the soldiers had thrown their *pila*, they marched rhythmically towards the enemy. The men in the front row used their swords with a short, powerful, deadly thrusting action. The legionary was a killing machine for 20 minutes. He then stepped back for a rest and the man behind him took over for 20 minutes. If a soldier was killed, there was always another to replace him. The legionaries used special formations in warfare such as the **testudo**, and weapons such as the **catapulta**.

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SOURCE 5.36
Using the *catapulta*



SOURCE 5.37 An Ancient Roman legionary

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SOURCE 5.38 In a *testudo* formation

ACTIVITY 12

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What evidence is there that violence and brutality were tolerated and encouraged in Ancient Rome?
2 Why did the army enforce hardship on their new recruits?
3 Describe how the Roman army pitched camp.
4 How did the Ancient Romans win battles?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 5.36. In what military situation might Ancient Roman soldiers have used the *catapulta* to hurl darts and spears?
2 Look at source 5.38. When would they have used the *testudo*?

Empathetic understanding

Write three diary entries for a Roman soldier on campaign against the German tribes, detailing preparations for the battle, the evening after a successful battle and the return of the legion to Rome.

What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Romans have within Rome and with other societies?

Expanding the empire

Carthage (264–146 BCE)

From 264 BCE to 146 BCE, the Ancient Romans fought their first great opponent, the Carthaginians, whose empire originally included North Africa, Sicily, Corsica, Sardinia and western Spain. In 221 BCE, the Carthaginian army unanimously chose Hannibal to be their new leader in an attempt to win back some of their possessions that had been lost in the first war with the Romans. Hannibal was 26.

It was September when Hannibal started to cross the Alps from France to Italy with his army. The mountains were already covered in snow. He won three battles in Italy, defeating the Romans with very clever tactics. He sent a delegation to Rome offering to free Roman prisoners-of-war for ransom. The Romans refused the offer because it would prove Hannibal had won. For the next 13 years, the Romans used guerrilla tactics,

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preventing Hannibal from fighting another fixed battle. Hannibal committed suicide after the Romans finally defeated him.

The city of Carthage was utterly destroyed by Rome after a third war in 146 BCE. The Romans burnt the city, slaughtering all the inhabitants and sowing the ground in the territory with salt to prevent crops from growing. The western Mediterranean, Spain, southern France and North Africa were now part of the Roman Empire.

Spotlight

As well as horses, Hannibal also used elephants in his battles. The elephants were small forest African elephants, thoroughly trained for war. The night before battle they were given figs, which they were allergic to. This produced a very itchy rash, which made them irritable. On the morning of the battle the elephants were given wine, which made them even more aggressive. They charged the enemy's horses, which panicked at the very smell of elephants.

The empire in the east: conquest of Judaea (64–63 BCE)

Pompey was one of Ancient Rome's finest generals. When he arrived in Syria in the Middle East in 64 BCE, he made it another Roman province. He then took control of Judaea, which is what we call Israel and the Palestinian Territories today. Emperor Augustus let King Herod, the son of the former king's chief minister, rule Judaea, but under his careful control. In 66 CE, the Jewish people rebelled against Roman rule. In retaliation, the Romans not only slaughtered the Jews, but also in 70 CE burnt down the Temple on the Mount in Jerusalem. The Wailing Wall (see source S1.2) is all that remains of the Temple.

The empire in the west

From 58 to 51 BCE, Julius Caesar extended the Roman Empire from southern France northwards to the Netherlands and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Rhine River. This great victory was followed by the Emperor Claudius' conquest of Britain. Claudius' general Plautius



SOURCE 5.39 Roman expansion between 218 BCE and 117 CE

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SOURCE 5.40 Hadrian's Wall, the northern point of occupied Britain and western boundary of the Roman Empire

attacked the capital of southern Britain, now known as Colchester, in 43 CE, and Claudius was able to enter Colchester in triumph, receiving the submission of 11 British kings. After 16 days in Britannia, Claudius returned home. Over the next eight years his army conquered Britain as far as the border of Wales.

Following a rebellion in 119–121 CE, Emperor Hadrian built a great wall in 122–128 CE to mark Rome's territory in Britain. There were small gateways along the wall, so that the Romans could stop anyone travelling into or out of Scotland and make them pay taxes before they were allowed to travel to the other side. Threats from the Caledonian peoples of Scotland saw the Romans push further north into Scotland, constructing the 3-metre-high Antonine wall in 142–154 CE.

> ... having reformed the army quite in the manner of a monarch, he [Hadrian] set out for Britain. There he corrected many abuses and was the first to construct a wall, eighty miles in length, which was to separate the barbarians from the Romans.

SOURCE 5.41 Excerpt from *Historia Augusta* (117–284 CE), by six unknown authors. The *Historia Augusta* contains biographies of Roman emperors and other officials.

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Which areas did Rome add to its empire with the defeat of Carthage?
2. How did the Romans continue to fight Hannibal without risking an open battle?
3. Why did the Romans sow the soils around the city of Carthage with salt?
4. How did the Romans rule Judaea after they conquered it?
5. How did the Romans respond to the Jewish uprising of 66 CE?
6. What was Julius Caesar's main achievement in 58–51 BCE?
7. How much of Britain was conquered by the Romans by 154 CE?
8. Create a timeline to show the growth of the Roman Empire, from 264 BCE to 154 CE.

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 5.39. Use an atlas to find the modern name for each Ancient Roman name given in source 5.39.
2. Which Ancient Roman names for seas or countries in source 5.39 are the same as, or similar to, the modern ones?
3. Read source 5.41. Why, according to source 5.41, did Hadrian construct the wall across Britain?

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4 From your reading of the text, what other reason did the Romans have for constructing Hadrian's Wall? What evidence is there for this?

5 What can you conclude about the usefulness of source 5.41 for a historian studying the reasons for the Romans' construction of Hadrian's Wall?

6 What other useful information does source 5.41 contain for a historian studying the Emperor Hadrian? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 5.41.

Research

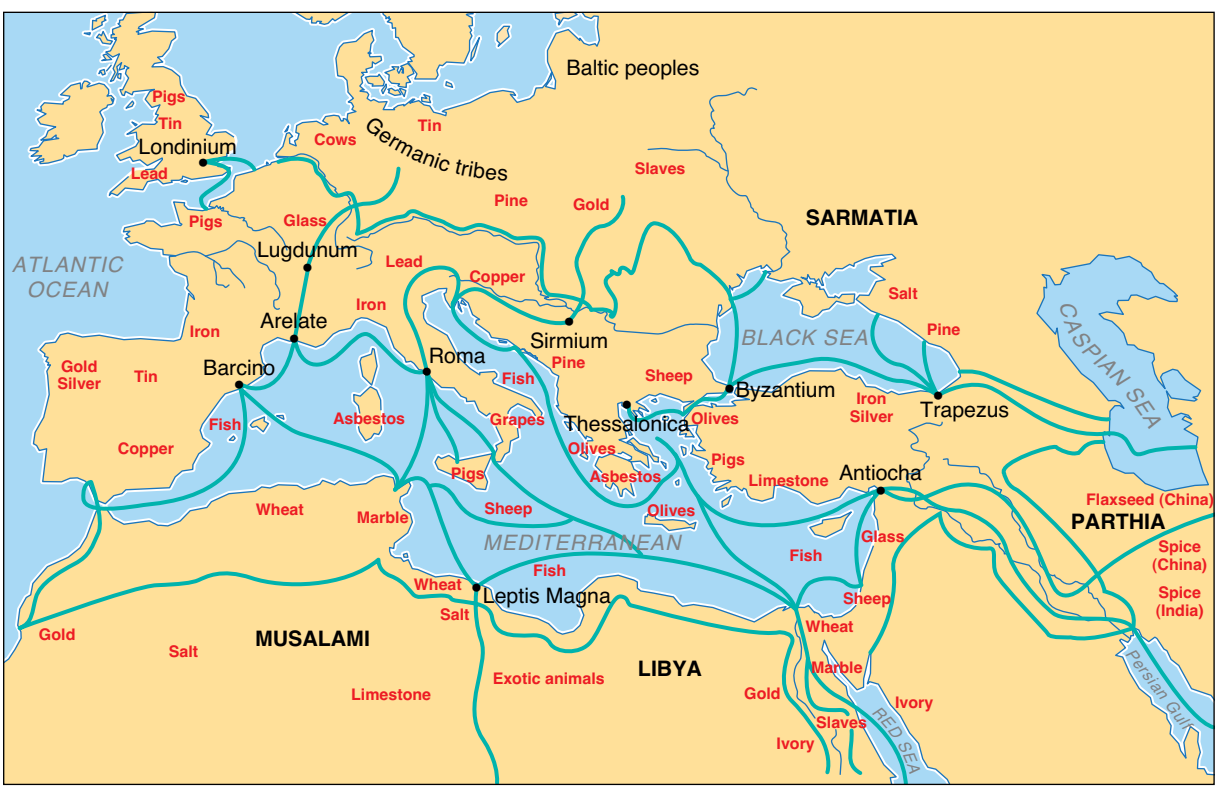
Using the school library or the internet, find out more about Hadrian's Wall. Devise six questions to ask about the wall and answer your questions. Find suitable images to illustrate your research and write up your research as part of a museum display on Hadrian's Wall for your museum scrapbook.

Contacts with other countries through trade

Ancient Rome needed grain to feed its growing population. By the 1st century BCE, Rome was importing cheap grain from Egypt and North Africa. Many Roman farmers could not compete with the imports or earn enough to live on. They sold their farms to wealthy Romans who turned them into large estates, growing grapes for wine and olive oil for export. The farmers then moved into the city. The more dispossessed farmers that poured into the city, the bigger the empire had to grow to feed them.

Rome lacked minerals such as gold, silver and copper, which were desperately needed for coins and weapons. These metals were mined in Spain. Egypt, Greece, North Africa and Asia Minor provided marble for building projects in Rome.

Rome also traded with countries beyond the empire. The Ancient Romans had trading posts in southern India, the most famous being the port of Arikamedu where Roman coins, pottery, glass and terracotta have been found. In return for their gold coins, the Romans bought pepper and other spices, jewels and textiles. Indian black pepper has even been found in excavations at Hadrian's Wall. Some of the spices came from even further east, from places like Oc Eo in southern Vietnam where Roman coins, golden medallions, glass beads and other jewellery have also been found.



SOURCE 5.42 Map showing trade in the Roman Empire, c. 180 CE

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But by far the most prized trade item for the Romans, on which they spent thousands of denarii (silver coins), was raw silk from China, which came along the Silk Road through the deserts north of the Himalayas and to the coast of Asia Minor. From there, some of it was shipped to the Greek island of Cos, where it was woven into fine silk clothing. Roman knowledge of the 'Seres' or 'silk people' was very limited. They thought the land of the Seres was 'somewhere' beyond India. They also thought silk was made from a fibre that was combed from leaves.

Consequences of contact

Trade with Ancient Rome brought new products and new ideas to the lands of the Mediterranean and beyond, while conquest by Rome saw millions of people become part of the Roman Empire. The Romans were not especially bothered about how their new subjects lived their lives, as long as they paid their taxes and worshipped the emperor.

Everyday life

The impact on daily life was mixed for those whose lands were conquered by the Romans. On the one hand, they had access to new products, such as wine and olive oil. They also had access to different aspects of Roman culture, as every new Roman city was built with a bath-house, temples, a theatre and well-maintained roads. For the upper classes, there was the opportunity to obtain official positions within the Roman administration. If they were prepared to learn Latin, dress in the Roman style and take a Roman name, the Romans were prepared to give them wealth, power and status within the Roman administration. Other natives were not so lucky, and ended up being carted away to serve the Romans as slaves, or cut down in rebellions against Roman rule.

Religion

The Romans tried not to offend any 'foreign' god. When they were laying siege to a city, they would invite the gods to desert the city and to go to Rome, where they promised to build temples for them. The Romans also adopted various gods from their newly conquered regions, such as Isis and Osiris (Egypt) and Cybele (Greece).

That said, the Romans rejected some cults because they saw them as being anti-Roman. Druidism was crushed in Britain because the Druid priests objected to Roman rule. Initially, the Romans did not tolerate Christianity either because Christians refused to make offerings to Roman gods, particularly the divine emperors. With the formal acceptance of Christianity in 313 CE, the religion spread rapidly throughout the Empire.

> All nations in the west and south being subdued, and all to the north between the Rhine and Danube, as well as all to the east between the Cyrus and Euphrates [Rivers], the other countries also, which had not fallen under the authority of Rome, yet grew sensible of her grandeur, and reverenced a people who had conquered so many nations. The Scythians and Sarmatians [Central Asians] sent ambassadors to us, desiring our friendship. The Seres, too, and the Indians who live under the very sun, coming with jewels and pearls, and bringing also elephants among their presents, thought they proved their respect to [Emperor] Augustus by nothing so much as the length of their journey, which they had taken four years to complete. The complexion of the men showed that they came from another climate.

SOURCE 5.43 Excerpt from *The Epitome of the Histories of Titus Livy* (c. 130 CE) by Publius Annius Florus, a Roman historian

ACTIVITY 14

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Draw a diagram to explain the causes and consequences of importing cheap grain from Egypt and North Africa.
2. What other goods did Rome import and what goods did it export?
3. What did Ancient Rome obtain in the form of trading goods from India, Vietnam and China?
4. How did Chinese silk reach Rome?
5. Why were some foreign cults tolerated in Ancient Rome and not others?

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Analysis and use of sources

1 Use source 5.42 to complete the following table.

Products imported within the empire	Products imported from beyond the empire	Products exported from Rome

2 Read source 5.43. Why, according to source 5.43, do different nations send ambassadors to Rome?

3 During whose reign did the Indians and Seres arrive in Rome? Quote evidence from the source in your answer.

4 What did Indian merchants bring to trade in the Roman Empire? Quote evidence from the source in your answer.

Perspectives and interpretations

Write a dialogue between a wealthy Briton and a poor Briton over the consequences of Roman rule.

Explanation and communication

Draw two mind maps, showing

- the causes of contact with Rome
- the effects of contact with Rome.

What legacy did Ancient Rome leave to modern life?

Ancient Rome has had an enormous impact on the modern world, from Europe to the Middle East and North Africa and beyond.

Roads and towns

The roads of many former Roman provinces still follow the ancient Roman roads. Many of the towns founded by the Romans, such as London, Winchester, York (Britain), Bolonia (Spain) and Autun (France) are still in use as towns today, while others lie in ruins.

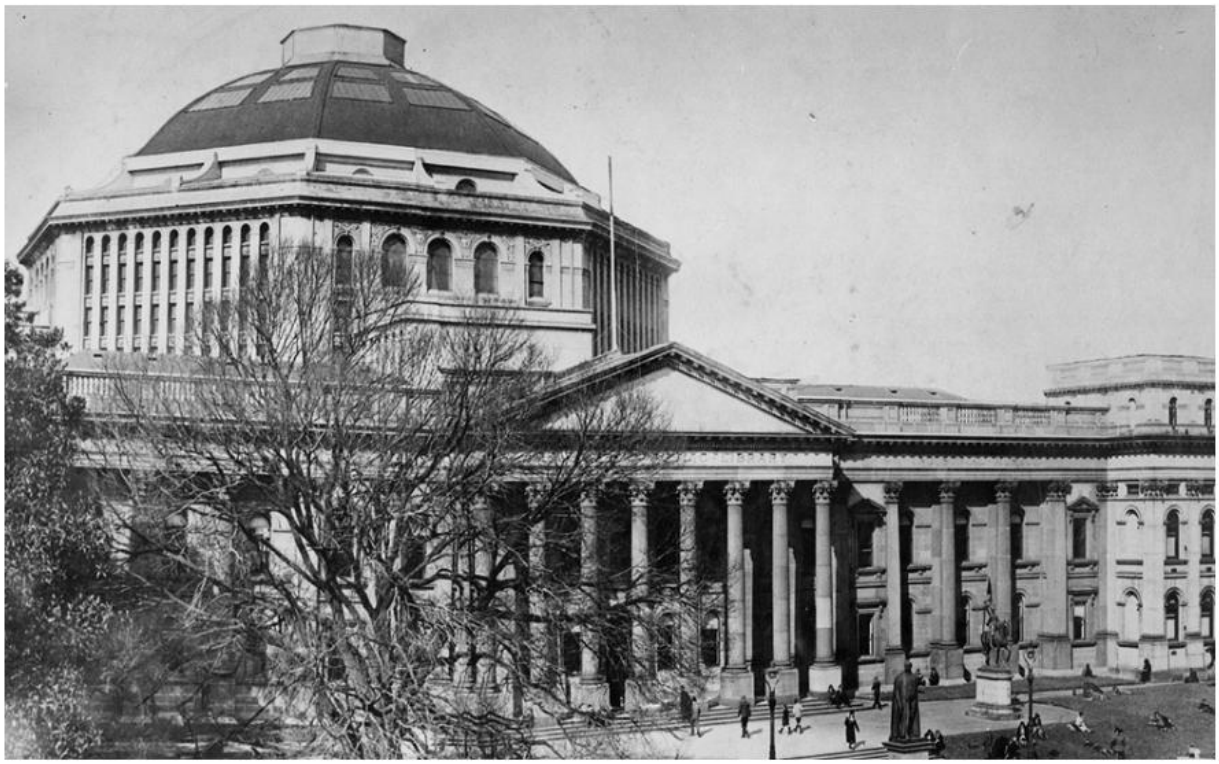
Language and writing

The Roman language, Latin, was the language of the Roman Catholic Church, international diplomacy, law and science. Most secondary students in the West (Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand) learnt Latin until the 20th century. Many of our English words are derived from Latin, such as orbit (from *orbis*), circle or circus (from *circus*), and nautical (from *nauta*).

SOURCE 5.44
The outside of the Pantheon



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SOURCE 5.45 The State Library of Victoria

Our alphabet is based on the Roman alphabet. Our months are Roman and our calendar was devised by Julius Caesar. July is called after Julius Caesar and August after the first emperor, Augustus. Our planets are named after the Ancient Roman gods. Many of our common sayings come from Ancient Rome: 'Love conquers all', 'It is quality not quantity that counts', 'My heart was in my mouth' and 'No sooner said than done' are all translations of Ancient Roman sayings.

Roman art and architecture

Architects and engineers have learnt a great deal from the Ancient Romans. The Romans were the first to use domes and arches extensively. The Pantheon in Rome looks really familiar as it has influenced buildings such as the British Museum and the State Library of Victoria. (See sources 5.44 and 5.45 for a comparison.)

The Ancient Romans were the first to use concrete, which is used extensively today. Archaeologists can often work out that a building must be Roman because it is made of baked brick, a very common building material used today.

Law

The Romans drew up a system of laws that has influenced much of our modern legal system.

ACTIVITY 15

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How has Ancient Rome influenced the layout of towns and regions of the countries that were part of its former empire?
2. How has Ancient Rome influenced language and writing in the West?
3. What contributions to architecture have been made by the Romans?

Analysis and use of sources

Look at sources 5.44 and 5.45. How has the State Library of Victoria been influenced by Ancient Roman architecture?

Explanation and communication

Create a slideshow or short film titled *The Legacy of Ancient Rome* for your museum. Include primary sources from Ancient Rome and the modern world to illustrate continuity between the past and the present (i.e. how Ancient Rome has contributed to the modern world).

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History challenges

Creating an exhibit

Create five exhibits for the Mediterranean World gallery on the following themes for Ancient Rome:

1. physical features
2. daily life
3. contact and conflict with other countries
4. a significant individual
5. the legacy of its society.

Creating a mosaic

1. Choose a simple picture and draw the outline of the picture on black paper. Cut out the image.
2. Select a range of coloured paper, cut them into squares about 1 centimetre in size and paste these coloured squares onto the black background to form your mosaic picture.

Art detective

The Museum of Humanity wants to buy a mosaic supposedly found in Pompeii. It asks Senior Detective Frank Fake, a specialist in Ancient Roman forgeries, to check the artefact.

The gallery asks him: is it Roman in style and is it ancient?

Can you, too, be an art detective?

Source 5.46 is Exhibit A, a genuine Ancient Roman mosaic. Source 5.47 is Exhibit B and the artefact in question. Compare both exhibits and answer the following questions.

1. What might 'cave canem' mean? Where in the house might the mosaic have been placed?
2. What material might Exhibit B be made from?
3. Is Exhibit B created in the Ancient Roman style?
4. What colours are used in Exhibit B?
5. Are there any signs of wear on Exhibit B that show that it might have been excavated in Pompeii?
6. Which is a better work of art: the artefact in source 5.47 or the mosaic in source 5.46?
7. Is source 5.47 a mosaic?

Give Exhibit B a mark out of seven (from your answers to Questions 2–7) for authenticity. Write a report recommending or not recommending that your museum buy this mosaic and hand your report to your museum director.



SOURCE 5.46 Exhibit A: a genuine Ancient Roman mosaic from Pompeii



SOURCE 5.47 Exhibit B: a genuine Ancient Roman mosaic or not?

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Section 3

The Asian World



Intensive rice farming on the mountains in the Yangtze valley

KEY TERMS

dynasty	a succession of rulers from the same family that stays in power for several generations
enlightened	to have a deep spiritual understanding of the meaning of life
philosophies	systems of thought or belief

The Asian World

Asia is home to some of the oldest societies in the world, including that of the Indus Valley (2500–1300 BCE), the Shang **dynasty** of China (c. 1600–1046 BCE), the Gojoseon Kingdom of Korea (2333 BCE–57 CE) and the Hong Bang dynasty (2897–258 BCE) of Vietnam. The next few pages will provide a brief introduction to the ancient societies of Asia by exploring some of their key features.

Geography

The ancient societies of Asia were blessed with ready access to water and fertile soils. Many long rivers provided early farming societies in India with water to irrigate their crops. Two of the largest rivers, the Indus and the Ganges, start in the Himalayan mountains before working their way down to the Indian Ocean. The largest rivers in China are the Huang He (Yellow) and the Chang Jiang (Yangtze), while the Irrawaddy and Mekong rivers bring water to South-East Asia.

The climate of Asia varies greatly, from the frozen mountains of Tibet to the tropical heat of South-East Asia, the heavy monsoon rains of southern India and the arid plains of the deserts of western China. In ancient times, this allowed for a great diversity of crops, livestock and ways of life across the vast region.

Asia has some of the world's greatest mountain ranges, including the Himalaya and the Hindu Kush. These mountainous regions formed a natural protective barrier for the societies that lay beyond them, keeping them safe from invaders. The mountains also provided plenty of water to feed lush green pastures as the snows melted in summer.



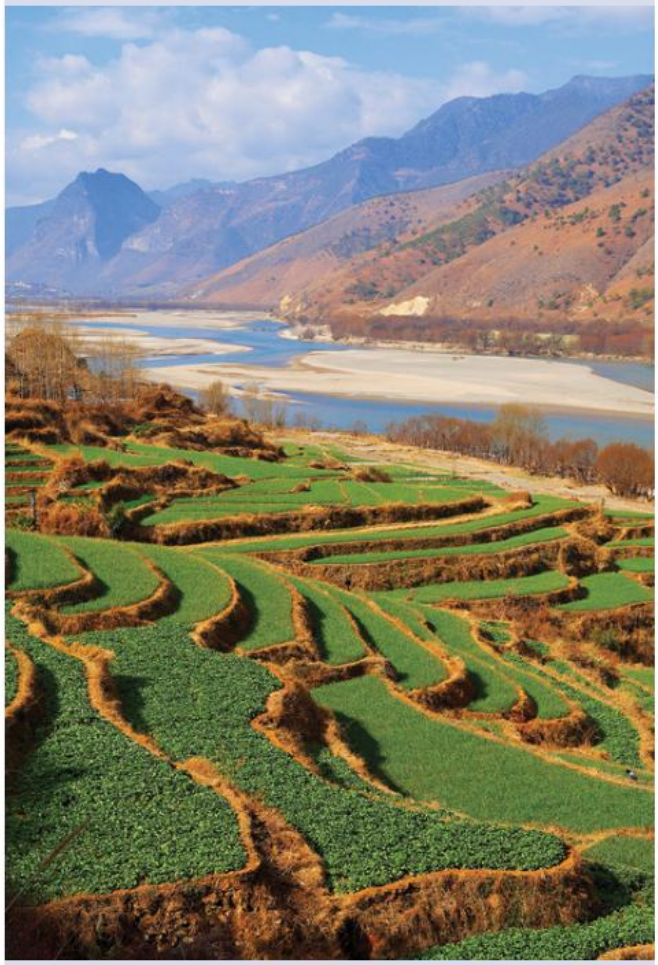
SOURCE S3.1 The Indus River still provides water for farming today

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Asia is also home to some of the largest lakes in the world, such as Lake Baikal and Lake Balkash in northern Asia, and Lake Qinghai in south-western China. In addition, huge peninsulas of land extend out from the mainland into the sea, creating small bays and inlets that provide safe harbours. The peninsulas and lakes gave many Asian societies ready access to fishing and travel across the sea.

Spotlight

The Huang He (Yellow River) earns its name from the silt it picks up as it passes through the plateau. The river then deposits the silt along its banks further downstream, fertilising the soil, which is then used to grow millet and other grains. The Yangtze flows through southern China and is used by farmers to irrigate rice paddies.



SOURCE S3.2 Rice being grown in terraces alongside the Yangtze River

Beliefs and practices: religion

India and China are home to several religions and **philosophies** that are still observed today. Hinduism, a polytheistic religion, emerged in India more than 3000 years ago. It did not spread much beyond India until the 7th century CE. It did, however, give birth to new religious movements in Asia during the Ancient Period, namely Jainism and Buddhism.

Jainism arose c. 500 BCE, a religious practice that called for non-violence and self-control. Buddhism emerged from the teachings of the Indian prince Siddhartha Guatama (563–483 BCE), who came to be known as 'the Buddha' (**enlightened** one). While Buddhism did not make a huge impact in its homeland of India, it spread rapidly elsewhere, thanks to the work of missionary monks—to Pakistan and Afghanistan in the 3rd century BCE, China in the 1st century CE and Korea by 350 CE.

New religious philosophies developed in China during the Ancient Period, too. Confucianism arose from the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551–479 BCE). It encourages mindfulness of one's duty to family and society and the development of moral virtues within the self.

Another belief system, Daoism (pronounced *dowism*) began in around 600 BCE. Daoism teaches that people should live in harmony with nature. The idea of balance, central to Daoism, is demonstrated by the yin and yang symbol.



SOURCE S3.3 The yin and yang symbol represents the philosophy of Daoism: the dark portions are balanced perfectly by the light portions

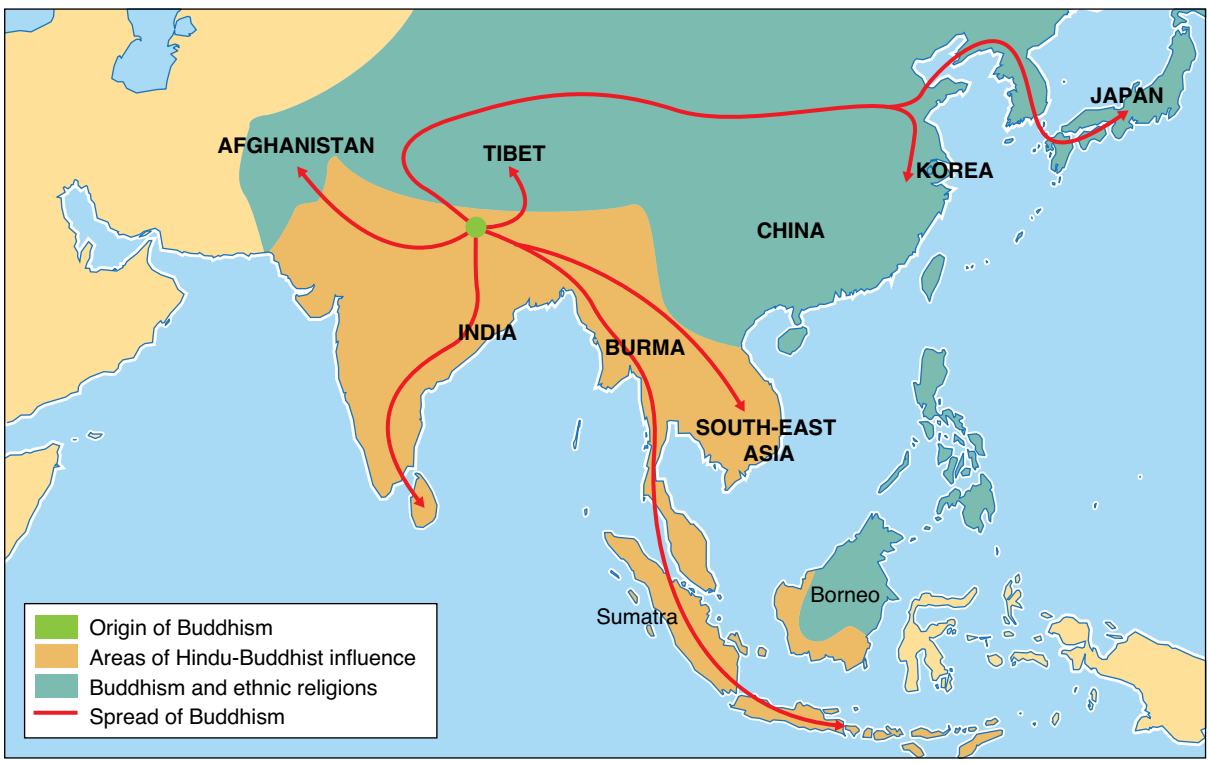
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Spotlight

Hindu temples are dotted throughout India. Many of them are decorated with spectacular colours and motifs.



SOURCE S3.4
A close-up of some of the wonderful colours and characters decorating a Hindu temple



SOURCE S3.5 Map showing the spread of Hinduism and Buddhism, 500 BCE to 600 CE

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Our greatest glory is not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall.

The superior man understands what is right; the inferior man understands what will sell.

Real knowledge is to know the extent of one's ignorance.

SOURCE S3.6 Confucian sayings

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Create a timeline of early Asian societies, from 2897 BCE to 57 CE.
2. What great rivers sustained the ancient societies of the Asian world?
3. What was an outcome of the diverse climates of the Asian region?
4. What advantages did the mountains bring to the societies located nearby?
5. What geographical features allowed for fishing?
6. List the main religions of Asia.
7. Who was Confucius?

Analysis and use of sources

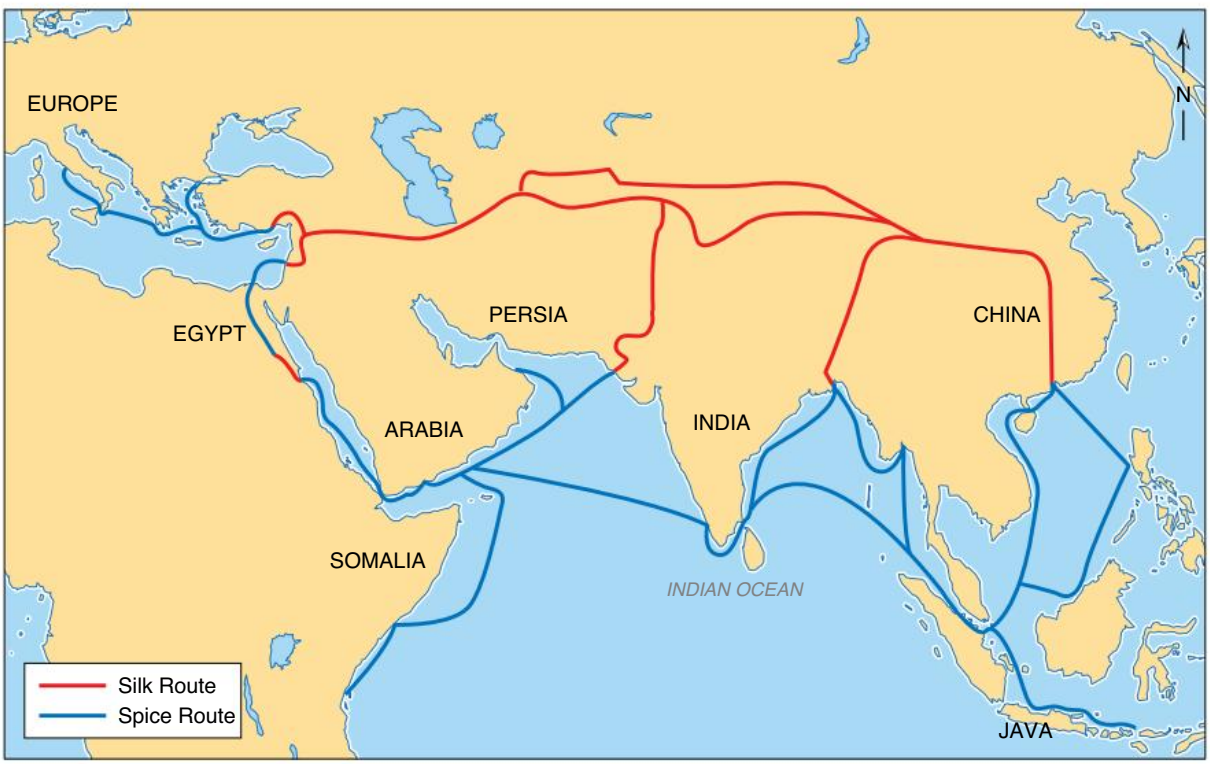
1. Look at source S3.5. To which countries did Hinduism and Buddhism spread?
2. Read source S3.6 and explain each saying.

Explanation and communication

Look at a map of Asia, using GoogleEarth or an atlas. Identify the main geographic features you can see (mountain ranges, lakes, rivers, deserts, oceans). Download a blank map of Asia and label the map with the main geographic features. Paste the map into your museum scrapbook.

Trade

In addition to farming, the river systems allowed the peoples of Asia to conduct trade across the region. Overland trade routes existed, too, running over the mountains and across the deserts. The most famous of these was the Silk Road. The Silk Road was not a single road, but a network of ancient trade routes, stretching from Chang'an (now Xian) in China all the way to Baghdad in Persia (now Iran) and beyond, with roads to and from India, South-East Asia and Central Asia too. Silk, jade, glass, exotic feathers,



SOURCE S3.7 The Silk and Spice routes from Asia

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pearls, china, copper, tin, coral and lapis lazuli (a precious blue-coloured stone) were traded between China, India and South-East Asia.

A thriving spice trade also developed in Ancient Asia. South-East Asia and India grew spices such as cinnamon, cloves, cardamom, pepper and turmeric and traded them into China and on to Persia and Greece via the Spice Routes.

The Wonders of Ancient Asia

Like the Ancient Mediterranean, Ancient Asia also possessed some magnificent and extraordinary monuments. These include:

- The Great Wall of China (first built 600 BCE, though little of the original ancient wall remains today)
- The Mahabodhi Temple (first built 250 BCE)
- Pha That Luang Temple (built c. 250 CE)
- The Banaue Rice Terraces (c. 0 CE)
- Tombs of the Koguryo Kingdom (37 BCE –427 CE)
- The Mogao Caves (366–695 CE)

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How did the people of Ancient Asia travel to distant markets?
2. List eight trade goods exchanged around the region.
3. How did Asian goods such as silk and spices reach the Middle East and Europe?

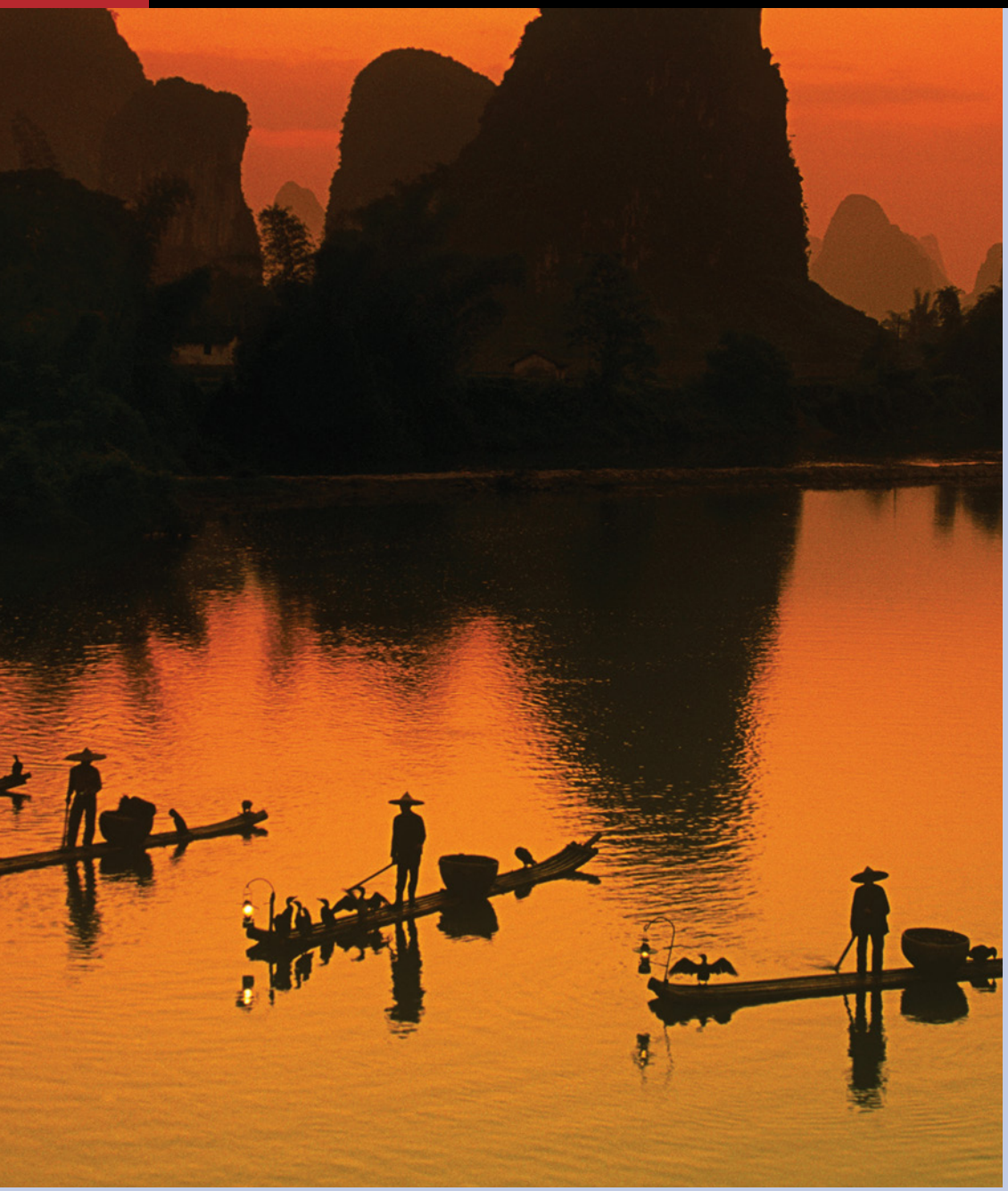
Research

1. Download a blank map of Asia. Find and plot the locations of the Wonders of Ancient Asia on your map.
2. Choose one of the Wonders of Ancient Asia listed above. You will be creating a travel brochure on the Wonder for a modern tourist. Devise six questions you would like to find answers to for your chosen Wonder (think about what a tourist might want to know about the Wonder). Present your research as a travel brochure, with suitable images.

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Chapter 6

Ancient China



Fishermen fishing with cormorants on the Li River as they have done for centuries

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter your investigation will require you to:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of Ancient China
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of Ancient Chinese society
- outline the main features of the social structures and government of Ancient China, including the role of law and religion
- describe the roles of key groups in Ancient China
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Ancient China
- explain how the beliefs and values of Ancient China are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient Asian world
- outline significant contacts with other societies
- explain the consequences of these contacts with other societies
- explain the legacy of Ancient China
- using a range of sources, including ICT, investigate the role of Qin Shi Huangdi
- assess the role and importance of Qin Shi Huangdi.

SITE STUDY

- a virtual historical site: the Tomb of Qin Shi Huangdi.

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Inquiry questions

1. What were the physical features of Ancient China?
2. What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Chinese?
3. What were the key social groups in Ancient China?
4. Who was a key figure in Ancient China?
5. What was everyday life like in Ancient China?
6. What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Chinese have within China and with other societies?
7. What legacy did Ancient China leave to modern life?

Introduction

Study the past if you would know the future.

Confucius

CHINA WAS ONE of the most successful of the ancient societies. The Chinese today can boast that their society has the longest recorded history. The Chinese dominated the eastern part of the Asian continent. Their rice-based farming system was highly successful and was located around two major rivers, the Huang He (Yellow) and the Chang Jiang (Yangtze). As their society developed, the Ancient Chinese came up with many new inventions such as paper, printing and the compass.

KEY TERMS

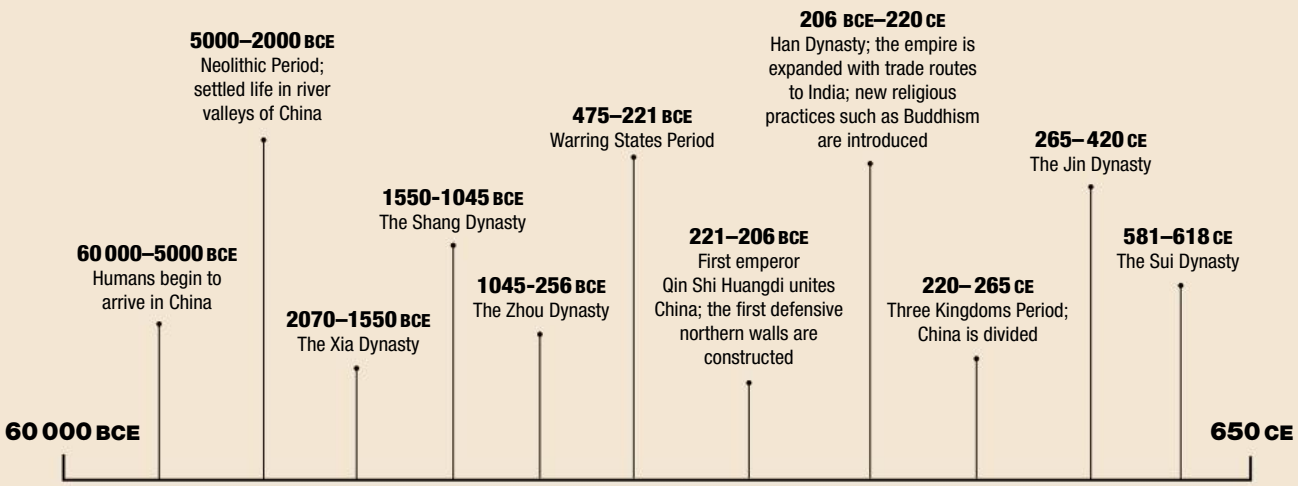
All-Under-Heaven	an expression meaning 'the known world', in this case, China
assassination	the killing of a prominent person, such as a leader or politician
civil service	the centralised administrative system for running government. In theory, everyone could sit an exam to join the civil service and therefore advance in society.
Confucius	an Ancient Chinese philosopher (551–479 BCE) who developed Confucianism, a philosophy that argues that humans are basically good and are able to improve and perfect themselves; it also states that all people have a role in the social order and should respect their social betters
First Emperor	Qin Shi Huangdi (259–210 BCE) united previously warring kingdoms and made important reforms
Great Wall	a series of defensive walls built in the north and north-west of Ancient China to keep nomadic warriors from invading
Legalism	a philosophy that sought to control people with rules and laws; its starting point was that people were naturally bad
levee	a small ridge of mud built alongside a river to prevent the river from overflowing
Mandate of Heaven	the idea that kings have the right to rule so long as they treat their subjects fairly and justly. If a king treats his subjects cruelly then he loses Heaven's mandate and a new king replaces him.
Warring States Period	covers a period from about 475 BCE to 221 BCE. It was a period during which regional warlords annexed smaller states surrounding their territory.

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Ancient China



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about Ancient China.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down any questions you have about Ancient China.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.

What were the physical features of Ancient China?

China's geography shaped where people settled in prehistory. The country is framed by mountains to the south, deserts to the west and north, and two major river valleys in the centre, extending to the east coast. As was the case elsewhere in the world, river valleys provided the best opportunities for hunter-gatherers to develop agriculture, farming and settled life. China is dominated by two large rivers, the Yangtze and Yellow rivers. The Yangtze is the larger of the two and is the third-largest river in the world. The Yellow River is the world's sixth-largest river. Around 7000 BCE, the first Chinese communities began to develop agriculture in and around the basins of these rivers, growing millet (a type of grain) and rice.



SOURCE 6.1 The Yellow River flowing through grasslands

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Two zones

China has two very different geographic zones, which have affected how and where people live: a northern zone and a southern zone. The boundary of these two zones falls roughly along an east to west line between the Yellow and Yangtze rivers. The differences in rainfall, soil type and temperature mean that people live very different lifestyles in these two zones.

In the northern zone, famine and drought have occurred regularly throughout history. Northern China's climate, as well as the weather, has also had an impact on farming. The winters can be very harsh, dry and cold, limiting the growing season to roughly half the year. Dry grains, such as millet and wheat are grown in the north.

The southern zone is almost the opposite. There are mountain ranges covered in jungle, high rainfall and temperatures that allow a longer, more productive growing season than in the north. In the south, crops are grown all year long, and in a good season, two or three crops of rice are possible. Rice became the main crop in southern China. People began to change the landscape by creating terraces for growing rice.

For most of the Ancient Period, more people lived in the north, but during this time there was a movement of people from north to south.



SOURCE 6.2 Rice terraces and mountain jungles in China

Geographical elements that gave rise to the early development of agriculture in China

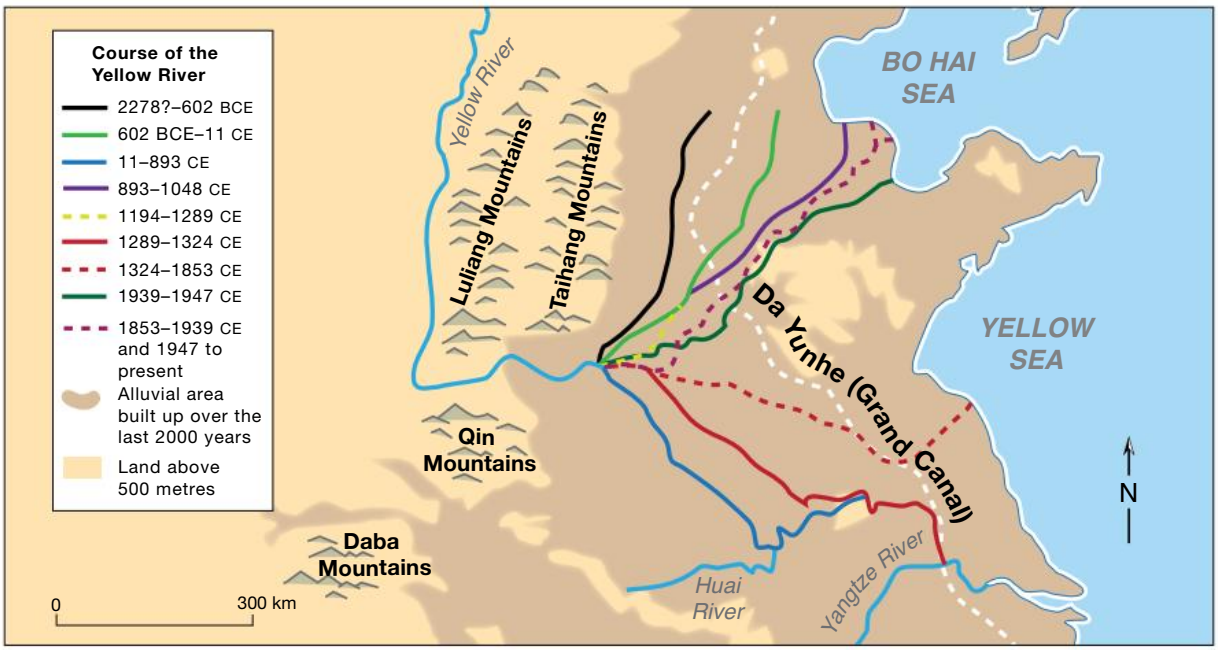
Loess soil

Loess is a silty type of sediment that has been deposited by the wind over a long period of time. It is very fertile, provides good drainage and is also strong enough to be dug out to form caves that people can live in. China has one of the world's largest deposits of loess, located on the Loess Plateau, which covers 640 000 square kilometres. Loess erodes very easily, and the Yellow River, which travels through the Loess Plateau, picks up and carries away a lot of loess with it.



SOURCE 6.3 The Loess Plateau

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SOURCE 6.4 How the Yellow River has changed its course over time

The Yellow River

The Yellow River takes its name from the colour of the loess that it carries downstream and deposits on a large plain. These deposits also elevate the river in its riverbed above the surrounding plain. The Yellow River has been both a source of wealth, with rich fertile plains in which to plant crops, and a source of danger, when it breaks its banks, flooding the land and killing many people. Over the last 3000 years, the Yellow River has flooded over 1500 times and has had nine major course changes.

The Central Plain

The Central Plain is sometimes referred to as the 'cradle of Chinese society' as it is where a number of early Ancient Chinese societies were located. The plain's main features are that it is vast, it is flat, and the Yellow River runs through it. Irrigation works allowed these early societies to grow cereal crops such as wheat and millet. The loess soil of the plain is fertile and easy to cultivate with simple tools and is probably the reason the early people chose this area to settle. In the lower parts of the Yellow River, people had found a way to manage the river by building **levee** banks to prevent it flooding. Historians think that one of the reasons the early emperors became so powerful was through organising the large numbers of people needed to build these banks.

Spotlight

To the Chinese of the 1st millennium BCE, China was the entire world, known as '**All-Under-Heaven**'. As they were ringed by oceans to the east, mountains to the south and west and deserts to the north, it is perhaps easy to see why they saw the world in this way.

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Make a list of the physical features of Ancient China.
2. How has climate influenced where people lived in China?
3. Where did the first people who came to China begin to settle?
4. Describe the different geographic zones of Ancient China. How did geography and climate impact rice growing?
5. On a printout of a blank map of China, locate the Yellow and Yangtze rivers. Draw a line on the map showing the two geographic zones.
6. What geographical elements helped the early kingdoms?
7. Describe three features of the Yellow River.

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Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at sources 6.1 and 6.2 and answer the following questions.
   - **a** Describe the landscape in both sources.
   - **b** What are the main differences?
   - **c** From what you can see, what do you think the climate might be like in each area?
   - **d** What type of agricultural activity do you think is best suited to each area? Why?

2 Look at source 6.4 (the Yellow River). How many times has the Yellow River changed its course? Why do you think this is?

Explanation and communication

Design an exhibit in your museum scrapbook on the geographic features of China for somebody who cannot see. How can you communicate the geography of Ancient China?



The early dynasties

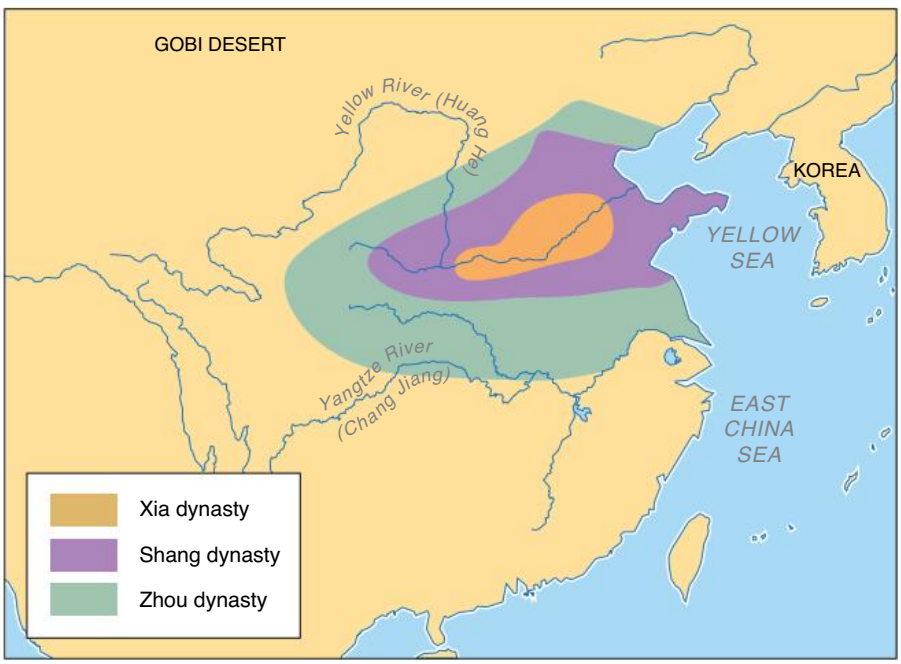
Farmers started to settle in the valleys formed by the major rivers more than 6000 years ago. Some archaeologists and historians think that their settlements developed into the Xia (pronounced *shar*) dynasty (2070–1550 BCE). Following the Xia dynasty, the Shang (1550–1045 BCE) and Zhou (pronounced *joe*, 1045–256 BCE) dynasties ruled China. They all established themselves on the banks of the Yellow River.



SOURCE 6.5 Jade face (c. 2000 BCE), Xia dynasty



SOURCE 6.6 Bronze rice-wine vessel with cover (c. 500 BCE), Zhou dynasty



SOURCE 6.7 Xia, Shang and Zhou dynasties, 2070–256 BCE

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Within the lands ruled by the early dynasties, there were a number of smaller Chinese kingdoms. Each of the small kingdoms had its own king and its own royal officials, but the kingdoms were not independent—they had to obey the leaders of the dynasties.

Later dynasties

The Zhou dynasty was weak, leading to a war between seven Chinese kingdoms. The kingdoms fought for over 200 years during the **Warring States Period** (475–221 BCE) for the control of China. In 221 BCE, one of them, the kingdom of Qin (pronounced *chin*), emerged victorious and was able to unite all of China. Its leader, Qin Shi Huangdi, became China's first emperor.

The Qin dynasty ruled until 206 BCE, when it was succeeded by the Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE). The Han dynasty collapsed due to conflict between Chinese warlords, leading to a period when several kingdoms rose and fell (known as the Three Kingdoms Period). Ancient China was reunited briefly under the Jin dynasty (265–420 CE) and again under the Sui dynasty (581–618 CE).



SOURCE 6.8 Map showing Qin dynasty lands and Great Wall

Great plains and great walls

Although the Yellow River and its surrounding plain provided a good place to develop agriculture and settled life, it was a region that was hard to defend. To the north and north-west there are no natural barriers such as mountains. Instead, there are grasslands (known as the 'steppe') and deserts that stretch out for thousands of kilometres. Nomadic, horse-riding animal herders occupied these lands and frequently raided and attacked the settlements on the Yellow River, so they were often a threat to the early Chinese people. The Shang and Zhou dynasties, too, were often at war with the tribespeople of the north. From the 7th century BCE, the Zhou dynasty began to build rammed earth walls around their cities and forts.

In the 3rd century BCE, the **First Emperor**, Qin Shi Huangdi, ordered that a massive new wall be constructed along the empire's northern frontier. This was no small task. The wall he ordered built was more than 6000 kilometres from the Bay of Bohai in the east to Gansu in the western desert. Known as Wanli Changcheng (The Wall of Ten Thousand Li), it was constructed by 300 000 soldiers and labourers. Many of the dynasties that came after the Qin constructed, maintained and even built over the Qin wall so that after a while the Chinese became used to the idea of a '**Great Wall**' separating China from the northern peoples.

It was likely that the harsh climate in the north, compared with the more fertile south, kept prompting the northern nomadic herders from Mongolia and Central Asia to keep destroying parts of the Great Wall and invading northern China. These invasions contributed to the end of the Han dynasty and the decline of the Jin and Sui dynasties.

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SOURCE 6.9 Part of the Great Wall built by the Qin dynasty in the 3rd century BCE

Spotlight

How long was an Ancient Chinese piece of string?

Today in China, a *li* is exactly 500 metres, but this has not always been the case. Over the last 5000 years it could have meant anywhere from as little as 77 metres or as long as 576 metres. The First Emperor attempted to standardise both measures and weights and historians think that in his time a *li* was 576 metres.

ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Where were the early dynasties established?
2. What happened during the Warring States Period?
3. Create a timeline of the dynasties of Ancient China, from 2070 BCE to 618 CE.
4. Why did the Chinese build a wall in the north?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 6.5. What useful information does source 6.5 have for a historian studying the Xia dynasty? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 6.5.
2. Look at source 6.6. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 6.6.

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph to explain how China's geography contributed to the rise and fall of Ancient Chinese rulers.

What were the key social groups in Ancient China?

The rulers of Ancient China

The ancient kings

The ancient dynasties of Xia, Shang and Zhou were headed by kings. During the Xia and Shang periods, there was a single ruler, while by the Zhou period there were numerous kings, princes and dukes who shared power (though not always peaceably). The kings of the Xia, Shang and Zhou dynasties were the military leaders of their realms. They were also the religious leaders, performing important ceremonies to gods and ancestors.

Emperors

From 221 BCE, Ancient China was ruled by emperors. Emperors were at the head of the ruling dynasties and power was generally passed from father to son. The emperor had absolute power in China. There was no way of challenging the emperor—except by going to war and overthrowing the dynasty. The emperor's word was law and he could make life-and-death

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decisions about the ordinary people. Any questioning of the emperor's decisions was regarded as treason, punishable by death or mutilation. The emperor's rule was supported by thousands of administrators who made sure his rules were obeyed.

Emperors also claimed to be the successors of the 'first' emperor of China, Emperor Huangdi (2696–2598 BCE), also known as the 'Yellow Emperor', who was believed to have been the original ruler of Ancient China. Historians today regard Huangdi as a mythical figure who never really existed.

The colour yellow, the number nine and the dragon were all symbols associated with the emperor. He traditionally wore a yellow robe adorned with nine dragons.

The role of religion and the emperors

The official title of emperor was the 'Son of Heaven'; this title gave emperors god-like authority that no other person possessed. The Ancient Chinese believed that an emperor's right to rule was given to him by Heaven. This was known as the '**Mandate of Heaven**'. The people thought that as long as emperors ruled in a fair and just way, Heaven would allow them to keep ruling. If emperors became lazy and selfish, Heaven would withdraw its mandate and another person would overthrow the emperor and begin a fresh dynasty.

The empress dowager

Sometimes, the emperors ascended the throne while they were still children. In this case, their mother, known as the empress dowager, reigned for them as regent until they were old enough to rule in their own right. The Ancient Chinese Empress Lu Zhi of the Han dynasty ruled for 15 years as regent for her son Emperor Hui (who died young) and his sons Liu Gong (Emperor Qianshao) and Liu Hong (Emperor Houshao).

Historians of the kings and emperors

Sima Qian was the official historian of the Han Court. He wrote an account of Ancient China dating from 2700 BCE called *Shiji (Records of the Grand Historian)* (109–91 BCE). *Shiji* contains 130 chapters. It includes biographies of Chinese rulers, from legendary Emperor Huangdi to the Emperor of the day, Emperor Wu of Han (156–87 BCE). *Shiji* also includes biographies of famous men and information on rituals, music and general history. Sima Qian made use of imperial records and also travelled around China interviewing notable people to check his information. As official Han historian, Sima portrayed the Han emperors as worthy of Heaven's mandate and the Qin emperors as unworthy. He did this in order to justify the Han dynasty's overthrow of the previous Qin dynasty.



SOURCE 6.10
Workers completing the gigantic sculpture of the mythical Chinese emperors Yandi and Huangdi (the Yellow Emperor), Zhengzhou, China, 2007

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Other important histories of Ancient China include the *Book of Han* (82 CE), the *Records of the Three Kingdoms* (289 CE) and the *Book of Later Han* (445 CE).

After the Qin had achieved its goal of unification, it burned all the copies of the *Odes* and *Documents* in the empire, along with the historical records of the various feudal rulers, numerous as they were, because they contained sharp criticisms of the Qin. The reason the *Odes* and *Documents* have reappeared is that many copies were stored away in people's houses. But the historical records were stored only in the Zhou archives, and hence were all destroyed. How regrettable! How regrettable!

SOURCE 6.11 Excerpt from *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE) by Sima Qian, official historian to the Han court (107–86 BCE) written in China

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were the responsibilities of the Ancient Chinese kings?
2. What power was held by the Emperor?
3. What symbols were associated with the emperors?
4. Explain the concept of the Mandate of Heaven.
5. What was the empress dowager?
6. Who was Sima Qian?
7. How did Sima Qian check his facts and information?
8. From your reading of the text, why do you think the colour yellow was significant to the Qin and Han emperors?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 6.11. Is source 6.11 a primary or a secondary source?
2. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 6.11.
3. Why, according to source 6.11, did the Qin destroy the historical records?

Perspectives and interpretation

1. How does the author of source 6.11 feel about the destruction of the historical records? Quote from the source to support your answer.
2. Why do you think the author of source 6.11 portrays the Qin this way?

Research

Find out more about one of the following Ancient Chinese rulers. You can choose from

- Dowager Empress Liu Zhi
- The Yellow Emperor
- King Wu of Zhou
- Emperor Wen of Han.

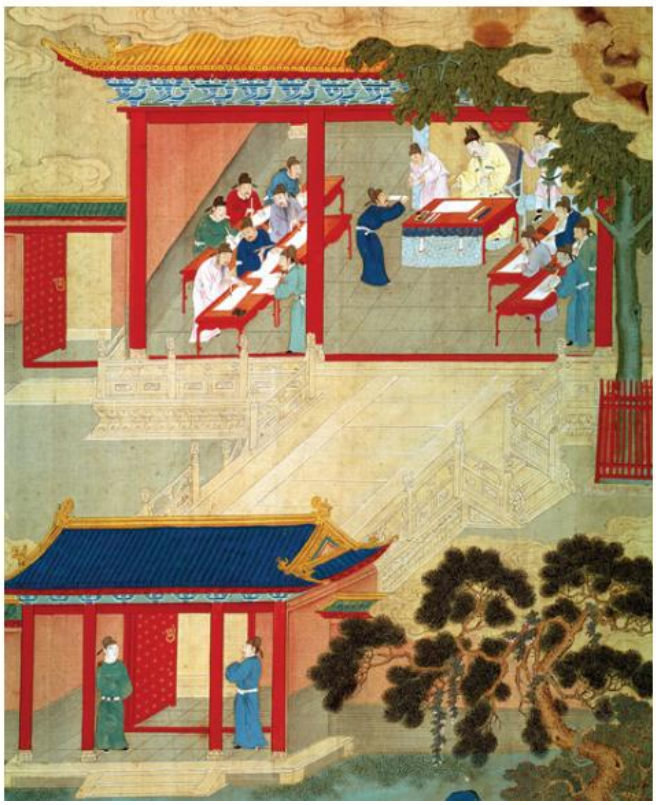
Devise six questions to ask about your chosen Chinese ruler. Find answers to your questions and write up your research as an app for your museum.

The people of Ancient China

The people of Ancient China were organised into a hierarchy of four main professional classes: the *shi* (scholars), the *nong* (peasant farmers), the *gong* (artisans) and the *shang* (merchants). At the bottom of the hierarchy were soldiers and slaves.

Shi: the scholars

Scholars in Ancient China were highly respected and drawn from China's most powerful and wealthiest families. Scholars who could obtain a reference from a prominent member of a wealthy family were appointed to the **civil service**. A job in the civil service meant authority and influence in the empire.



SOURCE 6.12 The civil service exam under a later emperor, Renzong of Song (1010–1063 CE)

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In 165 CE, the Emperor Wen set up an imperial examination, which gave those who passed it access to the civil service, though in practice, having connections with the 'right' people was just as important as passing the exam. Exams based on the Confucian texts were given in upper schools and the imperial university. In principle, any man could sit the exams, but only wealthy families could afford the education that would give their sons any hope of passing the exams. Those who were educated formed a very powerful and influential group in society.

Nong: the peasants

Peasant farmers were next in the social hierarchy. They were held in high esteem because they produced food for the society. They also paid taxes to the emperor, which were used to fund the army and public works needed by the society.

Gong: the artisans

Artisans were less important to Ancient Chinese society because they made items that were useful and decorative but not essential to life. Some artisans were self-employed; others were employed by the emperor. Artisans could become very wealthy and might end up hiring others to work for them.

Shang: the merchants

Merchants were not highly regarded in Ancient China because they did not make anything themselves—they only transported and traded the goods made by others. Nevertheless, merchants could make a great deal of money from their trade. Some used this money to buy land and become farmers to improve their status. Others used their money to educate their children, so that they might rise to the scholarly class.

Soldiers

From the Xia dynasty to the Qin dynasty, ordinary farmers and artisans were conscripted (forced) to join the army. Since many of these soldiers would die in battles, they were not considered very important, despite the fact that the fate of an emperor rose and fell with his



SOURCE 6.13 Han artisans at work



SOURCE 6.14 Oil lamp with servant girl decoration, (c. 173 BCE), made of gilt bronze; found in the tomb of Princess Dou Wan, Han dynasty

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soldiers. Soldiers were not paid, but they did receive food and equipment. By the time of the Han dynasty (206 BCE–220 CE), the emperor had a professional full-time army of trained soldiers.

Slaves

Slaves were usually people captured in war or convicted criminals. Slaves mainly worked on building monuments, such as tombs and the Great Wall. They had no rights and were not allowed to contact their families. It was very rare for slaves to be set free.

ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Why were scholars drawn from the wealthy classes?
2 What was the imperial examination?
3 What did magistrates do?
4 Why were peasant farmers and artisans considered important?
5 Why were merchants held in poor regard?
6 How did merchants try to improve their social status?
7 Why were soldiers held in poor regard?
8 What people became slaves in Ancient China?

Research

1 Go to your digital support to explore links to an Ancient Chinese artisan's workshop. Choose from the jade, ceramic or bronze workshop and write a paragraph to describe how artisans there made their wares.
2 Using the internet or the school library, find a jade, ceramic or bronze artefact (primary source) from Ancient China (2000 BCE to 618 CE). Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for your artefact. Be sure to label your artefact with an appropriate description and paste it into your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

Using ICT, create (or draw by hand) a hierarchy of Ancient Chinese society. Save your work in your museum scrapbook as the basis for an interactive screen in your museum.

Philosophies and beliefs that influenced the government of Ancient China

As Ancient Chinese society became more complex, rulers and thinkers developed new ways to organise or administer it. Although there was much warfare during the Warring States Period, it was also a very creative time in Ancient China's history. The school of philosophy known as 'Hundred Schools of Thought' was active during this period. Many of the Hundred Schools of Thought thinkers and philosophers wandered from place to place and advised rulers on different ways to govern, to conduct war and to deal with neighbouring rulers. Confucius, Laozi and Sun Tzu were three of the greatest Chinese philosophers of this time.



SOURCE 6.15 Confucius (551–479 BCE)

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Confucius

Confucius' philosophy taught that everyone had their place in society and owed their respect to their elders or superiors. In Ancient China, this meant that women must respect men, children must respect their parents; slaves must respect their masters; and students must respect teachers. All people were to respect the emperor, who was the Son of Heaven.

In return, emperors and others in superior positions were expected to set a good example to their inferiors. They must show care for others (*ren*), do good (*yi*) and conform to traditional morals and ethics (*li*). The emperor was to determine what constituted *li* for the community.

Daoism

Daoism, or 'the way', was a set of ideals developed by the philosopher Laozi that suggested that life should be lived in harmony with nature. Instead of the focus being on the individual in society (Confucius), Daoism says the purpose of life is to adapt to the rhythm of the universe.

Sun Tzu and *The Art of War*

The Art of War was a book written by the military leader Sun Tzu. It is one the oldest and most influential books on military strategy, outlining how military leaders should plan war. It highlights the importance of planning, positioning of forces and discipline in order to succeed in battle. Here is some of Sun Tzu's advice to leaders.

> The general who wins a battle makes many calculations in his temple before the battle is fought. The general who loses a battle makes only a few calculations ...
>
> In war, then, let your objective be victory, not lengthy campaigns ...
>
> He will win who knows when to fight and when not to fight ...
>
> Let your plans be dark and impenetrable as night, and when you move, fall like a thunderbolt ...

SOURCE 6.16 Excerpt from *The Art of War* (c. 475 BCE) by Sun Tzu.

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What was the Hundred Schools of Thought?
2. Describe one feature of Confucianism.
3. What are *ren*, *yi* and *li*?
4. Describe one feature of Daoism.
5. Who was Sun Tzu?
6. What was *The Art of War*?
7. How did the philosophies from the Hundred Schools of Thought help to strengthen the power of Ancient China's emperors?

Analysis and use of sources

Read source 6.16. What does Sun Tzu say about the following topics?

- Planning
- Knowledge and information

Explanation and communication

Create a display for your museum called 'One Hundred Schools of Thought'. The display will be a poster that describes the teachings of Confucius, Daoism and *The Art of War*. Save your work in your museum scrapbook.



The role of law in Ancient China

Confucianism and Legalism were the main philosophies that influenced the development of the law in Ancient China.

Confucianism and law

Confucius believed that human beings were fundamentally good. He believed that an emphasis on duty and tradition would encourage people to do the right thing. Rather than a set of formal laws and government regulations, Confucius stated that the emperor, as head of Chinese society, should lead his people by example. It was up to the emperor to decide what was *li* and also how crime should be punished. As a result, there were different punishments for crime depending on one's social or family status.

Legalism

Legalism was a philosophy that developed c. 250 BCE. This philosophy said that humans were selfish and needed to be controlled by a

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set of clearly defined written laws and harsh punishments. Everyone must obey the same laws, or face harsh punishments, regardless of status. According to Legalism, the law ran the state, rather than the emperor, who was also bound by the law. That said, the emperor still had the power to decide what the laws were. Legalism was most prominent in the Qin period, but remained influential in the Han and Sui dynasties that followed.

The legal codes

Towards the end of the Warring States Period (475–221 BCE), each of the kingdoms began to write their own legal codes. While many of the laws themselves were influenced by Confucianism, stressing duty and right conduct, the fact that they were written down with prescribed punishments was an influence of Legalism. The law codes contained three main punishments: death, mutilation and slavery. There was also the most extreme punishment—the execution of three generations of the guilty person's family. Lesser punishments included exile, beatings, fines and forced labour.



SOURCE 6.17 Punishment of the wooden collar



SOURCE 6.18 Capital punishment of the cord

The law was enforced by district magistrates who were highly respected and had enormous power, authority and status. Magistrates decided cases and they also administered the law, headed investigations, collected evidence, caught criminals and summoned witnesses. One way people were found guilty was if they confessed: if someone confessed, the case was closed. This led to torture being used from time to time to make people confess.

All decisions by magistrates were reported and appeals could be made, but these were rare because peasants often feared the power of magistrates. Ultimately, the emperor was the highest authority, and only the emperor could give the death penalty.

> Lead the people by regulations, keep them in order by punishments and they flee from you and lose all self-respect. But lead them by virtue and keep them in order by the established morality (*li*), and they will keep their self-respect and come to you.

SOURCE 6.19 A saying of Confucius (551–479 BCE)

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> Thus only the intelligent ruler is regarded as capable of applying heavy punishments of minor offences. If the punishment is heavy even when the offence is minor, how much more should it be so when there is a serious offence? That is why the people do not dare to commit offences.

SOURCE 6.20 Li Si, Qin Chief Minister, cited in *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE) by Sima Qian

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were the two main philosophies that influenced the law in Ancient China?
2. What did Confucius believe about human nature? How does this contrast with the Legalist approach?
3. Who did Confucius think should set the laws and punishments for Chinese society?
4. Why were there different punishments for the same crime under the Confucian *li* concept?
5. What was the difference between Confucian and Legalist misunderstandings of human beings?
6. How were the law codes of Ancient China an influence of Legalism?
7. Who administered the law?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 6.19. Is this source a primary or a secondary source?
2. How is source 6.19 an example of the Confucian philosophy?
3. Read source 6.20. How is this source an example of the Legalist philosophy?

Explanation and communication

Write a topic sentence about the relationship between the emperor and the law in Ancient China. Then, using the text and sources 6.17–6.20, write a paragraph to explain the relationship between the emperor and the law in Ancient China.

What was the role of Qin Shi Huangdi in Ancient China?

Qin Shi Huangdi: the First Emperor

In 246 BCE, the teenaged Qin Shi Huangdi (259–210 BCE) became king of the state of Qin. Twenty-five years later, he had defeated all the other kingdoms during the Warring States Period and declared himself the First Emperor of China. The English name 'China' comes from Qin, which is pronounced 'chin'. On becoming emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi killed all the other kings and nobles and abolished the names of the other kingdoms. China was divided into 36 provinces, each ruled by an administrator appointed by the emperor.

SOURCE 6.21
Statue of Qin Shi Huangdi



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SOURCE 6.22 An Ancient Chinese imperial procession

Qin Shi Huangdi's achievements

Qin Shi Huangdi ruled China for only 11 years. In that time, he accomplished many things:

1. Set up strict laws to govern the country and made them apply to everyone equally
2. Abolished hereditary rule and privilege
3. Standardised weights and measures throughout China
4. Rebuilt part of the Great Wall of China in stone to protect the northern border (of which little remains today)
5. Built the 36.5-kilometre Lingqu canal that connected the Liang River in the north and the Xiang River in the south
6. Established a single currency in China
7. Standardised Chinese script throughout the empire.

Qin Shi Huangdi's reputation

Although Qin Shi Huangdi had made many changes that improved, strengthened and unified China, he was not always well thought of by the Chinese scholars of his day.

In 213 BCE, a celebration banquet was held to mark the 33rd year of his rule over the Qin (and eighth as Emperor of China). At the banquet, a scholar, Chunyu Yue declared that nothing lasted long that was not based on ancient established traditions. This angered Qin Shi Huangdi and his court officials, who thought that the scholars were criticising the new reforms of the Qin dynasty and wanted the days of their own privilege returned. Qin Shi Huangdi decided to burn the ancient books and have 400 scholars killed as a warning to any other scholars who opposed his reign.



SOURCE 6.23 The murder of Confucian scholars by guards of the First Emperor

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Qin Shi Huangdi was also hated for his use of forced labour on his many building projects. It is estimated that around one million people died during the construction of his Great Wall. Many of them were buried in the wall itself. Furthermore, Qin Shu Huang was unpopular because he raised taxes to pay for his building projects.

Decline of the Qin dynasty

There were many **assassination** attempts on Qin Shi Huangdi's life, but in the end, he died of natural causes in 210 BCE. His son, Qin Er Shi succeeded him, but was a weak ruler. Within four years of Qin Shi Huangdi's death, the Qin dynasty had been overthrown by the people, who were weary of the Qin dynasty's tyrannical laws, forced labour, taxes and punishments.

In the twenty-eighth year of his reign
A new age inaugurated by the Emperor
Rules and measures are rectified ...
He set forth to pacify the east,
To inspect officers and men;
This great task accomplished
He visited the coast ...
Tools and measure are made uniform,
The written script is standardised ...
Great is the virtue of our Emperor
Who pacifies all four corners of the earth,

SOURCE 6.24 An inscription on the tower at Mount Langya, built by Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi to proclaim his achievements (218 BCE)

Your servant [Li Si, Qin Chief Minister] requests that all who possess literature such as the *Songs*, *the Documents*, and the sayings of the Hundred Schools should get rid of it without penalty. If they have not got rid of it a full thirty days after the order has reached them, they should be branded and sent to do forced labour on the walls ... Approving his proposals, the First Emperor collected up and got rid of the *Songs*, *the Documents* and the sayings of the Hundred Schools in order to make the people stupid and ensure that in All-Under-Heaven there should be no rejection of the present by using the past.

SOURCE 6.25 Excerpt from *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE) by Sima Qian

ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Create a timeline for Qin Shi Huangdi that includes the following dates: 259 BCE, 246 BCE, 221 BCE and 210 BCE.
2. How did Qin Shi Huangdi ensure there was no-one to challenge his power?
3. What achievements of Qin Shi Huangdi helped to unify China as a nation?
4. Which of Qin Shi Huangdi's achievements would have angered the scholars?
5. Why was the Qin regime overthrown?

Analysis and use of sources

Read source 6.24. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 6.24.

Perspectives and interpretations

1. Is source 6.24 a fair assessment of Qin Shi Huangdi's rule?
2. Read source 6.25. What did scholars such as Sima Qian believe was the reason for Qin Shi Huangdi's book burning?
3. What reasons did Qin Shi Huangdi give for burning books?
4. Sometimes historians hold different opinions about the past, based on conflicting historical evidence. This is known as 'historical contestability'. What different opinions about Qin Shi Huangdi's rule can be argued from sources 6.24 and 6.25?

Research

Find and review a secondary source (website or text book) about Qin Shi Huangdi. How is the source you have found useful to a historian studying Qin Shi Huangdi?

Explanation and communication

Design a coin to commemorate Qin Shi Huangdi's reign as emperor of China. What significant aspect(s) of his reign will you include on the stamp? Explain the reasons for your design in a paragraph. Include your paragraph and coin in your museum scrapbook.



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What was everyday life like in Ancient China?

The role of men

Men held all positions of power in Ancient China, from the emperor to the lowliest official. Perhaps the most important role for men of Ancient China, however, was carrying on the family line and honouring the ancestors.

The Duke of Zhou (a younger brother of King Wu of Zhou, 1049–1043 BCE) is believed to have established China's ancestral system. All-male ancestral temples were dedicated to the person believed to be the founder of the family. Later generations of ancestor statues were placed in the temple. The eldest grandson was responsible for making sacrifices to the ancestors.

The role of women

The two guiding principles in Ancient China were: the superiority of elder over the younger, and the superiority of men over women. For a woman, this meant she was obedient to her parents, followed by being obedient to her husband and his parents. At all times, women had to obey their fathers and husbands and respect their mothers and mothers-in-law. These ideas and practices applied to all women, even those from noble families.

In Ancient China, women mainly lived domestic lives at home and did not have jobs outside the family house. Confucius' teachings of the time were that a woman's role was to look after her husband and family, to have babies (hopefully boys) and not to have her own ambitions outside the home.

Influential women of Ancient China

Despite the generally harsh attitude towards women in Ancient China, there were several women who were influential in public life. Noblewoman Fu Hao, who lived during the Shang dynasty, controlled large estates, led armies into battle and served as a high priestess. Ban Zhao (45–116 CE) was the first Chinese woman historian. She helped her brother Ban Gu write *The Book of Han*. She also wrote a Confucian text named *Lessons for Women* (c. 106 CE), which instructed women on 'correct' behaviour in marriage and family life. *Lessons for Women* remained popular for centuries.

Marriage

For ordinary people, marriages were informal affairs, organised at spring or autumn festivals following an exchange of songs, love tokens and dances. For nobles, however, marriages were arranged by parents, with the help of a matchmaker. The matchmaker ensured that the wealth and status of the families of a potential bride and groom were similar, before recommending the match to the parents. If the boy's parents approved, they would go with the matchmaker to propose the marriage to the girl's parents. The boy and girl would not see each other until the wedding day.

Character	妻	女	安	男
Translation	Wife	Woman	Peace	Man
Symbols in the character	Position of deference and respect	Position of deference and respect	Woman under a roof	Strength; rice field

SOURCE 6.26 Chinese characters

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What does one do when he splits firewood?
Without an ax he cannot succeed.
What does one do when he takes a wife?
Without a matchmaker he cannot get her.
But once he has succeeded and had her,
How can you touch her anymore?

SOURCE 6.27 'South Mount Soaring High' in *The Classic of Poetry* (also known as the *Odes*; 1000–600 BCE), an anthology of 305 Ancient Chinese poems

A woman ought to have four qualifications: (1) womanly virtue; (2) womanly words; (3) womanly bearing; and (4) womanly work ...

To guard carefully her chastity; to control circumspectly her behaviour ... this is womanly virtue.

To choose her words with care; to avoid vulgar language; to speak at appropriate times; and nor to weary others with much conversation, may be called the characteristics of womanly words.

To wash and scrub filth away; to keep clothes and ornaments fresh and clean; to wash the head and bathe the body regularly, and to keep the person free from disgraceful filth, may be called the characteristics of womanly bearing.

With whole-hearted devotion to sew and to weave; to love not gossip and silly laughter; in cleanliness and order to prepare the wine and food for serving guests, may be called the characteristics of womanly work.

SOURCE 6.28 Excerpt from *Lessons for Women* (c. 106 CE) by Ban Zhao, historian and scholar

ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What was the most important role for men in Ancient China?
2. Draw a diagram to explain the hierarchical relationship between a woman, her husband, his parents and her parents.
3. What was the main role for women in Ancient China?
4. Who was Ban Zhao?
5. What was the role of the matchmaker?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 6.26. What do the symbols for a woman and a man represent?
2. How, according to source 6.27, did a noble man meet his wife?
3. Read source 6.28. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 6.28.
4. What useful information does source 6.28 contain for a historian studying women in Ancient China? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 6.28.

Empathetic understanding

Write a speech in the first person for an animatronic Ancient Chinese woman for your museum. Your speech should explain the roles and responsibilities of Ancient Chinese women from an Ancient Chinese woman's point of view.



Children of Ancient China

In the Xia, Shang and Zhou periods, it was common for babies and children to be killed or else abandoned if they were unwanted or if their families were unable to feed them. This was outlawed during the Qin dynasty, because the Qin government saw every person as a resource, someone who could eventually be conscripted to the army, pay taxes and perform labouring services.

Chinese children were taught to be submissive to their elders and teachers and not to question tradition or their superiors. From the age of eight, girls were kept separate from boys. Boys were educated by a master, in archery, chariot driving, writing, music and mathematics, while girls were educated at home, in spinning and weaving.

It was not until the Han dynasty that a public education system was established. The Han emperors wanted to create a strong society that would be well governed, so that their dynasty would continue. They were keen to continue the Qin dynasty's practice of awarding government positions based on merit, rather than just giving influential jobs to the nobles, as had been common during the Zhou period. The Han public school system was designed to prepare boys for civil service and award the best of them the top jobs. The boys studied the ancient Confucian texts, such as the *Classic of Poetry* and *The Book of Rites*. Historian Ban Gu, who wrote *The Book of Han* with his

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SOURCE 6.29
Candlestick depicting a wet-nurse (woman hired to breastfeed) with a baby (c. 200 CE), glazed terracotta, Han dynasty

sister Ban Zhao, was said to have memorised the *Classic of Poetry* by the age of eight.

From 74 BCE there were efforts to educate the girls from the imperial family and the court, mainly so that they could set a good example to the rest of society about proper women's behaviour and also so they could help their fathers, husbands and brothers in their careers.

> On the third day after the birth of a girl, the ancients observed three customs: [first] for three days to place the baby below the bed; [second] to give her a spindle with which to play; and [third] to fast and announce her birth to her ancestors by an offering. Now to lay the baby below the bed plainly indicated that she was lowly and humble and should regard it as a prime duty to submit to others. To give her a spindle with which to play signified that she should accustom herself to labour and consider it a prime duty to be industrious. To announce her birth before her ancestors clearly meant that she ought to esteem it a prime duty to see to the continuation of the ancestral sacrifices.

SOURCE 6.30 Excerpt from *Lessons for Women* (c. 106 CE) by Ban Zhao, historian and scholar

> When the child was able to take its own food, it was taught to use the right hand. When it was able to speak, a boy was taught to respond boldly and clearly; a girl, submissively and low ... At ten, the boy went to a master ... He learned the different classes of characters and calculation ... At thirteen, he learned music, and to repeat the odes ... When a full-grown lad, he ... learned archery and chariot-driving. At thirty, he had a wife, and began to attend to the business proper to a man.
>
> A girl at the age of ten ceased to go out from the women's apartments. Her governess taught her the arts of pleasing speech and manners, to be docile and obedient, to handle the hempen [cloth] fibres, to deal with the [silk] cocoons, to weave silks and form fillets [narrow strips of silk material], to learn all woman's work ... at twenty, she was married.

SOURCE 6.31 Excerpt from *Liji* (*The Book of Rites*) (c. 480 BCE) believed to have been written by Confucius

ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Why did the Qin dynasty outlaw the practice of killing unwanted children?
2. How were Chinese children taught to treat their teachers and elders?
3. Why did the Han dynasty establish a public education system for boys?
4. What did boys study at school?
5. Why were some girls educated after 74 BCE?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 6.30. What useful information does source 6.30 contain for a historian studying children in Ancient China? Complete a usefulness analysis of source 6.30.
2. Read source 6.31. Why were boys and girls taught to speak differently?
3. What skills did a girl need to learn in the manufacture of silk?

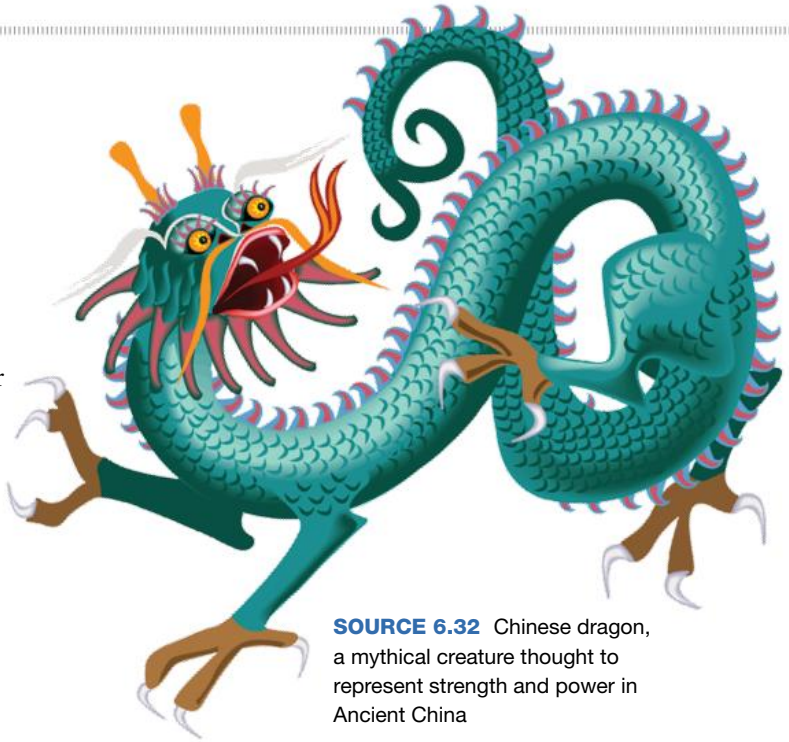
Explanation and communication

1. Using sources 6.30 and 6.31 and the text, write two or three paragraphs to compare the lives of boys and girls in Ancient China.
2. Write a paragraph to compare your life with a boy's or a girl's life in Ancient China, noting what is the same (continuity) and what is different (change).

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What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Chinese?

In addition to Confucianism and Daoism, Ancient China had many different religious practices and beliefs, including astrology, ancestor worship and fortune telling. Ancient myths were also important, giving explanations for the creation of the world. Buddhism, which reached China by the 1st century CE, was slow to make much impact. It was not until the 5th century CE that Buddhism began to grow in China, thanks to the translation of Buddhist texts and the establishment of Buddhist monasteries.



SOURCE 6.32 Chinese dragon, a mythical creature thought to represent strength and power in Ancient China

Myths

Like all human societies, the Ancient Chinese developed myths describing how the world came into being. One myth begins with an empty universe where identifiable parts slowly begin to appear. First water appears, then heaven, followed by Earth, wind, spirits and so on. The parts are created from either a god or a goddess. One story tells of a creator god Pan Gu, who exploded before he died. His breath became the wind, his eyes became the Sun and the Moon, his body fluids the rivers and the oceans. From his skin, the wind blew lice, which then became humans.

The Ancient Chinese also developed myths and legends to explain the natural world. In one myth, a half-serpent god called Gong Gong tried to overthrow a ruler but was unsuccessful. In frustration he destroyed one of the four mountains that separated Heaven and Earth. As a result, Heaven sloped down in the north-west and the Earth sloped down in the south-east. This, according to the myth, is why the Sun, the Moon and the stars travel across the sky from west to east and why the Yellow and Yangtze rivers flow from west to east.

Chinese astrology

From early times, the Ancient Chinese tried to interpret the movement of stars and planets. They developed complex frameworks for mapping the night sky and dividing it up into segments. They believed in a divine power (Heaven) that expressed itself with changes on its face (the night sky). The Ancient Chinese therefore believed it was possible to read and understand the future by observing the changes that occurred in the night sky.

The Ancient Chinese would make links between special events in the sky and the affairs of humans. They believed that Heaven, Earth and humankind were all connected; what happened in one realm could affect the other. So when multiple planets lined up, it was linked with the end of dynasties. This occurred twice, once in 1059 BCE at the end of the Shang dynasty, and again in 205 BCE, an event that was linked with the fall of the Qin dynasty and the rise of the Han.

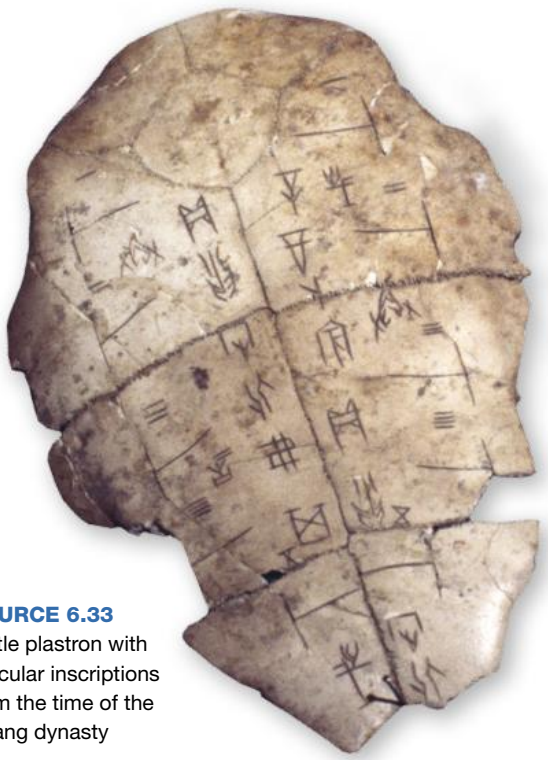
Oracle bones

Like many ancient societies, the Ancient Chinese developed various methods to help them see the future. During the Shang dynasty, the bones of animals were heated up until they cracked from the heat. These cracks were then 'read' to tell the future. After this, the bones were written on using a bronze pin. The bones, known as oracle bones, often contained important information about things such as the succession of kings. In fact, these oracle bones provide historians with the earliest proof of the existence of the Shang dynasty.

Certain bones were highly sought after for this practice, particularly those with a flat

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surface—the best surface for writing. The belly plate of turtle, known as a plastron, was the most favoured and many of these have been discovered. Chinese farmers began digging these bones up in the 19th century; they became known as dragon bones and were ground down and used as medicine. It is not known how much of Ancient Chinese history ended up in people's stomachs!



SOURCE 6.33 Turtle plastron with oracular inscriptions from the time of the Shang dynasty

Spirits and ghosts

The Ancient Chinese believed in an afterlife. In this afterlife, spirits went to Heaven for the rest of eternity and ghosts roamed the Earth for a short period of time. It was thought that ghosts did not have a place to go and they would cause trouble until they found their rightful place.

The Ancient Chinese believed that people were made up of two elements: the *po*, which was the physical body, and *hun*, which was the spirit. It was thought if a person died a violent death, their *po* and the *hun* would be split and they would become a ghost. The more important a person had been while alive, the more trouble they could cause as a ghost. But the Ancient Chinese also believed that, with the correct funeral rituals, the escaped souls could rejoin the body, which was then sealed with a jade plug placed in the mouth.

> Majestic, O ancestors majestic
> ablaze shaping blessing this
> bounty on and on stretching
> boundless across your lands:
> we bring you crystalline wine
> and you answer our prayers.
> We bring well-seasoned soup,
> approach mindful and tranquil
> and hushed in silent homage,
> and you ease our pained brows,
> letting old age grow boundless.
> ... we offer sacrifice and homage.

SOURCE 6.34 'Ancestors Majestic', from *The Book of Songs* (15th century BCE–4th century CE)

Preparing for the afterlife

The Ancient Chinese developed a practice of providing for the next life through building elaborate tombs and graves. A lot of what archaeologists have found out about Ancient China's history comes from artefacts that have been taken from tombs. Many artefacts have also been lost through plunder and grave robbing over the centuries.



SOURCE 6.35 Princess Dou Wan's jade burial suit (c. 173 BCE), made of over two thousand jade plates stitched together with gold thread.

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The early Shang kings were buried in little more than vertical shafts dug into the ground. By the early Warring States Period (475 BCE onwards), tombs grew to include additional chambers that were stocked with items that the departed could use in their next life. The tombs held many valuable items, including hundreds of bronze and jade sculptures and works of art.

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Describe one myth that the Ancient Chinese had for explaining how the world was created.
2. Why did the Ancient Chinese study the stars?
3. What two events did the Ancient Chinese believe were connected with the alignment of the planets?
4. What two elements did the Ancient Chinese believe the body was made up of?
5. What did the Ancient Chinese believe would happen if a person died a violent death?
6. What were oracle bones?
7. Why were oracle bones ground up in the 19th century?

Analysis and use of sources

Use source 6.34 to answer the following:

1. Is source 6.34 a primary or a secondary source?
2. What religious practice does source 6.34 describe?
3. What offerings are made?

Research

Create a display for your museum called 'These old bones'. Go to your digital support to find a weblink to images of oracle bones. Create a display explaining their use. Save your work in your museum scrapbook.

Site study: The tomb of the First Emperor

In 1974, three peasants made a chance discovery while they were digging a well. They came upon a pit containing life-sized terracotta statues of warriors. They had found the tomb of the First Emperor!

Of all the tombs of Ancient China, that of the First Emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi, is by far the most spectacular. His tomb is a complex of underground chambers that are likely to contain around 8000 life-sized terracotta soldiers with chariots and horses. The full extent of the tombs has not yet been revealed as Chinese authorities are waiting for new technologies before excavating further to ensure the preservation of the tomb. So far, only about 2000 of the soldiers have been unearthed. The emperor's burial chamber has yet to be opened, but testing has detected that it is still intact and that streams of mercury lie within the tomb.

Everything about the tomb is enormous. The site was chosen when the emperor first came to the throne. By the time of his death, the site had been built up like a small mountain.

Human sacrifices were still a part of burial practice at that time and the emperor's wives and mistresses were killed and buried with him. Not only that, but the thousands of people who had helped construct the tomb were shut in behind the outer gate to the tomb, buried alive with the dead emperor.



SOURCE 6.36
A terracotta soldier from the Tomb of the First Emperor

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Spotlight

UNDERGROUND TERRACOTTA ARMY IN A BATTLE FOR SURVIVAL

6 July 2005

They may have guarded the tomb of China's first emperor for thousands of years, but the terracotta warriors are facing their toughest battle yet.

The life-sized clay figures unearthed three decades ago in Shaanxi province are starting to fall apart and Chinese and US scientists have launched a two-year research project to study the impact that indoor air pollutants are having on the Emperor Qin Terracotta Warriors and Horses Museum in Xi'an.

Cao Junji, executive director of the aerosol and environment division at the Chinese Academy of Sciences' Institute of Earth Environment and head of the research team, said it was time to take action to save the relics.

If nothing is done now, in 100 years the warriors may have corroded to such an extent that the pits will look just like a coal mine and not have any aesthetic value, he said.

If a leg or a shoulder falls off, the whole figure is damaged. There are only a few hundred of them—how many more can we afford to have damaged?

The richly coloured terracotta figures with individual facial expressions lay underground for about 2,000 years, but began to lose their luster and turn an oxidized grey once they were exposed to air.

Acidic particles in the air have eaten into the surfaces of the statues, leaving a fine powder. These particles are also weakening the gypsum that holds the joints together.

Dr Cao said the damage caused by corrosion was often minor at first, but larger features of the statues—their noses, for instance—could shrink as the surface was worn away.

He said the individual features of the warriors—such as a moustache or certain hairstyle which indicate age or rank—might become less noticeable over time, eroding the figures' cultural value.

Temperature, humidity, pollutants and solar radiation all pose threats to the statues.

Dr Cao said the team could only delay the ageing process by targeting the main pollutants and finding ways to reduce them.

Even then, he could not say how many more years the warriors would last.

'Air pollution is a disease affecting cultural relics. [We cannot] wipe out air pollution, but we can alleviate and minimize it.

'It's very hard to restore the original colour of the statues that have already been exposed to air', Dr Cao said. But as the museum is still excavating new ones, we need to conduct more research to avoid a repeat of old problems. It is estimated that the museum's three underground pits house 8,000 life-size pottery warriors and horses. About 2,000 have been unearthed so far, of which 1,172 are on display, said Rong Bo, the museum's conservation scientist.



SOURCE 6.37 The Terracotta Warriors

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When the First Emperor had just come to the throne, excavations and building work had taken place at Mount Li, but when he unified All-Under-Heaven, convicts to the number of more than 700 000 were sent there from all over the Empire. They dug through three springs and poured down molten bronze to make the outer coffin; and replicas of palaces, pavilions, all the various officials, and wonderful vessels, and other rare objects were brought up to the tomb, which was then filled with them. Craftsmen were ordered to make crossbows and arrows which would operate automatically, so that anyone who approached what had been excavated was immediately shot. Quicksilver [mercury] was used to represent the various waterways, the Yangtze and Yellow rivers, and the great sea, being made by some mechanism to flow into each other, and above were ranged the heavenly constellations and below was the layout of the land. Candles were made of whale fat, for it was reckoned that it would be a long time before they were extinguished.

SOURCE 6.38 Excerpt from *Records of the Grand Historian* (109–91 BCE) by Sima Qian, official historian to the Han court, 107–86 BCE

Go to your digital support to find a link where you will be able to download a paper figure of an entombed warrior. Download, cut out and assemble it, then write a description in your museum scrapbook.

ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How was the tomb of Qin Shi Huangdi found?
2 What has been excavated from the tomb of Qin Shi Huangdi?
3 Why hasn't the emperor's burial chamber been unearthed yet?
4 Who else is buried with the emperor?
5 How are indoor air pollutants affecting the terracotta warriors in the museum?
6 How do scientists hope to preserve the Warriors?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 6.38. How was the emperor's coffin made?
2 What items does source 6.38 claim are inside the tomb?
3 What protective devices have been installed in the tomb?
4 What was used to light the tomb?
5 What aspects of source 6.38 have been found to be correct?

Research

In a group of four, compile a slideshow of the First Emperor's tomb. Each person needs to find an image of two artefacts each. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for each artefact and paste them into your group's slideshow, together with a brief description, based on the 5Ws information you have collated.

What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Chinese have within China and with other societies?

Conflicts within China and the consequences

The numerous conflicts within Ancient China encouraged the development of many important aspects of Chinese culture. For example, the Shang dynasty (1600–1046 BCE) developed a system of writing, a political structure of kings, nobles and peasants, and a form of settled life centred in villages and cities. The Zhou kings who conquered the Shang carried on these practices and added further innovations such as the granting of lands to the nobility in newly defeated areas and increasing the size of armies by granting land to soldiers. Armies were also further strengthened with the invention of the crossbow and introduction of cavalry (soldiers on horseback). The size of armies increased to more than 100 000 men. But through this process, the central authority of kings was reduced, leading to rivalry between nobles seeking to control the kingdoms themselves.

After a long process of warfare and conquest in which different kings and nobles defeated less powerful ones and took over their kingdoms (Warring States Period), the king of Qin declared himself the First Emperor, unifying the Chinese kingdoms into one empire.

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The Qin dynasty implemented a number of reforms to make communication easier across the empire, such as the standardisation of writing. On the one hand, this meant that other forms of writing in China, such as the scripts that had evolved in different Chinese kingdoms, died out. On the other hand, it enabled greater communication of government policies across the region and allowed scholars to share information more easily. Cart construction was also standardised, so that all carts could ride on newly built roads between the 36 provinces and the major cities, encouraging more trade and communication in the empire. Coins, too, were made the same, which also improved trade and commerce.

Conflicts outside China and the consequences

The Xiongnu

It wasn't long before Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi was looking to extend his unified empire into the north and south. In 215 BCE, his troops attacked the Xiongnu tribes of Mongolia, driving them away from the grasslands north of the Yellow River. A consequence of the Qin's conflict with the Xiongnu was the construction of the Great Wall, designed to keep the Xiongnu tribes out of China. For the Xiongnu, the threat posed by the Qin encouraged them to band together and form a political state with enlarged, organised armies. They defeated the Han in 200 BCE and demanded regular payments of silk, liquor, rice and Han princesses from the Han state as part of the peace treaty. War broke out between the two in 133 BCE, with the Han finally defeating the Xiongnu in 89 BCE.

The Yue

In 214 BCE, Qin's troops started attacking the Yue tribes of southern China and northern Vietnam. At first, the Yue tribes managed to force the Qin forces back. Qin Shi Huangdi's engineers constructed the Lingqu canal and used it to resupply their troops with weapons and food. They relaunched their attack on the Yue and, this time, were successful. The Qin Empire gained the fertile lands in the south and control over the Yue region's profitable jade and elephant tusk trade. The Qin dynasty moved 100 000 Chinese prisoners to the newly conquered Yue region to colonise it.

Vietnam

In 207 BCE, Qin forces moved into the ancient Vietnamese state of Au Lac. The Han dynasty expanded imperial China's Vietnamese territory in 111 BCE. The Han imposed Chinese culture, government, education, writing and Confucian and Daoist philosophies on the Vietnamese populace.

China's domination of Vietnam lasted for centuries. Although there were many rebellions against Chinese rule over the coming centuries—finally resulting in Vietnamese independence in 938 CE—Chinese rule had a lasting cultural impact. Vietnam today is culturally more similar to China than its South-East Asian neighbours (Cambodia, Laos and Thailand), which all share an Indian-based culture.

The expansion of trade

The Ancient Chinese successfully developed the art of extracting and processing the thread spun by silkworms into silk fabric. Silk was the greatest of fabrics in ancient times. It is incredibly strong and flexible, is easier to dye than any other fabric, is lightweight and keeps one warm in winter and cool in summer. The Chinese had a monopoly on silk and traded it throughout ancient times to great advantage.

From prehistoric times, there had been a transfer of ideas, people and goods across what became known as the Silk Road. This was a route between a series of towns across the Central Asian grasslands and deserts that connected China with Persia, Rome and India. During Ancient China's most successful and stable period—the Han dynasty—trade boomed. There was a huge demand for Chinese silk from the west, especially from Ancient Rome.

The Ancient Chinese also used silk to buy peace with their enemies in Central Asia. The Han leaders sent thousands of rolls of silk to the Central Asian states that had previously been hostile towards them. At times, the trade became so large that the caravans of merchants who moved across the Silk Road were like small cities.

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SOURCE 6.39 Ruins of the ancient city of Jiaohe, once an important trade town situated on the Silk Road. Jiaohe was under Xiongnu control until 60 BCE, when it fell to the Han dynasty.

The trade was not just one way, and it did not only involve money and goods. Ideas also travelled along the Silk Road. From India, the Buddhist religion swept into Ancient China in the 3rd to 6th centuries CE. Overland trade and Buddhism were natural partners. Buddhism would eventually become very popular in China. Archaeological remains of the journey Buddhism took to China, such as Buddhist sites, inscriptions, sculptures, statues and paintings can be found all along the Silk Road.

> Faxian had been living in Chang'an [now Xian]. Deploring the mutilated and imperfect state of the [monks'] collection of the *Books of Discipline* ... he entered into an engagement with [the monks] Huijing, Daozheng, Huiying and Huiwei that they should go to India and seek [more books about] the Disciplinary Rules [of Buddhism] ... After Faxian set out from Chang'an, it took him six years to reach Central India. His stop there extended over another six years. And on his return it took him three years to reach Qingzhou. The countries through which he passed were a few under thirty.

SOURCE 6.40 Excerpt from *A Record of the Buddhist Kingdoms* (394–414 CE), a travel journal by Faxian, a Chinese Buddhist monk, who travelled to India along the Silk Road to bring back more Buddhist texts to China

ACTIVITY 12

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were some of the cultural and political developments that emerged during the Shang dynasty due to conflict within China?
2. What were the military developments that had occurred by the Zhou dynasty due to conflict within China?
3. How did communication and commerce change following the establishment of the Qin Empire?
4. What was the outcome of the Qin's expansion into the lands of the Xiongnu tribes of the north:
   - a for the Qin?
   - b for the Xiongnu?
   - c for the Han?
5. Why did Qin Shu Huang build the Lingqu canal?
6. What did the Qin gain from their conquest of the Yue tribes?
7. What was a long-term effect of China's control of Vietnam?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 6.40. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 6.40.
2. Why did Faxian make the journey to India?

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3 How long did Faxian spend on his travels?

4 How is this source useful to a historian studying the spread of Buddhism from India to China? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 6.39.

Explanation and communication

Draw a mind map to show how trade along the Silk Road affected Ancient China.

What legacy did Ancient China leave to modern life?

It is hard to imagine modern life without thinking about the contribution that Ancient China has made. Ancient China was responsible for three of what the Chinese call 'The Four Great Inventions': paper (c. 100 BCE), the lodestone compass (c. 300 BCE) and woodblock printing for textiles (c. 220 CE).
The fourth of the Four Great Inventions is gunpowder, invented in the 9th century CE.

Ancient China was also responsible for the invention of silk cloth (2570 BCE), row planting of crops (500 BCE), the iron plough (200 BCE), horse harnesses (200 BCE) and porcelain (500 CE).



SOURCE 6.41 Traditional woodblock printing is still used in some Daoist temples in modern-day China



SOURCE 6.42 A replica of a lodestone compass

In terms of philosophy, Confucianism would have a lasting impression on the cultures of East Asia, such as Japan, Vietnam and Korea. In more recent times, Ancient Chinese beliefs, philosophies and religion have been of great interest to the rest of the world. Many business courses at universities have even re-examined *The Art of War* and applied its thinking to the business world. The contributions that Ancient China has made to the world show it to have been one of the world's great societies.

ACTIVITY 13

Research

Choose two of the inventions of Ancient China. Devise five questions to ask about each of your chosen inventions and find answers to your questions. Write up your research as a display card for your museum scrapbook and illustrate your work with a suitable image.

Explanation and communication

1 Create a slideshow or short film titled *The Legacy of Ancient China* for your museum. Include primary sources from Ancient China and the modern world to illustrate continuity between the past and the present (i.e. how Ancient China has contributed to the modern world).

2 Write a plan for a video game based on Ancient Chinese themes. Your game can be an RPG (Role-Playing Game), RTS (Real Time Strategy) or MMO (Massively Multiplayer Online). Consider characters, goals, weapons/tools, historical context, music and settings.

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History challenges

Creating an exhibit

Create five exhibits for the Asian World gallery on the following themes for Ancient China:

1. physical features
2. daily life
3. contact and conflict with other countries
4. a significant individual
5. yhe legacy of its society.

Archaeology

1. Create an exhibition about archaeologists working on the Qin and Han dynasty tombs.
   - **a** Go to your digital support for a weblink to a digital gallery of objects from these tombs.
   - **b** Download and install Microsoft Photo Story.
   - **c** Download the images and prepare a photo story of the differences in tomb art and treasures across the three dynasties.
   - **d** Present your photo story to the class on a digital projector or electronic whiteboard.

Trade

1. You are a merchant travelling along the Silk Road between India and Ancient China. Prepare a diary in which you describe some of the highlights of your journey. Add your diary to your museum scrapbook.
2. As you continue on your journey as a merchant on the Silk Road, you stop to trade in Samarkand, Kashgar and Turfan. Use a range of sources to research these stops on your journey. Use Postcard Creator to make and send postcards from these places, describing them to your family. Add the postcards to your museum scrapbook.
3. You are the leader of a nomadic tribe of horsemen along the Silk Road. You have just raided a caravan of merchants. What bounty did you acquire? Prepare a list and describe what happened.

Education

The imperial exam was based on the Confucian texts and students had to remember and recall long passages from them. Create your own imperial exam using the word-find creator link in you digital support. Your exam should be based on the new terms, ideas and information you have learnt in this chapter.

Being a king or emperor

1. You are either a king or emperor in any dynasty in Ancient China. Describe briefly what you see as the major challenges you face as leader.
2. Kings had to quite often make important decisions resolving disputes. Use the weblink in your digital support to have your classmates tell you what their disputes are and come up with solutions. Be imaginative and creative with your responses.
3. In order to make your subjects loyal, you decide to implement an official philosophy that supports your rule. Review the section about beliefs, values and practices. Can you come up with three laws that will make your rule stronger based on Ancient Chinese philosophies?

The quest for immortality

The First Emperor spent much of his later years seeking immortality. Use the internet to find out some of the things he did in this failed pursuit. Create a slideshow to demonstrate your findings to your class.

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Chapter 7

Ancient India »



The famous bas relief panel, popularly known as 'Arjuna's Penance' at Mahabalipuram, Tamil Nadu, India (c. 650 CE). The figure standing on one leg (top left) is said to be Arjuna, hero of the Ancient Indian epic *Mahabharata*. Arjuna is standing on one leg because he is doing penance to the god Shiva.

INVESTIGATION FOCUS AND OUTCOMES

In this chapter your investigation will require you to:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of Ancient India
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of Ancient Indian society
- outline the main features of the social structures and government of Ancient India, including the role of law and religion
- describe the roles of key groups in Ancient India
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in Ancient India
- explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient society are evident in practices related to warfare
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the Ancient Asian world
- outline significant contacts with other societies
- explain the consequences of these contacts with other societies
- explain the legacy of Ancient India
- using a range of sources, including ICT, investigate the role of Ashoka
- assess the role and importance of Ashoka.

SITE STUDY

- a virtual historical site: the Great Stupa.

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Inquiry questions

1. What were the physical features of Ancient India?
2. What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Indians?
3. What were the key social groups and what was daily life like in Ancient India?
4. Who were the key figures in Ancient India?
5. What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Indians have within India and with other societies?
6. What legacy did Ancient India leave to modern life?

Introduction

The story of India is a tale of incredible drama, great inventions, enormous diversity, phenomenal activity and the very biggest ideas.

Michael Wood, *The Story of India*

INDIA HAS FASCINATED people for centuries. Dating from 3000 BCE, the societies that emerged from the Indus Valley created beautiful art and architecture and epic poetry and drama. They were also responsible for the development of a number of important mathematical ideas and the world-famous game of chess.

India is the source of several great world religions, including Buddhism and Hinduism. These two religions have influenced the politics, society and culture of Tibet, China, Korea and Japan, as well as many South-East Asian countries.

India's geographical position in the Indian Ocean made it a centre of the Ancient World economy, with gold coins from Rome being exchanged in its ports for the silk of China and the spices of South-East Asia.

With its magnificent ancient temples, exquisite sculptures and extraordinary relics, incredible India awaits your discovery!

KEY TERMS

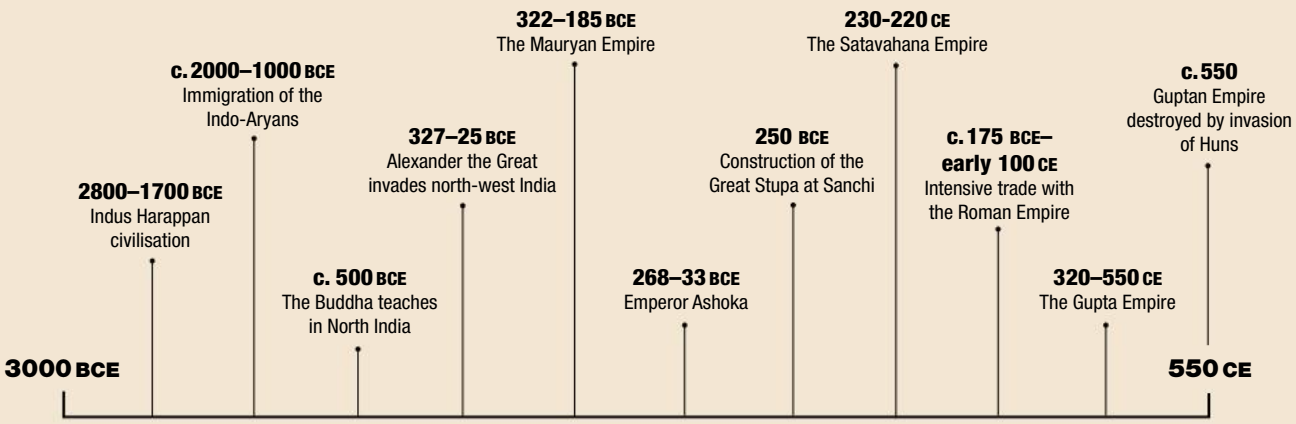
ahimsa	a Buddhist and Jain belief in non-violence towards living creatures
asceticism	the rejection of material wealth and worldly pleasures in order to achieve spiritual enlightenment
assassination	the killing of a prominent person, such as a leader or politician
dharma	righteousness; belief in gentleness, charity and concern for all living creatures. The form of the same word is used in Hinduism and Buddhism. It means 'sacred law' in Hinduism and 'doctrine' in Buddhism.
Indo-Aryans	settlers from the Iranian region who became members of the upper classes in India
Mekong Delta	triangular-shaped land at the end of the Mekong River, which runs through south Vietnam
nagaraka	wealthy, educated and intelligent man-about-town
nirvana	the Buddhist conception of the afterlife; it can only be achieved after experiencing Enlightenment
rajah (or raja)	Indian king, prince, chief
Rigveda	an ancient collection of sacred hymns, dating from the 2nd millennium BCE
Sanskrit	an Ancient Indian language
shreni	an organisation of merchants and artisans that controlled prices, artisan training and quality for a particular product
stupa	a dome-shaped Buddhist shrine made of brick
subcontinent	a large landmass that is smaller than a continent
varnas	the four classes of men

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Ancient India



Timeline of key dates



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Think, puzzle, explore

1. Draw a three-column table in your workbook.
2. Title the first column 'Think'. In this column, write down anything you know about Ancient India.
3. Title the second column 'Puzzle'. In this column, write down any questions you have about Ancient India.
4. Title the third column 'Explore'. In this column, write down how you can find answers to the questions in the 'Puzzle' column. What topics would you like to explore?
5. Discuss the answers as a class.



SOURCE 7.1 The Himalayas

What were the physical features of Ancient India?

The word 'India' comes from *Sindhu*, the Sanskrit name for the Indus River. When we talk about 'Ancient India' in this chapter, it includes present-day India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. Ancient India was divided into three main areas: the great triangular peninsula that projects into the Indian Ocean; the Himalayan and Karakorum mountain regions to the north and west; and the river plains of northern India, stretching from the Indus River in the west to the Ganges River in the east. All three areas have played a role in its history.

The peninsula

The peninsula of southern India (known as Tamil Nadu) consists of the high Deccan Plateau, framed by mountain ranges called the Eastern Ghats and the Western Ghats. Beside the mountains are coastal plains with little towns that gained their wealth from trade to the west with Arabia, Greece and Rome, and to the east with South-East Asia. The Romans even had a trading post at Arikamedu. The forests and mountains were the main source of the peninsula's timber and elephants. Elephants were used for transport and also played a large role in warfare.

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During the Ancient Period, Tamil Nadu was under the control of the three different kingdoms: the Chera kingdom, the Chola kingdom and the Pandyan kingdom, together known as the Three Crowned Kings. Another southern kingdom, the Satavahana kingdom, became the Satavahana Empire (230 BCE–220 CE), controlling much of central India.

Mountains

The Indian **subcontinent** is separated from Afghanistan and Iran by the Hindu Kush and Karakoram Mountains, and from China and Tibet by the Himalayan mountains. The Karakoram Pass, a mountain road through the Karakoram Mountains, was the route Indian merchants used to join the great Silk Road from China. The mountains that frame India protected the country to the east, but the Khyber and the Bolan passes in the north-west allowed a series of invaders into the western River Plains region, including the Persians under King Darius I (516 BCE) and the Greeks under Alexander the Great (327–325 BCE).

The river plains

The Himalayas are the source of the great rivers of India: the Indus, the Brahmaputra and the Ganges.

The first great Indian society, known as the Indus Valley, was centred on the Indus River plains and lasted from approximately 2800 BCE to 1300 BCE. The people of the Indus Valley formed one of the oldest settled societies in the world, with cities, multi-storied brick houses and bronze tools. The land of the Indus Valley was rich and fertile, with large deposits of gold and silver.

From about 2000 BCE onward, small groups of people, known as **Indo-Aryans**, came south through the Khyber and Bolan passes. Gradually, because of their increasing numbers, their warrior culture, iron tools and their use of horses and chariots in warfare, they became the dominant group in India. They spoke a language called Sanskrit, and saw themselves as different from the original inhabitants because of their religion, skin colour and language. These people established what became known as the Vedic society (2000–500 BCE). The Vedic culture



SOURCE 7.2 Ganges River at Varanasi

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SOURCE 7.3 Sculptures of a bird, a tortoise and a squirrel (c. 2000 BCE), Indus Valley society

is famous for the composition of the Rigveda (1700–1100 BCE), a book of hymns and the oldest of the Hindu scriptures.

Gradually, the Indo-Aryan peoples began to settle further east along the rich, well-watered soil of the Ganges River plains where they grew rice, wheat, lentils, beans, peas and cotton. Over time, these settlements formed small kingdoms, the core of the later ancient Indian empires of the Mauryans and Guptas.

The Indus River region was conquered by the Persians in 516 BCE, who made it part of their Achaemenid Empire. The Achaemenid Empire in turn was broken up by the Greek king Alexander the Great in 334 BCE. The Greeks went on to form the Seleucid Empire (312–63 BCE) on the Indus River Plains of India. It was not until 316 BCE that the Indian Mauryan Empire managed to regain control of the Indus Valley. The Mauryan Empire lasted only about 130 years (322–185 BCE). Its eventual successor, the Gupta Empire lasted a bit longer (320–550 CE).

Spotlight

A long time ago—150 million years ago, in fact—Australia and India were joined together within a continent called Gondwana. The continent was named Gondwana by Austrian scientist Eduard Seuss. Seuss named it after the Gondwana region in central India because the earliest rock formations of the continent were first investigated in this part of India. India broke away from Gondwana and drifted north to crash into Eurasia about 55 million years ago. The impact formed the Himalayas, the highest mountains in the world.

> There is a forest, by name Vindhya, that embraces the shores of the eastern and western ocean ... It is beauteous with trees watered with the ichor [immortal fluid] of wild elephants ... in it the pepper-trees ... spread their boughs ... Bowers there are, too, wet with drippings from parrot-pierced pomegranates; bowers in which the ground is covered with torn fruit and leaves shaken down by restless monkeys ... or strewn with couches of clove-branches ... or hemmed in by fine coconuts ... hundreds of lions roam therein ... and [it is] filled with the buffaloes ... [and] the dances of blue-necked peacocks ... it is always the haunt of bears and is the home of the deer ... it is bright with rows of tiger's claws, and adorned with a rhinoceros.

SOURCE 7.4 Excerpt from the novel *Kadambari* (c. 650 CE) by Banabhatta, a writer and poet in the court of King Harsha Vardhana (606–647 CE) of northern India

ACTIVITY 1

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What are the three main areas of India?
2. What societies traded with the peoples of Tamil Nadu?
3. What was the Karakoram Pass?
4. How did the mountain passes affect India's history?
5. What advantages did the Indo-Aryan people have over the people of the Indus Valley?
6. What crops were grown on the Ganges River plains?
7. Construct a timeline of Ancient India, from 2800 BCE–535 CE.

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Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 7.4. Describe the geography, habitats and animals mentioned in source 7.4. What other parts of the world does this description bring to mind?

2 Look at source 7.5. What does it tell us about the main difference between Australia and India?

	India	Australia
Land size (square km)	3 166 830	7 682 300
Population (2011)	1 190 000 000	22 565 900

SOURCE 7.5 India and Australia compared

Research

Find maps showing the Mauryan Empire, the Satavahana Empire and the Gupta Empire. Paste your maps into your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

Design an exhibit in your museum scrapbook that explains the three geographic features of Ancient India for somebody who cannot see. How can you communicate the geography of India?

What were the beliefs, values and practices of the Ancient Indians?

The Ancient Indians developed many different religions, the most important of which were Brahmanism, Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism. All four contained the idea of rebirth, and the concept of seeking escape from the endless cycle of life and death.

Brahmanism

Brahmanism was the religion of the Vedic culture. Its main religious texts are the 'Four Vedas': the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaveda and the Atharvaveda. The Sanskrit word for prayer is *Brahman*, and the priests who conducted the rituals that protected believers were also called Brahmans. Brahmanism said that if you behaved well in this life, you would be reborn into a higher class in the next life. If you behaved badly, you would be reborn into a lower class or even as an animal. The only way of escape was to work your way up through rebirths to being a Brahman (priest). If you then led a good life, you would finally escape the cycle and free your soul to reach Supreme Bliss.

Hinduism

Hinduism, which is the dominant religion in India today, developed out of many different belief systems that existed in ancient India, especially Brahmanism. The sacred texts of Hinduism are the Four Vedas that originated in Brahmanism, as well as later Brahman texts such as the Upanishads and the epic poems, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana.

Hinduism began to take the form known today in the time of the Gupta emperors, that is, in the 4th century CE. It was under the Guptas that the first statues of the gods and the first Hindu temples were created, either in brick or carved into rock.

There are hundreds of Hindu gods and goddesses, but the two main gods are the god Vishnu and the god Shiva.



SOURCE 7.6 Shiva

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SOURCE 7.7 The god Krishna fighting a demon, a sculpture from the Gupta period



SOURCE 7.8
Vishnu

Hindu worshippers could seek their own salvation. They did not need Brahman priests to conduct rituals to protect them. Everyone was dear to their personal god, no matter what class they were in. An individual could worship their chosen god or goddess with gifts of food and flowers. They could take part in fasts and in pilgrimages to their god's shrine, thus helping themselves to become a Brahman and freeing themselves from rebirth.

Hinduism and harmony with nature

In Hinduism, the whole of nature is divine. The cow is especially sacred—which is why one sees cows wandering through towns and villages in India today. The snake is also revered and offerings are made to snakes at the beginning of the rainy season.

Certain trees and plants are regarded as sacred and every hill or mountain is revered, although some are more sacred than others. The Hindus believe that the Himalayas are the foothills of the sacred Mount Meru. Mount Meru is thought to be the centre of the world where their gods live.

Lakes and rivers are also worshipped, especially the Ganges, which Hindus believe comes from the foot of Vishnu and forms the Milky Way before it descends to the Earth.

Hindu religious practices

Hindus still bathe in the Ganges River, as they believe bathing in the holy waters washes away their sins and allows them to be freed from the cycle of rebirth. Pilgrims travel from all over India to scatter the ashes of their relatives on the holy waters so their souls will go to Heaven. Every summer at the Ganga Dashami festival, pilgrims immerse themselves in the river, light incense and a lamp that then floats down the river. They offer flowers and milk to the river and feed the fish with flour balls.

Hindu festivals

On festival days, the cities swarmed with people. There were food shops selling greens, jakfruit, mangoes, sugar candy, cooked rice and chunks of cooked meat, and street stalls with sweet cakes, flowers and scented powder. The streets were crowded with people bringing goods to the market, Brahmans chanting sacred verses

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SOURCE 7.9 About to bathe in the Ganges River

and passers-by singing along with wandering minstrels. In the evening, women carried lighted lamps to the temple as offerings and danced with their friends and children in the temple courts. At the Festival of Spring, now known as Holi, everyone hurled red powder at other people then squirted them with coloured water.

Spotlight

In the West, time is straight (linear), and there is a belief that, through progress, we are aiming to create a better world. The Ancient Indians believe time was endlessly circular and over thousands of years society gets worse and collapses and then starts to gradually improve again.



SOURCE 7.10 The festival of Holi today

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ACTIVITY 2

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What are the key ideas in Indian religion?
2 When did Brahmanism evolve?
3 What were the Four Vedas?
4 What was the role of the Brahman in Brahmanism?
5 What elements of Hinduism came from Brahmanism?
6 When where the first Hindu temples built?
7 Who are the main Hindu gods?
8 What aspects of nature are sacred, according to Hinduism?

Perspectives and interpretations

In pairs, write and vodcast or record a dialogue between a Brahman and a Hindu in which the Brahman argues that Indian religion today is directly descended from Brahmanism and the Hindu points out the difference. Save the recording in your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

Write a paragraph to explain why Hinduism is a good example of the historical concept of 'continuity and change'?

Buddhism

The Buddha (c. 563–483 BCE) was born as Siddhartha Gautama, the son of a Hindu **rajah** from the Shakyan tribal republic in north India. When he was 29 years old, Gautama decided to leave his wife and children and seek salvation. First he tried punishing his body by beatings and starvation, but that did not help.

One day, he sat under a form of fig tree and meditated for 49 days. He believed that the world was full of suffering, which was caused by human desires. He thought there was a 'Middle Way' between the extremes of **asceticism** and worldly life, so he suggested an Eightfold Path: doing the right thing in life; in your ideas, resolutions, speech, conduct, livelihood, efforts, recollections and meditation. By following the Path, the soul would reach **nirvana** without going through the cycle of rebirths. Gautama was now the Buddha or the 'Enlightened One' and he set out to preach and convert others to his way of thinking. The tree under which he sat is now called the bodhi tree because it is here that the Buddha achieved *bodhi* or enlightenment.



SOURCE 7.11 Sculpture of Buddha's head

Buddhism and harmony with nature

The form of Buddhism that is probably the closest to the Buddha's original teachings is Theravada Buddhism. At every meal, the monks say a special prayer over the served food, even vegetable dishes, to make sure that the food has no life in it so it can be eaten.

Jainism and harmony with nature

The founder of Jainism was Vardhamana Mahavira (c. 540–468 BCE). Mahavira came from the same area of India as the Buddha and was also the son of a rajah. He left home at the age of 30 to seek salvation. Like the Buddha, he found enlightenment and founded an order of monks.

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Jains are passionate supporters of **ahimsa**. They think the whole world is alive with souls that can feel pain even if they cannot express it. Even the unintentional killing of an ant can weigh the human soul down and cause a worse rebirth. The only way to free oneself from constant rebirths is to not harm anything. The monk strains his water before he drinks it so as to not harm creatures living in the water; he wears a face-cloth through which he breathes so he does not harm the wind.



SOURCE 7.12 A Jain nun, with a cloth over her face and a whisk under her arm so she can sweep the ground in front of her to prevent her treading on insects

When by rivers covered with flowers,
and gaily adorned with reeds of varied hue,
the goodly monk sits on the bank in ecstasy
he finds no joy greater than this.
When the rain pours down at night,
and elephants trumpet in the distant thickets,
the monk sits in the hills in ecstasy,
and finds no joy greater than this.

SOURCE 7.13 *Theragatha* (*Verses of the Elder Monks*) (5th century BCE), author unknown. A Buddhist scripture of 264 poems; the poems were recited by Buddhist monks to help them overcome temptation and live a pure life.

As the bee collects nectar and departs without injuring the flower, or its colour or scent, so let a sage dwell in his village.

Wise people, after they have listened to the laws, become serene, like a deep, smooth and still lake.

SOURCE 7.14 *Dhammapada (The Sayings of the Buddha)* (c. 3rd century BCE)

Spotlight

Mahatma Gandhi was born in the area of India where Jainism is strongest and he was very much influenced by its doctrine of non-violence.

ACTIVITY 3

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How did Siddhartha Gautama try to find salvation?
2. What did he believe was the cause of human suffering?
3. What is the Eightfold Path?
4. Why do Buddhist monks pray over their food?
5. Why do Jains try to avoid killing another life form?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 7.13. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 7.13.
2. Where is the 'goodly monk' to find his greatest joy?
3. Read source 7.14. Explain what source 7.14 means in your own words.
4. Why does the Buddha compare serenity to a lake?

Explanation and communication

Using sources 7.12–7.14 and the text on pages 216 and 214, write a paragraph to explain the relationship between religion and the natural world in Ancient India.

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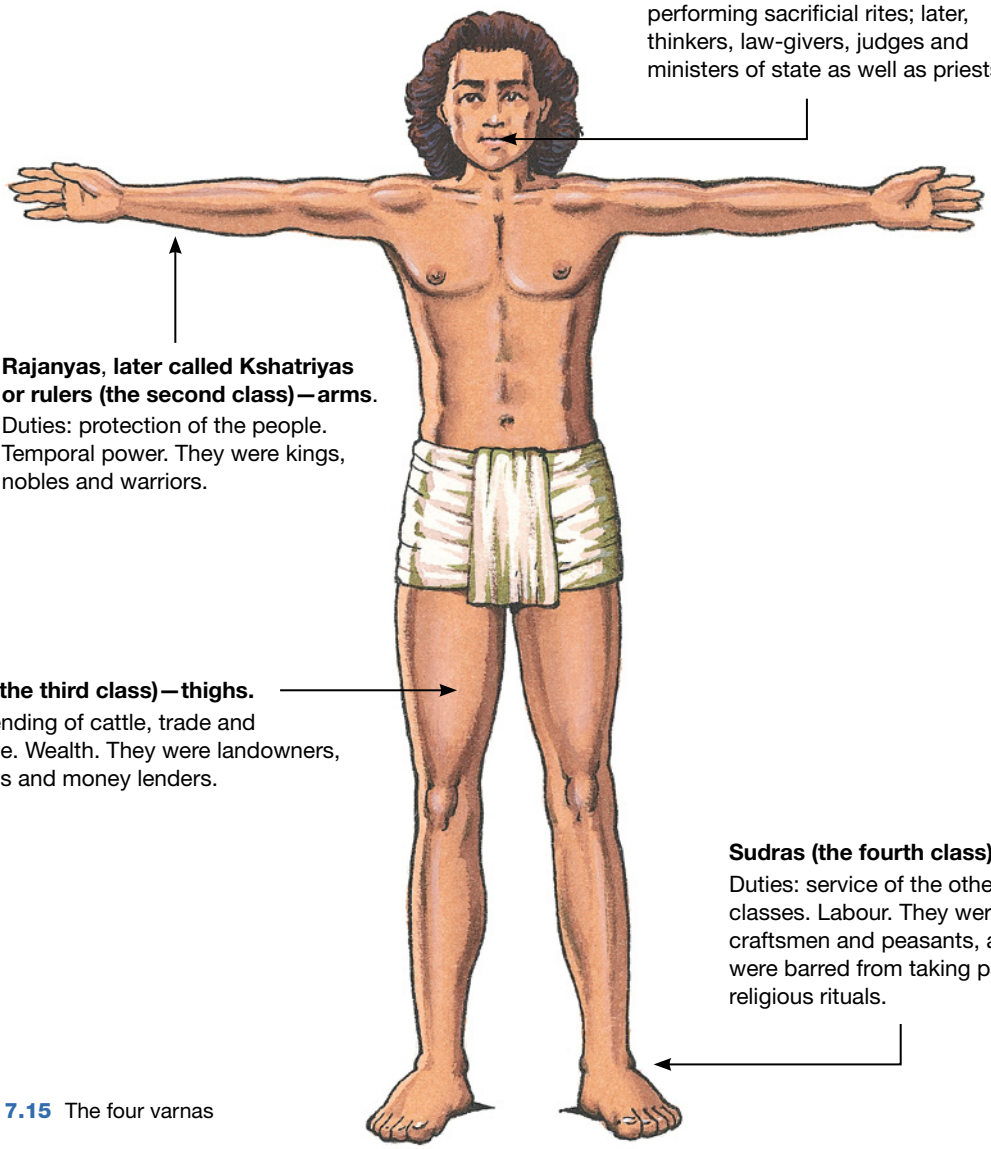
What were the key social groups in Ancient India?

Varnas

The origins of the Ancient Indian social class system (or caste) are unknown. Some historians believe that the caste system derives from an ancient tribal organisation that has evolved over time. Early Brahman scriptures reformed tribal social organisation into four **varnas**. The word 'varna' means 'class of men', or as some historians put it, 'ritual status'. The four varnas of Ancient India were Brahmans (priests and scholars), Rajanyas (royalty, nobles and warriors), Vaisyas (merchants) and Sudras (labourers).

The Rigveda contains a story where the gods sacrificed a thousand-headed creature called Parusha to create the sun, the moon, humans and animals. The different parts of Parusha that were made into humans were the source of the four varnas of society.

While the Brahman scriptures defined the varnas, they did not state that people had to remain in the caste they were born into. Furthermore, the early scriptures do not place any restrictions on the lower caste, Sudras, participating in religious rituals. By the



SOURCE 7.15 The four varnas

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1st century BCE, however, a Hindu text called the *Manusmriti* had been written containing laws that restricted a person to the caste they were born into and forbade Sudras from participating in religious rituals. Modern-day Hindus disagree over whether the *Manusmriti* is meant to be taken literally or is meant as a guide for the caste system.

Untouchables

Below the four classes were the 'Untouchables' (now known as Dalits), the poorest, dark-skinned Indians who swept the streets, buried the dead and collected garbage. They were regarded as impure. They were forbidden to use the same wells as higher-caste Indians and from living in the villages. Untouchables made up about 5 per cent of the Ancient Indian population.

Spotlight

A subclass of the Untouchables called the Chandala could not leave their huts outside the cities without striking a wooden clapper to warn people to get out of the way in case their very shadow polluted a class member. If a Chandala's shadow fell on a Brahman's clothesline, the Brahman was supposed to rush out to the line and rewash all his clothes immediately.

Slaves

Another group of individuals who sat outside the caste system were slaves. Slaves were usually people who had been captured during war, but sometimes were people who had sold themselves into slavery in order to pay off their debts. Slaves mainly worked in upper-caste households doing domestic work. Slaves were rarely set free, unless they saved their master from death or they managed to pay off their debts (as slaves could earn money in their spare time).

Jatis

A jati was another important social structure in Ancient India. A jati was made up of thousands of families and governed by a council of elders. Every jati was assigned a particular type of job in Indian society; and every jati was part of a varna. The people of Ancient India were not members of a particular varna as individuals but as members of a jati.

Although the jati and caste structures meant that people did not have individual freedom, it did give everyone a sense of belonging and a place in society during times of turmoil, instability and change.

> When they divided Parusha, in how many portions did they arrange him? What became of his mouth, what of his two arms? What were his two thighs and his two feet called?
>
> His mouth became the brahman; his two arms were made into the rajanya; his two thighs the vaisyas; from his two feet the sudra was born.

SOURCE 7.16 Rigveda, 10.90 (c.1700–1100 BCE)

ACTIVITY 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What were the four varnas of Ancient India?
2. How did the *Manusmriti* define caste?
3. Who belonged to the 'Untouchables'?
4. How did a slave obtain freedom?
5. What variations on the caste system existed in Ancient India?
6. What was a jati?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 7.16. Who was Parusha and what is his significance to the caste system of Ancient India?
2. Look at source 7.15 and read source 7.16. Suggest why the particular positions on the body would have been chosen for each caste.

Perspectives and interpretations

1. Write a paragraph explaining the advantages and disadvantages of each of the following castes: the Brahmans, the Rajanyas and the Vaisyas (see page 218).
2. Explain in two or three sentences which caste you would prefer to belong to and why.

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Government of Ancient India

Kings and emperors

There were three main types of government in Ancient India: kingdoms, ruled by a king; republics, governed by an elected king and his officials; and empires, ruled by an emperor and his appointed governors.

Kingdoms

By 500 BCE, the Vedic tribes of the Indus Valley had formed themselves into kingdoms, each headed by a king (raja) who had absolute power. There were 16 Vedic kingdoms in all. Kingship was hereditary, passed down the male line from fathers to sons. Kings needed vast resources and wealth to maintain armies and their own power. The people of Ancient India did not pay taxes to support the king, but were expected to give gift-offerings. The gift-offering eventually became compulsory.

Republics

There were also a number of small republics (states with elected representatives), such as Varjji and Madra. These were also headed by a king, but he was elected to his role and was assisted in his rule by officials who were also elected to their positions. The officials could give advice to the king, but ultimately, decisions about how to run the republic were left to the king. Most of the republics had died out by 300 CE, with the rise of the Mauryan Empire.

Empires

The main empires of Ancient India were the Mauryan, Satavahana and Gupta empires. Each of these large empires was divided into smaller provinces that were headed by a governor. The governors were responsible for running the province along the guidelines dictated by the emperor.

Influence of law and religion

In Ancient India, law was supposed to be derived from **dharma** (sacred law). In practice, however, the local community decided what was right and wrong, so laws in Ancient India varied from place to place. There were also different laws for each of the castes.

Trial and punishment

There were four different kinds of courts:

- the village court
- the guild court in the cities
- the courts with judges appointed by the king
- the king's court, which resolved disputes that could not be decided in the lower courts.

The courthouse was decorated with flowers, statues of gods, paintings and a seat for the judges.



SOURCE 7.17 Relief sculpture of King Kharavela and his court (c. 400 CE) found at the Udayagiri caves, Orissa, India. King Kharavela was the ruler of the Kalinga kingdom and emperor of the short-lived Kharavela Empire (193–170 BCE).

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There could be as many as five magistrates in the courts, but generally there were three: a king's official, a wealthy merchant and a scribe. There was no jury and the defendant had to defend himself in front of the magistrates.

Whipping was used to extract confessions. There was also trial by ordeal, where the accused had to touch a red-hot piece of iron with their tongue. If their tongue didn't burn, they were innocent. There was also trial by water where if you floated you were innocent (the gods had saved you); if you drowned, you were guilty.

The king, religion and the law

The Brahmans reminded a king of dharma when they felt he might be about to break the law. If the king decided legal cases correctly, protecting the weak and helpless and restoring order, then he would be assured of a brief vitis to Swaga Loka (heaven).

In the earliest kings' courts, the king was the executioner, hitting the guilty over the head with his sceptre (ceremonial sword). Later there were death penalties of various kinds, some fitting the crime. Those who stole military equipment were shot to death with arrows; if you broke a dam wall, you were drowned in the dam! People were hanged for breaking into houses, burnt alive for plotting against the king, and beheaded for murder.

A Kshatriya [king], who has received according to the rule the sacrament prescribed by the Veda, must duly protect this whole [world] ... Taking [for that purpose] eternal particles of Indra [leader of the Hindu gods], of the Wind, of Yama [god of Justice], of the Sun, of Fire, of Varuna [god of the sky and law], of the Moon, and of the Lord of Wealth [Kubera]. Because a king has been formed of particles of those lords of the gods, he therefore surpasses all created beings in lustre; And, like the sun, he burns eyes and hearts; nor can anybody on earth even gaze on him. Through his power he is Fire and Wind, he Sun and Moon, he the Lord of Justice, he Kubera, he Varuna, he great Indra. Even an infant king must not be despised, [due to the fact] that he is a [mere] mortal; for he is a great deity in human form.

SOURCE 7.18 Excerpt from *Manusmriti* (*Laws of Manu*) (c. 1st century BCE), a book of Ancient Indian law. The laws are believed to have been instituted by Manu, the 'first man' and first king, who is thought to have saved humanity from a Great Flood by building a giant boat in 8000 BCE.

ACTIVITY 5

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. How was the Vedic society governed from 500 BCE?
2. When a king died, how was the next king determined?
3. How did the king obtain resources and wealth?
4. How were the republics governed?
5. How did the rulers of the Mauryan and Gupta empires keep control over their large empires?
6. Why did the laws of Ancient India vary from place to place?
7. How did the priests influence the law?
8. What was the role of the king in maintaining the law?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Read source 7.18. What are the responsibilities of a king, according to source 7.18?
2. What evidence is there in source 7.18 that indicates that the kings of Ancient India were thought to be divine? Quote from the text to support your answer.

Explanation and communication

Discuss with a classmate reasons why or why not the law of Ancient India was fair. Draw up a table to explain your conclusions.

What was everyday life like in Ancient India?

Men

Men had a prominent role in their families. The oldest male in a family was considered the head of the family. He had legal control over everyone else and was also responsible for performing the sacred rituals to honour the ancestors of the family. When he died, the oldest son would take his position. Men were also responsible for ensuring that women were respected and cared for.

Men were able to serve their society at all levels—as priests, kings, warriors, officials, magistrates, merchants and artisans. Those of the Sudra caste were expected to undertake the hard manual labour in Ancient India, building roads, digging wells and constructing houses and forts.

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Women

During the Vedic society period, women were able to own property, inherit property from their parents and generally had the same freedom as men to come and go as they pleased. By the beginning of the Mauryan Empire, however, women's lives had become much more restricted. They had to obey their husbands, could not own property and could not remarry if their husband died. They had to remain indoors and were only allowed out of the house on religious festival days, accompanied by their husbands.

The dutiful high-class woman stayed at home, waiting to welcome her husband's friends with 'flowers, ointment, incense, betel leaves, and betel nut'. She was supposed to obey the orders of her parents-in-law, with whom she had to live, never contradicting them. She was not even allowed to stand at the door, look out the window or run to meet her husband in the street. When her high-class husband died, his wife had to set herself on fire on her husband's funeral pyre. When there was more than one wife, as there often was in upper-caste families, they all had to die.



SOURCE 7.19 Detail from a fresco in the Ajanta Caves (c. 460 CE), showing a man and a woman in repose

The dutiful lower-class village woman was supposed to turn milk into butter, spin and weave yarn to make clothing, make ropes from tree bark, pound and clean the rice, cultivate the fields, fill the granary with rice, purchase cotton, flax and hemp, buy seeds and sell the farm produce, look after the cows and sheep and check the family finances each day.

Women were allowed to own jewellery, so they invested in it as a kind of saving. They wore lots of jewellery, particularly bangles and anklets of gold. The anklets often had little bells that tinkled as they walked. The anklets were sometimes hollow so they could contain pearls or precious stones. Even cowgirls wore 'shining' bracelets, possibly silver rather than gold.

Children

It was considered very important for married couples to have children, as children were expected to support parents in their old age. For this reason especially, boys were preferred over girls, as a girl would leave her family on marriage to live with and care for her in-laws. In addition, the parents of girls were expected to provide a dowry (money or property) to her future husband for her upkeep. Girls spent their childhood learning to cook, sew, weave and clean and were married at around the age of 12–15. Boys tended to be older when they married, especially upper-class boys who could not marry until they had completed their education. A girl was able to choose her husband from a group of suitable men (selected by her father). When the girl had made her choice, the future groom had a garland placed around his neck and the couple were married on the spot.

Only boys from the Brahman, Rajanyas and Vaisyas castes were educated in Ancient India. They were taught to recite the Hindu scriptures in order to learn the dharma, so that they might live a virtuous life and help form a peaceful society as they worked within the confines of their caste and jati. Before beginning their education, the boys underwent a three-day 'rebirthing' ceremony, to signify that their education was a new stage of their life or 'second birth'. The boys then went to live at a

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SOURCE 7.20 Detail from the railing of the Bharhut stupa (c.100 BCE)

gurukula to study with a guru. The boys were expected to serve their guru, learn the scriptures by heart and beg for their food at a nearby village.

The children of farm workers and artisans were not allowed to attend school and were expected to work hard to help their parents. Children under the age of eight could also be sold as slaves if their parents could not afford to keep them.

> In childhood a female must be subject to her father, in youth to her husband, when her husband is dead to her sons; a woman must never be independent ...
>
> She must always be cheerful, clever in [the management of her] household affairs, careful in cleaning her utensils, and economical in spending ...
>
> Though without any virtue, or seeking pleasure [elsewhere], or devoid of good qualities, a husband must be constantly worshipped as a god by a faithful wife.

SOURCE 7.21 Extract from *Manusmriti* (1st century BCE), a book of Ancient Indian law

ACTIVITY 6

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 What was the role of the oldest male in the family?

2 How did women's lives change from the Vedic period to the time of the Mauryan Empire?

3 How was the life of the high-class woman similar to that of the village woman?

4 How was the life of the high-class woman different from that of the village woman?

5 Why did the women of Ancient India wear so much jewellery?

6 Why was it important to have male children in Ancient India?

7 Why did some boys undergo a 'rebirthing' ceremony?

8 What did boys do at a gurukula?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 7.21. What useful information does source 7.21 contain for a historian studying women in Ancient India? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 7.21.

2 What useful information does source 7.21 contain for a historian studying men in Ancient India? Complete a second usefulness analysis for source 7.21.

Empathetic understanding

Your museum contains an animatronic boy and girl from Ancient India. Write a dialogue for the animatronic upper-caste boy and girl, in which they describe and compare their lives.



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Rural and urban life

Life in the country

A young man living in the country in Ancient India could belong to one of three groups. The first two were outside the caste system. He could be a member of a clan who hunted wild animals in the steaming jungles around the Ganges River, or he could belong to a family of pastoralists who wandered the hills and plains of India with their flocks of cattle and sheep. But he was most likely to be a Sudra, one of the 85 per cent of the Ancient Indian population who lived in huts made of mud and sticks topped with grass-thatched roofs, in little walled villages built around a central square with its pond or well and communal building.

Every day, dressed in white, cotton loincloths, the young man and his family would work their small plot of land where they grew crops such as wheat, spices, sugar cane or cotton. The young man might plough his family's land with a wooden plough drawn by oxen, which were also used to pull a little cart to transport the family or their goods. He might be the communal cowherd who drove the villagers' branded cattle, goats, oxen, buffalo and sheep out to pasture every day. He might help his father make jugs and bowls out of clay, baked in heaps of burning leaves, or accompany him to the village council that organised the villagers into groups to roll away stones on local roads, cut down trees or build embankments.

Rare were the days the young countryman could relax, but jugglers, musicians, conjurers and snake-charmers visited the village and there were religious festivals, particularly when the communal building became a temple.

Town life

Towns and cities were divided into districts. The members of a jati all lived and worked on their particular craft in one set district.

Each type of craft had its own **shreni**. A shreni was an organisation of merchants and artisans. There were shreni for polished metal mirrors, delicate ivory work, jewellery and textiles like silk, muslin, linen, wool and cotton. The shreni fixed the hours of work, the training of new artisans and the prices and quality of its products. Each shreni had its own seals and banners that were carried in religious processions. The urban elite (non-Brahman wealthy merchants or independent manufacturers) were the leaders of the shreni.

City life

An Ancient Indian text called the *Kama Sutra* has a vivid description of the life of a **nagaraka** living in a city in the 5th century CE. The young man was instructed to rise before sunrise, 'cleanse his teeth with brushes fashioned out of twigs', perfume himself, 'tint his lips' and sweeten his breath with betel nuts and pomegranate peel. After all that preparation, he set out, but he should make sure he stayed in the shade 'to check perspiration'.

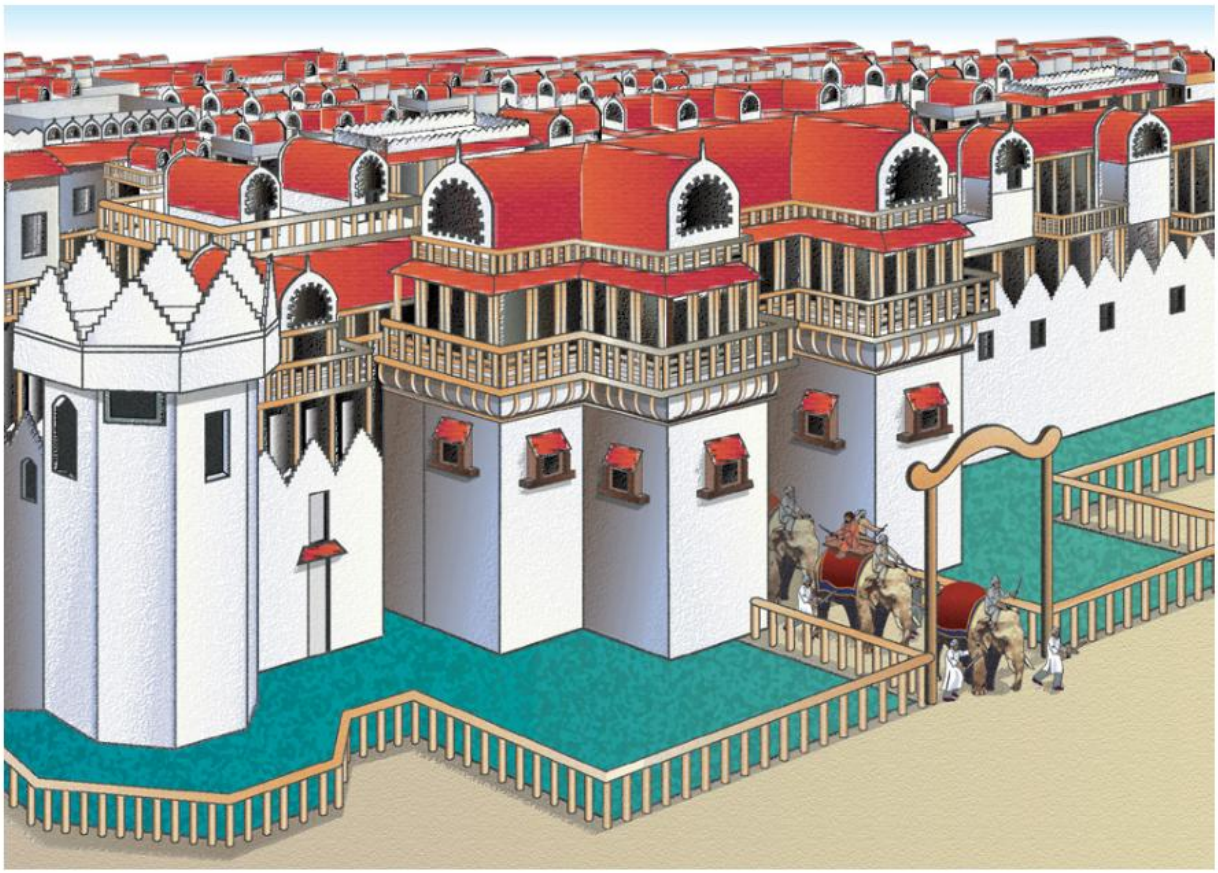
In his bedroom, the young man was supposed to keep a lute hanging on the wall, a painting board and a box of paints, some books and a dice board. There were flowers in the room, seats and a couch to relax on. Outside the room there should be cages with birds and a garden with a swing.

The young man might visit friends to discuss poetry and art or to play games of chaturanga (chess). He might go with his friends to the public gardens to watch cock-fights, quail-fights, ram-fights, dancing, acrobatics and theatre performances. In summer, he could join in water sports in a 'water tank in which there are no noxious creatures like crocodiles'. To be seen as really cultured, he was supposed to be educated in 64 arts and sciences, which included first aid, chemistry, fencing, archery, architecture and swimming.

Wealth in the cities

Once gold, silver, copper and lead coins became common, kings, Brahmans and Kshatriyas (warriors) acquired wealth by investing in trade, industry and banking. When they borrowed money, the Brahmans, because of their special privileges, paid the least amount of interest; in contrast, the Sudras had to pay 15 per cent. The acquisition of wealth was examined critically in the literature of the period.

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SOURCE 7.22 An artist's impression of an Ancient Indian city from the Gupta period

> Wealth is of three kinds: white, spotted and black ...
>
> White wealth is ... what is acquired by ... valour in arms, ... through [instructing] a pupil ... and by inheritance ...
>
> Spotted wealth is ... what is acquired by lending money at interest, ... commerce, ... by artistic performance ...
>
> Black wealth is ... what is acquired as a bribe, by gambling, ... by forgery, by robbery, or by fraud.

SOURCE 7.23 *Naradasmriti* I, 44–48 (200 CE) by Narada, an Indian sage. The *Naradasmriti* is a book of Ancient Indian law (dharma).

ACTIVITY 7

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Draw a diagram to explain what work was available to men living in rural areas of Ancient India.

2 What was a shreni? Give examples of four shreni.

3 What did the shreni control?

4 How did the nagaraka entertain himself at home?

5 How did Brahmans and Khsatriyas become wealthy?

6 What does the system of interest payments show us about the caste system?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 7.23. Draw up a table with three columns. Use each kind of wealth as a heading. Take point-form notes from source 7.23 on each kind of wealth underneath the appropriate headings.

2 What does the writer mean by 'white wealth', 'spotted wealth' and 'black wealth'?

Perspectives and interpretations

Who had the better life—the nagaraka or the country man? Give reasons for your answer.

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Houses

Wealthy citizens built their houses out of brick. Some houses had three or—according to the sources—even seven storeys, with windows and balconies overlooking the street. The wealthy person's house had an internal courtyard surrounded by a verandah with living quarters behind. The walls were whitewashed and sometimes decorated. Some of the houses had bathrooms with running water diverted from streams nearby. The roofs were barrel-shaped, as can be seen in source 7.22.

The poorer citizens lived in one-room houses made of wood, reed or mud-brick. Roofs were thatched or tiled. The floors were made of dried cow dung. They got their water from city wells.

Gardens

The houses of wealthy people in the suburbs had gardens that even had swings under shady trees. They sometimes had pools in which to bathe in summer. There were public gardens for the citizens to stroll in and mango groves outside the city walls.

Palaces had beautiful gardens with tame peacocks, and lotus flowers floated on ponds with fountains. There were pavilions in which to sit and admire the garden. Water channels for watering the garden ran from water tanks to the trees and flowerbeds.

Clothing

The Ancient Indians used a variety of materials for their clothes: muslin, calico, silk, linen, wool and cotton. They did not sew their clothes but used two long strips of cloth to hold them together, one wound around their waist forming a skirt and one over their shoulders. The waist cloth was made fast with a belt and pins. Men wore a long white cloth, called a dhoti, around their legs; in the north, due to the colder climate, they also wore tightly fitting jackets. The Gupta kings sometimes wore trousers. The men wore their hair long and held up by a turban.

Women wore mainly saris and khaddars. A sari is a long piece of colourful silk or cotton cloth that is wrapped around the body. The sari was usually wrapped around the upper and lower parts of the body. In southern India, the sari only covered the lower half of the body and was known as a 'mundum neriyathum'. The khaddar was a coarser cloth made of cotton, silk or wool worn over the shoulder and tied at the waist. Shoes were rarely worn. Red, blue and saffron (dark yellow) were the main colours used. Women often tied their hair into a bun at the back of their necks.



SOURCE 7.24 The Ganges River depicted as a Guptan girl (on the right)

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Both sexes smeared a sandalwood paste over their bodies in hot weather as they thought it cooled the skin. Women used red dye on their lips, the tips of the fingers and toes, the palms of the hands and soles of the feet, and outlined their eyes in black. Married women marked the centre of their forehead above the nose with a red spot (known as a bindi).

Food

India was lucky as it had a warm climate and plentiful rain as well as good river systems. Visitors to India noticed that pears, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes and oranges were grown around the country. The Ancient Indians drank milk and used clarified butter, called ghee, for cooking. They sometimes ate fish, mutton or venison, but they were forbidden to eat beef or pork, among other meats. From the 300s BCE, many people in the upper castes became vegetarian due to the influence of Buddhism and Jainism.

The family and guests ate from one pot. Rice, curries and chapatti (a flat bread) were as popular then as they are now. They ate with their fingers unless one of them was ill, in which case they used copper spoons. They normally drank water or milk, although alcoholic drinks made from rice, sugar, mangoes and grapes were also available.

In addition to cereals, there grows throughout India much millet, which is kept well watered by the profusion of river-streams, and much pulse [legumes such as lentils] of different sorts, and rice also ... as well as many other plants useful for food, of which most grow spontaneously ... since there is a double rainfall in the course of each year... the inhabitants of India almost always gather in two harvests annually ... But, further ... whereas among other nations it is usual, in the contests of war, to ravage the soil, and thus to reduce it to an uncultivated waste, among the Indians, by whom farmers are regarded as a class that is sacred ...[even as the] combatants on either side in waging the conflict make carnage of each other, [they] allow those engaged in farming to remain quite unmolested.

SOURCE 7.25 Excerpt from *Indica* (c. 300 BCE) by Megasthenes, a Greek ambassador from the Seleucid Empire. *Indica* is an account of Megasthenes' travels in India.



SOURCE 7.26 Colourful Indian spices for curries

ACTIVITY 8

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Complete the table below to compare the housing for wealthy and poor people of Ancient India.

	Wealthy	Poor
Number of rooms / storeys		
Housing material		
Roofing material		
Flooring material		
Water source		

2 How did the people of Ancient India hold their clothing material together?

3 What were the main colours used for men and women's clothing?

4 What make-up was worn by women?

5 Why was food abundant in India?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 7.25. Complete the 5Ws (text) for source 7.25.

2 Sometimes historians hold different understandings about the past, based on conflicting historical evidence. This is known as 'historical contestability'. We have to decide which understanding to agree with, based on our knowledge and research. From your knowledge of the caste system of Ancient India, what observation recorded in source 7.25 might be incorrect?

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3 The author of source 7.25 was an eyewitness. Why might his account still be wrong about this aspect of Ancient India?

4 What useful information is contained in source 7.25 for a historian studying food in Ancient India? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 7.25.

Explanation and communication

Using the links provided in your digital support as a guide, design your own Ancient Indian palace garden.

Significant values and practices: warfare

Warfare was an essential aspect of Ancient India. In part, this was a reflection of the importance of dharma. Dharma was more than divine law; it also meant doing battle for your people. When a king inherited the throne, his first action, after a ceremonial meal with his elite troops, was to march out to win glory in warfare. The two great epic stories of Ancient India, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, are full of references to warfare, including military formations, weapons, war elephants and battle tactics. The warrior caste, the Kshatriya, spent their time learning about military tactics and practising for war, allowing the rest of the society to continue 'life-as-normal', regardless of whether there was a war or not.

Ancient Indian armies

Indian armies were divided into four sections: infantry, cavalry, chariots and elephants. The infantry consisted of foot soldiers with swords and spears, and archers with bamboo longbows. It was so hot that the soldiers only wore loincloths. Turbans were worn to protect their heads from arrows. They had a long shield to protect their bodies.

The cavalry were used to break up the ranks of the enemy infantry and to quickly take messages from one part of the army to another. Horsemen were armed with swords and spears and wore breast-plates for protection.

Chariots were reserved for elite warriors. Sometimes made of wood or even of iron, the chariots were drawn by a team of two or four horses and decorated with flags and umbrellas. From his position in the chariot, a warrior was able to speed through his opponents' ranks and attack them with a range of weapons.

War elephants were the fourth section of the Indian army. The army of the first Mauryan emperor, Chandragupta, contained 9000 elephants, in addition to 600 000 foot soldiers and 30 000 cavalry. Elephants were used like



SOURCE 7.27 Wall painting of elephants fighting from the 17th century, Bundi Palace in Rajasthan

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SOURCE 7.28 Relief sculpture depicting a scene from the Mahabharata (5th–7th century CE), in the Kailashnath Temple, part of the Ellora Caves complex, Maharashtra, India

tanks today for battering down wooden gates or piercing them with their tusks. A row of elephants could form a bridge for troops crossing shallow rivers. They also collected wounded soldiers from the battlefield. The problem with using elephants in battle was that when one panicked, it sent the whole herd into a stampede, which meant they trampled all over the foot soldiers they were supposed to protect.

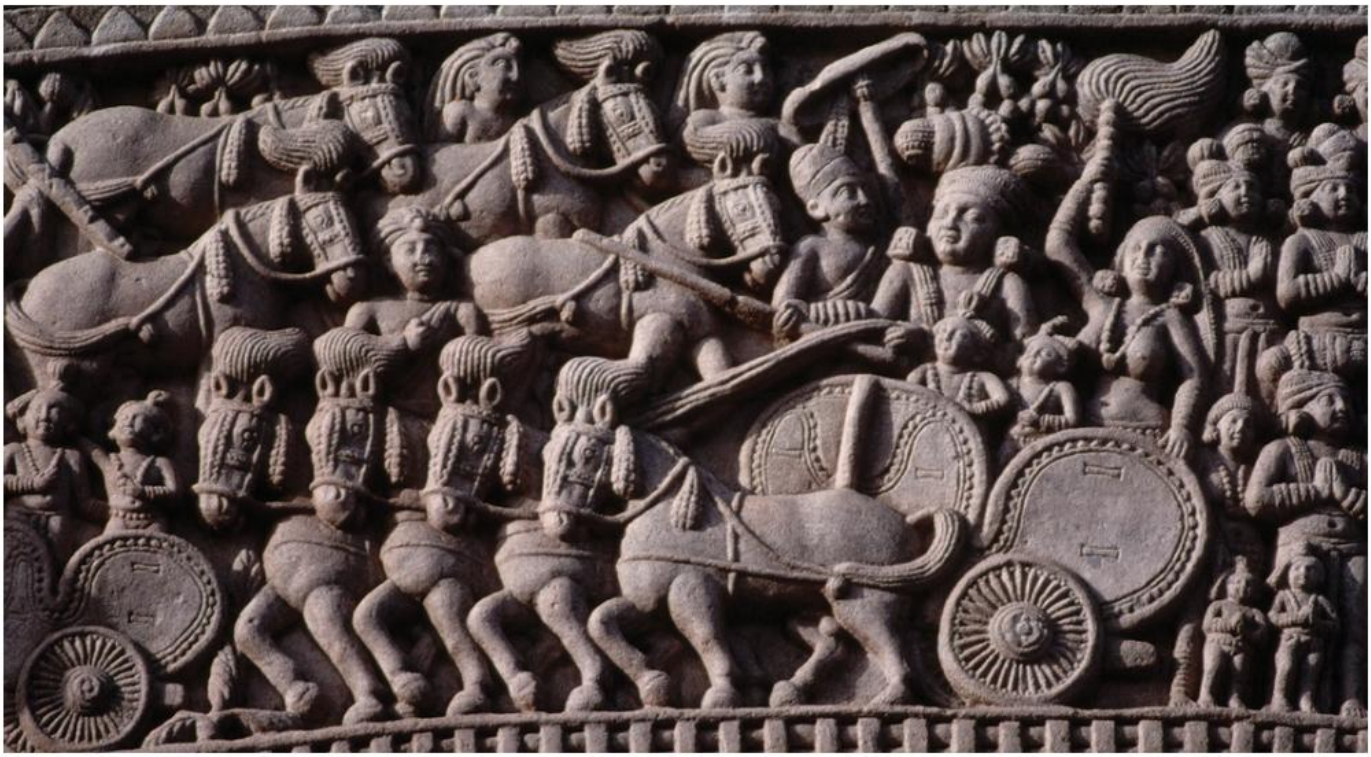
Espionage and assassination

The Ancient Indians were among the first peoples on record to make use of espionage (spying) and **assassination**. Spying helped the emperor find out about disloyal people in his empire and uncover knowledge of possible attacks from invaders. These techniques were used to great effect by the first Mauryan emperor, Chandragupta, and later, by his grandson, Emperor Asoka.

> Assisted by the council of his ministers ... the king shall proceed to create [the following types of] spies: Spies pretending to be a fraudulent disciple, a recluse, a householder, a merchant, an ascetic practising austerities, a class-mate or a colleague, a firebrand, a poisoner, and a mendicant woman ...
>
> A skilful person capable of guessing the minds of others is a fraudulent disciple. Having encouraged such a spy with honour and money rewards, the minister shall tell him 'sworn to the king and myself, you shall inform us of whatever wickedness you find in others'...
>
> A man with shaved head or braided hair and desirous to earn a livelihood is a spy under the guise of an ascetic practicing austerities. Such a spy ... may take his abode in the suburbs of the city and pretend to be a person barely living on a handful of vegetables or meadow grass ... but he may take in secret his favourite food-stuffs.

SOURCE 7.29 Excerpt from *Arthashastra* (4th century BCE), a manual on warcraft and economic policy by Chanakya (350–283 BCE). Chanakya was a teacher and scholar of Emperor Chandragupta's court.

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SOURCE 7.30 Relief sculpture showing cavalry forces (c. 35 BCE), found on the gate of the Great Stupa, Sanchi

Spotlight

India invented an early form of chess for four people, called chaturanga, which was based on the tactics of the Ancient Indian army. In a real battle, the king usually remained at the back of his army, aloof from fighting, working on strategy from the height of the litter on his elephant. He had to stay apart and avoid the fighting for if the king was killed, the whole army was regarded as defeated.

ACTIVITY 9

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How did dharma encourage warfare in Ancient India?
2 What was the function of the warrior caste in Ancient India?
3 What were the four sections of the Ancient Indian army?
4 How were warriors equipped for the hot weather of India?
5 What was the role of the cavalry?
6 How were war elephants used?
7 What war tactics did the Ancient Indians pioneer?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Look at source 7.28. Complete the 5Ws (image) for source 7.28.
2 What weapons, armour and army units are shown in sources 7.28 and 7.30?
3 Read source 7.29. Find meanings for the following words: 'fraudulent', 'recluse', 'ascetic', 'austerities', 'firebrand' and 'mendicant'.
4 What sort of people could be recruited as spies?
5 What does your answer to Question 4 indicate about the extent of Ancient India's spy network?
6 What did a spy pretending to be a fraudulent disciple have to do? Quote evidence from the text in your answer.
7 What food was a spy pretending to be an ascetic allowed to eat? Quote evidence from the text in your answer.

Explanation and communication

Create a presentation to explain the concept of continuity and change, comparing the armies of Ancient India with those of modern Australia.

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What contacts and conflicts did the Ancient Indians have within India and with other societies?

Conflicts with other societies and the consequences

Persian and Greek invaders

India suffered a series of invasions from the 5th century BCE onwards. The first was that of the Persians under King Darius I, who annexed the area north-west of the Indus River from 516 BCE until 334 BCE. Then in 326 BCE, Alexander the Great invaded India, establishing several small Greek states in the Indus Valley. Later, the Greeks formed the Seleucid Empire in western India in 312 BCE. The Seleucid Empire had a great influence on Indian science and art.

Other invaders

Another group of people called the Kushans held Central Asia and north-west India in 30–375 CE. It is due to the contact between the Kushans and the Chinese that Buddhism, which the Kushans, supported, spread to China.

Conflicts within India and the consequences

India was frequently subject to wars and conflicts between various Indian kingdoms as each tried to gain control over others. Often this conflict resulted in the triumph of one kingdom or dynasty, which then established an empire over the others. Although in the short-term, wars within India brought much death and suffering, the establishment of each empire brought peace and prosperity to India, if only for a while.

The Mauryan Empire (322–185 BCE)

The Mauryan Empire was founded by Chandragupta Maurya. After his armies overthrew the Magadha Indian kingdom in eastern India, he expanded his power across central and western India, defeating the Seleucids in 305 BCE. The Mauryan Empire became one of the largest empires of the Ancient World, recognised by the Egyptian and Syrian empires who sent ambassadors to the court of Chandragupta.

The Satavahana Empire (230 BCE–220 CE)

The Satavahana kingdom in southern India declared its independence as the Mauryan Empire began to decline. The empire stretched across the centre of India. The Satavahana Empire oversaw a period of relative peace in India, and the expansion of trade and cultural exchange from the river plains to the peninsula. It also helped to spread northern Indian culture into South-East Asia through trade contacts.

The Gupta Empire (320–550 CE)

The period of the Gupta Empire is known as the Golden Age of India. It was a time of peace during which science, literature and art flourished. The Mahabharata and the Ramayana are thought to have been written during the Gupta period. The empire gradually declined after the invasion of the Huns from Central Asia in the 500s CE.

SOURCE 7.31
A Guptan sculpture of the Buddha



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Trade contacts with other societies

From the 1st century BCE, the south-west monsoon brought Egyptian, Greek, Arabian and Roman merchants to coastal Indian towns. They came in ships laden with linen, wine, glass, pottery, copper, tin, lead and gold and silver coins. Roman coins dating from the 3rd century BCE to the 5th century BCE have been found on both coasts of the Indian peninsula and on ancient trade routes that ran between the coasts. The foreign merchants waited in India for the north-east monsoon to blow them back home in ships packed with pepper, cloves, ivory, perfume, cotton, silk, diamonds, gold and pearls.

There were even Greek and Roman trading posts, such as Arikamedu along the southern coastline. In the time of Roman Emperor Augustus (27 BCE–14 CE), as many as 120 ships sailed from the Red Sea to India every year. Indian traders from at least the 2nd century CE used the monsoonal winds of the Bay of Bengal to carry Roman goods and Indian ceramics and gems to South-East Asia. The ships returned to India with spices, which were then sold to Roman merchants at a good profit.

A terrifying journey to Vietnam

India also enjoyed trade with Vietnam. Travelling between India and southern Vietnam in the 5th century CE was a terrifying experience for an Indian merchant. There were no compasses, no lights on the boat, no radar and no lighthouses on land. After sailing across the Bay of Bengal and down the Strait of Malacca, the sailors and merchants had to wait for the south-west monsoon wind to carry their ship to southern Vietnam.

In Vietnam

At the **Mekong Delta** ports, an Indian merchant would hire a local flat-bottomed boat to take himself and his wares up the great canal through dense mangrove swamps full of crocodiles, snakes and wild pigs. Beyond the mangrove swamps were bamboo thickets and reeds where rhinoceros, wild water buffalo and tigers lurked. There were no roads. He found that the 'streets' of the main city, Oc Eo, were canals bordered by strange houses perched on top of stilts. He still had to travel everywhere by boat to sell his precious goods.

Indian merchants had to stay for months in Oc Eo, waiting for the monsoonal winds to take them back home. Together with their vases and jewellery, merchants brought knowledge of new manufacturing techniques, as well as different religious beliefs. Thus the merchant, talking to people while he sold his wares or buying products to take back to India, played an important role in spreading Indian culture throughout South-East Asia. Through trade, Hinduism, military ideas and Sanskrit language spread from India to Thailand, Cambodia and Indonesia.



SOURCE 7.32
A wooden boat being built in the same style as the earlier boats that travelled the Indian Ocean in the 5th century CE

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SOURCE 7.33 Lakshmi, the Indian goddess of wealth. This statue was found buried under the ashes of Pompeii in Italy (the city was buried in 79 CE).

> [There are mountains of salt] in India, where it is cut out like blocks from a quarry and is continually reproduced, [giving more money] to the sovereigns of the country than they [get] from gold and pearls. Among the people of India as high a value is set upon coral as in our part of the world is set upon Indian pearls ... Their soothsayers and prophets regard coral as the most sacred of amulets ensuring protection against all dangers, so highly do they value it both as an ornament and an object of devotion ... It is not long since indicum [a plant made into a blue-purple dye] began to be imported, its price being 17 denarii [silver coins] per pound ... The East too, sends us crystals, there being none preferred to the Indian kind.

SOURCE 7.34 Excerpt from *Natural History* (77–79 CE) by Pliny the Elder, a Roman historian and scientist. *Natural History* is an encyclopaedia of the natural world.

ACTIVITY 10

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. What societies invaded Ancient India?
2. How did these invading cultures influence Indian and Asian culture?
3. What were the causes of conflict within India?
4. What were the long-term consequences (effects) of conflict within India?
5. Download a blank map of the world. Draw lines between India and other countries mentioned in the text to indicate the trade to and from Ancient India. Include the goods traded between the various societies on your map.
6. What were the effects of trade between India and South-East Asia?

Analysis and use of sources

1. Look at source 7.33. What does the finding of source 7.33 in Pompeii, Italy indicate about contact between Ancient Rome and Ancient India?
2. Read source 7.34. How is source 7.34 useful to a historian studying trade between Ancient Rome and Ancient India? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 7.34.

Empathetic understanding

Imagine you are an Indian merchant trading in Oc Eo. Write a diary entry explaining your experience travelling to, trading and living in Oc Eo.

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What was the role of Emperor Ashoka in Ancient India?

Ashoka (268–233 BCE) was one of the greatest emperors in the history of India. He came to the throne in 268 BCE as the ruler of the Mauryan Empire, the largest empire India had ever known, stretching from the Ganges Delta across to Afghanistan in the west.

The conquest of Kalinga

In 261 BCE, Ashoka defeated the last large independent Indian kingdom, Kalinga. While walking through the streets of Kalinga after his conquest, rejoicing in his victory, Ashoka was struck by thousands of dead bodies strewn about him. His conquest had come at a terrible human cost: 100 000 people killed, almost as many wounded and 150 000 taken prisoner and enslaved.

Ashoka's remorse over the misery he had caused by his conquest of Kalinga, together with a meeting with a Buddhist monk in the same year, changed him from a typical emperor concerned with extending his empire by force of arms into an extraordinary and very different ruler.

Buddhism as the state religion

Ashoka's conversion to Buddhism led him to make Buddhism the state religion of his Empire in 260 BCE. He also did away with the idea that he was divine, and instead pioneered a 'Buddhist' model of rule. According to this model, Ashoka's right to be emperor was based on his promotion of Buddhism to his subjects, his moral example to his subjects and his personal devotion to Buddhism. Ashoka funded the building of many **stupas** and supported the establishment of Buddhist monasteries throughout the empire. He also sent missionaries to the great ancient centres of Sri Lanka, Syria, Egypt and Greece.

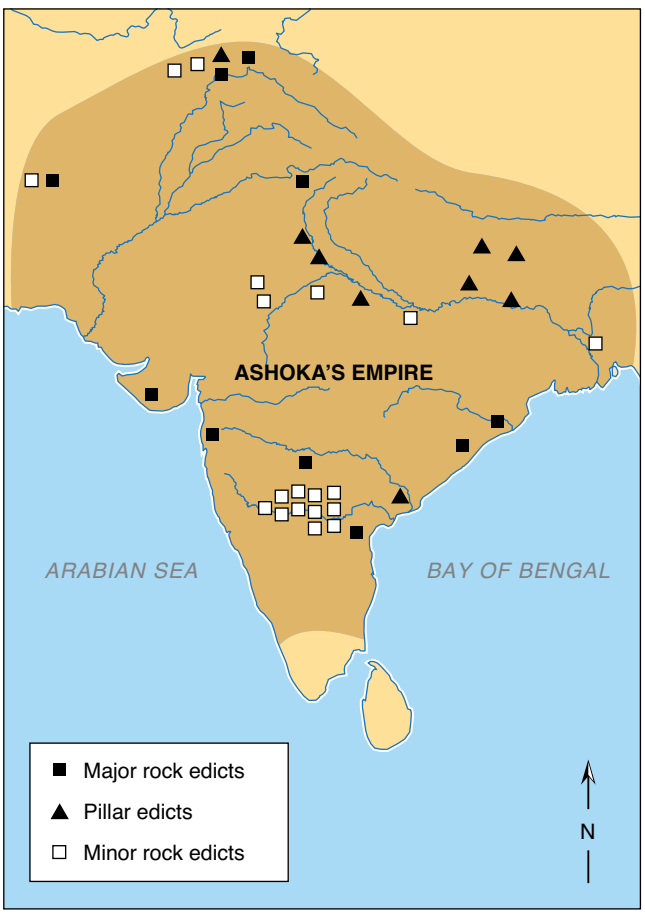
Dharma

Dharma (sacred law) was an important concept in Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism. Ashoka felt that the promotion of the concept of dharma would help to unify his empire.

Ashoka's rock and pillar edicts

Some of the main objects that have survived from Ashoka's time are his rocks and pillars. The rocks and pillars contain inscriptions (edicts) that explain Ashoka's ideas of dharma and tell his subjects how to live a moral life. Archaeologists have found about 60 of these inscriptions so far. The inscriptions were written in the language of the local people of Ashoka's empire, mainly Sanskrit and Magadhi (a language once spoken in north India and Nepal). There are even inscriptions in Greek and Aramaic (an ancient Canaanite language) in the north-west of India.

The rock and pillar edicts were set up all over India, including one in Kandahar in Afghanistan, which is how we know Ashoka's empire stretched that far.



SOURCE 7.35 Location of Ashoka's rock and pillar edicts, Maurya Empire

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It is good not to kill living beings, it is good not only to spend little, but to own the minimum of property.

Third Major Rock Edict

The Beloved of the Gods [Emperor Ashoka] believes that one who does wrong should be forgiven as far as it is possible to forgive him.

Thirteenth Major Rock Edict

Thus speaks the Beloved of the Gods, [Emperor Ashoka]: When I had been consecrated for twenty-six years I forbade the killing of the following species of animals: the parrot ... the wild duck ... the goose ... the raven and the common crow ... the she-goat ... the sheep and the sow ... The same being alive shall not be injured: whether because of their uselessness or for the sake of amusement, they shall not be injured ... Chaff which contains living things must not be set on fire. Forests must not be burned in order to kill living things or without any good reason.

Fifth Pillar Edict

On the roads I have had banyan trees planted, which will give shade to beasts and men, I have had mango-groves planted and I have had wells dug and rest houses built ... And I have had many watering places made everywhere for the use of beasts and men ... These and many other chief officers are busy with the distribution of charity both on my behalf and on that of my queens ... Thus the glory of Dharma will increase throughout the world, and it will be endorsed in the form of mercy, charity, truthfulness, purity, gentleness, and virtue.

Seventh Pillar Edict

SOURCE 7.36 Ashoka rock and pillar edicts



SOURCE 7.37 A woman reading one of Ashoka's rock inscriptions

Spotlight

This is the top of the famous sandstone Sarnath pillar, placed by Ashoka at Sarnath, near the place where the Buddha preached his first sermon. The four lions with open mouths face the four quarters of the world. The four lions are used on the state seal of India today and the wheel underneath the lions (the Ashoka Chakra) represents Ashoka as a Chakravatin, or 'ruler who rules ethically and benevolently'. Today, the Ashoka Chakra is found at the centre of the Indian flag.



SOURCE 7.38 The capital of the Sarnath Ashoka pillar (c. 250 BCE). The artisan is unknown.

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ACTIVITY 11

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 Over which empire did Ashoka rule?
2 How did Ashoka feel after his victory at Kalinga?
3 How did Buddhism influence Ashoka's rule?
4 How did Ashoka try to unite his multi-religious and multicultural empire?
5 What is the significance of Ashoka's rock and pillar edicts?

Analysis and use of sources

1 Read source 7.36. How is it useful to a historian studying Ashoka's reign? Complete a usefulness analysis for source 7.36.
2 Create a mind map of the main points Ashoka makes in his inscriptions (source 7.36) for your museum scrapbook.
3 Look at source 7.38. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for source 7.38.

Research

Find and review a secondary source (website or textbook) about Ashoka. How is the source you have found useful to a historian studying Ashoka?

Explanation and communication

1 Using sources 7.36 and 7.38 and the text, write a paragraph to describe Ashoka's attitude to animals.
2 Create a mind map to explain how Ashoka was a significant individual.

Site study: The Sanchi Stupa

Material remains of Ashoka's empire

We do not have many buildings left from Ashoka's time as they were made of wood. His palace was admired as being full of beautiful polished wooden columns. His capital city, Pataliputra, was fortified but the walls were made of wood. All that remains from Ashoka's time and from the following 150-year period are the inscriptions on pillars and rocks, and his stupas.

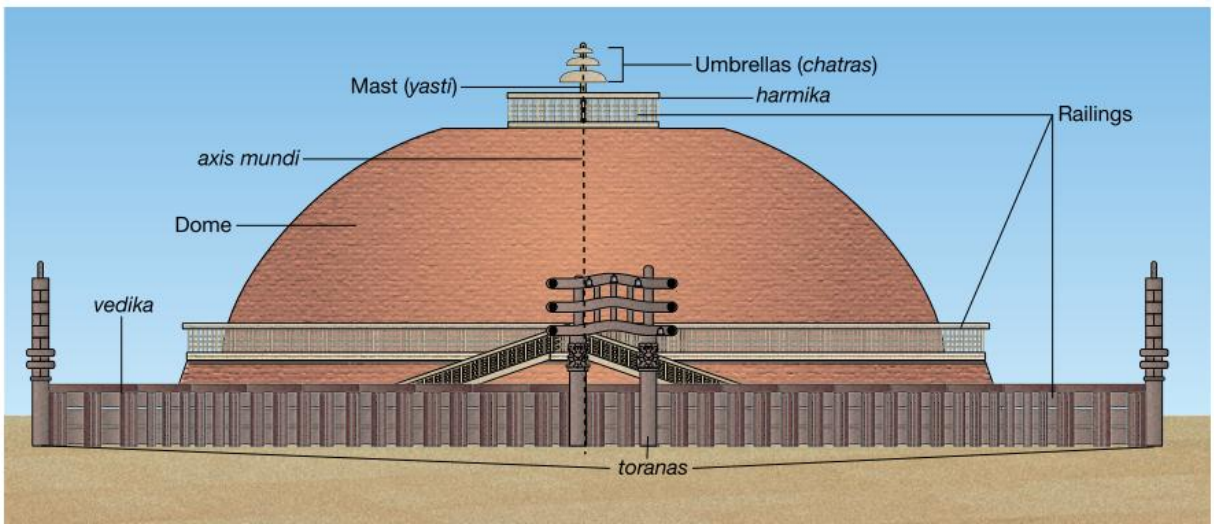
Stupas

Originally, stupas were burial mounds covering the relics of the Buddha and his devout followers.

Inside the stupa were relics of the Buddha and his followers in a jewelled casket. People could honour the Buddha's memory by walking around the circular path outside the stupa and meditating.

Following his conversion to Buddhism, Ashoka had the original burial-mound stupas opened. The remains of the Buddha and his devout followers were distributed to the thousands of new stone stupas he built all over India.

The new stupas came to include the following important structures: toranas (gateways), vedicas (fenced enclosures), a harmika (a square platform on top of the stupa), an anda (dome), chatras (umbrellas) and a mehdi (a path around the stupa). The placement of the dome and the gates is perfectly aligned with the four positions of the compass, with the umbrellas lining up with the 'axis mundi' (centre of the world).



SOURCE 7.39 Diagram of a stupa

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SOURCE 7.40 The Great Stupa at Sanchi (c. 250 BCE–400 CE)

The Great Stupa at Sanchi

The Great Stupa at Sanchi is one of the oldest stone structures in India. Ashoka ordered its construction to honour the Buddha in c. 250 BCE. The original building work was overseen by Ashoka's first (main) wife, Empress Samragyi Vidisha Devi. Although Sanchi is not an important site in the life of the Buddha, Ashoka felt it was a good location for stupas and Buddhist monasteries, as it was a small, quiet village where monks would be able to practise their meditation. In addition, it was close to the thriving city of Vidisha, where monks could go to beg for food. Sanchi was also the site of Ashoka and Samragyi's wedding.



SOURCE 7.41
Detail of northern torana, Great Stupa at Sanchi (c. 35 BCE). The Buddha is represented by the bodhi tree (centre of the top panel).

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Ashoka built a total of eight stupas at Sanchi, including the Great Stupa. Shortly after his death, however, the Great Stupa was badly damaged, possibly by a later Mauryan emperor, Pushyamitra Sunga (185–149 BCE). In c. 145 BCE, it was completely rebuilt to almost double its original size and encased in stone. The four toranas were added during the Satavahana period in c. 35 BCE. Four stone images of the Buddha were placed on the walls of the Great Stupa in c. 400 CE.

ACTIVITY 12

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1. Why does Ashoka's palace no longer remain?
2. From what type of structures did stupas originate?
3. What do Buddhists do at a stupa?
4. Where did Ashoka get the relics for his stupas?
5. Why was the Great Stupa built at Sanchi?
6. What additions were made to the Great Stupa after Asoka's death?

Research





1. Go online to research the Great Stupa.
2. Find an image of the Great Stupa and label its features, using source 7.39 and the text as a guide. Paste your diagram into your museum scrapbook.

Explanation and communication

Create a brochure for a modern-day tourist of the Great Stupa. Explain what there is to see and the historical significance of Great Stupa. Illustrate your brochure with suitable images.

What legacy did Ancient India leave to modern life?

Eight years after Attila led the Huns into northern Italy to attack the Roman Empire, the Guptas were defending northern India from attacks by the Hunas, or white Huns. The Huns destroyed the land routes from India to the Middle East, wrecked the Buddhist centres of learning, and demolished the trading centres and cities in north India. India was again a place of little kingdoms and short-lived empires battling each other.

Ancient India had influenced both the East and the West. South-East Asia has been the most affected by Ancient Indian culture. Wherever Indian merchants, Brahmans and Buddhist missionaries went, they took their religion, ideas, art and architecture. The envoys and Buddhist missionaries were most successful in Sri Lanka, whose king converted to Buddhism. From there, Buddhism spread to South-East Asia. It is due to Ashoka especially that Buddhism, instead of being just another Indian cult, became a world religion. Buddhism was taken by monks and merchants along the silk trade routes into Tibet, China, Korea and Japan. Buddhist monks travelled from China and South-East Asia to study at the great Indian Buddhist monastery of Nalanda. Ancient Indian epics were translated into the local languages and Indian craftsmen brought religious artistic motifs to South-East Asia.

South-East Asia was also influenced by Hinduism. These beliefs could alternate depending on the ruler, so a state with Hindu gods could become Buddhist with the next ruler, and the other way round. Even today, people on the little island of Bali to the north of Australia worship Hindu gods such as Shiva. On the island of Java in Indonesia, the Sailandra kings supported Buddhism. In the early 9th century CE, they built one of the most stunning Indian-inspired buildings in the world, the Great Stupa of Borobudur.

To both East and West, Ancient India gave practical gifts: rice, sugar cane, cotton and spices. There were also important contributions of military and mathematical significance. The game of chess, derived from the Indian game chaturanga, made an art of military strategy. India also pioneered the use of elephants in warfare, a practice that would be employed for centuries on the battlefields of South-East Asia and throughout much of the Ancient Period in the Mediterranean. The so-called 'Arabic' numbers we use today originally came from India. The Arabs, who traded with the Indians in western India, acknowledged the source, calling the numbers *Hindisat* or 'the Indian art'. As well as numbers, Indian mathematicians created the concept of zero, the decimal system, algebra, calculus and

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SOURCE 7.42 The Great Stupa of Borobudur, Indonesia

trigonometry, and discussed the implications of infinity, ideas that have profoundly shaped the modern world.

ACTIVITY 13

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

1 How has Ancient India influenced Asia?
2 What trade products were developed in Ancient India?
3 How has Ancient India affected the practice of warfare over the centuries?
4 How has Ancient India affected mathematics?

Research

1 Who was Brahmagupta? Devise five questions to find out more about Brahmagupta. Write up your research and create a museum display about him and his claim to fame for your museum.



2 Find two primary source artefacts that represent legacies of Ancient India. Complete the 5Ws (artefact) for your chosen artefacts. Include your artefacts and a brief description (based on the 5Ws) for your museum.



Explanation and communication

Create a prezi, poster or slideshow titled *The Legacy of Ancient India* for your museum. Include primary sources from Ancient India and the modern world to illustrate continuity between the past and the present (i.e. how Ancient India has contributed to the modern world.)

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History challenges

Creating an exhibit

Create five exhibits for the Asian World gallery on the following themes for Ancient India:

1. physical features
2. daily life
3. contact and conflict with other countries
4. a significant individual
5. the legacy of its society.

Digging deeper

1. Imagine you are an archaeologist trying to find the site of the Battle of Kalinga. Write a diary about your excavation and the evidence that you find there to prove that the battle did happen and that there were links between Ashoka and Buddhism. Add your diary to your museum scrapbook.
2. There are lots of Hindu temples in Australia. Try to visit one and see if you can take photographs. They might even let you create a video in your role as a reporter. For temples in Australia go to your digital support.
3. The Gupta Emperor Samudragupta (c. 335–375 CE) scratched praise about himself on one of Ashoka's columns. Create a debate between Samudragupta and Ashoka in which they each discuss their achievements and who most deserves to have an inscription on a column. Imagine you are the judge of the debate. Write a report in which you comment on each of the two speeches from your present-day perspective.

Be creative

Select a topic from Ancient Indian history or literature. It could be Ancient Indian warfare, an Indian fable, or one of the stories at the Hindu Kids' site such as the most famous one, the *Ramayana*.

Go to your digital support for weblinks on Indian fables, plus the Ramayana, plus stories from the longest epic in the world, the Mahabharata.

You could create plasticine models and film them as a claymation, create a shadow-puppet play, devise a computer game, or write a storybook on your chosen topic.

Bollywood film festival

Look at a Bollywood film such as *Bride and Prejudice* for ideas on Indian dress, dance and music. Choose a topic such as a day in the life of an Ancient Indian town, Indian warfare, Samudragupta, a merchant's adventures or any other ideas from the text, and create a Bollywood film. You should include some Indian dancing, Indian music and Indian food. If each class member prepares a film, you could have a Bollywood film festival!



SOURCE 7.43 Bollywood actors dancing

Go to your digital support for multiple-choice questions for this chapter and an interactive crossword.

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Glossary

absolute dating a general term used to describe a variety of techniques used to determine an approximate date of an artefact or site by comparing the properties of an artefact with material of a known age

Acropolis the rock of the city, the high point for the sacred buildings in Athens

agora marketplace

agriculture growing crops and raising domesticated animals so the products can be consumed by people

ahimsa a Buddhist and Jain belief in non-violence towards living creatures

Akhet the period of inundation

All-Under-Heaven an expression meaning 'the known world', in this case, China

amphitheatre a circular building, like a football stadium, for gladiatorial fights and chariot races

ankh symbol of life

ankhet that which gives life; in other words, grain (an *ankh* is the symbol of life)

appease to make someone (who can be frightening or dangerous when angry) happy, usually by giving in to their demands

aqueducts water carried in a channel on arches (literally, 'water carriers')

archaeologist a person who studies the material remains of the past (such as artefacts, monuments and human remains)

archive a place where original records are kept, usually in the order in which they were made

arena the flat central area in an amphitheatre where the gladiatorial fights took place

artefact a material object made by humans in the past that can be used by historians and archaeologists as a source

asceticism the rejection of material wealth and worldly pleasures in order to achieve spiritual enlightenment

assassination the killing of a prominent person, such as a leader or politician

Assyria a Mesopotamian kingdom that flourished c. 2400–605 BCE

atrium the entrance hall of a wealthy Ancient Roman's house

augurs religious officials who foretold events by watching for certain signs; for example, the flight of birds

auroch the biological ancestor of modern cattle; they were nearly 2 metres at the point where their neck met their back, and had large curved horns

ba the personality of a person

basilica a law court building

bibliography an alphabetical list of sources used in research

Book of the Dead papyrus scroll buried with the dead giving instructions on how to pass the terrors of the underworld and face trial in the Hall of Judgement

Bronze Age a period of history between the Stone Age and the Iron Age (roughly 3750–600 BCE), characterised by the use of copper and bronze. Bronze is an alloy of copper and tin

Buddhism the religion/philosophy started by Siddhartha Gautama in India about 2500 years ago

bureaucracy centralised government by a group of officials

canopic jars four jars placed in the tomb that contained the liver, lungs, stomach and intestines from a mummy

caste a social order or group that people are born into and remain in for the rest of their lives

catapulta a catapult or machine for hurling darts and light spears

cataract a large waterfall

cause and effect how events or decisions in the past produce a range of actions and consequences later on

cavalry soldiers who fight on horseback

chamber pot a pot kept in the bedroom for urinating into

chariot a wheeled vehicle, typically pulled by two horses, though four were sometimes used, that could hold between one and four soldiers

civil service the centralised administrative system for running government. In theory, everyone could sit an exam to join the civil service and therefore advance in society.

cloaca great drains for stormwater and sewage that ran under Ancient Rome into the Tiber River

colonisation the process whereby a society establishes a new settlement in an area away from their homeland; sometimes this new area is vacant, other times it is already inhabited by others

Colosseum the huge circular stadium started by Vespasian and opened by his son Titus

Confucius an Ancient Chinese philosopher (551–479 BCE) who developed Confucianism, a philosophy that argues that humans are basically good and are able to improve and perfect themselves; it also states that all people have a role in the social order and should respect their social betters

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conservation the process of preserving something in its existing state, restoring it to its original state, or adapting it to a new use to ensure that future generations benefit from its ongoing existence

consul the highest position in the state, held by two elected officials—before the emperors, the consuls commanded the army, summoned assemblies and assigned punishments

continuity and change the way in which some aspects of a society, such as religion, government or military technology, stay the same over a period of time (continuity), while other aspects change

crucifixion to be executed by being tied or nailed to a cross (a punishment for non-citizens)

cursus honorum the 'course of honour' or the steps a young man had to take in a political career

Daoism a philosophy that sought a more natural and harmonious way for people to live their lives. It took much of its inspiration from observations of the natural world

democracy a system of government by and for the people; individuals own houses and businesses

dendrochronology tree-ring dating, a method of telling the age of wood

dharma righteousness; belief in gentleness, charity and concern for all living creatures. The form of the same word is used in Hinduism and Buddhism. It means 'sacred law' in Hinduism and 'doctrine' in Buddhism

domestication taming a wild plant or animal so that it is useful to humans

Dorian peplos a loose robe worn by women in Ancient Greece

dormant inactive, sleeping

dowry property or money brought to a marriage by the bride, paid by her father

Duat the underworld

dynasty a succession of rulers from the same family that stays in power for several generations

Ekklesia assembly

empathetic understanding understanding another person's actions, attitudes and reasoning

emperor the leader of an empire, an area that includes an emperor's own kingdom and land conquered from others

enlightenment to have a deep spiritual understanding of the meaning of life

ephors the five elected leaders of Sparta

equestrian a person belonging to the Roman 'equites' class (or middle class)

Etruria an area in northern Italy with city-states inhabited by people called Etruscans

evidence information found within a source that proves or disproves something

excavate to dig a hole in the ground to remove physical remains from an archaeological site

fertility cult a religious belief or activities designed to increase the chances of pregnancy and safe births (the focus of a fertility cult could be humans or domesticated animals)

First Emperor Qin Shi Huangdi (259–210 BCE), who united previously warring kingdoms and made important reforms, but was considered very power-hungry and cruel

Forum the great central square in a Roman city, comprised of religious, legal and political buildings and often used as a marketplace

frieze a band of decoration along a wall

gerousia an elected group of judges who decided criminals' punishments in Sparta

gladiator a man who fought against other men or animals in ancient Roman amphitheatres (the name comes from *gladius*, the short sword with which he and the common Roman legionary fought)

Great Wall a series of defensive walls built in the north and north-west of Ancient China to keep nomadic warriors from invading

guerrilla using sabotage and harassment rather than open warfare to fight an enemy

Hellas Greece

helots slaves of Sparta

heritage all things that we have inherited from previous generations that we value from the past, including events, traditions, influences, places and experiences

hierarchy an arrangement of social layers where those at the top have more wealth and power than those at the bottom

hieroglyphics Ancient Egyptian writing in the form of pictures or symbols

historian a person who studies the past by examining written and non-written evidence

historical contestability when historians disagree over the interpretation of an event or issue in the past.

Homo sapiens sapiens the species of human beings that evolved in Africa c.135 000 years ago; we belong to this species

hubris excessive pride

hunter-gatherers people who find food by hunting for animals and gathering fruit, berries, seeds and other edible parts of plants

impluvium a basin for collecting rainwater in the atrium

Indo-Aryans settlers from the Iranian region who became members of the upper classes in India

inscriptions writing or drawings carved into stone

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inundation annual flood in Egypt that brought soil to fertilise the fields as well as water

Ionian chiton a straight, long tunic

Judaism the religion of the Jewish people that emerged in modern-day Israel more than 3000 years ago

ka life-force, the exact double of the deceased that accompanied the heart to the trial in the underworld

Kemet 'Black Land', the Ancient Egyptians' name for their country

King Tutankhamun the boy pharaoh who ruled Egypt c.1332–23 BCE

krypteia secret police of Sparta greater

Latium area where the Latin people lived

Legalism a philosophy that sought to control people with rules and laws; its starting point was that people were naturally bad

legionary a highly trained foot soldier in the Roman army

levee a small ridge of mud built alongside a river to prevent the river from overflowing

maat the idea of order, justice and stability

Magna Graecia greater Greece, the area of southern Italy and Sicily that had been colonised by Greek settlers from the 8th century BCE onwards

malachite a green stone ground to a fine powder and used to make green paint; also worn as jewellery

Mandate of Heaven the idea that kings have the right to rule so long as they treat their subjects fairly and justly. If a king treats his subjects cruelly then he loses Heaven's mandate and a new king replaces him.

Mekong Delta triangular-shaped land at the end of the Mekong River, which runs through south Vietnam

merchant a person who makes a living by buying and selling goods

Mesopotamia an ancient region of south-western Asia (in present-day Iraq)

metallurgy using metal to make tools and other objects

metics freed slaves or non-Athenian citizens living in Athens. Metics were not allowed to participate in the political life of Athens.

midden an ancient rubbish heap, most often containing the remains of food (such as bones and shells)

mind map a diagrammatic form of note-taking

mosaic a floor or wall made from thousands of little tiles

mummification various treatments given to a body after death to preserve it for as long as possible

myth a story about gods and/or heroes not based on any fact; the word 'legend' is used for stories like the Trojan War, which may have some historical basis

nagaraka wealthy, educated and intelligent man-about-town

natron a type of salt found in dried lake beds

Near East the part of the world that includes modern-day Egypt, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and Syria

nemesis/Nemesis punishment of those who have offended the gods by doing wrong; also a goddess

nirvana the Buddhist conception of the afterlife; it can only be achieved after experiencing Enlightenment

obsidian a black, glassy rock that can be chipped into very fine, sharp points

oracle a priest or priestess through whom the gods speak

oral tradition poems, hymns, sayings and stories that are handed down from one generation to the next by word of mouth because most people in the society don't read or write

Paleolithic a period when modern humans and human ancestors used stone tools, from 2.6 million to 10 000 BCE

pa-per-aa 'the material of the pharaoh', the Ancient Egyptian word for paper; our word 'paper' comes from it

papyrus name for an early form of paper, but also the reed from which it comes. It was also eaten and used for roofing, sandals, baskets and boats

Parthenon the temple to Athena in Athens

patricians the old wealthy families of Ancient Rome

Peret the season when the crops began to grow

perioikoi non-citizens of Sparta, who worked as merchants, farmers and artisans

perspective point of view, or a particular way of thinking about an issue

phalanx soldiers attacking in a tight formation

pharaoh Egyptian ruler

philosophy system of thought or belief

plebeians working class and poor people, also called the *proletarii*

plumbed piped (the Romans used pipes made of lead—*plumbum* meant lead)

point-form notes really brief notes in point form, not in sentences

polis (poleis) city-state(s)

prehistory the period of human history before the invention of writing in c. 3500 BCE

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primary sources sources, such as diaries, letters, photographs or music, created during the time period being studied

primates the order of animals that includes lemurs, monkeys, gorillas, chimpanzees, orangutans and human beings

Pythia a woman through whom the gods were supposed to speak

radiocarbon dating a method of estimating the age of an object by measuring the amount of carbon-14, a chemical, left in remains such as wood, bone, charcoal or fossils

rajah (or raja) Indian king, prince, chief

regent a queen who rules on behalf of her son or nephew, who is pharaoh, but is still a child, until he is old enough to rule in his own right

reincarnation the belief that after we die we will be reborn, although not necessarily in human form—a person's spirit could come back in the form of an animal

relative dating a general term used to describe a variety of techniques, such as location and type, to determine the relative order of past events

republic a state in which power is held by the people and their elected representatives

Rigveda an ancient collection of sacred hymns, dating from the 2nd millennium BCE

Sanskrit an Ancient Indian language

sarcophagus a stone coffin

scribes people in a society whose job it was to write official records, laws, business transactions and any other type of document that was required; in Ancient Egypt, scribes were a special class as they were the only people who could read, add up and write

secondary sources sources such as encyclopedia entries, textbooks or television documentaries, produced after the time period that is being studied

selective breeding allowing only certain animals with desirable characteristics to breed

Senate governing body made up of 300 wealthy land-owning nobles who ruled Ancient Rome before the emperors

sestertii small Roman coins, made of silver during the Republican period and of brass during the Imperial period.

Shemu harvest time

shreni an organisation of merchants and artisans that controlled prices, artisan training and quality for a particular product

significant the importance of an event or person

Silk Road a series of trade routes that connected Ancient China with India and the Mediterranean world. It was not only goods such as Chinese silks and Persian rugs that were exchanged but also ideas such as Buddhism that found their way into China via this route

socialism a system in which the community, rather than individuals, owns and controls land and industries; the government is generally run by a small group of politicians on behalf of the community

Sopdet the star Sirius, which rose several days before the River Nile began to rise in the south of Egypt

sources written and non-written items that provide information about the past

spartiates the nobles of Sparta

spelt a type of grain; an ancient species of wheat

strata layers found beneath the surface of the ground in rock or earth

stupa a dome-shaped Buddhist shrine made of brick

subcontinent a large landmass that is smaller than a continent

Sumer a Mesopotamian kingdom that flourished in c. 4000–2270 BCE and 2100–2000 BCE

symposium in Ancient Greece, a banquet (the word now means a meeting to discuss ideas)

testudo a shelter created using a tortoise formation to protect soldiers' heads while attacking

theatre in Ancient Greece, the 'viewing place' or place where plays are performed

threshing breaking the inedible husk, or outer shell, away from a seed

topic sentence the first sentence of a paragraph that says what the subject of the paragraph is going to be

tragedies serious plays dealing with important religious ideas

triumph a military parade through the streets of Ancient Rome for a successful general

varna the four classes of men

Warring States Period covers a period from about 475 BCE to 221 BCE. It was a period during which regional warlords annexed smaller states surrounding their territory.

Western world countries such as Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the United States and many in Europe that share a culture based on democracy and Christianity

winnowing separating seeds from their husks

World Heritage site a site of natural or cultural importance, listed by the UNESCO

wreath a headband made from leaves and flowers

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